© CELEBRATING 70 YEARS OF WORKING TOWARDS HEALTH, PEACE AND SOCIAL JUSTICE

(Este libro reproduce fielmente el archivo proporcionado por los autores)

© 2014, ArCiBel Editores S.L.
www.arcibel.es
editorial@arcibel.es

Imprime: Publidisa
Depósito Legal: SE 1889-2014

«Cualquier forma de reproducción, distribución, comunicación pública o transformación de esta obra solo puede ser realizada con la autorización de sus titulares, salvo excepción prevista por la ley. Diríjase a CEDRO (Centro Español de Derechos Reprográficos) si necesita fotocopiar o escanear algún fragmento de esta obra (www.conlicencia.com; 91 702 19 70 / 93 272 04 47)»
CELEBRATING 70 YEARS OF WORKING TOWARDS
HEALTH, PEACE AND SOCIAL JUSTICE

International Council of Psychologists
Proceedings 2011-12
Washington (USA) & Seville (SPAIN)

Ana Guil
Anna Laura Comunian
Anne O’Roark
(Eds.)

ArCiBel Editores
Introduction ........................................................................................................................................9-15

Washington Conference:
INTEGRATION OF HEALTH AND MENTAL HEALTH IN THE CONTEXT OF CULTURE: PROVIDING COMPREHENSIVE SERVICES IN PARTNERSHIP WITH ALLIED PROFESSIONALS

Resilience and Moral Judgment Development. An empirical study. Anna Laura Comunian.........................19-31
Post Separation Conflicts which affect Contact for an Alienated Parent. Ludwig F. Lowenstein..................33-63
Post-Global Psychology emphasizes Interdisciplinary Cooperation. Ann M. O’Roark.................................65-79
The Mobile Phone: a report of the use of cellular phone by children and teenagers. Livia Gaddi and Oriola Ndreu...........81-91
Successful Global Leaders. La cultura importa. Elisa Margaona.............................................................107-123
One Context, two Sexes and three Genders: discursive positioning of Brazilian trans-prisoners in Italian jails. Alexander Hochdorn, Paolo F. Cottone, Brigido V. Camargo and Bruna Berri.................................125-139
Understanding the Terrorists’ Mind. Sarlito Wirawan Sarwono.............................................................141-163
The Sound of Silent Skills: how to recognize and define tacit knowledge. Giuseppe Paxia..............................165-177
The Paradigms of a Constructed Reality: an overview of bullying through the Italian newspapers media. Eleonora Bordon and Mariselda Tessarolo.........................179-200
Slow Movement and Ecofeminism. Ana Guil, Manuel Cruz and Sara Vera..................................................201-213
World of Warcraft Gamers: behavior addiction and consequences. Roswith Roth and Ulrike Pichler............215-233
Seville Conference:
CELEBRATING 70 YEARS OF WORKING
TOWARDS HEALTH, PEACE AND SOCIAL JUSTICE

Personal Happiness (symptoms, causes, and treatment based on recent research). Ludwig F. Lowenstein...........237-255
Positive Psychology. Indices of resilience in assessing personality. Anna Laura Comunian..............................257-266
Psychological Intervention to facilitate the Move to a Nursing Home. Roswith Roth and Claudia Feichtenhofe.........................................................267-278
Assessment on Aging: what social perception do men and women have about older people? Alfonso Javier García González........................................279-285
Cooperative Learning in Elderly University: strategies for implementation in social context of justice. Alfonso J. García Yolanda Troyano..........................287-301
Effect of Stress Inoculation Training on Perceived Stress in Different Identity Styles. Mojgan Nicknam Islamic and Abbas Ali Allahyari.........................................................303-317
Social Justice According to Peacekeepers. Eleonora Bordon and Mariselda Tessarolo.........................................................319-329
Environmental Education Centre & Farm School: learning how to value nature. Concepción Garrido, María Luisa Moreno and Pedro Garrido.........................................................331-338

Women Psychologists Pioneers

Facing a conflictive world in 1941. Elisa Margaona........351-367
Recovering Women in the History of Psychology as a Teaching Practice. Silvia García Dauder..........................369-382
Psychology of Women within the Spanish Academic Environment, History and nowadays. Concepción Fernández Villanueva.........................................................383-397
The Voice of Women Psychologists. Ana Guil..........................399-407

6
**Immigration**

Immigrant Organizations. Ann M. O’Roark..........................411-417
Human Trafficking and Human Consequences. Maria Consuelo Barreda-Hanson.................................419-471
Gender Differences on Lifestyles and Health in Spanish and Immigrant Adolescents. Manuela A. Fernández-Borrero, Pilar Ramos-Valverde, Carmen Moreno-Rodríguez, Antonia Jiménez-Iglesias and I García-Moya.................................................................473-490
Strategies of Acculturation versus Interethnic In-groups Bias and Socio-school Adjustment in Multicultural Contexts. Rocío Guil Bozal, José Miguel Mestre Navas and Paloma Gil-Olarte Márquez.................................................................491-502

**ICP Publications**........................................................................505-507
INTRODUCTION MESSAGE

Psychology Enters a Global, Interdisciplinary Era
ICP, Inc. Opens Full Membership to Allied Discipline Colleagues

Ann Marie O’Roark, Ph.D., ABAP
St. Augustine, Florida USA

With pleasure, I express appreciations to Ana Guil, Anna Laura Comunian and Manuel Cruz Forte for the publication of these proceedings from years I served as ICP president. Following in the footsteps of Rosewith Roth, Sherri McCarthy, Edith Grotberg, Uwe Gielen, Chok Hiew, Noach Milgram, Naty Dayan, David Ho, Anna Laura Comunian and Leonore Adler, this proceedings collection, the 16th proceedings book, extends ICP, Inc.’s tradition and adds a new dimension: some words are in Spanish. ICP proceedings books are being digitized for electronic access by American Psychological Association’s PsychEXTRA [http://psycextra.apa.org], which links clinicians, librarians, consumers, policy-makers and researchers to a variety of databases: psychology, behavioral science, and health. This link with interdisciplinary groups is especially appropriate as ICP, Inc. formally opened full membership to professionals from allied disciplines in 2011 at the 69th annual conference.

Conscilience and Nexalism are watchwords of a fresh era in science. These harbingers of the incoming wave forming across the 21st century horizon mean, respectively, a synthesis of all ways of knowing and a structured, deliberate, interdisciplinary science. Both concepts are compatible with core values promulgated by ICP, Inc. since it was formed in 1941 as The National Council of
Women Psychologists. Known today as ICP, Inc., the association remains a comparatively small band of psychological generalists representing multiple countries and multiple specializations in psychology. Talented and determined leaders frequently introduced initiatives to promote international - interpersonal engagement with knowledge based - science in meaningful ways. The earliest being in the interests of children and women.

The first full Allied Discipline Members of the ICP, Inc., were welcomed at the 69th annual meeting of the Council in Washington DC. under the theme of “Integration of Health and Mental Health in the Context of Culture. Providing Comprehensive Services in Partnership with Allied Professionals.” While ICP, Inc. may be among the first wave of professional associations opening membership to colleagues in disciplines with similar value for and dedication to human wellness and health especially of those groups underserved, the evidence of a new awareness of integrated knowledge is being included in professional conferences, sparking fresh interest in collaborative projects. For example, the 2012 APA President highlighted women working on interdisciplinary research teams.

“To advance psychology and the application of its scientific findings throughout the world.” is the vision of founding members of ICP. Their vision, creative energy, and passion for the discipline of psychology was framed in a global, international context and centered on establishing an association of academically and technically trained colleagues with a shared purpose. They were among the very first to realize the importance of establishing a validated knowledge base about healthy human behavior and responsible methods of applying psychological knowledge for the betterment of individuals, groups, and societies.

ICP stands tall as a model for ways to be a psychologist-activist, promoting constructive ways of gaining knowledge and providing psychology where needed. The following time line shows the various ways ICP has given professional life to psychological values and principles:
- Inclusive membership The first inclusion of psychologists from another country – Canadian women psychologists

- Liaison collaborations. Supported founding member Doris Twitchell Allen’s Summer Villages and School to School experiences for bringing together children from different countries to advance international awareness and understanding, and, in that process, initiated the first

- Supported research on women /under represented populations Established a Committee on Research into Concerns about Special Interests of Women

- 1958. Inclusive membership expansion. Enlarged membership criteria to include psychologists with membership in the International Union of Psychological Science (IUPsyS)

- Focused mission on professional, psychological values and objectives Stated the purpose of the association – “to advance psychology and the applications of its scientific findings throughout the world..” and incorporated the association to preserve the non-profit, educational purposes and activities.

- Published papers presented by ICP at their annual programs co-sponsored with several APA divisions: International Understanding.

- Expanded inclusiveness to include Affiliate Members who are professionals in professions with shared interest in mental health, international and individual well being.

- Initiated periodic organization of psychological scientific programs in countries where psychologists seldom have opportunities to come together to share research and ideas, or to meet and hear psychologists from other parts of the world.

- Enlarged membership access to include students preparing to enter the profession of psychology.
- In a liaison relationship with the International School Psychology Association, established SHARE, an information data base for psychologists traveling into a foreign country to be able to contact colleague psychologists living and working in that place who were interested in meeting psychologists from abroad and could assist with lodging needs.

- Enlarged membership access to include students preparing to enter the profession of psychology.

- In a liaison relationship with the International School Psychology Association, established SHARE, an information data base for psychologists traveling into a foreign country to be able to contact colleague psychologists living and working in that place who were interested in meeting psychologists from abroad and could assist with lodging needs.

- ICP Board of Directors prepared and submitted the Council’s policy statements to IUPsyS for discussion and publication. This policy document addressed Human Rights and Universality of Science.

- ICP Board of Directors approved statements prepared by the Council’s Committee on Human Rights to send to several national governments about psychologists being held as political prisoners.

- ICP was accepted as one of the first three associations representing mental health and human well being to serve in consultative status with the United Nations as Non-Governmental Organization’s Economic and Social Council and the Department of Information. ICP members serve as UN NGO Representatives in New York, Geneva, and Vienna. They provide psychological information to several committees, for example, Women, Aging, Children.
- ICP became approved to present continuing education programs for psychologists by the American Psychological Association.

- ICP establishes the first of five awards to recognize outstanding work in the field of international psychology and research in or by under-recognized psychologists:
  - Distinguished Service and Outstanding Contributions
  - Lifetime Contribution to Research on Women’s Issues
  - Early Career Research
  - InAbsentia Student Research Poster Presentation at ICP Conferences
  - Latino Student Paper Presentation at ICP Conferences

Professional activism is not passive, nor aggressive behavior, but creative development of projects that contribute to the educational needs of psychology students in universities around the world and to help educate and train psychologists in the discipline, or to protect psychologists who suffer persecutions from government. Examples include: collection of psychological journals and books for universities in developing nations or without resources to accumulate reference materials for their students; payment by individual ICP members of sponsor dues for psychologists interested in joining ICP from currency blocked nations; and publication of proceedings books.

ICP’s determination has been to be a person-to-person, inclusive association working in concert with professional codes of ethics of international scientific associations. ICP’s role as “incubator” for psychologists emerging into the profession or the international community is unique. Moreover, ICP’s contributions to innovations and creative initiatives that enrich the community of international psychological associations has earned the small band respect from the larger associations.
Interdisciplinary programs sometimes arise from a shared conviction that the traditional disciplines are unable or unwilling to address an important problem. For example, social science disciplines such as anthropology and sociology paid little attention to the social analysis of technology throughout most of the twentieth century. Sustainable Development, as a research area, deals with problems requiring analysis and synthesis across economic, social and environmental spheres. Some institutions of higher education offer accredited degree programs in Interdisciplinary Studies. Norfolk State University, an historically black institution located in Norfolk, VA, is one such example of this.

At another level interdisciplinary is seen as a remedy to the harmful effects of excessive specialization. However, interdisciplinary collaboration is indebted to those who specialize in one field of study and provide leading experts with whom to consult. Both disciplinarians and interdisciplinarians may be seen in complementary relation to one another. Cognitive science, particularly relevant for psychologists, both clinicians and researchers, consists of multiple research disciplines, including psychology, artificial intelligence, philosophy, neuroscience, linguistics, anthropology, sociology, and education. It spans many levels of analysis, from low-level learning and decision mechanisms to high-level logic and planning; from neural circuitry to modular brain organization.

As ICP, Inc. welcomes members and conference participants from allied disciplines, we can look forward to intriguing new presentations at the conferences and in future proceedings books. The 69th-70th proceedings book presents a range of psychology topics clearly indicative of the interdisciplinary reality. DC proceedings chapters discuss mobile phones, ecofeminism, warcraft games. Sevilla conference offers reports about moving to nursing homes, social justice, valuing nature, wars and conflicts, organizations impact on communities abroad, school adjustment. All involving information and data from disciplines beyond psychology: sociology, social work, legal functions, technical equipment and economics. Diversity in concepts and training for
psychology are not new to ICP, Inc. From early on the determination of who was academically prepared to call themselves a psychologist and eligible for membership challenged association Membership Chairs and Committees. Now formal licensures and certificates are finally being prepared and authorized to identify equivalencies in professional backgrounds. The future will be challenging and ICP members will find ways to again introduce innovations.

With appreciation to those who submitted chapters for these Proceedings and to ICP for opportunities for insight, learning, and face to face collaborations that otherwise could not have been part of my career and life, it is my honor to commend this diverse, unique collection for your reading,
Washington Conference:

INTEGRATION OF HEALTH AND MENTAL HEALTH IN THE CONTEXT OF CULTURE: PROVIDING COMPREHENSIVE SERVICES IN PARTNERSHIP WITH ALLIED PROFESSION
Resilience and Moral Judgment Development
An empirical study

Anna Laura Comunian
Department of General Psychology
University of Padua Italy
annalaura.comunian@unipd.it
http://dpg.psy.unipd.it/docenti.php

Introduction
As a concept “resilience” steams from the Latin word *resilio*, meaning ‘to jump back’ (Klein, Nicholls & Thomalla, 2003). Most of the literature, however, states that the study of resilience evolved from the disciplines of psychology and psychiatry in the 1940s. The pioneers in the study of resilience were interested in analyzing risks and the negative effects of adverse life events, such as divorce and traumatic stressors (abuse, neglect and war, for example) on children and it was first introduced into the psychological literature as ‘resilience’, ‘stress-resistance’ and ‘invulnerability’. Of the three constructs, resilience has become one of the most disputed (Garmezy, 1983; Quinton, Rutter, & Gulliver, 1990; Werner & Smith, 1982). Since then, the term has become widely known and used. However decades later, the concept is still debated about and little empirical knowledge has been amassed (Boyden & Mann, 2005; McCubbin, Thompson, Thompson, & Fromer, 1998; Sonn & Fisher, 1998; Wolkow & Ferguson, 2001). The more general definition of resilience which is often used in the literature, touches on an individual’s adaptation or competence despite adversities (Grotberg, 2003; Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

Research on resilience provided characteristics that helped identify what was effective in dealing with adversities (Werner & Smith, 1982; Garmezy, 1974; Rutter, 1979; Grotberg, 2000). A person is transformed by adversity as the person draws on his/her resilience.
Perhaps the most important assumption is that resilience influences people’s behavior and lives in relatively stable, predictable and meaningful ways. The study of positive outcomes, referred to as resilience (Garmezy, 1981; Egeland, Sroufe & Erickson, 1983; Rutter, 1985; Cowen & Work, 1988) has just started to capture interest in research and application fields.

A clear-cut taxonomy, as well as measurement instruments for studying the construct is, however, still lacking. While several scales have been developed, they have not gained wide acceptance and no one scale has established primacy. Research over the last years has demonstrated that resilience is a multidimensional characteristic that varies with context, time, age, gender, and cultural origin, as well as within an individual subjected to different life circumstances (Garmezy, 1985; Garmezy & Rutter, 1985; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Werner & Smith, 1992). One theory for this variability was developed by Richardson and colleagues, who proposed a particular resiliency model (Richardson, Neiger, Jensen & Kumpfer K, 1990; Richardson, 2002). Accordingly, the definitions of resilience vary in different studies (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000), which makes the concept of resilience quite problematic. One viewpoint is to consider resilience as a disposition, including such aspects as persistence to continue trying even when faced with difficult tasks, recovery from disappointments and failures, as well as tolerance of frustration (Carr & Claxton, 2002; Claxton, 2002). Resilience reflects a dynamic confluence of factors that promote positive adaptation despite exposure to adverse experiences.

In recent years, increasing attention has been drawn to the potential role of that genetics and neurobiology may play in determining resilience (Kim-Cohen & Gold, 2009). Starting from the concept of bio-psycho-spiritual balance (“homeostasis”), Connor-Davidson (2003) consider as resilience the positive action of body, mind, and spirit to current life circumstances. Resilience is defined as a measure of stress coping ability and, as such, could be an important target of treatment in anxiety, depression, and stress reactions. Resilience embodies the personal qualities that enable one to thrive
in the face of adversity. Internal and external stressors are ever-present and one’s ability to cope with these events is influenced by both successful and unsuccessful adaptations. On the base of this assumption Connor-Davidson developed a resilience scale: the Connor-Davidson Resilience scale (CD-RISC), a brief self-rated assessment to help quantify resilience and as a clinical measure to assess treatment response.

In this study we focused on a new resilience scale based on the Connor-Davidson construct and the links between moral development and resilience were examined. We grounded our hypothesis in past research (Comunian, 2005; 2007), which has consistently shown moral development to be linked to resilience. We examined resilience dimensions and moral development stages and some links between the construct of moral development stage and of resilience dimensions were expected.

Method

Instruments

Padua Moral Judgment Development Scale. The Padua Moral Judgment Scale (PMJS Comunian, 2004) was constructed on the base of the 4 stages definition and on the seven socio-moral values as defined by Gibbs (Gibbs, et al., 1992). In cognitive structural theory, moral development involves a construction of progressively mature moral meaning. Kohlberg contended that the process of constructing meaning is an identifiable cross-culturally standard sequence of six stages of moral judgment development, and maturity (Kohlberg, 1976, 1984). Each new stage is an elaboration of the previous one and this fixes the sequence of six stages. Kohlberg strongly implied that maturity in moral judgment is most properly defined by the post-conventional level (his stages 5 and 6). Gibbs, et al. (1992) argued that the post-conventional or so-called “principled” level should not be regarded as the exclusive definition of maturity in moral judgment or even as a part of a standard sequence of stages. Gibbs regarded Stages 3 and 4 as already representing mature moral reasoning.
Padua Moral Judgment Scale (PMJS) has 28 items grouped into four parts, each composed of seven items in a closed answer format. Each of the seven items represents a stage or mixed stage of the development of moral judgment. Under each group of seven items, there are 2 questions with open answers, through which the subject is invited to indicate the number of the item he agrees with most and the number of the item he agrees with least, among the seven preceding items. For each item, participants responded to a 4-point frequency scale which anchors of 1: not at all, to 4: very much. Instructions were read: “Please read the statements below and express how much you agree or disagree with each one on the basis of your experience and beliefs”. Some samples of the items are the following: “You keep promises to friends because otherwise you may lose them” (Stage 1); “You help your parents because children must do what their parents tell them” (Stage 1/2); “You do not take other people’s things because if you steal from others, they may steal from you” (Stage 2); “You tell the truth because otherwise you might regret it and feel bad” (Stage 2/3); ”You keep promises to friends because friendship ought to be sincere” (Stage 3); ”You abide by the law because laws promote harmony and justice” (Stage 3/4); and “You tell the truth because it is a principle which governs relationships between people in society” (Stage 4).

**Padua Resilience Scale.** The Padua Resilience Scale (PRS, Comunian, 2009) was developed as a brief self-rated assessment to help quantify resilience dimensions and as a measure to assess resilience response. The content of the scale was drawn from a number of sources (Connor-Davidson, 2003). The following features were drawn from: a) Rutter’s work (1985): action orientation, strong self-esteem/ confidence, adaptability when coping with change, taking on responsibilities for dealing with stress;b) Kobasa’s work(1979), the construct of hardiness (items reflecting control, commitment, and change viewed as challenge); c) Lyons’ work (1991), items assessing patience and the ability to endure stress or pain were included; d) finally, the role of faith and a belief in benevolent intervention were likely important factors suggesting a spiritual component to resilience.
The Padua Resilience Scale is a self-report instrument which uses a four-point rating scale; 25 items, all of which carry a 5-point range of responses, as follows: not true at all (1), sometimes true (2), often true (3), and true nearly all of the time (4). The total score ranges from 0–100, with higher scores reflecting greater resilience. Exploratory factor analysis was used to examine the underlying dimensions of the total 25-item scale of resilience. The factor analysis was conducted with a five-factor solution, which explained 43.31 percent of the total variance. Factor analysis was interpreted to be appropriate to the data.

The first factor, called *Tenacity*, referred to personal competence and high standard achievement and potential for future success (var. % 11.42). The second factor, labelled *Faith*, included the statements referring spiritual believes (var. % 10.94) The third called *Stress Resistance* (var. % 7.12) reflected tolerance of negative affect, and strengthening effects of stress optimistic view of that thing. The fourth factor, called *Engagement* (var. % 7.12) was related to self control and involvement. The fifth factor defined *Balance-flexibility* (var. % 5.93) was related to positive acceptance of the change, secure relationships. However the resilience scale has not yet been submitted to a confirmatory factor analysis, which represents a stronger test of the scale’s factor structure.

Some example of the items is: “I am able to adapt to change”, “Not easily discouraged by failure”, “I can handle unpleasant feelings” Sometimes fate or God can help”, “I work to attain y goals”, “Past success gives confidence for new challenge” “I can achieve my goals”.

The alpha coefficient of each rating scale was from $\alpha .78$ to $\alpha .80$. Test -retest reliability

For each subscale was from $r = .67$ to $r=.78$ (p<.001).

**Participants**

A sample of 70 subjects completed Padua Resilience Scale and Padua Moral Judgment Scale. The sample consisted of 54% female and 46% males, whose ages ranged from 20 to 26 years.

(M=23.6 SD=6.07): the majority of the respondents (87%) were university students. The participants were given the instrument materials. They completed them individually, and returned them to an assistant when finished.

Procedure
All statistics were conducted using SPSS 17.0 statistical package for Windows. The statistical technique adopted was hierarchical cluster analysis (a holistic approach that generate different clusters (or profiles) representing meaningful patterns regarding the variables in combination (HCA Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984). No standard interpretative procedure exists for determining how many clusters to retain from the clustering procedure. A balance must be found between maximizing interpretability with a reasonable number of clusters and minimizing the distance between adjacent clusters in the agglomeration process. In this case, PRS dimensions and PMJDS stages were variables considered for this procedure. A hierarchical Regression analysis with Stages as predictors and resilience dimensions as dependent variables was further applied.

Results
The presentation of the results will focus on the links established among resilience dimensions and moral reasoning stages. We examined the relations of resilience dimensions: Tenancy, Involvement, Resistance, Equilibrium, Faith and Stages 1, 2, 3 and 4 of moral judgment development as emerged from PRS and PMDS previous factor analysis (Comunian, 2009; 2004).

A hierarchical regression analysis was also examined.

Cluster Analysis
Cluster Analysis is an important component of statistical methods that help provide an understanding of the complexities of relationships. Clustering fills an important void in linear statistical methods, which cannot account for subsamples or the natural clusters that occur in data.
In this study the data for each dimension and each stage of the two respective measures were submitted to an agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis using Ward’s method, which is based on squared Euclidian distances. Before performing the cluster analysis, the clustering variables were standardized. To determine the optimal number of clusters, we examined the dentrogram in order to locate large increases in rescaled distances that would indicate good clustering solutions. For the number of clusters immediately preceding the increase the outcome showed that a four-cluster solution provided an adequate fit with the data. The solution also appeared interpretable and the reasonable number in each cluster allowed group comparison in the clustering variables.

Figure 1. Hierarchical Cluster Analysis of Resilience Dimensions and Moral Development Stages

Dendrogram Using Average Linkage (Between Groups)-Rescaled Distance Cluster Combine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C A S E</th>
<th>Label</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>25</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+--------+--------+--------+--------+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenancy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>+----+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>+      +-----------------+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resistance</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>----+    +--+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equilibrium</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-----------------------+  +-----------------------+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faith</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>---------------+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>---------------+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>---------------+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>---------------+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-------------------+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The cluster analysis yielded two very clear clusters, containing each resilience factors and moral development stages (Figure 1). When the number of clusters was increased stepwise from one to

four, it was found that the first two major clusters were present: one characterized by resilience variables and the second by stages of moral judgment development.

The first Major Cluster divided into sub-clusters the resilience variables as follows: the first characterized by Tenancy, Involvement and Stress Resistance, the second sub-cluster was characterized by Equilibrium and Faith, connected also with Involvement and Stress Resistance. The four Stages of moral development were the variables of the second Major Cluster, divided also into two sub-clusters: the first characterized by the connection of Stages 2, 4 and 3, the second by Stage 1 with Stages 3 and 4. Both sub-clusters are representing the sequence of moral development stages. The connection of the two Major Clusters is established by Stage 4 and Equilibrium at greater distance.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis
A Hierarchical Regression Analysis with stages 1 to 4 as predictors and resilience dimensions as dependent variables was carried out. Only tenacity dimension presented a significant level in relation to Stage 4 of moral judgment development: $R^2 (32\%)$ F (4.32) = 3.74 p<.003.

The results of the Cluster Analysis and of the Regression Analysis suggest that the experience of resilience is broadly connected with moral judgment development, particularly among Stage development, Equilibrium, Stress Resistance and Involvement. In this study resilience was expected to be linked with higher stages of moral judgment development. Our hypotheses were supported.

Conclusion
In this study resilience dimensions and moral judgment development stages were examined in a Cluster analysis: PRS dimensions and PMJD stages were considered as clustering variables. The variables resulted distributed in two Major Clusters and four other respective Sub-clusters. Altogether the findings of the study indicate that the resilience components are related to moral development stages, supporting previous results (Comunian, 2007).
There are at least three important limitations in the current study. The first limitation is that the index of moral development in these studies did not tap other aspects of moral functioning such as moral emotions, resilient behaviors. The procedure involved not only self-report questionnaires; which do not tap all relevant aspects of resilience. The second limitation is that the subjects of this research were also fairly homogeneous – generally well-functioning university students, middle-class, predominantly from Northern Italy. Therefore heterogeneous, cross-cultural larger sample sizes should preferably be used in future studies. The third limitation is that although Cluster analysis, yielding meaningful profiles, is a highly interpretative statistical technique that frequently generates some cluster with small numbers, suggesting caution in interpreting the results. Clustering studies may be able to reveal more general groupings in samples that vary in nationality, ethnicity, and residence, as well as methods and measures. Recent advances have improved clustering methods and have added and refined methods for determining an appropriate number of clusters and interpreting cluster solutions. These advancements, along with improved measures of cross-cultural comparisons, should enhance the role of clustering methods also in research on resilience.

Future research should also be broadened to include data from other counties in order to assess the different aspects of the concept of resilience. Resilience may influence many important developmental aspects of life. Further studies employing longitudinal designs are warranted.

References


Dealing with Parental Post-Separation Conflicts

Let us consider the effect on children as well as adults of the increasing prevalence of divorce and separation between adults with children. The first objective will be to consider how to prevent conflicts between previously close adults followed by positive aspects of mediation as well as at times some of the negative repercussions of mediation. Further discussed will be mediation as an alternative to litigation and also the use of education and counselling to deal with post-divorce problems.

Each year, 50% of all marriages now end in divorce and 1 million children are exposed to a divorced family in the United States alone (Taylor, 2005). Among the methods of resolving some of the issues that develop as a result of such separation and divorce, we will consider mediation between the parents. Unfortunately many adults do not believe in, or trust the process of mediation when it is ordered. Children and adolescents coming from families with high levels of marital conflicts display a variety of difficulties. Much depends on the intensity of the problems between the adults. Such problems certainly effect the self-esteem of both children and adolescents. In many cases in later life both children and adolescents develop more fearful attachment styles in comparison to those coming from families of low marital conflict (Sirvanli-Ozen, 2004). It is frequently necessary to involve psychological treatment in high conflict divorce (Boyan & Termini, 2005).
**Preventing Conflicts if Possible**

There has been relatively little research in how to prevent problems between warring adults which in turn is a way of preventing children from suffering from this conflict. Children are totally involved when marriage breaks up and conflicts arise. It has been felt by numerous investigators that children should be included in the mediation process (Moloney & McIntosh, 2004; Mackinnon et al., 2004; Louw & Scherrer, 2004). Such preventive approaches do much to reduce the negative outcomes experienced by children of divorce (Haine et al., 2003). If at all possible a different kind of family life in which quality of relationship is the key factor needs to be established (Walker, 2003). In this way parents can institute more protective behaviour that may enhance children’s short and long-term adjustment (Kelly & Emery, 2003). Rye et al., (2004) emphasise the importance of promoting forgiveness of an ex-spouse in post-divorce adjustment. This is likely to reduce the level of depression, anger and other negative emotions that frequently result from relationships breaking up.

**Positive Aspects of Mediation**

We will now consider some of the positive as well as negative aspects of mediation. Therapeutic divorce mediation is one of the several interventions that hold promise for assisting highly conflicted parents to resolve disputes about their children (Smyth & Moloney, 2003). During the mediation process it is vital to introduce an intense child focus in order to reduce the conflicts between parents by asking them to consider what is most important i.e. the child and his/her future (Kelly, 2003a). It is always important to emphasise that is should not be a question of who wins and loses the arguments but what is the common purpose of both parents (McKnight & Erickson, 2004).

It has been well known that divorce puts the emotional, economic and educational well-being of thousands of children in danger every year. The levels of conflict between parents is a key factor in how well the children overcome the challenges that divorce creates.
Courts today, seek to involve both parents in a child’s life rather than having to choose between them. Mediation and education have replaced to some degree the courtroom as the primary forum for resolving parental disputes. Unfortunately, mediators as will be seen later and Courts of Justice do not always work together effectively.

Since April 2001 the Children & Family Court Advisory Support Service (CAFCASS) became responsible for family court work including the provision of mediation services. Family court mediation offers a gateway for social work with children and families whose needs are largely left untouched by current services. Such an organisation could thereby play an important role within the broader extension of prevention by a process of early intervention. Parenting and support services have for some time been recommended by the Government of the United Kingdom. Over the past decades, mediation has become a popular approach to reducing conflict and resolving disputes (Mantle & Critchley, 2004), but not when the hostility between the parents is pathological.

Following such mediation after divorce there are many legal consequences. Among them is the regulation of the relationship between parents and children in as far as how it relates to contact with children (Kraljic, 2005). Contact with children is often the central problem of divorcing parents. Instead of maintaining genuine relations with their children, they may abuse them for their own purposes, including practising parental alienation. Mediation should help parents and children realise that parenting does not end with divorce.

It is also very important to involve the children at some point in time in the process of mediation (Schoffer, 2005). One must listen to the child but one must also listen to the ‘secret voice’ that does not always speak within the child due to the fact that what the child states may not be in his/her best interest and is often based on prejudice, bias and a process of alienation (Lowenstein, 2005a-j). The alienation process occurs over time between divorced parents who experienced severe or pathological parental conflicts.
Post Separation Conflicts which affect Contact for an Alienated Parent. Ludwig F. Lowenstein

Psychologists, psychiatrists, and psychotherapists working as parent co-ordinators have found the work extremely challenging since parents take stands that go counter to one another, especially in high conflict divorce (Boyan & Termini, 2005).

Mediation as an Alternative to Litigation
There has been in practice the view based on the importance of mediation rather than litigation. This however, is not always feasible since parents, through the mediation process, hope to gain what they believe to be their own right. Mediators can only do so much to seek the co-operation of parents who may be extremely distant or opposite in their viewpoints. In the end they will require the court to support their efforts (Lowenstein, 2005a-j). As an alternative to litigation mediation has been used to resolve conflicts in a co-operative manner to reflect the best interests of all the parties. This is easier said than done as already mentioned (Bartholomae et al., 2003; Bailey & Robbins, 2005). Parents will always seek to get the mediator to take sides. When the mediator resists this, one or both parents will turn against the mediator.

Another reason for relying heavily on mediation processes is that family disputes are the bane of overburdened court systems, especially in child access issues, and consume a disproportionate share of court resources. Consequently, family mediation has become a viable method of helping to resolve disputes and mental health professionals are increasingly called upon to mediate child access and support disagreements (Ortega et al., 2004). As already mentioned children have a need to be involved in this process but in the most sensitive way possible.

This is because mediation, at least in a large part, must be child focused. Hence, while children should be consulted when decisions about their welfare are being made it is vital to look deeper into the decisions and feelings of children before including what they say or feel as being as meaningful as it appears to be. This is due to the fact that many children are seeking security with usually the custodial parent, and are in many cases willing to reject the non-
resident parent for no good reason (McIntosh et al., 2004). The child thus taking the side of one parent at the expense of the other is wrong. The excluded or ‘side-lined’ parent feels he/she is being treated unjustly. The child cannot in the short or long-term benefit form this state of affairs.

Problems of Mediation
It has already been suggested that mediation is not a perfect way of dealing with the problem of conflict between parents involving children. As pointed out by Lowenstein (2005a-j) without the support of the court, when there is implacable, irrational hostility between the parents, the mediation process often is a meaningless activity. This is because children are almost always caught in the triangle of their parent’s fights. This ‘war’ may either be open or made insidious such as when parental alienation or parental alienation syndrome is present (Goncalves & de Vincenzi, 2003). Other family members and even strangers become embroiled in the conflict. A study by Sbarra & Emery (2005) re-evaluated the long-term effects of divorce mediation on adults’ psychological adjustment and investigated the relations among co-parenting custody conflicts. This revealed that fathers and parents who mediated their custody disputes reported significantly more non acceptance based on a 12 year follow-up assessment.

Education and Counselling
Another approach has been used often combined with the mediation process. This is education and counselling of parents who have found it difficult to avoid their conflict continuing especially in relation to their children. Attendance at divorce education classes were found to be associated with whether a subject will return to court of not. Those who attended were less likely to return to court and litigation (Criddle et al., 2003).

There have been substantial changes in scientific and public perspectives regarding children’s adjustment to divorce in the United
States. Decades of divorce research have created a more complex and nuanced understanding of how divorce impacts on children and adolescents. The stressors and risks which divorce presents for children, the resiliency demonstrated by the majority of children, and protective factors which are associated with better judgement following divorce are described by Kelly (2003b). A distinction is drawn between painful memories and psychopathology. It is therefore felt that educating divorced parents about known risk factors for their children acts as a protective measure to enhance their children’s long-term adjustment.

Family advocates and family counsellors represent the best interests of children in divorce actions (Scherrer & Louw, 2004). Regardless of how the divorce occurs, it is important to note that there are hurt parties in need of healing. Mediation and divorce education lend themselves to reduce the pain and anguish being experienced in some cases. It is only when the parents are free from the trauma associated with divorce that they may serve as a positive influence on their children (Taylor, 2004). Only by helping parents to move from entrenched disputes towards a more constructive co-parenting relationship will the best interest of the children be served (McIntosh & Deacon-Wood, 2003).

**What if the custodial parent refuses to co-operate with child contact decisions?**

If a custodial parent refuses to co-operate with the child contact decisions as set out by a Court what can be done about this? Are punitive measures carried out sufficiently by the Court? We will begin with a typical case illustration before turning to the choices that the Court has, and an Expert Witnesses’ views, on how to deal with such a situation.

**Illustration**

Mrs Y had for some years been resolute in not granting contact between her two children and their father despite the Court ruling
to grant such contact. As an Expert Witness dealing with such matters by providing expert evidence and advice to the Court, one is often faced with such controversial matters which have to be sorted out by the Judiciary. Psychological experts are not permitted to make decisions such as: 1) punitive measures to make Mrs Y co-operate with the Court ruling of granting contact to a father; 2) removing the children into care for a time or recommending this in order to treat the indoctrination such children have received from the custodial parent against the now absent parent; 3) deciding to fine or imprison the non co-operative parent and/or changing the residence of children to reside with the non custodial parent or members of his/her family. This is the role of the Judiciary and not the Expert Witness.

(Most parents who fail to co-operate with court rulings on contact arrangements are mothers, but 20% or so are fathers. Furthermore custodial parents frequently indoctrinate or brainwash children against having good contact with an absent parent usually the father).

Mrs Y always thought she had a reason for putting off contact arrangements. Some of the ploys used were:

The children did not want to see their father or have anything to do with him. (In this case Mrs Y had worked hard to turn the children against the father. It must also be said that the children witnessed some upsetting scenes of threats by the father against the mother and possibly physical domestic violence on both sides.)

The mother, Mrs Y, claimed that she had to work and could not comply with either contact arrangements or mediation recommended by the Court. (This was only admitted following the Court decision allowing contact and when arrangements were being made for mediation and contact visits to be arranged and monitored.)

Mrs Y also claimed that the children would not want to attend contact sessions because they would miss school and/or needed to do their homework, or be out with their friends.
When mediation was arranged Mrs Y also tried to put obstacles in the way of attending at the times specified due to excuses such as: having to work, too short notice to arrange the meeting, the children needed to be at school etc.

(Those who seek control of children over contact with the absent parent will frequently use any excuse or reason why children should have as little contact as possible, or no contact at all, with the absent parent, claiming that this is the wish of the children. One can only say this is at best taking unfair advantage of the position of being a custodial parent, and at worst, a form of emotional abuse since the custodial parent has created the situation where the children want little or no contact with the absent parent, (usually the father). Had such children been required for medical or dental treatment there would have been no question about them attending for this.)

What can or should be done?
Depending on the Judiciary involved and the Court, the Court will often differ considerably in the decisions reached. Many will speak of having sympathy with the non-custodial parent and yet consider it of paramount importance that the child’s alleged decision or will to have limited or no contact with the absent parent, must be adhered to.

This, in the view of the expert advising, is misjudging the situation and creating an injustice. It is in the best interest of children to have good contact with both parents, especially when in the past they had had a good and warm relationship with both parents.

Judges must be aware and understand why a child will not wish to have good contact with a now absent parent, especially when the absent parent had a warm relationship with the child in the past. The Judiciary needs to explore, or have explored for them by an Expert Witness, why the child’s view of the absent parent has changed!

It has already been pointed out that children can be manipulated, especially younger children by a determined custodial parent,
whether it is father or mother, who has “implacable hostility” towards the now absent parent. If that is the actual case then the expert witness must point this out to the Judiciary. There are of course exceptions such as when the non-resident parent has not been the best of parents and has perhaps indulged in sexual, physical, or emotional abuse. This certainly can lead to a change of heart of feelings towards the absent parent if in fact it occurred.

Influencing children against another parent is a form of emotional abuse which should not be tolerated and which should not go unpunished. It must be stated that the abuse of a child’s mind or way of thinking needs urgent intervention. What are the alternatives or actions that the Court could take under such circumstances, and that are in the best interest, both short and long term, of the child caught up in such a disharmony? The best course of action is that what must happen needs to be in stages of increasing severity.

**An expert witnesses’ view**

Such children need to be treated by a competent professional in order to remove such negative attitudes and behaviours towards the absent parent.

If this is unsuccessful, then the home environment and the influence of the custodial parent is still “poisoning” the child’s mind and undermining the efforts of the independent professional expert and the courts in seeking to develop good contact with an absent parent.

The perpetrator of such insidious undermining needs to be warned as to what will happen if the child, and the influences against contact, continue, and what sanction(s) will be applied. This can only be prevented when the custodial parent co-operates fully and encourages the child to have good contact with the absent parent. Sanctions are rarely put into practice and are usually stated as being a fine or a custodial sentence. However, I would like to suggest that some form of community services could also be put forward as a sanction to be used against those who default and hold out against the Court decision.
If this does not happen then the child may have to be removed from the emotional abuse carried out by the custodial parent and receive treatment for as long as necessary in:

A neutral setting or with a neutral relative.

Be taken temporarily into the care of the Local Authority.

Reside with the absent non-resident parent.

Contact with the former emotionally abusing parent can be resumed once the child has accepted that he/she has two parents and has the love of both parents, as well as feeling love and respect for both parents.

Once the insidious influences of the emotionally abusing parent have been reversed the child can once again have contact with the now non-resident (formerly resident) parent since the emotional abusing has ceased. It is important that both parents speak well of the other, (especially the custodial parent) and encourage contact.

It is hoped that more and more members of the Judiciary will follow a plan such as the one outlined here. This will help family court decisions to be respected, which they are often not at the present time. Instead they are viewed as unfair and unjust. The Judiciary will be viewed as being “even handed” and this will also be in the best interest of children caught up in the disharmony and hostility between parents in conflict. It will also make the work of Expert Witnesses such as myself more gratifying.

Can the Role of the Judiciary in Family Courts be Improved?

A. Introduction

As an expert witness I am frequently asked to give an opinion to help the court resolve child contact issues in family courts. This advice is based on what I feel is in the best interest of children now and in the future, to achieve justice for both parents in their struggle for contact with their children. The Judiciary are faced with many problems in making decisions in relation to contact disputes and
often the alienated parent feels that the decision reached is unfair. Some form of a solution needs to be found to help toward a more fair decision being found to solve this difficult problem.

It is, and has always been, my basic principle to provide the opportunity of both parents playing a role in the child’s life. This I feel is in the best interest of the child, and is always preferred, providing neither parent is an abuser sexually, physically or emotionally.

The Judiciary is faced with the problem of making the best possible decisions in often very complicated and emotional cases. This decision is principally based on considering what is in the best interest of the child at the time when the case comes to court. Judges are often fully aware of the harm that has been done by the ploys used by the custodial parent to prevent access and contact between the child and a former loving parent. In reaching a decision, Judges need to weigh up the short and long term consequences of any action they recommend and there are rarely ever perfect solutions. This frequently leads to a judicial dilemma in seeking to resolve the issue of no contact with an absent parent because a child has been indoctrinated by the custodial parent against the absent parent.

As an expert witness involved in such cases I would like to present a possible solution or remedy, to cases where a child refuses contact with a former loving parent via a therapeutic intervention. This would appear to be the best route forward and is in the best interest of the child. It removes the child from having to take sides or to make decisions which no child should ever have to make.

B. The problem
There has been much criticism levelled at the Judiciary in Family Courts most especially in the area of disputed contact issues and the decisions made. The Judiciary’s basic principle is again very similar to that of myself “what is in the best interest of the child”. Warring parents are the most prominent hindrance to Judges seeking to make the best decisions which benefit the child/children. The
view that the child will in future seek out the absent parent against whom the child has been alienated is untrue.

Acrimonious divorce or separation are the principle causes of the lack of contact facing the non custodial parent. Many fathers and mothers eventually give up seeking contact with a child due to the implacable hostility to such contact by the custodial parent. The animosity, for whatever reason, which the custodial parent feels towards the now absent parent borders at times on a mental illness. The main symptoms are paranoid ideations, and extreme hostility towards the now non resident parent. The family of the absent parent are often included in this hostility.

While one is aware of the causes and consequences of contact issue disputes, making the right decisions is often extremely difficult for the Judiciary. The child in these cases is the main casualty, especially when that child has had in the past a warm loving relationship with the now absent parent. As a result of that parent’s absence, the child is frequently bombarded with negative statements and recollections via the custodial parent who seeks to ally the child with him/herself. The objective is to forget or castigate the absent parent. Let me illustrate this by an actual case sufficiently altered so as not to reveal its authenticity. As an expert witness, this is but one of the many cases in which I have been involved and also similar to ones in which I have not been involved for various reasons. The reason for not being involved is due to my basic principle that I believe that both parents have a role to play in guiding their child and being involved in their care.

Illustration
Mrs X won custody of child Y after an acrimonious divorce. She was eager to eliminate her former partner in the life of Y. She intended eventually to have another partner and let that partner be the father figure in the child’s life. She refused all contact between the absent parent Z and the child aged 10, who had in the past had a loving relationship with the now absent parent Z. The absent
parent and the child were affectionate towards one another and generally enjoyed each other’s company. Over time, the child was influenced totally by the custodial parent. The child eventually said that she no longer wished to see the other parent Z, believing what she was told about that parent. She simply could not, or would not be allowed, to remember the past wonderful days with parent Z. The good caring parent Z had been expunged in Y’s mind.

The expert witness in the case expressed much sympathy for the absent parent who had failed, despite great efforts and numerous court appearances, to have regular contact with a once loving child. The court threatened sanctions against the custodial parent if she did not co-operate with the ruling of the court in relation to the child having contact with the now absent parent. What the court did not do was to carry out the sanctions against the custodial parent who now claimed that it was not herself that was causing the problem but the fact that the child Y did no wish to have any further contact with the now absent parent Z. It does not take an Einstein’s reasoning to understand why Y responded in that manner.

C. The Judicial dilemma
The latter illustration shows the problem faced by the Judiciary in seeking to make decisions which are primarily in the best interest of the child. Many Judges consider there to be great difficulties involved in changing the mindset of the child. This is despite the fact that the Judiciary acknowledges how this mindset came about in the child.

Frequently the Judiciary is faced with the terrible dilemma of knowing who the guilty party is in the process of the alienation scenario but are unable or unwilling to do what is normally the case in courts of justice.....punish the perpetrator. This is due to the fact that by punishing the perpetrator, who has carried out the disreputable and unfair act of turning the child against a parent, and who is also the custodial parent, it is the child that ultimately becomes the main victim.
The advice given by at least one psychological expert witness is to remove the child from the emotionally abusive influences of the alienating parent. Few Judges heed this advice. They consider such actions not to be in the best interest of the child. This is because the child is unaware how the implacable hostility of the custodial parent has succeeded in destroying the child’s love for the now absent parent and turning it into hostility toward that parent.

What numerous Judges do is to find a “fine line” and “balanced position”. They are aware of how an innocent child has been manipulated by a hostile custodial parent. They also consider the harm they will do by incarcerating the custodial parent for failing to abide by contact arrangements. Judges are also aware of the harm they may do by removing the child from a loving but emotionally abusing parent. Judges rarely, if ever, remove the child from such a parent and place that child with the abused non custodial parent. This however, is necessary in order to seek to renew the relationship with the absent parent who has been alienated and demeaned via the implacably hostile custodial parent. It is also to stop the child being further emotionally abused.

Judges therefore sometimes make decisions on the basis of ‘here and now’ evidence. The facts as they exist often are: 1) the child has been manipulated to the point where the child rejects the now absent parent; 2) the Judge will tend to comply with the wishes of the child, despite knowing why the child has refused contact with a former loving parent; 3) Judges are aware of the difficulties of removing the child from the custodial parent against the wishes of the child; 4) they consider that this is likely to be detrimental to the child who has now only one parent with whom a strong, if not, total bond exists. The result is the child remains with the custodial parent while the absent parent has no contact. The longer this situation exists the more detrimental it is to maintain any future contact with the absent parent. It is also often of detriment to the child.
D. The advice of an psychological expert witness to the Judiciary

In cases of implacable hostility leading to a contact dispute between a custodial and non custodial parent, what is most beneficial to the child is of primary importance. On this both the Judiciary and the psychological expert witness are in total agreement. While the Judiciary will consider what is at the current time in the best interest of the child, the psychological expert is concerned with the long term implications of the child having no contact with an absent loving parent.

It must be added that when there has been a refusal of contact with the absent parent, this is through no fault of that rejected parent. The child had a good relationship in the past with the now absent parent. The child’s decision not to have contact with the absent parent is due to a process of harmful influence. Such influence can only have become via the custodial parent and/or the custodial parent’s family. This has caused considerable harm to the child and may be considered at least an abuse of power of the custodial parent and emotional abuse towards the child.

We should never forget that there was a good relationship between the child and the absent parent in the past. Instead of encouraging this to continue, the custodial parent has undermined this in subtle and direct ways by disregarding the former partner and thereby reducing or eliminating good contact. Is this in the best interest of the child? On the contrary, it is in the very worst interest, with short as well as long term damage resulting from such abuse.

The Judiciary is likely to be aware of this, but as already stated, the child’s refusal to have contact with the absent parent puts the Judiciary in a conflict situation. The question asked is: “What is more damaging to the child? Is it to accept the child’s desire not to have contact because such contact has been undermined and the absent parent has been discredited or should or could contact be forced upon the child? Even psychological experts differ in their viewpoint when this occurs. Some will concur with the Judiciary, and their decision
considering it more harmful to the child to disturb the good relationship the child has with the custodial parent despite the fact that this is based on emotional abuse. Other experts, of which I am one, who are in the minority, consider the harm done to a child by accepting the ‘status quo’ is most damaging to the child, in that the child has little or no contact with the absent parent. On the whole, the Judiciary prefers the view of psychological experts who seek not to disturb the relationship between the custodial parent and the child, by punishing the custodial parent or removing the child from that parent.

It is the view of the current psychologist that there is a better course of action open, once numerous legal ways have been tried and have failed, to establish good contact between the child and the now non custodial parent. A middle approach is possible which could well have positive results. This consists of removing the child/children from the continuing emotional abuse promoted by the custodial parent based on the implacable hostility towards a former partner.

The child needs to be moved into care into a “neutral environment”. Here the negative influences and hence the emotional abuse can no longer continue. It provides the opportunity for all parties, including the child, to receive therapeutic input which is both positive and constructive. Initially there needs to be a warning to the custodial parent that this is being considered, unless that custodial parent actually encourages or insists that the child will participate with structured and regular contact with the now absent parent.

Should this fail to be achieved, the removal of the child is imperative and for as long as necessary, until all parties realise and act in accordance with what is truly in the best interest of the child/children - this is to have good contact with both parents. Both parents should encourage this and work towards this end.

In the interim, the parents in the therapeutic environment can be seen separately and ultimately together if possible in order to establish a working relationship which can encourage contact with
both parents. This is indeed in the best interest of the child. This should be carried out via Social Workers and involve CAFCASS as well as a Clinical Psychologist who is in overall charge and who understands the problems, and has the therapeutic skills to overcome the negative influences and truly establish what is in the best interest of the child i.e. to have good contact with both parents. Meetings between parent and child should be observed and supervised by staff. A written record should be provided and presented to the court.

In order for this to be achieved, the child and the custodial parent must accept what is being done and for how long this may be necessary. The animosity of the custodial and non custodial parents must give way to active co-operation and co-operation in the adhering to the decision of the Family Court over the arrangements of contact times. This again is in the best interest of the child.

Either parent who fails to co-operate or is seeking to continue with the emotional abuse should be removed from contact with the child until this ceases. At the same time, the non abusing parent should have good contact with the child in the “neutral environment”. In this way the previously warm relationship with the now absent parent can be rebuilt. This again is in the best interest of the child which is our main concern.

This approach in contact disputes, is fair, just and therapeutic as well as possible. It does not give in to the status quo of no or poor contact with an absent parent. It also prevents further emotional abuse of the child by the custodial parent, and is best for the child both in the short and the long term.

**Is the parent fit to parent a child?**

One cannot help be aware of the importance of the necessity of good parenting especially when there are suspicions of the opposite, that is, that the child is being abused in some way. This could be one or both parents carrying out the abuse. The abuse can be in the form of sexual, physical or emotional abuse, as well as neglect.
It is also important to follow the best course of action once it has been established what kind of abuse has been proven to have occurred. There are at least three approaches that can be taken and these can be combined: 1) the immediate removal of the child from the proven abusing environment; 2) promoting better parenting skills while the child remains with parents combined with monitoring the home in the hope for changes in parenting skills; 3) removing the child from the proven abusive environment and attempting to educate, train or treat the parents to improve their parenting skills. The children can then be returned once it is felt that the parents are indeed able to parent effectively and without practicing any form of abuse. Two objective questions will therefore follow: 1) How can we assess whether a parent is fit to parent? 2) If a parent if not fit to parent what can or should be done?

These are the two questions that will hopefully be answered by what follows. The information is based on the more recent research literature and the personal experiences of the author, who has acted as an expert witness in many cases of alleged child abuse over the past 35 years. Sometimes custody is in dispute especially when parents are not able to agree on contact between the child/children and the now absent parent following an acrimonious divorce or separation.

**How can we assess whether a parent is fit to parent?**
In what follows two illustrations of child abuse will be cited where a child should be removed from an abusing parent(s) and where this is not necessary. It must however be noted that a great deal of care must be taken not to overreact when a child has been injured through no fault of the caring parents. The second reason for removing a child from the custodial parent occurs when there is a contact dispute over the child after an acrimonious separation or divorce between the parents.

Where there is evidence of possible abuse by parents towards children, a full investigation must be carried out as soon as possible
involving the child, the parents and the home. It is especially important to assess parental attitudes as well as personality and behaviour in respect to their manner of child rearing (Billick & Jackson, 2007; Jackson et al., 1999). Parents with a lack of empathy suffer frequently suffer from psychopathy and are a particular threat to children and need to be identified.

The use of interviews of parents should never be used as the sole procedure. This has certain deficits for judging parental responsibility and capability if it is used on its own. Combined with interviews of psychological tests both cognitive and personality testing need to be used by well qualified and experienced clinical, forensic psychologists. Whenever possible both parents should be involved in rearing children in the form of joint parenting. In order for this to work, parents need to co-operate and do what is in the best interest of their children rather than their own needs.

What is in the best interest of the child in the short term should also be in the best interest of the child in the long term and should be of the greatest importance when decisions are made. There is however, some uncertainty in complex custody disputes which parent is likely to be the one who should have custody of a child. This is especially the case when the divorce or separation has been acrimonious. It is under such circumstances that signs of emotional abuse frequently occur, although it can also occur in intact families.

The signs of such abuse are easy to identify when they are physical abuse or neglect and visible injuries are caused to children. Sexual abuse is more difficult to diagnose and even more difficult is emotional abuse. Sexual abuse can frequently be incorrect with allegations made for ulterior motives by an implacably hostile parent against the absent or non-resident parent. Sexual abuse is insidious and sometimes, but not always, associated with other abusive behaviour. Emotional abuse is difficult to detect and is usually in form of manipulation of the child’s mind, or threats of severe punitive action by parents leading to fear of insecurity in the child. In this way the child can be made to think and say virtually
anything or accuse anyone of anything merely to keep on the good side of the custodial parent.

In the case of divorce or separation of the parents, children can cope better when both parents are in agreement about contact between the absent parent and the child. They need continued contact of both parents, with both parents maintaining a relatively friendly and cooperative relationship towards one another. This provides the necessary security for children. Children gradually learn to accept the fact that their parents no longer love one another, a fact of which they have been made only to aware, for some time, but that both parents each still love their children despite the split up.

Those who are meant to evaluate parents and their capacity for providing appropriate care of children need to be experts in carrying out psychological assessments. They need to be able to identify parents who lack the capacity, such as empathy, to rear their children appropriately and with care. Parents need also to be good role models with whom children can easily identify and benefit from such identification. What unfortunately is the case is that children tend on the whole to identify with parents be they good or poor role models. Psychologists need to evaluate whether a parent suffers from antisocial behavior such as psychopathy or severe mental illness such as schizophrenia which would handicap that parent in playing an effective role in caring for children.

Low intelligence of a parent is sometimes used in combination with an injury to a child for removing that child into care. This could be an over-reaction. Many children born of parents of low intelligence, or limited intelligence, are good parents. It should also be noted that many children have accidents due to over-activity of the child rather than due to parental neglect. A careful assessment of such incidents is imperative.

Vulnerable children prone to injuries need to be provided with an especially high level of care, but even with this, it must be recognized that all children are prone to have accidents from time to time. In the case of hyperactive children, the chances of the child
being hurt increases. Let me illustrate this point from an actual case.

**An illustration of an injured child and an over reaction**
Mr X (grandfather) and Mrs Y (grandmother) and Miss Z (mother) came from the North of England and requested me to help them deal with the fact that the child of the mother had been placed in care by the Local Authority. The child was removed from the home when the child was three years of age and suffered from a concussion from falling backwards while in the care of the grandmother Mrs Y. There were no other injuries reported in the past. Both mother and grandmother were mentally subnormal but Mr X, the grandfather was of above average intelligence. They all lived together in the same house. Miss Z was an unmarried mother who had been made pregnant initially and the pregnancy was terminated. She then became pregnant again with the current child who had been placed in care. Following the injury, the Social Services placed the child in care and a report from an educational psychologist considered the child was “in an unsafe environment” being in the care of X, Y, & Z, and should be removed from the home. The child was sent to foster parents. Grandparents and mother requested the child to be returned to them as they felt they had neither abused nor neglected the child. They felt the children had been removed unfairly merely because the child had had an accident. They felt that they had been unjustly treated in removing the child on the basis of possibly one accident and injury and also on the basis of the low intelligence of the mother and grandmother.

As the psychologist, I recommended they go to court with their Solicitor and request a second opinion. This the Judge granted and I was able to carry out an assessment of all the parties concerned. Both mother and grandmother were indeed of relatively low intelligence but capable of providing good care for the child, especially as they had the support of the grandfather who was of above average intelligence and living at home with his family. I further recommended that a Social Worker be appointed to monitor
the situation at home, after both mother and grandmother received parenting skill sessions. A two year follow-up revealed that no further accidents had occurred and there was no abuse of any kind of the child as noted by regular visits by Social Services.

The initial removal of the child from the family was hasty and premature, since it was an acceptable home on the basis of care being provided and one accident or injury should not have been viewed as child abuse or neglect by the Social Service Department. The mother and grandmother were being penalized for having a relatively low IQ. There are many good mothers and fathers with relatively low intelligence who make good parents.

In defence of Social Services it must be said that their action of removing the child was based on some high profile cases where serious abuse had indeed occurred leading to serious injuries and even the death of a child. It was the view of the Social Services supported by an Educational Psychologist rather than a Clinical or Forensic Psychologist that it was better to act with caution by removing the child from the care of this family. They felt as it turned out wrongly that the child would continue to suffer from accidents and neglect if he were to remain with the family. It was for this reason that the current psychologist provided a second opinion and put in place certain safeguards such as: 1) parenting skill training for the whole family; 2) a period of monitoring of the family and the child, by Social Services carrying out unannounced visits.

It must be acknowledged that removing a child from a good home is also a form of abuse of the child as well as the family. Judgments as to whether to remove a child suspected of having been neglected or abused sexually, physically or emotionally, need to be done with the greatest of care. This is especially the case for a very young and vulnerable child. It may be the case that sexual abuse has occurred from time to time and there is consistent evidence of physical, emotional neglect. Here there are certainly grounds for removing a child to a place of safety.
Contact disputes with parents suffering from implacable hostility towards one another

Contact disputes, where either parent alienates a child against the absent parent, require very special attention. Some parents, usually the custodial parent, will make certain allegations against the absent parent. This may include that that person is a sexual abuser, in order to prevent contact from being made by that parent. This is a form of emotional abuse where action must be taken, not against the alleged wrongly accused perpetrator of sexual abuse, but against that parent who makes false these allegations.

This may include such punishment as fines, child placed in care with the non resident parent, or imprisoning the parent making such abusive false allegations. This would certainly be in the best interest of the child in the long term. The child’s long and short term needs are of paramount importance and not the gender of the parent receiving residence (Billick & Ciric, 2003). “Protracted and acrimonious child custody litigation is rarely in the child’s best interest” (Billick & Jackson, 2007). The role of the clinical/forensic psychologist is important not so much to gain relevant, if not vital information via in-depth interviews, but through the use of cognitive and personality testing. History of past events may provide information of the alleged development of individuals but this tends to be selective in what the person seeks or is willing to reveal about their past as well as their present behaviour. Standardised tests, providing they have validity scales, sometimes called “Lie Scales”, can provide information by comparing the individuals with norms. Such normative inventories with standardised testing based on age, gender, and other aspects can then be compared with the historical information about such parents. This information can be obtained from schools, work reports and medical reports. It is also important to obtain statements from relevant witnesses who have seen the behaviour of such parents towards their children. Here may be included other family members, neighbours etc.

Hence a total picture should emerge as to the individual’s positive and negative traits. Then a judgement can be made as to the
suitability of a parent being adequate or inadequate in the care being provided for their child/children. What is in the best interest of the child should always be the criterion as to whom is best to care for that child. This in turn must be based on what the child needs in the long term rather than what the child wants. The child will often want what is not in his/her best interest. Children ideally need a secure environment being cared for by two loving parents. When the parental union ends, such security could be destroyed when there is serious acrimony between the parents and when this leads, as it often does, to parents using a child against the other parent. This will influence very much what the child wants or claims to want.

In such cases, the controlling residential parent often attempts to denigrate the now absent parent until the child is no longer in the position to wish to have any contact with the absent father/mother. The child actually “needs” the absent parent but then states resolutely that they do not want contact with that absent parent. Here it should come down to not what the child wants, but rather what the child needs. This would be in the best interest of the child, and not what the child wants. This wanting, whatever the child decides can often be signs of having been emotionally abused or manipulated against an absent parent by the resident parent. This fact too can be established by an expert psychologist with knowledge in assessing a parent who practices alienation (Lowenstein, 2007).

The child’s own views need to be considered, though one must be certain about how these views were arrived at by the child. Hence a child, whatever their age who has had a good, warm and loving relationship with a parent is unlikely to change that opinion after the separation or divorce of his/her parents, unless there is good reason for this. The change must have occurred following the break-up of the parents relationship. There may have been frequent arguments and perhaps even violence between the parents which has led the child to feel that the absent parent can do the same to him/her, and may be worried about the safety of the custodial parent (usually the mother), and does not wish to have contact with the absent parent, for that
reason. The reason for the change in opinion needs to be thoroughly investigated. It could be due to the influence of the custodial parent, practicing an abusive kind of influence and alienation procedure. It could also be due to, as previously mentioned, domestic violence, again endangering the perceived physical and emotional security of the child (Jaffe & Crooks, 2009).

The custodial parent should not have total control of the child. The custodial parent should have done everything possible to encourage good contact with the now absent parent. Otherwise that parent has taken advantage of the custody position to control and undermine the child’s previous good relationship with the absent parent. This, is a form of emotional abuse which cannot be tolerated. It should end, and should lead to the removal of the child if such influencing continues from such a custodial parent. If suitable, such a child could be placed with the victim of the abuse......i.e the absent parent, or into the care of a Local Authority while the abusing parent receives treatment. This child will also need treatment to remove the effects of the brainwashing he/she has received over a period of time.

Psychopathic parents with their likely lack of empathy, or parents with antisocial personality disorders (APD) are not likely to be suitable as good parents. They could well pose a danger to children and are likely to be a poor example or role model to children and hence children may identify and imitate the behaviour of such adults. Such parents are likely to abuse their children physically, sexually, or emotionally because they have such traits as being paranoid, narcissistic, histrionic, and often suffer from borderline personality disorders (BPD)(Reid, 2001).

Such individuals tend to make poor parents because of their lack of empathy and their selfish disregard for the rights of others. They are also likely to act impulsively, be unreliable, irresponsible, insincere, deceitful, and unable to benefit from experiences and being unable to feel any sense of guilt or remorse. They are also unable to feel real love. All these traits are not likely to result in good parenting!
If a parent is not fit to parent what can, and should be done?
There are degrees of not being a fit parent. Some parents can function adequately if provided with parenting skill training, while they continue to care for the child or when the child is removed until the training has been completed. This can be provided when the abuse or neglect has not been severe and where the parent welcomes and can be seen to benefit from such parenting skill training being provided. In the case of more severe physical or emotional abuse, the removal of the child would seem mandatory to prevent any further harming of the child or tragic consequences occurring. Following a psychological assessment of a parent or parents, further decisions can be reached to determine whether the parents are likely to benefit and wish to accept a parent training programme. Failure to accept such a programme would mean such a child would not be returned to these parents. The result of psychological testing will have been carried out using such tests as the MMPI and other tests to determine whether such parents suffer from a most worrying psychopathic personality deficit leading to lack of empathy. In that case such a parent/parents are unlikely to be suitable to rear their children.

In that case relatives such as grandparent (Strong et al., 2010) or other relatives may be sought to parent a child or the child may be taken into the care of the Local Authority and placed eventually with a foster parent. Later on, such children may be adopted by a suitable parent/parents. This again must always be in the best interest of the child in question. In the past there has been a bias for only mothers to having custody rather than fathers. This should have, and has changed, with a gender bias having given place to which parent is likely to be best for the child (Billick & Jackson, 2007).

References


Post Separation Conflicts which affect Contact for an Alienated Parent. Ludwig F. Lowenstein


Lowenstein, L. F. (2005d). Parental alienation syndrome or parental


Post Separation Conflicts which affect Contact for an Alienated Parent. Ludwig F. Lowenstein


US: Cambridge University Press.


Post-Global Psychology emphasizes Interdisciplinary Cooperation

ICP, Inc. Opens Full Membership to Allied Discipline Colleagues

Ann Marie O’Roark, Ph.D., ABAP
St. Augustine, Florida USA

Consilience and nexalism are mid-twentieth century watchwords descriptive of a recent rush of interest in collaboration among scientific disciplines. This incoming wave of melding streams of knowledge forming across the 21st century horizon suggests the time is arriving for emphasizing exchanges across the borders of academic silos. A post-globalism weltgeist advances by emphasizing consilience, the synthesis of all ways of knowing, and endorsing nexalism, a structured, deliberate, interdisciplinary science.

Both concepts are compatible with a core value of inclusiveness promulgated by ICP, Inc. since it was formed in 1941 in New York City as The National Council of Women Psychologists (Gielen, Adler, Milgram, 1992). Three name changes later and a deliberate extension of ICP’s inclusive membership policy resulted in interdisciplinary membership being approved by membership vote in 2010. The International Council of Psychologists, Inc., which was granted status as a USA 501c6 not-for-profit educational corporation [Connecticut, 1966], celebrated its 70th birthday in Washington DC. July 30-August 4, 2011, and remains a unique, dedicated group of innovator-colleagues.

Wellness, Inter-National Peace, Human Rights

Annual scientific programs offer information on wellness and wellbeing, peace and human rights from diverse cultures and streams
of knowledge. Quality-of-life-experiences for professionals and laypersons stand with inclusiveness as a guiding value in the activities and governance of ICP, Inc. A small band of colleagues, one of the first three international associations of psychologists, ICP, Inc. remains the only one to hold annual meetings. Because of the size of the association and the frequency of the meetings, individuals representing multiple nationalities with diverse specializations in psychology and mental health develop collegial friendships and supportive collaborations.

As ICP, Inc. continues its tradition of standing at cutting edges between knowledge-based science and emerging social issues (O’Roark, 2010), ICP, Inc. Allied discipline colleagues were welcomed into full Member status at the 2011 69th annual meeting. All attendees enjoyed the Board’s 70th birthday gift to members of free Continuing Education workshops [APA CE credits managed through IMCES, Institute of Multicultural Counseling and Education Services, Los Angeles, CA]. Initially, the DC conference was intended to be an alternative “council” meeting discussing pressing global issues in psychology and mental health. Announced under the theme of “Integration of Health and Mental Health in the Context of Culture: Providing Comprehensive Services in Partnership with Allied Professionals,” the conference ultimately took on the character and structure of typical scientific program organized by ICP, Inc. across the years while retaining an emphasis on audience discussion.

**Value Anchored Focus; Objective Evidence Based Science**

Programs ranged from a workshop presented by Washington based international consultants, Arthur Freedman and H. Skip Leonard, titled: “Introduction to Action Learning”; a presentation on “Understanding the Terrorists Mind” by board member Sarlito W. Sarwono of Jakarta, Indonesia; a symposium on “Intuition, Spirituality, and Creativity” by Ani Kalajian of NYC and Carole Rayburn of Maryland; and a workshop by Consuelo Barreda-Hanson of Australia, “DID in Children: Diagnosis and Treatment.”
MultiCultural Sensitivity and Scientific Rights

Respect for differences among national perspectives, interests, and methodologies enhances the intellectual richness afforded by juxtaposing diverse psychological specialties. The ICP inclusive, egalitarian history forecasts an even more stimulating and dynamic program when research interest groups and conference symposia allied disciplines sharing evidence based information. One of the earliest ICP activities was to offer assistance and to publish policy declarations to protect psychologists under duress from government systems and factions, especially in South America.

More recently, the International Council of Science began monitoring free circulation of scientists to assure their access to scientific conferences regardless of diplomatic relations between the host country and participants place of residence or citizenship. In 2011 the General Assembly of ICSU approved revised organizational statute regarding a principle of universality (i.e., Freedom and Responsibility) of science. Excerpts (http://www.icsu.org/about-icsu/structure/committees/freedom-responsibility/statute-5) (April 3, 2012, p. 1):

The free and responsible practice of science is fundamental to scientific advancement and human and environmental well-being. Such practice, in all its aspects, requires freedom of movement, association, expression and communication for scientists, as well as equitable access to data, information, and other resources for research. It requires responsibility at all levels to carry out and communicate scientific work with integrity, respect, fairness, trustworthiness, and transparency, recognising its benefits and possible harms.

In advocating the free and responsible practice of science, ICSU promotes equitable opportunities for access to science and its benefits, and opposes discrimination based on such factors as ethnic origin, religion, citizenship, language, political or other opinion, sex, gender identity, sexual orientation, disability, or age.

ICP, Inc. stands in the first wave of professional psychological organizations opening full membership to colleagues in allied disciplines. Escalating awareness of a need for integrated knowledge
Post-Global Psychology emphasizes Interdisciplinary Cooperation

is keynoting professional conferences and inspiring interdisciplinary project development. *Women working with interdisciplinary health research teams* became the focus for one *Presidential Program-track* in the 2012 American Psychological annual convention [APA 2012 Convention Program]. Interdisciplinary research by women reflects the impact of an increased percentage of women in psychology, in graduate schools, and in association leadership.

**Interdisciplinary Roots Go Broad and Deep**

Specialties such as organizational consulting psychology and mid-twentieth century “behavioral sciences” are of inherently interdisciplinary. My graduate program in organizational psychology and leadership required not only the basic psychology curriculum, but also courses in anthropology, sociology, and business administration. My favorite courses on leadership were in anthropology. Ethnographic field methods was the best preparation for my practice in organizational consulting psychology.

Roots of last century consilience and nexalism go centuries deep. Although interdisciplinary is frequently viewed as a twentieth century term, the concept has historical antecedents in Greek philosophy (Wikipedia, 3-29-12). Greek philosophy flourished as the center of Western thinking and learning from the 6th century Before the Common Era and continued through the Hellenistic period, when Greece was incorporated into the Roman Empire. Philosophy during that time dealt with multiple types of thinking, such as political philosophy, ethics, metaphysics, ontology, logic, biology, rhetoric, and aesthetics. Even the eloquent Greek historians and dramatists incorporated information from different streams of knowledge (i.e., medicine, philosophy) in their writings.

In the late eighteenth century, Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (Wikipedia, 3-29-12) began thinking and writing about what is today considered to be the earliest effort in promoting a holistic science. Goethe (28 August 1749 22 March 1832) was a German writer, pictorial artist, biologist, theoretical physicist, and polymath.

Although considered the genius behind modern German literature, his contributions spanned the fields of poetry, drama, prose, philosophy, and science. His Faust has been called the greatest long poem of modern European literature. The author of the scientific text Theory of Colours, his influential ideas on plant and animal morphology and homology were extended and developed by 19th century naturalists including Charles Darwin. Goethe’s observations on the effect of opposed colors led him to a symmetric arrangement of his color wheel that shows which colors reciprocally evoke each other in the eye.

He developed a methodology outlined in his essay, The experiment as mediator between subject and object (1772). It describes his watershed cross-discipline synthesis and a transformation in approach from the physical sciences where experiment is all important, to plant biology, where application of perceptive / intuitive thinking enabled him to envision biological archetypes.

**Opportunities for Interdisciplinary Education and Training**

Today, as an adjective, *interdisciplinary* is used in educational circles when researchers from two or more disciplines pool their approaches and modify them so that they are better suited to the problem at hand, including the case of the team-taught course where students are required to understand a given subject in terms of multiple traditional disciplines. As when the leadership phenomenon is examined by different disciplines, for instance, history, sociology, anthropology, economics, geography, business administration, and politics. Recently institutions of higher education are offering accredited degree programs in Interdisciplinary Studies. Norfolk State University, located in Norfolk, VA, is an example. Perhaps due to the inherent non-silo nature of holistic science, academic institutions where in-depth specialized knowledge and research are well entrenched, universities have been slow to develop multidisciplinary degree programs.
Schumacher College in the UK offers an MSc degree program in Holistic Science. Other universities have centers dedicated to scientific fields where holistic approaches are common: the University of Michigan’s Center for the Study of Complex Systems, Princeton University’s Global Consciousness Project, Rice University’s Cognitive Sciences Program, the London Metropolitan University’s Centre for Postsecular Studies, and the Hang Seng Centre for Cognitive Studies in Sheffield, England. There are a number of respected non-university academic institutions and societies open to holistic science and ideas: Santa Fe Institute, the Scientific and Medical Network (in Europe), the Pari Center for New Learning (in Italy), and the System Dynamics Society in Albany, New York, the Institute of Noetic Sciences in Petaluma, California, and Willis Harman House in São Paulo, Brazil.

An Association with Roots and Heart
The ICP, Inc. vision, framed by the founding members, recognized the need for consolidated, validated knowledge bases for human wellbeing and for evidence-based methods of advancing the global betterment of individuals, groups, and societies. The early ICP, Inc. objective, “To advance psychology and the application of its scientific findings throughout the world,” began December 15, 1941 (Gielen, Adler, Milgram, 1992), when a small group of women psychologists established an association for academically and technically trained women colleagues with a purpose.

The only international association founded by women, ICP, Inc. is one of the first three international psychology associations and was initially organized to enable women psychologists to contribute their knowledge and skills to facilitate the well-being of families whose husbands, fathers, brothers were engaged in warfare in foreign lands, and to promote peace and understanding among the nations in the face of the terrors of the Nazi drive for world domination. The history of the organization across 70 years of activities is the story of a unique form of professional activism (O’Roark, 2010).
ICP, Inc. has served as a psychologist-activist prototype, promoting constructive ways of gaining knowledge and taking information to isolated colleagues or where emerging indigenous professionals expressed interest in collaborative science. For example:

**Inclusive Membership:** 1941 Women Psychologist of all Specializations. 1946 Canadian Women psychologists. 1958 Men and Women Psychologists who were members of national associations affiliated with the International Union of Psychological Science [IUPsyS]. 1968 Allied Professional Affiliates. 1973 Graduate Students in Psychology. 1976 International Officers / President from France. 2011 Allied Professionals included in Bylaws with Full membership status.

**Collaborations:** 1941 Probono services for Families of US Military Service Men. 1951 Children’s Summer Villages School-to-School exchanges bringing together children from different countries to advance international awareness and understanding; Established first Liaison alliances with professional associations. 1958 Established committee on Research into Concerns about Special Interests of Women; 1962 *International Understanding* started to publish scientific papers presented in collaboration with American Psychological Association divisions interested in international knowledge bases. 1966 *International Understanding* merged into new ICP, Inc. newsletter: *International Psychologist*. 1969 Held the annual conference in Israel at a time of recent conflict. 1974 Collaborated with International Association of School Psychologists to set up SHARE, a registry of psychologists offering their home for visits to their country to psychologists traveling internationally.

1980 Became one of first three mental health associations accepted as a non-governmental organization in consultative status with the United Nations Economic and Social Council [ECOSOC] and Department of Public Information [DPI]. ICP members serve as UN NGO Representatives in New York, Geneva, and Vienna. They provide psychological information to several committees, especially, Women, Aging, Children. 1981 Agreement with IUPsyS and the International Association of Applied Psychology to hold
Post-Global Psychology emphasizes Interdisciplinary Cooperation

conferences in time and regional proximity as far as feasible. 2003-5 Pilot alliance with IAAP. 2010-2011 Pilot alliance with The Chicago School of Professional Psychology.

Core Values (Inclusiveness; Quality of Life Experience; Evidence Based Practice with Cultural Sensitivity). 1962 Incorporation as not-for-profit educational organization and statement of mission. 1968 Initiated periodic organization of psychological scientific programs in countries where psychologists seldom have opportunities to come together to share research and ideas, or to meet and hear psychologists from other parts of the world. 1972 Annual Yearbooks initiated: Publication of Proceedings of annual scientific program presentations. [ongoing] 1977 Publication of ICP, Inc. Policy Statements. 1982 Approval to grant Continuing Education workshop credits by the American Psychological Association. 1985 Establishment of first Award recognizing international service. 2001 Millennium Summit on Human Rights, a celebration of the ongoing annual symposium series.

Consilience and Nexalism Evoke a New ICP, Inc. Vision Statement
The 2010 Board issued a restatement of the mission and goals of ICP, Inc. It declares that “ICP is committed to furthering world peace, promoting human rights and promoting collaboration among mental health professionals and social scientists, globally. The mission of ICP is:

- To share the science and practice of psychology and to support the use of psychological knowledge to promote social health and justice;

- To contribute to world peace and human rights for all people by helping to empower under-represented ethnic and culturally diverse groups;

- To encourage world-wide wellness through promotion and integration of health and mental health services globally; and,
To foster international professional development, networking, communication, mentoring and friendship among psychologists and allied mental health professionals and social scientists.

Five awards are currently offered to recognize outstanding work in the field of international psychology and collaborative social science, in order of establishment:

(1) Distinguished Service and Outstanding Contributions. Frances Mullen Award.
(2) Lifetime Contribution to Research on Women’s Issues. Denmark-Gunwald Award.
(3) Early Career Research: Bain-Sukemune Award
(4) InAbsentia Student Research Poster Presentation at ICP Conferences Dayan, Barreda-Hanson, O’Roark Award.
(5) Contribution to Advanced International Psychology Research and Service Award. Fukuhara Award.
(6) When Appropriate: Latino Student Paper Presentation at ICP Conferences. Sherri McCarthy, Chair.

Opening full membership status to allied disciplines in ICP, Inc. is especially important for the future since participants in interdisciplinary ventures have earned academic credentials and training in traditional disciplines. The ICP, Inc. “incubator” and mentoring tradition enables specialists to learn to appreciate differing perspectives and methods. A divisive factor in international communities in recent years has been that disciplines placing emphasis on quantitative “rigor” may produce practitioners who think of themselves (and their discipline) as “more scientific” than others. Professionals in so-called “softer” disciplines can believe that quantitative approaches imply inability to acknowledge or understand broader dimensions of a problem.

Interdisciplinary collaborations may fail if they do not have an appreciative scientific forum for presenting research and concept papers and publishing articles. Due to these and other barriers, interdisciplinary research areas have in recent years
been motivated to become disciplines themselves. Examples of former interdisciplinary research joint ventures now considered as disciplines include neuroscience, cybernetics, biochemistry and biomedical engineering. Such fields are spoken of as “interdisciplines” or quasi-disciplines. Obstacles and challenges faced by interdisciplinary activities in the past two decades have been divided into “professional”, “organizational,” and “cultural” obstacles.

ICP’s determination to be a person-to-person, inclusive association on the cutting edge of professional activism gives the association a unique opportunity to enrich within the international community scientific professionals and to extend the list of ICP, Inc.’s innovations and creative initiatives such as professional association liaison work, and intentionally respecting, including and seeking culturally diverse perspectives in governance and programs.

References


Wikipedia.org [March 2012]. Source for information on: Conscilience, nexalism, interdisciplinary science, Goethe, and Greek history.

Exhibit

American Psychological Association 2012 Convention Program Book [excerpt]:

I. What is Interdisciplinary Team Science?: Conceptual Frameworks

Goal: This panel concerns big picture issues such as: What is interdisciplinary team science? Why is it important? What kinds of questions require team science approaches, informed by what kinds of integrative conceptual framework? Why are psychologists crucial to these efforts – what do we uniquely have to contribute? (2 hrs)

Kara Hall, PhD, NIH (National Cancer Institute)
Cross-Disciplinary Definitions, Perspectives, and Principles

Howard C. Nusbaum, PhD, University of Chicago
Interaction among Social and Biological Sciences and Humanities to Understand Human Psychological Mechanisms

Michael Meaney, PhD, McGill University
The Epigenetics Revolution: Implications for Psychologists

Wendy Berry Mendes, PhD, UC San Francisco
A “Gateway” Science: Psychology at the Center of Interdisciplinary Teams

Moderator: Sheldon Zedeck, PhD, BSA, UC Berkeley

Format: 15-20 min talks followed by moderated discussion

II. Testimonials: Psychologists’ Working in Interdisciplinary Science Teams
**Goal:** This panel concerns the challenges & opportunities that come with working in interdisciplinary settings, including navigating environments with different cultures, norms, and power relations, as well as what psychologists can uniquely bring to teams. (2 hrs)

**Jessica Henderson Daniel, PhD, Harvard Medical Center**  
*Collaboration in the Context of Differences: Psychologists on a Multidisciplinary Research Team*

**Jackie White, PhD, University of North Carolina – Greensboro**  
*Project Prevent: Preventing Violence by Engaging Technology*

**Kimberly A. Phillips, PhD, Trinity University**  
*In for a Penny, In for a Pound!*

**Jeannette R. Ickovics, PhD, Yale University School of Public Health**  
*Evidence to Action: Psychology and Public Health*

**Moderator: Leah Light, PhD, BSA, Pitzer College**

**Format:** 10-15 min remarks followed by panel discussion of moderator and audience questions

### III. Show Teams the Money: Funding Streams

**Goal:** Representatives of federal funding agencies will discuss the role of interdisciplinary team science in current portfolios and its importance for the future. Panel presentations and discussion will merge into two-hour panel merging an informal conversation hour with a breakout table for each agency representative, allowing more specific questions to be addressed. (3 hrs)

**Vivian Ota Wang, PhD, National Human Genome Research Institute**
Robert Croyle, PhD, National Cancer Institute

Gerald Goodwin, PhD, Army Research Institute

Lis Nielson, PhD, National Institute on Aging

David Shurtleff, PhD, National Institute on Drug Abuse

**Moderator:** Robyn Fivush, PhD, BSA, Emory University

**Format:** 20 min talks (up to 2 hr) followed by breakout groups (1 hr)

### IV. Preparing Psychologists to Create, Join, and Lead Interdisciplinary Teams

**Goal:** This panel focuses the kinds of training and educational experiences that prepare psychologists for interdisciplinary team science. (2 hrs)

Vickie Mays, PhD, UCLA

*Health Disparities Team Science Research: Thinking About Race, Ethnicity, Gender, and Age in Design and Mentoring*

Randy Larsen, PhD, Washington University

*Trials and Tribulations of Managing a Cross-Disciplinary Training Grant*

Sharon Carver, PhD, Carnegie Mellon University

*Modeling, Mentoring, Courses, Field Experience, and Research in the Education Community*

Jeff Alberts, PhD, Indiana University

*From NASA to NICU: Training and Retraining for Team Science*

**Moderator:** Ken Sher, PhD, BSA, University of Missouri
Post-Global Psychology emphasizes Interdisciplinary Cooperation

Format: 20 min talks followed by moderated Q&A

V. Case Studies

Goal: This series of talks illustrate opportunities, challenges, and strategies characterizing team science in more detail by presenting individual-speaker “case studies.” Each speaker will address (a) what they have accomplished that they couldn’t if working only with psychologists and (b) issues such as institutional culture/dynamics, funding, publication venues, and education/curricula/training issues. (1 hr each; 3 hrs total)

1. Sari van Anders, PhD, University of Michigan
   Intimate Neuroscience: Collaborative Approaches from Molecular to Sociocultural Levels
   Chair: Stephanie Shields, PhD, INTSCIENCE planning group

2. Susan Opotow, PhD, Michelle Fine, PhD, & Susan Saegert, PhD, CUNY
   Critical Social and Environmental Psychology: Advancing Interdisciplinarity, Social Justice, and Research of Use

3. Mark Scerbo, PhD, OldDominionUniversity
   The Importance of Human Factors Psychology in Healthcare Simulation
   Chair: Karin Orvis, PhD, INTSCIENCE planning group

Format: Each is a 40 min talk followed by Q&A

VI: Tools for Teams: Ensuring That Interdisciplinary Team Science Works (1 hr each, 2 hrs total)

Jack Tebes, PhD, YaleUniversitySchool of Medicine
Evaluation of Interdisciplinary Team Science: Current Status and Future Directions
Moderator: Gwyn Boodoo, PhD, INTSCIENCE planning group

Howard Gadlin, PhD, Ombudsman and Director of the Center for Cooperative Resolution, and Michelle Bennett, PhD, NIH; involved in helping scientists work together

Beyond the Seven Dwarfs: Building a Successful Interdisciplinary Team

Chair: M. Lynne Cooper, PhD, BSA, University of Missouri

Format: Each is a 40 min talk followed by Q&A
The Mobile Phone: a report of the use of cellular phone by children and teenagers

Livia Gaddi and Oriola Ndreu
Studio Associato Franzoso & Ndreu, oriola.ndreu@libero.it

Abstract
The report wants to make a thorough investigation regarding the use of the mobil phone by young people and students. (N=371). Hypothesis are: symbolic meaning, personal and of the trademark; the cell phone as a social connector; the reasons why have it and the influence of advertisement in the choice of mobile phone; procedures to personalize and how to use the cell phone. The instruments used are: questionnaire and semantic differential. This report testifies that the mobile phone has got a strong symbolic value, particularly for teenagers. They are sensitive to fashion and advertisement and the cell phone represent a “status symbol” for them. They feel “in”, “cool”, when they have it: they invest on it, they control it, they personalize it in different ways, choosing a funny ring tone, an image on the screen, a colored mask, various gadgets and so on. The mobile phone becomes not only a means but also an object with which they have a strong emotional relationship, probably because of the “ghosts” it recalls, first of all to be always connected with everyone. The cell phone has also changed relationship and meetings of the participants of the research, who appreciate the means speed, the fact that it always allows to know where the others are and to change dates; we know everything about everyone and we express more easily what we think “because there are sms”. People involved in this research gave a positive evaluation of the Phone.
1. Introduction
The mobile phone has entered our daily life for more than a decade, it has become a part of everyday life immediately, because, as Tessarolo (1999; 2007) underlines, when the use of technology becomes usual, it enters in daily routine and loses its exclusiveness.

Observing the mobile phone evolution, we see that many changes have occurred, not only of the device itself but also of personal and social functions.

Indeed Colombo (2001) observes that describing the mobile phone today, means to report how we are, communicate, talk and write, and how we spend most our time.

For Marrone (2004), the mobile phone caused events and processes that, first hit the human being inside, and then they immediately reflect on community. As an instrument of communication, the cellular phone produced new language forms. From a linguistic point of view, for example, a series of remarks is raised, regarding the sign as a whole (for examples terms like roaming, calling etc) or the meaning of lexicon (for examples terms like covering, field etc).

The major linguistic changes tied to the mobile phone have taken place on annunciation plain, so when we call on the desk phone the talk begins with phrases that related to the identity of the actors, but in the case of cellular phone conversation, time and space becomes object of questioning.

Another important aspect that Marrone (2004) underlines is the presence of a third “actor” of the statement that is neither a enounciator nor a hearer but an “half hearer”.

Marrone (2004) says that the mobile phone is a kind of prosthesis which enlarges action and sensitiveness of man, giving him new powers and forms to symbolize his social status. The cellular phone seems to have given a kind of freedom, unthinkable before, like keeping always in touch with family and job, without giving up our movements. There was an abatement of the traditional limits
of space and time which characterize the daily life, as well as the recovery of “dead times” and “no places”.

Vattimo (1996) observes how this new form of immediacy, freedom and spontaneity produces new forms of obligation, mediation and prohibition. The mobile phone neutralizes the opposition between private and public spaces, including family time and working time, and set up the problem of a redefinition of space and time and the way in which “we stay together”.

Fabbri (1996) underlines that the cellular phone is not simply an extension, more or less complex of human being, but an important element of a “new man”, an hybrid, half machine and half man, that works only when the man loses his humanity and the machine its implements. Moreover, the mobile phone represents not only a mean of communication but also of ornaments that constitutes “objectemics“. It can be dressed and modeled as we prefer. The mobile phones are different for functions, colors, features and for the image they give us and for the messages we want to give through them. The cellular phone belongs nowadays to those fashion objects that make a person be “in“ or “out”.

In today’s society where all the values are argued, change is seen as a sign of richness and appearance is the way to measure people and to define ourselves. In a social system like this, fashion is a communicative sub-system through which differences and similarities, conformism and distance are visible. Having objects, man answers his need to be in step with the times, and to communicate that he participates to chancing and lifestyle present in his society (Leonini, 1987). Fashion plays a role in uniformity, helping consistent behavior and conformism, directing people’s taste toward arranged tendencies (Tessarolo, 2001).

This research was justified by a long reflection on the use of mobile phones by children and teenager in our time and on previous studies in this area. We find interesting to deepen Scifo’s (2005a; 2005b) research that carried out in Europe and focused on functional dimension and on linguistic changes. But we were interested to
observe also the relationship these young people developed in time. Indeed, talking about mobile phone means to report how we are, how we communicate and talk (Colombo, Scifo 2003). For this reason, the hypothesis that we set relate to: symbolic and personal meaning, trademark; kind of relationship established with the cellular phone, the mobile phone as a social connector, motivations on the possession and influence of advertising on the purchase of the mobile phone, personalization mode, and use mode.

2. Method

2.1. Participants
To the research have participated 371 participants, which 166 females and 205 males. Of these participants 50 are foreign; the other ones are of Padua and neighbouring zones. The participants’ age is included from 8 to the 23 years (one class of third elementary school, two classes of fourth elementary, six classes of fifth elementary school, a first average class, two of third average, eight classes of first superior and five classes of second). A questionnaire has been given out to the participants and a differential one semantic, in order to do a qualitative and quantitative piece of research.

2.2. Measures
2.2.1. Questionnaire
The questionnaire is built ad hoc and includes 54 questions, of which 5 open, 15 dichotomous answers, 34 multiple choice.

2.2.2. Semantic differential
Semantical difference has been given out to questionnaire integration, is formed by 20 stairs, chosen with criteria of Osgoodinian factor representativeness and of pertinence to the research object.

2.3. Procedure
The questionnaire administering has expected two modes: For the subjects attending the primary school and junior high school
the administering has happened in their classes, in presence of the researcher that explained the aim and justified the subjects to answer with sincerity the questions asked them. In secondary schools the tool has been given out by the teachers in the hours of lesson.

3. Results
The gathered data have been processed 9.0 using the SPSS program for Windows. After a descriptive statistics which analyses the observed situation, the test of chi-square was applied, and the log linear analysis multivariata for the necessary widening on the structure of the association among three variables.

- The hypothesis 1 confirms that the mobile phone has a symbolic value (brand and personal). The log linear analysis highlighted furthermore that those who chose the mobile phone because it is fashionable, and because it is trendy having it, are significantly many \((Z=2,304> Z_{critico}= 2,24, p<0,025)\). As waited for the symbolic value of the mobile phone is more significant for teenagers and young people \((p<0,01)\), this age represents a very important growth phase, during which they have to face complex tasks. In this period for the building of his identity the adolescent uses not only his resources but also what comes from the external world. In this phase of building of self- image they are particularly sensitive to advertisement, thanks to the use of famous sport champions or actors, proposes identification models and creates a consumers' fragmentation in target, niches and tribe joined by the same styles and membership needs. In this way for the teen-ager and the young man having that brand of mobile becomes an identity sign, individualization but also a symbol of "belonging". In fact, the percentage of those affected "little" and "so" in the mobile telephone is high, and changes because of the brand characteristics (primary 39,6%; secondary 45,5%; high school 45% ).
The hypothesis of an affective emotional relationship between the subjects and their mobile phone has been confirmed. Results highlight a strong emotional relation, so that 28% of the subjects of the primary school, 42% of the subjects of the secondary school and 30,6% of the subjects of the high school feel a sense of isolation, have a sense of guilt when turn off their cellular phone, to feel finally free off. The log linear analysis points out that are the adolescents, prevalently the females, that felt a bigger sense of isolation when (p<0,05) they turn off their mobile phone (p<0,001), on the contrary, males test freedom feelings when (p<0,05) turn it off. All the subjects indicate to try feelings of fear, panic and isolation in field absence (primary school 31,3%; secondary school 56% ; high school 24,4%). The log linear analysis points out that teenagers are more sensitive to this event (p<0,05). Females, of all ages, suffer more a feeling of isolation (p<0,05) when there is not field.

From the log-linear analysis emerge that children test panic emotions when there is not field (Z= 2,470 > Zcritico=2,24, p<0,025).
The hypothesis of the mobile phone as social connector has been confirmed. The 50% adolescents and young people told that friends’ relationships are changed since they started to use the phone, for the speed that distinguishes him allowing de-geographicalness and de-spaceness (Marrone, 2004). These cellular phone features seem to be more appreciated by the adolescents (p <0.05). This research confirms what claimed in literature about the importance of friendship during this age. And, for them, the importance of communicating uninterruptedly with their friends within virtual space is exclusive and therefore it covers a strong symbolic meaning. Features of communicative speed, linguistic inexpensiveness and reachness, in oral or written form, represent important characteristics. The mobile phone introduces a mode of communication which contains both elements producing a form of verbal/ written (Ursini, 2002).
the report of the use of cellular phone by children and teenagers

Graph 4: changes in relationships with peers

- All the subjects customize their mobile telephone from the bell choice (by unloading it from internet), imagine, toecap, adhesives and little gadgets.

- The fourth hypothesis has been partially confirmed. The research of Fortunati (1995) pointed out that the mobile phone was comfortable, fast, dynamic, satisfactory, pleasant, rich and active, but also intrusive, cold, superficial and constrictive. In this research the cellular phone is described as: light, rich, strong, active, dynamic, fast, light, deep, pleasant, redeeming, near, comfort, intimate, satisfactory, rich, strong, assets, dynamic, comfortable, intimate, personal and open. Always about the research just mentioned which pointed out negative living, in the current research they look near the neutrality, respect to the couple of adjectives “intrusive - non-intrusive” average 4.95. The perception of superficiality and frivolity moves towards the “deep” adjective. The choice of the “deep” adjective attributes the means a fundamental function in its experience, represents a part of himself. The functional dimension expressed by the adjective “cold” because it is related to the working environment or particular circumstance, moves to the adjective “hot” (average 4.48), which attribute to the instrument the ability to facilitate the relational dimension.
Regarding the variable “constrictive” understood as uninterrupted traceableness, the tool is not experienced as a telecom leash any more but as one widens to the consciousness to be able to escape to the parental control.

- The use competence is high in all the considered age groups.

**Conclusions**

From this research emerges that the mobile phone has a strong symbolic personal value and of brand, especially for teenagers. This age group is especially sensitive to fashion and advertising and the cellular phone represents a status symbol for them and for this they feel represented by it and fashionable by having it. They also invest on the mobile telephone, they check it, they customize it in different way, it have to be controlled, and it is an extension of the self. It is not only a tool but an object with which they have established a very strong emotional relationship.

Haddon et al. (2005) had already showed that the emotional relationship with the mobile phone is connected with the possibility to receive closeness with the others significant. This dimension has been confirmed to the current research, the cellular phone cancels the physical distance, it represents an extension of the self, for this they take it with them, “they wear it out”, take it always turned on, because turn it off means create an emotional distance with all the others, and this is inconceivable, makes them feel bad. The same emotional response is present when there is not field, the reaction of the participants is very strong, they feel lonely, distressed, and go into panic.

The mobile phone has too, change the way in which they related and meet the other. The participants appreciate the speed of the instrument, the fact that they always knows where the other are and what they are doing, so they could modify “when and where”
of the appointments, and can express their point of view easily (through the use of messages).

It was found that all the participants of the research have a good knowledge of the functions and good skills about how to use the mobile phone.

References


Countertransference Empirical Analysis and Evaluation of Clinical Process

Diego Rocco, Diego Zanelli and Annalisa Pettenon
Padua University Italy
diego.rocco@unipd.it

Introduction
The aim of this work is to analyze how the management of countertransference (CNT) feelings impact the quality of some psychotherapy sessions by using a new methodology created to operationalize this fundamental psychodynamic construct. Once we have obtained the CNT values, we’ll verify if there is a relationship between them and the quality of the considered sessions by following the hypothesis that a specific pattern in CNT can be related to the sessions’ outcomes.

From an historical point of view, the construct of CNT was introduced by Freud (1910) to indicate the whole conscious and unconscious feelings experienced by the analyst during the psychoanalytic session which might be an obstacle to the positive development of the analysis. Consequently, Freud suggests a supplementary analysis if countertransference feelings emerge during the psychoanalytic work.

Later, starting with Ferenczi (1918), CNT was considered a very fundamental tool of psychoanalytic process and, as a result, the psychoanalyst can (and should) use it actively. In the fifties Paula Heiman (1950) defined CNT as being everything that the therapist feels regarding the patient. The author claimed that the CNT feelings allow the analyst to better understand the characteristics of both the analytic relationship and the patient internal world (see also Bollas, 1983). She affirmed that the analyst has to necessarily take the CNT feelings into consideration in order to make truly useful interpretations.
Racker (1957), in his fundamental work “The Meaning and Uses of Countertransference”, suggests a distinction between two different CNT categories: the concordant and the complementary. The first category originates from a concordant identification by therapist based on both projection and introjections mechanisms, that allow the therapist to empathize with the patient’s experiences, feelings and defenses. The second originates from the patient projection toward the analyst, that leads the latter to feel and behave as if he was a patient’s internal object (clinically it is particularly relevant if the analyst feels and behaves as a negative internal object). According to the author these two CNT categories are strongly correlated, and the presence of their alternation is necessary for the development of a positive therapeutic process. More precisely, Racker claims that if it is not possible for the therapist to develop a concordant identification (and consequently a concordant CNT) and refuses it, the complementary identification (and consequently the complementary CNT) increases, with the consequence of a negative analytic process (for instance a therapeutic stall).

As Colli and Prestano (2006) and Kiesler (2001) claim, research on CNT is still in an initial phase, and this is also due to the absence in literature of a unique and shared definition of this construct. Some research was developed by considering CNT as a therapist’s cognitive distortion toward the patient (Fiedler, 1951; McClure & Hodge, 1987), while other studies have considered CNT as related to the attachment style, underlining that a therapist’s avoiding personality style is related with CNT emerging feelings (Cutler, 1958). A further line of research has been focusing on the relationship between CNT and both therapy outcome and process. Some studies (Gelso & Hayes, 2002; Safran & Muran, 1996; Jones, 2000) have shown that the comprehension and the management of CNT is correlated with the therapeutic alliance quality.

In our research we want to verify if the comprehension and the management of CNT is correlated not only to the therapeutic alliance quality, but also to the way in which the patient is able to get in touch with his/her deeper conflict and inner feelings.
The sole presence of the complementary CNT should be associated to a therapeutic situation characterized by absence of empathy, that leads to an increase in the patient’s defenses and to an absence of therapeutic progress. The presence of a concordant CNT, involving the presence of empathy by the therapist should, on the other hand, produce a decrease in the patient’s defenses and consequently a good collaboration between patient and therapist. Therefore the psychotherapy should have progress.

In accordance with Racker (1957), we think that it is more the alternation of the two kinds of CNT (concordant and complementary) than the exclusive presence of a concordant CNT which allow a good use of CNT in the clinical process and, as a result, a better psychotherapy outcome.

Starting from these theoretical consideration, our hypotheses are that:

1. It will be possible to recognize and to distinguish the kind of countertransference by the features of the therapist’s verbal productions;

2. The kind of countertransference detected will be correlated with - and due to - the specific patient’s transference;

3. In presence of a specific alternation pattern of the two kind of countertransference, it will be possible to observe a positive evolution of the therapeutic process (expressed by a deeper contact of the patient with his/her inner feelings).

**Method**

In this study we considered two consecutive sessions (Sessions 12 and 13) belonging to the initial phase of a long-term psychodynamic psychotherapy.

The patient, a woman of 46 years old, married with two daughters and employed as a clerk, is an outpatient in a psychological service in northern Italy that she contacted due to relational problems and some somatizations as well. The psychotherapy sessions were held
by a male middle-aged psychotherapist with over fifteen years of experience in psychodynamic approach.

All the sessions were audio recorded with the patient’s informed consent.

**Material**

Sessions 12 and 13 were chosen because they show, from the therapist’s point of view, very different clinical aspects. Session 12 seems to be an unproductive session, characterized by a conflictual interaction model (Jones, 2000), while Session 13 seems to be very productive and characterized by a strong cooperation between patient and therapist.

More precisely, Session 12 is mainly focused on the patient’s life events during which she gives a lot of factual information to the therapist, without analyzing her feelings and motivation. Her attention frequently shifts from her emotions to daily actions and, because of this, the patient and therapist aren’t able to find a common point of view concerning the emerging problems. The patient often relates that other people express disagreement concerning her ideas and choices just as she feels that the therapist is doing. Globally speaking Session 12 is characterized by the patient’s absence of collaboration and by her rejection of the therapist’s clarifications; moreover the patient seems to assume a relational position in which she feels misunderstood and, consequently, unwilling to collaborate. Concerning the therapist’s countertransferal feelings, in Session 12 he reports having felt a very strong and constant irritation, except for the final part of the session, in which his attitude toward the patient changes, and he makes a precise interpretation of the transference/countertransference dynamics. Considering Racker’s suggestions on the different typology of CNT, the therapist’s emotional response can be considered as an expression of complementary CNT, according to which the therapist unconsciously identifies himself with the negative (persecutory) characteristics of the patient’s internal objects that she projects on him (see the projective identification mechanism - Ogden, 1994; Gabbard, 2005).
Conversely, Session 13 is characterized by a high collaboration by the patient, various insights and by her availability to therapist’s point of view and clarifications. Patient and therapist begin the discussion from the last session’s topics, both without expressing feelings of irritation. The therapist tries to analyze the patient’s inner dynamics, underlining how the patient sometimes distorts what others say to her. The therapist’s emotional attitude, characterized by comprehension and availability toward the patient and her psychological dynamics, seems to be an expression of a concordant CNT. This allows him to deeply empathize with the patient.

**Measures**
The methods used to analyze our hypothesis are:

- To evaluate the presence of the transference, the Core Conflictual Relationship Theme (CCRT, Luborsky & Crits Christoph, 1990);

- To evaluate the quality of the session, in terms of the capacity of the patient to express her feelings and sensation by words, the Referential Activity methodology (RA, Bucci, 1997);

- To assess the presence of the countertransference, distinguishing the complementary from the concordant, using the detection of the following verbal markers:

  § percentage use of negative particles (“no” and “not”);

  § number of turns of speech;

  § percentage use of the pronoun “you”;

  § percentage of the therapist’s verbal production.

The CCRT is an instrument that allows the identification of the patient’s main Core Conflictual Relationship Theme by quantifying its presence. The authors (Luborsky & Crits Christoph, 1990) claim
Countertransference Empirical Analysis and Evaluation of Clinical Process

that CCRT is an operational measure of transference that allows
to detect, in different sessions of psychotherapy, the patient’s
prevalent relational (and transferal) pattern. The methodology
foresees the identification by trained judges, inside some specific
moments of patient’s narratives called “Relational Episodes”
(RE), of three components: Wishes (W), i.e. what the patient
desires from the other, the Response from Others (RO), i.e. what
the patient receives (or he/she thinks will receive in relation to the
Wishes), and Response from Self (RS), i.e. the emotional response
he/she has in relation to the Response from Other. For each of the
components, Luborsky and Crits-Cristoph (1990) have developed
a Cluster System, that allows the trained judges to identify the
better fit for each component among eight categories. By the
changes of pervasiveness, i.e. the percentage of presence of the
specific component, it is possible to identify the modification of the
patient’s relationship theme throughout the therapy. This change
can be used as a measure of the therapy outcome, since it allows
one to distinguish adaptive vs non-adaptive components. In this
study CCRT is used to assess the transference in different sessions,
and to put it in relation to the typology of the therapist’s CNT. As
Racker (1968) said, the CNT follows “the law of retaliation”: a
positive transference corresponds to a positive countertransference,
just as a negative transference corresponds to a negative CNT.

The referential activity (RA) is a construct that aims to explain and
analyze, by means of the analysis of patient’s verbal production,
the connection between his/her different elaboration system. The
underlying assumption is that the psychopathology is derived from the
dissociation between the different information elaboration systems.
Bucci’s (1985, 1997, 1999) development of a Multiple Code Theory,
identifies three ways of information processing: subsymbolic (for
instance visceral sensations and feelings that could be very difficult
to express in words), symbolic non-verbal (images) and symbolic
verbal (words). The presence of the connections between these three
modalities of information processing, called referential links, are
indispensable to a person in order to recognize and acknowledge one’s
own emotional experiences, as well as the emotional experiences of
others. The stronger the referential links, the deeper the awareness the person has of his/her own feelings and sensations. Bucci developed a methodology to measure the RA values, that assess the presence and the strength of these referential links. After the segmentation by trained judges of the session’s transcription in Idea Units (IU, or distinct parts of the session, each of which is characterized by a focus), other trained judges use four scales for rating the RA values: Concreteness, Specificity, Clarity, and Imagery. These scales are based on the features of language and derive from standards used in both literary criticism and the psycholinguistic tradition. The scales are scored on a 10-point Likert scale, from 0 to 10. RA value, that is the average of the four scales, and RA trend, allow to verify and assess the evolution of therapeutic process.

To assess the two kinds of CNT, we choose the above mentioned parameters for different reasons. We choose the percentage use of “no” or “not” in therapist total verbal production, because we think that if the therapist is behaving in a complementary CNT, he will express an attitude of rejection toward the patient, expressed by a majority of negative particles compared to those expressed when he is feeling a concordant CNT.

The choice to analyze the number of speech turns is due to the hypothesis that if a complementary CNT is present, then the two actors will more easily interrupt each other, and consequently the number of speech turns will increase.

We choose to analyze the percentage of use of the pronoun “you” because we think that its amount could be an expression of the emotional distance between therapist and patient; the more the “you” percentage, the more the relation distance (compared, for instance, to the use of “we”).

Finally we analyze the therapist’s percentage of verbal production because we hypothesize that when the therapist is feeling a complementary CNT he will tend to override the patient, talking more and, contemporarily, decreasing the listening.
**Procedure**

Sessions 12 and 13 were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim. On transcription some judges, trained to each specific procedure, applied the CCRT methodology, the RA method and calculated the presence of CNT verbal indicators. The assessment of CCRT was made using the “Clusters Method” (see Measures section).

**Results**

Data resulting from the CCRT is presented in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>W</th>
<th>RO</th>
<th>RS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Session 12</strong></td>
<td>To impose herself and be independent</td>
<td>The others are rejecting and opposing</td>
<td>I feel disappointed and depressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>57,1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>42,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To be loved and understood</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>42,9</td>
<td>Unreceptive</td>
<td>28,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Session 13</strong></td>
<td>To be loved and understood</td>
<td>The others are rejecting and opposing</td>
<td>I feel disappointed and depressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>54,5</td>
<td>54,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>They like me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unreceptive</td>
<td>18,2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Values of pervasiveness of CCRT’s components in Session 12 and 13.

In Session 12, seven Relational Episodes were identified, as well as six in Session 13. As we can see, the sessions both differ by the type of cluster and the pervasiveness values. With regards to the W component, we can see that the cluster “To assert self and be independent” is present only in Session 12, and not in Session 13 where the pervasiveness of the cluster “To be loved and understood” increases and thereby remains the only W present. For RO component we only see the cluster “The others are rejecting and opposing” in Session 12; in the subsequent session its pervasiveness strongly decreases (54,5%) and contemporarily the cluster “They like me” (18,2%) appears. Finally, RS component
only shows a slight variation of pervasiveness (“I feel disappointed and depressed” from 42.9% in Session 12 to 54.5% in Session 13; “Unreceptive” from 28.6% in Session 12 to 18.2% in Session 13).

Starting from this data, we can formulate the CCRT for Session 12: “the patient wishes to impose herself and to be independent, loved and understood, but the others are rejecting and opposing, and consequently she feels frustrated, depressed and less receptive”.

The CCRT of Session 13 is: “the patient wishes to be loved and understood, the others are rejecting and opposing but also they like her, and consequently she feels frustrated, depressed and less receptive”.

Figure 1 shows the data produced by RA methodology.

Figure 1. The referential activity values for the patient in Sessions 12 and 13. RA= referential activity

In Session 12 the judges identified 11 idea units (IUs), while they identified 14 in Session 13.

As we can see in Figure 1, the RA values are very different in the considered sessions: Session 13 has higher RA values compared to Session 12, and this is true for almost all of the idea units except IU 2. Moreover, the RA trend in Session 13 shows two bell shaped curves (from IU 2 to IU 8 and from IU 9 to IU 14) that seems to be two referential cycles, that Bucci claims to be an expression of a “good psychotherapy hour.” (Bucci, 1997).
The data concerning the values of verbal indicators for the considered sessions are presented in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CNT indicators</th>
<th>% use of “No” and “Not”</th>
<th>% use of “You”</th>
<th>Number of patient/therapist turns of speech</th>
<th>% therapist’s verbal production</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Session 12</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>65.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 13</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>40.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Data concerning the verbal countertransference indicators.

The data shows a sensible change concerning the values of verbal indicator in Session 13 compared to Session 12. Particularly, the percentage of the negative particles “no” and “not” decreases from 3.23% to 1.95% and the percentage of the use of the personal pronoun “you” decreases as well, passing from 3.37% to 2.72%. The percentage of the therapist’s verbal production decreases from 65.19% in Session 12 to 40.31% in Session 13, while the number of patient/therapist turns of speech decreases of more than 30% in the second considered session (from 150 to 101).

**Discussion**

The data seems to confirm our hypotheses.

Concerning Hypothesis 1, we can see that the two sessions have different values of the considered verbal parameters and this difference goes in the expected direction: the number of turns of speech between patient and therapist decreases, and the same is true for the percentage of use of negative particles “no” and “not” and for the use of the pronoun “you”. Finally the percentage of therapist verbal production decreases strongly. In Session 13 the therapist leaves the patient more time to express her content and opposes and rejects less: in other words he shows a more willing attitude to really listening to the patient. We interpreted this data as a transition from a complementary CNT to a concordant CNT, in so doing confirming Hypothesis 1.
Data resulting from the CCRT show a change of the patient’s prevalent relational model between the two sessions concerning the Wishes and Response from Other components. Compared to Session 12, Session 13 shows us that the patient has a more relational wish (she wants to be loved and understood) and a better vision of the other (he/she likes me and not only rejected me), while in Session 12 both W and RO were negative. We can read in this new CCRT the indication of a positive transference which, in our hypothesis, promotes a concordant CNT (or positive complementary) as a response from the therapist. This result seems to confirm our second hypothesis, suggesting that the type of therapist’s CNT might be correlated with the kind of patient’s transference.

The RA methodology shows that Session 13 has a RA trend and values decidedly better than Session 12. As a matter of fact, the high RA values (in RA methodology values higher than 5 are considered as indicators of a good contact between subsymbolic elaboration system and verbal elaboration system) and the presence of referential cycle tell us that the psychotherapy is working, and that the patient is in touch with her feelings, having been able to elaborate them. All of these aspects are related to a concordant CNT.

This data seems to confirm our third hypothesis, which is that following an alternation of the two types of CNT, the patient reaches a more substantial contact with her subsymbolic level, which is the goal of a psychotherapy associated with a positive evolution of therapeutic process.

Conclusions
With this study, our goal was to analyze the countertransference evolution in two different psychotherapy sessions by trying to distinguish the presence of the CNT categories postulated by Racker starting from the features of the therapist’s verbal production. Notwithstanding the small sample size, the results seem to confirm that this goal has been reached. This has been confirmed by the combination of the methodology we proposed with other already validated methodologies: Luborsky’s CCRT and Bucci’s referential activity.
This is only a pilot study, and our research project foresees on one hand to extend the sample to confirm this preliminary result, and on the other hand to find, if necessary, other parameters in the therapist’s verbal production to analyze his CNT (for example, the analysis of paraverbal aspects of therapist speech as the speech rate; Rocco, 2005, 2008).

References


Successful Global Leaders. La cultura importa.

Dr. Elisa Margaona
University of Behavioral Science. (Mexico)
maresa@prodigy.net.mx

**Summary**
Understanding the cultural differences is important to be able to solve problems and to compete in a globalized world. International consulting psychologists face a difficult task in adapting procedures in different cultural contexts. Analysis and studies made during thirty years in six different countries of Latin America, pointed out the cultural differences observed that had an influence in the working behavior of leaders. A research method was established doing behavior statistical analysis and psychological assessment interviews, to determine possible differences in leadership. The profile of the new generation of leaders is included, mentioning Cultural Intelligence and some of the top skills which according to experts will be needed in future leaders.

International consulting psychologists in the modern global economy face a difficult task in adapting procedures and working methods in different cultural contexts. In organizational psychology, consulting is a professional service and its objective must involve changes in a given culture. There are many viewpoints about the meaning of consulting, ranging from a main focus on business performance and efficiency to one on human relations. It is also meant to increase organizational effectiveness, utilizing behavioral-science knowledge.
This article will develop the concept that success in consulting are the abilities in meeting agreed-upon goals (Kolb and Frohman, 1970), delivering recommendations (Gable, 1996; Schaffer, 1997), improving client satisfaction (Dawes, 1991; Gable, 1996; O’Driscoll, 1993), solving specific problems, achieving commitment, providing reliable information, redefining problems (Turner, 1982), and implementing recommendations (Schaffer, 1997). Experiences in six countries of Latin America are presented, a case for each country, with observations regarding the cultural factors observed that have had an influence in the working behavior of industry leaders. “Empirical management” has evolved in parallel with the scientifically and technological control (Burke, 2008).

All of the above mean change. The issue of change is based in acceptance but always present is the fear of change, both individually and at group level, with risky implications (Clarke, 2002. p. 86-88) and it is necessary first of all, to create a structured work team. Experiences in Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, Peru and U.S.A. will be discussed. The research was made with behavior statistical analysis, implementation of performance appraisal systems, attitude surveys, evaluation of communications and psychological assessment interviews, open ended. The approach is limited and there could be a bias in the selection of firms and in the interpretation of the experience and the results. Nevertheless, the purpose of this effort was to develop some understanding of the cultural differences that have to be met when attempting to do consulting work in those countries. Two issues are addressed to explain the cases. The first concerns the focus on humanistic concerns and the second on business effectiveness.

1. Introduction:
In this paper, we present the experience of working in the retailing and production industry with leaders in six different countries of Latin America, with a case for each country and observations regarding cultural factors observed that had an influence in the working behavior. International consulting psychologists face a
difficult task in trying to adapt leaders to operating in contexts of the one of the country they are visiting and particularly that of the organization which is hiring them. Organizational psychology consulting has the objective of making changes in a given culture. There are many viewpoints about the meaning of consulting, ranging from a main focus on business performance and efficiency (Church, 1994; Kurb, 1996, Burke, 1997; Shenson, 1990) to one on human relations (Burke, 1997; Harrison, 1995). Organizational effectiveness, utilizing behavioral science knowledge, is subject to continuous change (Burke W.W.,2008). Change is required for the existence of any living system, whether biological or social.

Since the beginning of the XXI Century, change became a principle that implied “transform or die”. New abilities were required with the introduction of digital thinking and it also implied different processes. Organizational change also demanded the change of context and practical applications. There have been different approaches to this change. Those with sociological formation are considered the followers of the rational adaptation (Demers, 2007). There is also the organic adaptation (Weick, 1979) and many others psychological, behaviorism and sociological specialists whose vision of the process is different. Approximately in the 1970’s, we observed a gradual change in Latin American organizations, which was influenced by external factors. This influence was either European (Argentina, Brazil, Chile) or North American (Colombia, Mexico, Peru). The growth of the companies in these countries was based mainly in the economic transformation of the period, extended until the 1990’s and consolidated from 1990-2005. In Latin America, the most important changes have been due to economic conditions, global competition and government regulations. Those factors have been responsible for changes and are the impulse of external factors (Demers, 2007, p.41). As a consequence of all the changes, the leaders were forced by the need of organizations to include science in their operations and sophisticated and expensive equipment. Little by little, only the companies that have incorporated those new procedures have survived. We like to think that the process has been similar to
that lived in past centuries when electricity, printing machines, telephones, etc., were introduced in the business. In Latin America, in 2012, you can see street markets (called Tianguis by the Aztecs in Mexico) are using a laptop and, of course, cellular phones to communicate and reorder merchandise. Burke points out that “Empirical Management” (Burke, 2008. p. 27-48) has evolved in parallel with the scientifically and technological control. The issue of CHANGE is based in acceptance, although always present is the fear of change, both individually and at group level, since it requires transition from something familiar to the unknown, with risky implications (Clarke, 2002. p. 86-88). Therefore, at group level, it is necessary to create a structured work team, using modern techniques to prevent conflicts and to motivate individuals. The leaders, as always, occupy the central place in any organization and the attitude towards people become the most valuable asset.

2. Method
The viewpoint in consulting is usually referred to the particular discipline of the author and type of industry. In this particular case, the model for the consulting work has been developed over a period of more than 50 years. In 1954, Impulsora de Ventas Internacional was founded by the author of this paper. Constant change has created a combination of science and practical experience, specialized in developing and implementing a wide variety of human resource management and organizational systems, tailored to specific needs. In the representative examples of this work are included: 1) Behavior statistical analyses; 2) Performance appraisal systems; 3) Attitude surveys; 4) Management training programs, prepared and delivered when required; 5) Psychological assessments for executive/managerial and technical personnel; 6) Quality Service Questionnaires, standardized and developed adapted to each type of company and country where they were applied. The process for developing measuring instruments, based on customer identified needs. In 1978 the validity and reliability of the instruments was determined (Kuder, G.F., Richardson, M.W., 1937) and were subsequently used to design training programs, after the statistical
analysis of results. With this questionnaire, mean scores were calculated. These results were used to evaluate the effectiveness of training programs and process improvements. After determining the customer needs, a team of analysts initiated the procedure of studying the performance of the personnel giving the service and these results were statistically recorded. After the interpretation, the solutions were implemented. The Human Resource Department of the companies started the required training and implemented motivational programs. The results were compared by area and this information was compared by branches and in large chains, by zones. The highest priority was given to processes with low satisfaction scores to prioritize improvement programs. These results were presented to directors of the company and decisions taken accordingly. (Margaona E. S.O.S. pp A-11-A-VIII).

Although the countries where we worked have been within a Latin culture, the differences are sometimes great. The situations that will be mentioned include Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Chile, Peru and Mexico. In these cases, two approaches are discussed: One is related to the humanistic aspect and the other is related to concrete objectives, based in business effectiveness and in terms of investment and profits. The approach used to make this study is limited in that there could be a bias both in the selection of the methods and in the interpretation of the experience. Nevertheless, the purpose of this effort was to develop some understanding of the differences that have to be met when attempting to understand cultural problems in each case.

**Argentina**
The research in Argentina was made with: 1)Behavior statistical analysis. 2)Implementation of performance appraisal system. 3)Attitude surveys of supervisors. 4)Psychological assessment interviews based on a standard protocol. The case chosen involves a company from the United States which decided to evaluate the economic results and the head of their office in Buenos Aires because the financial results had been very negative. The agreed-upon
goal of the consulting was to determine the causes for this failure. The results indicated that they had recruited their head manager on the basis of his high intelligence, his very good references, his experience and his social standing and good connections. After following the four procedures mentioned above, the conclusions were:

- The personality, values and working habit of the Argentinean executive was not adequate for the job. Basic requirements for the position, implied heavy work and constant visits to medium management, who were the ones making buying decisions.

- The type of work to be executed went against the customary activities of a gentleman, according to the values expressed in the psychological interviews. The executive expected to make connections at dinners and social gatherings

- The heavy work was left undone and buying managers were not being visited. The selling job was done by agents who were not trained accordingly, neither by the management nor by the human resource department.

Actions taken: The central office in the U.S. was informed of the situation and the head of the Argentinean branch was dismissed. A new general manager was selected, with the required profile and working culture. A training program for top salesmen was translated and started in the company.

Results: The productivity of the company improved as it was measured with financial reports over a period of six months after the change of leadership.

**Brazil.**
The procedure for the research method used in Brazil was the same as the one used in Argentina, including the following: 1) Behavior statistical analysis. 2) Performance appraisal systems. 3) Attitude
surveys of supervisors. 4) Psychological assessment interviews open ended, based on a standard protocol.

In this case, we represented a North American company not familiar with Brazil, a very large country, with many different cultures. It came as a surprise for the client to find out that there was a rejection towards ideas and procedures that came from the United States. European influence was well accepted. For instance, in retailing, Carrefour France came to Brazil ten years before Wall Mart. In this case, all the procedures and selling programs came from the main office in the U.S.A. and middle management had to accept it whether they agreed with the procedure or not.

Results: The results obtained indicated a similar problem as the one in Argentina. The Director of the Brazilian branch had been chosen on the basis of his social and political connections. Not only he did not get any results but most of the previously trained personnel had left the company and they were losing market. After interviews with outgoing personnel and dissatisfied clients, the conclusion was a lack of leadership. The head man, Director of the Branch, was regarded as a prominent citizen, with no interest in everyday tasks. He visited no clients, had no connection with the work force and his activities were mainly social gatherings.

Actions: The Director was replaced. New staff was selected. Training programs were redesigned in Portuguese, by Brazilian. It took two years to re-organize the Brazilian branch. The productivity of the company improved as it was measured with financial reports over a period of six months after the change of leadership.

Colombia.
The research in Colombia was made with: 1) Behavior statistical analysis. 2) Implementation of performance appraisal systems. 3) Attitude surveys of supervisors. 4) Psychological assessment interviews open ended, based on a standard protocol. 5) *Quality Service Questionnaires* adapted to the company and the country since we were studying a company with 78 hypermarkets located
in different regions and cities of Colombia. Using this method it was possible to evaluate the difference in service in each city and region, with all concepts involved, from personnel attention to installations, stock and prices. The analysis referred in this case was completed in a period of one year. The leadership of the company was on the hands of the grandson of the founder, who acted as an owner, not taking into consideration the changes around him and the new working environment. He gave orders and did not accept explanations or “excuses” as he used to call them. He had no concept of globalization or the competing market. The program designed for this company was based on the following actions:

- The Board of Directors was convinced of the necessity to develop a new organizational culture to include a process of change, incorporating new procedures, responding to external factors.

- The Board of Directors agreed to acquire new technological equipment. Software was installed, improving the technological procedures throughout the country. New leaders had to be found and trained, to create a different company culture, slowly introducing teamwork and fast communications.

- Careers programs were introduced throughout the country, based on stability of the personnel and their productivity. Special training was organized for all the personnel, from one end of the country to the other.

- Financial evaluation was introduced, including property investments throughout the company, since it had not been done in the 85 years of its existence. Competing strategies were established, according to the trends introduced by foreign companies.

- Long term planning was designed on national basis and considering the possibility of expanding to markets of other South American countries.
Results: After one year of work, there was an increase of sales of over 500%. The chain of stores modernized their image, introduced technology, improved their operations throughout the country and built distribution centers. A new Director was appointed by the Board, started the organizational change suggested and the grandson sold the whole chain to a foreign company (from Chile) at a very high price.

Chile.
The research in Chile was made with: 1) Behavior statistical analysis. 2) Psychological assessment interviews open ended, based on a standard protocol applied to management. 3) Studies of foreign wine markets, to establish a benchmark. This country has achieved a faster rate of development and economic growth than any other country in Latin America. In this experience, we found a very distinctive cultural difference at the executive level. The case we are going to mention involves wine producers. The results obtained indicated:

- Leaders were very open to suggestions and rapidly adopted all the ideas presented.
- The leaders were very fast in making decisions even if it meant making mistakes.
- Foreign experiences were carefully studied. European influence is very strong in Chile and it is their preferred market. References and examples mentioned were carefully selected.
- The work was done very fast and objectives reached in less time than in other Latin American countries.
- Leaders were aware of globalization and expected direct help with specific information regarding import regulations for each country and names of prospective buyers in European and American markets.
Organizational change was introduced very rapidly and “empirical management” (Burke, 2008) evolved in parallel to scientific and technological procedures.

**Mexico.**

The same research methods were used and still are being used in Mexico: 1) Behavior statistical analysis. 2) Performance appraisal systems 3) Attitude surveys of supervisors 4) Psychological assessment interviews open ended, based on a standard protocol. 5) *Quality Service Questionnaires.* In the year 2012 over two hundred different standardized questionnaires have been designed, evaluating personalized needs according to the formats of each company, evaluating personnel attention, installations, inventory, loss prevention methods and technological efficiency. In this case, research was done over a period of one year. These *Questionnaires* were applied by specialists from *Impulsora de Ventas Internacional.* The researchers have formal training in the disciplines of industrial/organizational psychology, business administration and survey techniques. The assignments were approached from a data-based perspective obtained in interviews with the owners, directors and top executives to evaluate each question included in the research and, if necessary, add other important issues. The results obtained were examined and monitored with the client. The possible solutions were discussed in meetings with the company executives and we worked with the client to implement the procedure to obtain positive results. The organizational change was measured as well as the change in the attitude of the supervisors. The most important results observed were:

- From the information obtained in the *Questionnaires,* programs were developed to improve performance in the most needed issues. The method for the selection of leaders was changed.

- Incentives were given to supervisors with a high performance and who had a positive attitude
• Special training was designed for individuals who were not performing correctly and whose average marks in the evaluation process were below the national media. (Barriere, M., Kaplan, 1998. Margaona, 1998).

• A leadership program was established, based in the change in the attitude of the supervisors. During the XX Century, the common attitude of the leaders was to follow instructions received from the upper management, to obey manuals and regulations to the letter and to apply penalties to those who did not achieve a set average in their performance evaluations. In the first decade of the XXI century, the culture of middle management had changed. The companies had training programs which included coaching and were focused in human relations. A new style of leadership was taught, stressing the importance of a friendly relationship with subordinates and a personalized treatment, modifying the supervising methods.

Some of the executives accepted new methods of “empirical management” (Burke, 2008, p.27-48) and some did not (older people), so in training sessions the importance of adapting to the “modern” culture and the benefits of doing so was emphasized.

Peru.
In Peru the research methods used were: 1) Behavior statistical analysis. 2) Implementation of performance appraisal systems. 3) Psychological assessment interviews. 4) Quality Service Questionnaires adapted to the organizational culture of the company, evaluating personnel attention, installations, inventory, loss prevention methods and technological efficiency. The study was done in the largest chain of hypermarkets in the country, which was beginning to receive foreign competition and the influence of a new working culture. The Questionnaires were applied in the branches of the capital city.

Results: The analysis indicated that there was a lack of middle
management and as a consequence many personnel problems developed through the country which were difficult to solve in time. It was not possible to grow and open new units because there were not trained management candidates.

**Actions taken:**

- A training program for managers operating branches throughout the country was started, following the principle of learning through teaching, so it was the managers’ responsibility to develop abilities in their personnel to create the much needed middle management.

- The personnel of the company accepted easily new ideas, particularly those coming from the U.S.A., as opposed to our experience in Brazil. This fact opened the doors to the introduction of the “empirical management” suggested by Burke (1982).

- The top executives and the owners participated in all the activities during the process. We found that the leadership was centered on these top executives and no idea was considered or discussed if it was not previously approved by them. An organizational change was necessary and the first objective was to convince the need of that change in the mind of the Directors of the company.

**Discussion.**

In the present global economy, companies with huge operations train and form their own consultants according to their necessities and they travel constantly to study individual needs in each area. International consulting professionals face a difficult task in trying to adapt ideas and operating systems in different cultural contexts, such as the one of the country or region they are visiting and particularly that of the organization which is hiring them. A consultant has to focus in improving business performance and efficiency (Church, 1994; Kubr, 1996, Burke, 1997; Senson, 1990),
develop positive human relations (Burke, 1997; Harrison, 1995) and increase organizational effectiveness, utilizing behavioral-science knowledge (Burke, 1982).

The theory of Cultural Intelligence (CQ) within management points out that understanding the impact of an individual’s cultural background on the behavior is essential for effective business and it makes possible to measure the individual’s ability to engage successfully in the environment or social setting. CQ has been gaining acceptance and helps to implements strategies to improve cultural perception and to distinguish behaviours driven by culture from those specific to an individual, suggesting that allowing appreciation of the difference of the impact of culture in the intelligence helps in the design of training material, improves communications and web designs, guiding responses and helping to obtain better results in business practices. (Cultural Intelligence: Individual Interactions Across Cultures, P.Christopher Earley, Soon Ang. Stanford Business Books.). The theory emphasizes that CQ is developed through three means: 1) COGNITIVE, learning about your own and other cultures. 2) PHYSICAL, using your senses and adapting your movements and body language to blend in; and 3) MOTIVATIONAL training, gaining rewards and strength from acceptance and success. Current trend is to use cultural intelligence in pre-employment assessments. A scale has been created to measure an individual’s CQ. Dr. Soon Ang worked with Linn Van Dyne to validate the Cultural Intelligence Scale and Dr. David Livermore has written several books on the matter.

After thousands of interviews, we have found that a new generation of potential leaders is emerging in developing countries. Gone are the slackers, disloyal upstarts. Some of the characteristics of these new leaders are:

- They are independent, view themselves as free agents and the employers as clients.
- They base their future from options, rather than commitment within the hierarchy of a corporation.
• They believe that success will be obtained from mobility, rather than stability. They like to move from one job to another, considering this as the basis of learning and obtaining valuable experience.

• They are techno-literate and study to handle more than one language.

• They look for flexible work schedules, particularly feminine workers.

• After one or two “good jobs” and two “bad jobs”, they think about starting their own business.

Some of the top skills which according to experts will be needed in future leaders are cultural competency described as Cultural Intelligence, learning agility and strategic vision to perceive changes in the environment and in the competitive world.

Conclusions.
Understanding the cultural differences is important to be able to solve problems and to compete in a globalized world where the work force is the basis of success. Success of any type is the result of the inclusion of the suggestions extracted from the staff involved in the implementation phase, so that they embrace the changes as being their own and when the people involved can say “we did it ourselves”. To be able to achieve that group feeling, it is necessary that the person who is charge of changes is “one of the crowd”, a person who knows the culture and who has been able to incorporate the good of all the countries where he has studied or worked, but who remains truthful to the place he is working at present. Cultural Intelligence or cultural competence, learning agility and strategic vision to perceive important changes in the competitive world are some of the top skills which according to experts will be needed in future leaders. Companies have to re-think and re-cast their organizations to attract and retain their work force. New leaders are emerging just like economies of
the countries they live in and are undergoing the most profound changes in three centuries.

References


Shenson, H.L. (1990), How to select and Manage Consultants, Lexington Books, Lexington, MA.

One Context, two Sexes and three Genders: discursive positioning of Brazilian trans-prisoners in Italian jails

Alexander Hochdorn
Laboratory Interaction & Culture,
University of Padova,
Department of Philosophy, Sociology, Education and Applied Psychology,
alexander.hochdorn@psyveneto.it

Paolo F. Cottone,
Laboratory Interaction & Culture,
University of Padova,
Department of Philosophy, Sociology, Education and Applied Psychology,
Italy. paolo.cottone@unipd.it

Brigido V. Camargo,
Social Psychology of Communication and Cognition Laboratory,
Federal University of Santa Catarina,
Centre of Philosophy and Human Sciences
brigido.camargo@yahoo.com.br

Bruna Berri,
Social Psychology of Communication and Cognition Laboratory,
Federal University of Santa Catarina,
Centre of Philosophy and Human Sciences.
brunaberri@hotmail.com

Abstract
The research is focused on a quite particular and worldwide unique situation, concerning the Italian penitentiary system: Brazilian
transwomen\(^1\), detained in a separate section of the female ward of the jail of Florence-Sollicciano (Italy). Discursive positioning between trans-prisoners, common inmates (birth-assigned women and men\(^2\)) and staff members has been investigated, in order to understand how the sexualized semantic of Italian language, on one hand, and the strict material and symbolic walls of jail, on the other, influence representation of sex by transgender themselves, as well as by social actors, who constantly interact with them. The study, therefore, aims to demonstrate how transgender reproduce certain genderized ideal-types, with regard to symbolic coordinates of culture, physical and normative structure of context, as well as linguistic meta-artifacts, circumscribing zones of meanings, which move in a feminine or masculine direction. The corpus of data, therefore, consists in six semistructured interviews with staff members and five in-depth interviews with trans-prisoners of the Sollicciano jail. Quali-quantitative analysis of textual data, adopting the software Alceste, has been used in order to investigate how the genderized structure of Italian language produces sexualized Ideal-types of identity. Results show that the constitutive elements of discursive production (lexicon, semantics, semiotics) generate narrative repertoires, with similar structure and affine representations of self and others. Language, especially, assumes a reifying function, at the moment, that semantic categories define normative links between self and context. Gender identity, actually, is circumscribed by precise discursive and cultural borders.

**Introduction**

Detainment can be considered as an extreme experience on a psychological, social, cultural and ethical level. Modern prisons tried to change the concept of “Discipline & Punish” into a model of

---

\(^1\) With regard to recent sociological definitions (Vidal-Ortiz, 2009; Connell, 2010) the term “Transwoman” is referred to people, who were born with male sex, but claim a gender identity more affine to a feminine representation of self.

\(^2\) Scientific literature (Schilt & Westbrook, 2009) indicates with birth-assigned women and men, people whose gender identity coincides, on a psychological, social and cultural level with that of the biological sex.
“Correction & Education” (Foucault, 1975/1979). In Italy, after World War II, the penitentiary system developed a series of institutional modifications, in order to prevent the dramatic conditions, of what Foucault defined as the logic of agonistic punishment. Besides various initiatives, like work, sports, educational and creative activities, some prisoners have been collocated in special wards according to typology of crime and identity. With regard to this last variable, there are sections for homosexuals, drug addicts, sex offenders (abusers of women and children), inmates with psychiatric deceases, as well as trans-prisoners. Above all this last category presents an anomaly for prison’s administration, at the moment that gender is associated to anatomic sex. Transgender, therefore, who haven’t already rectified their primary gonads, are classified as men and according to Italian law, they have to be assisted by prison guards of the same sex and be collocated in male sectors. Because of continues conflicts, tensions and sexual promiscuity, however, trans-prisoners couldn’t anymore interact with common inmates and therefore they have been relegated within special sections inside the male ward. Only in the prison of Florence-Sollicciano, the section for transgender has been inserted in the female ward, in order to better recognize transgenders’ right to claim a feminine identity. Prison guards, operating in this section, have been instructed to interact with transgender, considering them as women, above all on a linguistic level.

Italian, such as most of neo-latin idioms, is characterized by a sexualized dichotomous semantic: the suffixes of the declinations, for example, change, whether the speaker is a woman or a man. A simple expression like “I turned towards home” is expressed in a different way if the interlocutor is a woman: “sono tornata a casa”; or a man: “sono tornato a casa”. In this sense, people are “talking gender” and their identity can be discursively defined only in a masculine or feminine direction. Such linguistic reification processes increases within total institutions, because inmates have been spoiled of their subjectivity in order to be included in predefined clusters of identity, like age, citizenship and sex. Prisoners, “whose gender falls somewhere between or outside of the binary system” (Gagné, Tewksbury & Mc Gaughey, 1997, 479), risk to deconstruct the normative, cultural and ideological
function of penitentiary system. Therefore, though their special section is logistically collocated inside the female ward, their life conditions in the institute are almost restricted within the narrow walls of a separated sector.

According to ideological decision making, political instances of prison’s administration are attend on contextual and linguistic aspects, while positioning themselves with trans-prisoners. Otherwise inmates and guards, working daily in jail, enhance pragmatic and relational aspects of prison, turning it into an ordinary context. With regard to transwomen’s identity, culture exercises a stronger impact than gender because nearly all trans-prisoners detained in the jail of Florence are from Brazil (especially the urban macro area of São Paolo and the region of Minas Gerais).

This study aims to show that different contexts shape different “languages”, demonstrating that identity is circumscribed by situated discursive practices. If, as affirmed by Wittgenstein, “the limits of my language mean the limits of my world” (1922/2012, 356), the limits of those languages who provide two dichotomous grammatical genders, will split reality into two semantic and symbolic universes: a male discourse and a female one. These fix clusters, however, change from context to context and depend on the situativity of everyday interactions. In this sense language becomes a social script and culture the stage on which people are performing their identity.

Method
On a methodological level interaction amongst cognitive structure of discourse (Van Dijk, 1993) and cultural as well as material context (Cole, 1995), has been investigated. Language, as a very complex meta-artifact (verbal, para-verbal, expressive and reifying), constitutes the principal tool of analysis. According to Cole’s interpretation of Vygotskij’s theories about linguistic processes (Cole, 1995), language has to be considered a mediation artifact, situated within specific contexts of interaction. This artifact is structured along lexical and semantic parameters, reified by culture and social
values. Goal of the research consists in individuating those socio-cognitive processes, which are responsible for the construction of sexualized discourses. Analyzing the complex logical-grammatical structure of language (semantic) and the mediative-relational function of communication (semiotic) made it possible to reproduce the intentional strategies, involved in reifying discourse to socially legitimized systems of interaction (Van Dijk, 2006).

With regard to the theoretical frame of this study, the program for statistic analysis of textual data, ALCESTE\(^3\), has been adopted, in order to investigate organization of discourse, through hierarchic descendent classification of lexical classes (Reinert, 1990; Camargo, 2005). From the corpus of interviews have been chosen those answers, produced by prison’s staff members (discourse of power) and trans-prisoners (discourse of repression), which refer to the con-textual construction of gender, in terms of language (dichotomous structure of Italian and Portuguese), norms (ideological function of prison) and environment (material borders of jail). This textual repertoire constitute a UCI (Unité de Contexte Indicielle - elementary unit of context), on which the lexicometric tasks of the software have been applied. The program elaborated a hierarchic descendent analysis of semantic content and made emerge five stable classes, related to different narrative genres within a same discursive event (Wodak, 2001): 1.) norms, 2.) informal situations, 3.) body, 4.) family, 5.) society.

The graphical outputs of the program show the distributions of the lexical classes, according to frequencies and statistical significance, on a tree-diagram (percentiles of lexical classes) and a cartesian coordinate system (specific collocation of semantic utterances). These two operations allowed to demonstrate the co-occurrences of single semantic clusters with regard to various narrative repertoires, produced by different social actors in different situations, but embedded within the same context. Investigating the morphemic, syntactic and

---

3  Analyse des Lexèmes Co-occurents dans les Énoncés Simples d’un Texte (also: Analyse Lexicale par Contexte d’un Ensemble de Segment de Texte) - Analysis of co-occurring lexemes within simple statements of text
semantic units of discourse through content analysis, allowed the emergence of inter-textual relations (Wodak, 2001) between various lexical classes, demonstrating how people with different status and roles produce and reproduce similar rhetoric strategies, while sharing a same institutional environment: the prison.

A method, combining qualitative data with statistically supported tools of analysis, permits to study the relation between cognitive organization of language (lexicon and semantic), psychological relevance of interaction (emotions and motivations), communicative function of discourse (rhetoric and intentionality) and socially legitimized plans and actions (norms, symbols, ideologies).

**Corpus of Data**

Data collected for the research, consist in two kinds of interviews:

1. Six semistructured interviews with the stakeholders: The chief of prison’s administration of Tuscany, the vice-director of Sollicciano’s jail, a prison’s guard, operating directly in the transgender section (male) and the servant (female), responsible for the women’s ward, where this special sector is collocated. Furthermore the Psychologist and the Educator of the institute, have been interviewed. These witnesses produce a formal and professional perception of prison’s context, representing the institutional power. The semi-structure of the interview, permits to obtain concrete informations about prison’s organization and above all about the institutionalized representation of gender in these extreme contexts. An other reason for the choice of this instrument, consists in the fact, that all questions asked to Italian public officers have to be authorized by a ministry; in this case, the Ministry of Justice in Rome.

2. Five in-depth interviews with the transwomen, detained in the prison. The whole number of inmates in that section counts about 18 units and they are all original from Brazil, in particular the regions of São Paolo and Minas Gerais. The structure of the interviews has been organized, offering
to interlocutors the possibility to talk spontaneously about their life in “transition”, not only between genders (man and woman), but also between cultures (Brazil and Italy) and contexts (freedom and detainment). The choice of a not structured instrument for inmates’ interviews has also been kept, because of some difficulties of communication on a linguistic and cultural level. Besides being from Brazil, some of the prisoners showed a very low level of alphabetization. Using a semi-structured interview would have been therefore an improper choice.

Results
With regard to the focus of research, analysis wants to demonstrate how the genesis of a language, lexically declined according to a dichotomous sexual order, produces shared representations of genderized realities, which can be expressed semantically only in two ways: male or female.

In order to construct the UCI from the gathered interviews, different methodological procedures have been adopted ex-post, in order to isolate six discursive clusters: representation of body, sex, gender, society, work and self. The software split the UCI in five stable classes (graph 1), with regard to linguistic representations of: norms (class 1), informal situations (class 2), body (class 3), family (class 4) and society (class 5).

Graph 1: Tree-diagram of hierarchic descendant classification:
From the tree-diagram (graph 1) emerges, that class 1 (norms) is correlated to class 4 (family), which co-occurs in turn with class 5 (society). Classes 2 and 3, regarding to informal situations and representation of body are in strict interdependence, but their haven’t been measured statistically significant correlations with classes 4 and 5, if not indirectly through class 1 (norms). At the moment discourses in informal situations (class 2), characterized by typical rhetorical forms of conversation like interjection, exclamation and adverbs - ‘ehm’, ‘well’, ‘so’, ‘already’ - are strictly associated to representation of body (class 3), indicates a positioning towards personal and intimate contents. Using such informal expressions of conversation, denote the linguistic genre with concreteness and narration, enriched with subjective elements, becomes personal and episodic.

If linguistic representation of family (class 4) results strictly associated to that of society (class 5) means, that discourses produced during interactions with familiars and parents, often reflect widespread culturally legitimized systems of ideological meanings. Living in a sexualized world, implies a genderized positioning between all members, sharing a same social context. The cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1998/2001) becomes a parameter, in order to reproduce discursively symbolic signifiers on all levels of interaction: from micro to macro.

Personal representations, otherwise, collocate in a central, egosintonic position the possibility to claim, throughout a more intimate range of agency (not familiars or parents, but “chosen” friends and partners), an authentic affirmation of self in contrast to preconceived roles and status. It is interesting to notice, that language and body absolve a double function, according to the social representation of a sexualized self. Lexemes, regarding to dualistic representations of gender, are characterized by a series of morphemes alluding to highly sexualized dimensions, like mother and father (two antinomic antipodes). Discourses produced in family contexts, indeed, are strictly associated to representations of norms (class 1). Therefore classes 2 and 3 on one hand and classes
4 and 5 on the other result nearly independent, if not indirectly through normative superstructures (class 1). Interaction between classes 4 and 5, where representations of family and society co-occur, demonstrates the strict relation between shared systems of social meanings and the constant mediation of these variables during positioning with parents and familiairs. Linguistic genres according to social values and private life form a same discursive repertoire, reflecting the limelights and frames, which, according to Goffman (1959), confer a sense of continuity to the liquid, thin and invisible actions of everyday practices. Situated actions, therefore, produce believes, opinions, attitudes, behaviors and representations. Norms, indeed, emerge as reified representations form these processes, becoming a horizon of signification (Wodak, 2001), which generates an invisible continuum of different limelights in social life. Symbolic universes are the coordinates, regulating personal and social actions.

Lexically a discursive habitus has been created, which identifies in diversity, such as people who passes through genders, the deviant expression of a hypothetic disease and therefore a social problem. The program Alceste, according to lexical co-occurrences, reproduces iconographically (graph 2) the distribution of normative aspects, reflecting dominant representations on one hand, meanwhile on the other variables regarding to ideal-typic signifiers. These reflect social representations, as well as zones of personal meanings, such as intimate and everyday positioning. Situated signifiers emerging from social interactions, define individual representations.

In the upper zones of positive quadrants lexical meanings can be individuated, that circumscribe normative universes and macro-systems of widespread values, as well as a series of lexemes regarding to psychological and cognitive processes like ‘mind’ and ‘head’. The interaction between the artifact - sexualized body - and the socio-cognitive representation of a genderized identity, becomes a practice, embedded within a specific cultural field (Bourdieu, 1998/2001). Words like ‘father’, ‘son’ and ‘god’, underline not only the strong isomorphism between sexual and
gender dichotomy, but even more the hard masculine connotation of a genderized neo-latin language, where the male gender is not only referred to man, but more generally to universal or neutral meanings: “uomo” not only means man but also human being; a group composed of members, belonging to both genders, is expressed through a masculine syntax: ‘i ragazzi’ means ‘boys’ but also ‘people’, meanwhile ‘le ragazze’ can only be used if the group is exclusively composed by girls. Some professions only exist in a masculine form - “il provveditore” - “chief of administration”, “il chirurgo” - “the surgeon” - and also in case of professions, declinable with feminine suffixes, the masculine variant will be usually maintained, if referred to general institutional definitions: the president of a nation, though being a woman, will always be called “Il Presidente” and not “La Presidentessa”, a female Psychologist will be officially classified as “Lo Psicologo” (masculine gender) and not “La Psicologa” (feminine gender). Lexemes, alluding to zones of meanings such as ‘father’ and ‘god’ are, therefore, all collocated along the highest zones of the orthogonal side of graph 2, demonstrating that individual and collective representations of society are dominated by a strong heteronormative and patriarchal imprint. This aspect is in common to most of Mediterranean cultures, above all those, which adopt a genderized neo-latin idiom. Systems of knowledge, cultural horizons and everyday interactions are implicitly influenced by masculine perceptions of reality, which “represent a paradigmatic form of the ‘phallonarcissistic’ vision and the androcentric cosmology, which are common to all Mediterranean societies and which survive even today” (Bourdieu, 1998/2001, 6).

Descending along the ordinate axis, semantical concepts refer to more ordinary and less institutionalized aspects, describing a more intimate representation of self and others. Words, like ‘together’, ‘accept’, ‘family’, ‘all guys’ and ‘cue’, move towards the origin of the cartesian system, namely of what Jodelet (1989) defined as central representations. The use of such expressions in text is quite affine to discursive productions, representing systems of meanings, characterizing egosintonic positioning. These lexical
meanings, if considered in the context they have been produced, refer to participation and recognition of self and the generalized other. Always around the center of the cartesian plan, a more personal and intimate positioning can be identified, which has been formalized, on a linguistic level, by morphemes like “woman” and “man”, instead of “female” and “male”. These last terms, especially, belong to a bio-deterministic representation of sex, meanwhile, as thought by De Beauvoir (1949/2012), woman and man are socially, culturally and psychologically defined systems of situated identities.

Towards the origin of the cartesian systems, the clouds of meanings contain words, referring to everyday and therefore emotionally relevant relations with the others. Everyday practices are expressed through the morphemes ‘today’ and ‘now’, appearing frequently across the interviews with trans-prisoners and guards, while being nearly absent in discourses produced by the chief of administration and the vice-director of Sollicciano’s institute. These “talking practices” (Schegloff, 1991), are collocated inside a same cloud of verbs, such as ‘doing’, ‘thinking’ and consequently ‘being’, intended as the most authentic expression of once existence.

In the negative quadrants, instead, appear lexemes according to a representation of gender, reflecting a linear and sexualized order. Analyzing the distribution of lexical meanings across the cartesian plan, emerge semantic clouds, containing specific words, which characterize a specific narrative genre. At the top of the coordinate system, their are lexemes defining a normative semiotic, meanwhile towards the centre appear words, concerning to personal and intimate representations os self. Finally in the lower parts of the graph, most of the morphemes refer to crystalized modalities of interaction, namely representations, mediated with social actors, nor more belonging to private and intimate dimensions, but to public ones.

With regard to a classical sociological perspective (Durkheim, 1912/2001), the graphical outline of the cartesian plan reproduces a social structure, passing from symbolic representations, through
individual ones (psychological, emotive, private), to collective systems of representations, which develop in the limelights of everyday life (Goffman, 1959). In the quadrants 3 and 4 appear words like ‘sex’, ‘male’, ‘homosexual’ and ‘transexual’. Finally, in quadrant 3, there appears the process of social adaptation, expressed through the noun ‘problem’. This pathological perception of who passes between genders, characterize social representations not only of heternormative majorities, but also of transgenders themselves. The dominant representation, emerging from semantic meanings in the negative quadrants, refers to a sexualized agent, whose particular sexuality becomes a social problem first and a deviance afterwards. Distributions of lexemes along the whole cartesian system shows that meanings associated to transgender identities, are affected by reifying processes with regard to social interactions (quadrants 3 and 4) and cultural norms (quadrants 1 and 2). These two positions assume peripheral values (highest zones of positive quadrants and lowest zones of ones), constituting the frame of daily interactions, which define the discursive representation of self collocated at the origin of the cartesian plan.

In synthesis, through quali-quantitative analysis of text and discourse, is was possible to understand how semantic expressions, namely portions of lexical contents, produce particular narrative genres, defined by Wodak (2001) as inter-textuality and inter-discursivity. These portions of con-text, because of the strong organization of language, have been analyzed through statistic operations. The different lexical classes, individuated by the program Alceste, are in a constant interdependence, showing how gender identity emerges from paradigmatic representations (norms and language) and pragmatic practices (positioning and discourse).

Conclusions
The tools of analysis made emerge rhetoric tendencies (lexical, semantic and semiotic) with regard to textual contents, focused on representations of self and others as genderized identities. Part of this lexical classes are sexual ideal-types, shared norms, models
of behavior, affects and relational systems of the generalized other. Graphical outputs of Alceste showed that discourses present different narrative structures, whether speech regards public topics (norms, culture, interactions with the generalized other) or private dimensions (representation of self, affects, interactions with the significant other). If situational variables result particularly relevant for stakeholders (especially prison’s administration and direction), experiences, relations and affects, instead, become much more important for inmates and penitentiary guards. Prisoners show a positioning, clearly focused on relational and pragmatic aspects because jail, despite its correctional function, turns into an ordinary context, made of everyday actions, affects and functional duties. Body and language, therefore, define zones of meanings, which are sexually circumscribed.

Gender identity, according to what emerged from the study, is a practice of interaction, a symbolic process and a representation of self and others. Context, social situations and language define sexualized ideal-types of identity and therefore, personal and social representation of gender are influenced by the intensity of cultural and normative patterns. More a context of interaction is determined by a preconceived order of meanings, like prison, more it restricts agency in claiming a gender identity, in contrast to the logic classification between woman and man. Identity, indeed, has to be understood as a mobile system of signifiers, textured in a complex network of psychological processes, social practices and cultural capitals. This kaleidoscope, made of intra-, inter- and extra-personal representations turns into concrete sense, whether shared by discourses, legitimated by normative, pragmatic, as well as affective coordinates.

Gender could be sawn as a script, a unity of actions and behaviors, performed on the stages and the limelights of everyday live (Goffman, 1977). But gender with regard to romanic idioms is also defined by linguistic borders, determining a positioning according to one or the other brink of sexual dualism.

If the limits of language, as theorized by Wittgenstein (1922/2012)
mean the limits of knowledge about self, others and the world, those languages, its’ lexical parameters are relegated within two
sexual antipodes, will define symbolic, normative and psychological boundaries of a cultural, social and subjective representation of gender, which can be semantically declined only in a female or male form.

References


Vidal-Ortiz, S. (2009). The figure of the transwoman of color through the lens of „Doing Gender“. *Gender & Society*, 23(1), 99-103


Understanding the Terrorists’ Mind

Sarlito Wirawan Sarwono
Faculty of Psychology, Persada Indonesia University, Indonesia
sarlito_sarwono@yahoo.com

Since the year of 2000 until today there have been many bombings in Indonesia. Including the Bali bombing I in 2002, which took over 200 lives. Various analyses have been made from different angles (social-cultural, economics, politics, criminology), mostly condemned external factors (poverty, anti-Islamism, low education, ideology, US conspiracy etc.) as the source of the Indonesian chronic sectarian violence. However, as a social-clinical psychologist, I see the need to study the psychology of the actors to enable psychologists, the police and related institutions, to make proper intervention to prevent future violence and to rehabilitate, reeducate and deradicalize the ones who have been arrested.

My study started at 2004 by analyzing the psychology of four actors of Bali Bombing I (three have been sentenced death penalty and executed) and expanded it with other 47 actors in 2007. The main result is that these terrorists are not insane. They don’t meet any category in DSM IV. Their actions might be criminals, but psychologically they are normal. As normal people, I believe that they can be persuaded to change their mind, particularly in lessening their violent drive. So in 2009, my assistants and I carried out a deradicalization program for around 40 ex-terrorists in prisons and detention homes (for inmates and detainees) and in an outside house (for the released ones). The program runs for 3 months in a form of weekly informal discussions about Jihadism in normal daily life. It proves that the participants are reluctant to change their beliefs at the level of ideology (Islamic law, Islamic country), but they are more ready to change their mind at strategic or tactical levels (e.g. it is not proper to make war in a peaceful
land, my family is the most important at this point).

Therefore my projects in 2011 will be on three themes: (1) Expanding the deradicalization program for inmates and detainees, (2) Using deradicalized ex-terrorists to preach before the community at large (including through the media) on non-violent Jihad, and (3) mapping the degree of radicalism among lay Muslims in main cities of Indonesia. All results of the studies are submitted to the government to be implemented in deradicalization and counter terrorism programs.

When my team and I revealed in our first study (Sarwono et al. 2006; Sarwono, 2006, 2077b, 2008) that the terrorists are normal people and mentally healthy, I conclude that it must be possible to change their radical violent ideology (jihad) to less radical one. Ideology is a learned knowledge and mental attitude. It is not given or born. Since it is learned, theoretically it should be able to be changed through systematic educational, training or other intervention program.

So I proposed a deradicalization-training program as a pilot study for ex-terrorist to the University of Indonesia (then I was a psychology professor at the university), through its Directorate of Research and Community Service. The objective of the study is to improve national security through minimizing the level of Islamic radicalism among inmates in prisons and detention houses as well as those who have been released.

The University of Indonesia accepted the proposal, and it has been executed in 2009. In carrying out the program, the research team collaborated with the PSQ (Center of Al Qur’an Studies), Center of Research and Development of the Ministry of Religious Affair, the Division 88/Counter terrorism of INP (the Indonesian National Police), Directorate General of Correction, and a private Moslem Foundation (Panti Asuhan Muslimin) that has provided facilities for discussion of ex-inmates. This is the detailed report of the study.
The Study.
This study is based on social intervention presumption (Hardcastle, & Patricia, 2004; Zaltman, Philip, & Ira, 1972). If this study is successful, it can be a model for Islamic clerics who work in prisons and detention homes, to develop an intervening relationship with the inmates and detainees that can encourage their motivation towards less radical and less violent Islamic ideology.

It is assumed that terrorism is a behavior based on radical attitude. Attitude is not born. It is learned. Attitudes change from time to time, depends on internal and external condition of the individual (Zaltman, Philip, & Ira, 1972). In case of terrorism, it is hypothesized that learned radical attitude can be relearned by providing a training intervention program (Martín, & Joseph, 2003).


Diagram 6.1. describes that normal religious attitude can be influenced by radical doctrine and group pressure so it becomes radical and ended in a radical behavior, which can be bombing or other violent criminal behavior. Without intervention it can be even more radical in prison/detention homes due to the influence of other radical inmates. However, with intervention it is hoped that the radicalism can be minimized.
Originally there will be two main groups, experimental and control groups. Both groups will be given a same set of attitude scales at the beginning (pre-test) and at the end of the study (post-test) to measure their degree of radicalism (Meyers, Guarino, & Gamst, 2005). A sequence of 12 weekly discussions, with duration of 2 hours for each discussion, will be given to the experimental groups as the intervention program to minimize their radicalism (Lewin, 1964; Maslow, 1989; Chris Argyris, 1970), whereas the control groups will not be given any treatment. The hypothesis is that the posttest scores of the control groups will remain high radical, while the posttest scores of the experimental groups will become less radical. Distribution of the experimental and control group was planned as follows.

Tabel 6.1. Distribution of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of group</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Number of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control group</td>
<td>Cipinang Prison</td>
<td>4 persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Police Mobile Brigade Detention Home Kelapa Dua</td>
<td>12 persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental group</td>
<td>Tangerang Prison</td>
<td>4 persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jakarta Metropolitan Police Detention home</td>
<td>11 persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outside prison and detention home: Muslimin orphanage</td>
<td>13 persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>44 persons</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, in its implementation, the study has to face many constraints. Firstly, all participants refused doing all written test (the attitude scale), due to their suspicion that the written test can be misused as new evidence of their involvement in terrorism and
will be reported to the police. Our original plan to use *mixed method research design* (Creswell & Clark, 2007) has to be altered to fully qualitative *grounded research design* (Strauss & Corbin, 1997). Only after one year of continuous collaboration in the research, the participants are willing to do a drawing projective test called CHaD (Davido 1994, 2011).

Due to the refusal of filling in questionnaire, the control group was cancelled, and any written test was omitted. All process was carried out verbally, tape-recorded and transcripted in written report by facilitators. Total number of participants were 28, 15 inmates and 13 have been released from prison. The free participants met each week at the “Muslimin” Orphanage since it is considered as more suitable and convenient to their Islamic background (compared to the campus), and located at the easily reach centre of the city of Jakarta.

A team of ustadz (Islamic teachers/lecturers) was assigned to facilitate the discussions. The team consisted of Islamic scholars of the State Islamic University, Jakarta, i.e. Dr. Muchlis M. Hanafi, MA and Dr. Ali Nurdin, MA (both were assigned at the Jakarta Metropolitan Police Detention home, because it has most of the participants, some of them are high class terrorists such as AI, AD, Zks and Hsd⁴), Dr. A. Wahib Mu’thi, MA (Tangerang Prison) and Dr. Asep Usman Ismail, MA (Muslimin Orphanage). The psychology team consisted of psychologists of the university of Indonesia, i.e. Alfindra Primaldhi, S. Psi. BA Psy., and Muhamad Faisal Magrie, S. Psi (Jakarta Metropolitan Police Detention home), Idhamsyah Eka Putra, M. Si (Tangerang prison) and Zora A. Wongkaren, M. Psi (Muslimin orphanage). I participated in all locations (different times) and did the depth interviews myself.

Before execution all facilitators and psychologists were given two days training by officers of Special Detachment 88/Anti Terror

---

⁴ AI: Bali Bomber I, AB: leader of military wing of JI, Hsd: commander of wakalah Poso, and executing coordinator of mutilation of 3 female high-school students at Poso, Muis and Haris, Hsd’s subordinate, and Zks, current amir (chief) of JI, usually called as “mbah” (grandpa)
of the Police, officers of National Intelligence Body, Mr. Nasir Abas, ex Commander of Mantiki\(^5\) III (South Phillipines, Sulawesi and Kalimantan) of Jamaah Islamiah (who after being arrested converted into collaboration with the Indonesian Police) and myself. The training content for facilitators are the psychology of terrorists, group discussion techniques (Greenbaum, 1993), understanding versions of Jihad (JI version, main stream and state version), technique of *dakwah\(^6\)*, description of radicalism in Islam (historical, social, and political perspectives), technique and procedure of this study.

### Tabel 6.2. Time schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month of 2009</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| January-March | • Early preparation: develop theoretical concepts, and research design, determine the number of participants, and locations of study.  
• Workshop to develop research instruments and training moduls for the Training of Facilitators (5 March 2009) |
| April-June   | • Coordination with State Islamic University, Qur’anic Study Center, recruit ustadz, purchase books “Violence on behalf of Religion” (1 April 2009)  
• Two days training for facilitators at UI (2-3 June 2009)  
• Contact Administrators of prisons and Detention homes for permits of study etc (30 Juni 2009)  
• Depth interview with Amran dan Pepen (20 Mei 2009) |
Another constraint is that the participants refused to read, let alone to discuss the book “Violence on behalf of Religion” (VBR) that has been written by a famous and well respected Islamic scholar, Professor Dr. Quraisy Shihab. He is an alumnus of Al Azhar University, Cairo, ex Indonesian Ambassador to Egypt and currently a professor of the “Syarif Hidayatullah” State Islamic University, Jakarta. He and a few Islamic scholars from the same university developed the book, which was originally proposed as the reference book for future deradicalization programs.

In rejecting the book, the participants argued that the author, even that he is a professor, never been in a real holly war. He is not a *mujahedd* (soldiers of God). We fought against the Russian enemies; we saw our *ikhwans* (friends) died every day because of the enemies’ bullets, granats or rockets. But where was Professor Quraisy Shihab then? How come a non-mujaheed teaches us, the *mujahedin*?
However, after we get rid of the VBR, the study has successfully carried on and finished its 12 weekly group discussion with minimum non-attendance. Social-psychological profile and motivation can be disclosed at the end of the study.

Why they were involved in terrorism.
There is no specific psychological profile that differentiate the terrorists and the rest of the normal population. Our study revealed that these people are normal people, with minimum average IQ and have no sign of psychopathy or psychotic syndromes. They were involved in terrorism due to several factors as it is listed in the following table (Abas & Priyanto, 2007).

Table 6.3. Psychological aspects of terrorist inmates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Motivation to be involved in terrorism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Strong needs to implement Islamic (syariah) law in Indonesia, textually or partially.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Willingness to improve the society condition, which is perceived as injustice and unright because it is not ruled according to Islamic teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Unsatisfied with current condition of the society that is not according to Islamic teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Jihad is understood only in its narrow meaning, which is to make war against all non-muslims.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Action of Jihad is taken to improve the condition of the society,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Motivation to be involved in terrorism is supported by narrow cognitive mind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Black and white understanding of good and evil.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Understanding Al Qur’n and al Hadists, only literal-textually, without contextual and comparative understanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Jihad is understood as the only way to change the society and implement Daulah Islamiyah (Islamic state).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Fulfilling the need of feeling important and valuable through Jihad action.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
B. **Process of joining terrorist group.**

- By meeting people who are already involved.
- It happened when studying at particular Islamic educational institutions (pesantren, Islamic study club, Qur’anic reading group etc, in campus, school or society).
- Based on eagerness to understand Islam and practice Islam consequently, easily interested in doing Jihad to defend Islam.
- The belief that they are the only one group that is right in God’s eye, make them willine to commit Jihad to defend Islam.
- Violence is allowed to defend Islam if there is no other way.
- Existence of organized fundamentalist group that can fulfill their needs.
- To be recruited as exclusive member of radical organization by close kins, friends or relatives, such as brothers/sisters, teachers, and good friends etc, who have been members of the group.
- The existence of leadership idol, whose teachings were understood fully without reserve (taklid) by its members.

C. **Fanatism drive to die as a martyr (Syuhada)**

- There is no explicit sign to commit suicide among the participanys. However, they are ready to die to establish *syariah* law.
- The commitment to die is part of group commitment, not individual commitment (depersonalisation).
- Death is a better choice, because it provides eternal life, and death will improve the situation of the livings.
### D. Group pressure

- There is a pressure to every member to be always loyal in doing group’s mission. Members who are not in line with the group’s mission are considered as traitors, to be isolated and considered as enemy.
- The pressure happens both in the prison/detention home and outside.
- Quranic verses are interpreted literally to produce perception that any body outside their group is infidels and *thogut*, enemies that can be combated and be killed.
- There is strong pressure towards inmates who are willing to collaborate with the police. The pressure can be in soft or hard forms, making rehabilitation and reintegration effort difficult.
- There is still communication among inmates in different prisons/detention homes. There is a wish among some inmates to be put in one prison, that is Cipinang prison, which will make it easier for them to consolidate.

### E. Rationalisation of violence

- Most of the inmates still belief that what they have done is right and in line with Islamic teachings.
- Verses of Al Quran and hadits are interpreted in such a way to justify punishment against the infidels and *thogut*. *According to* syariah law, it is legal to kill them and rob their properties.
- The government is not serious in maintaining justice, and fighting sins, therefore we should take over the government.
- Doktrin tentang adanya perang global (*global war*) antara Islam dan non-islam.
- Currently there is oppression on Muslim people by the west, lead by the Americans. We cannot ask the oppressor to have peaceful communication with us, so we have to prevent them by force.
- *Syariat* law needs to be implemented. If there are no other ways, violence is justified.
**Religious perception and Political Ideology.**

- Religion is perceived as guidance of life, including political life. Therefore Islam is also considered as a political ideology.
- Islamic law should rule political life in Indonesia. Although there are non-Muslims in Indonesia, Islamic law is good for them as well, as it has been proven during the prophet’s leadership era in Madinah.
- Perception on religion and political ideology are learned from talks and preaches by their *ustadz* (religious teacher) of their group.
- Their perception on religion and ideology is monolithic.

---

**Result of the study.**

One of the most important results of this study is that we managed to persuade all participants to be involved in the 12 discussions, from start to end, without any signs of refusal or rejection. Although there was a little doubt at the beginning of the sessions, particularly concerning the written test and the VBR book, the participants decided not to quit the chain of discussions until it ends. This means that the ex-terrorists are cooperative and willing to listen, to discuss topics, even when the topics are not in line with their own opinion. The key word “willing to listen” is a very significant outcome because so far many people, including experts do not believe that terrorists are “willing to listen”.

Next after “willing to listen” is “willing to share”. By sharing opinions, the opportunity for changing view is open; changing mind and attitude is also possible. However, the psychosocial dynamics in bigger group is different from face-to-face interview. In bigger group, social pressure still exists. Senior participants tend to maintain radical view to show though ideology to the junior ones. The juniors, on the other hand, tend just to follow their leaders, to show respects.

For example, one of the senior participants (leader), AD, said in the forum:
“The legal meaning (makna syar’i) of Jihad is jihad fisabilillah, which is war against infidels. That is the only meaning. No other meaning. Eliminating the true meaning of jihad fisabilillah is similar to saying that shalat (five compulsory pray per day for every Muslim) is not different from other prayers. It is misleading.”

On the contrary, in a private interview, AD does not agree with Marriot bombing II (2009). He said:

“I won’t blame them (the Marriot II bombers) because they must have their own reasons. However it was useless and gave us (Muslims) more negative effect than positive. We have to learn from our prophet Muhammad. The prophet said, that when we are in a weak position, we must be patient. We must be strong before we make any action. The prophet Muhammad himself retreated (hijrah) to Medinah when his position was weak, and came back later to take over Mekkah peacefully, after he is strong. We must be persistent (istigomah) and positive thinking, then with Allah’s will, the result will be optimal”

Hsd, on the other hand, insisted that at Poso, there is no other way except war. There was a war at Poso. The Christians attacked us, so he said:

“That is why we make war. The war law must be applied. The blood of the infidels is halal. We have to differentiate between the situation in Java and Bali, and the situation at Poso. There was no war in Java and Bali, but there was real war at Poso. The Muslims were abused by the infidels”.

Another inmate, Sb, who was arrested in Ambon, in the middle of the war between Christian and Muslims, said:

“This is not because I am radical or anti government. But if you were there (in Ambon), when the conflict took place, you, as a Muslim cannot avoid from being involved. It is impossible, it is a matter of life and death”.

Hrs, yet another participant from Poso, stated:

“When the conflict at Poso exploded, I already live and work there. I have no radical Islamic education or background whatsoever. Lots of things I would like to explain, but you, the facilitators,
would not understand me. In the discussion it is obvious that you misunderstood us. So I choose to keep silent.”

In Tangerang prison there were four inmates, Rf (the most senior and the most well informed) and his co-leader Wd, and followers Ags and Jnd. They were not ex-Afghanistan and never been in Afghanistan. They were just alumni of Ngurki, Islamic the notorius boarding school (pesantren), located at Solo, Central Java.

“We disagree with the bombings. We didn’t do it. We were arrested for robbing a bank at Banten, which was a fa’i (to collect funds for Islamic struggle). The fund was supposed to be sent to Poso, we didn’t know that the money was used for bombing people in Bali. We are not the enemy of non-muslim. We don’t even call them as infidel. We may not attack non-muslims who are peaceful with us. We even mingle with white inmates in Bali. We also don’t have problem with Pancasila, as long as it is not forced upon us”.

The participants’ reluctancy to change is highest when discussing about ideology, for example about the syariah law and Indonesian Islamic State. When talking about strategic ormore practical issues, they are much more willing to share. For example, there was a long discussion when the issue comes to Marit Bombing II (2009). Some of them agree with the bombing, because we are still living in a non-Islamic country, ruled by a thogut (unfair) government. The other participants don’t agree, because there was no real war when the bomb is blasted. There were no soldiers; there were no bullets and swords. Islam only fight back when attacked.

The reluctancy to change is highest also between senior or high ranking and leaders of the organization. The lower the status, the more willing to change. Particularly when the facilitator is using active listening technique in persuading the participants. In case of directive technique is used, the reluctancy to change will be kept in its higher level.

Last but not least, the participants didn’t know and didn’t recognize the names of actors of Marriot Bombing II, including the organizer and recruiter (Ibrohim and Saefuddin Jaelani) and the suicide bombers (Dani Dwi Permana, and Nana Ikhwan Maulana). It means
that although these people are known as connected to Noordin M. Top (shot to death by the police in August 2009, just one month after Marriot Bombing II), a top leader of JI, they are new recruits, coming from new cells, indicating that there are already new networks outside the traditional network of JI that belongs to most participants.

The CHaD drawing test
This is about 10 men, aged 36 to 55 years old, who have accepted to take the CHaD well after their terrorist acts (as bomb planters and/or planners, surveyors or just as supporting activists).

Although all of them have been involved, in one way or the other, in bombing or other terrorist acts on the name of Islam, not all of them ever been in jail. Two of them never been arrested due to lack of evidence, or had their activities abroad (in Malaysia), so they were not eligible to be accused under the Indonesian law.

They are ex-inmates and non-inmates, who used to be part of a group of Indonesian terrorists who have submitted to an approved de-radicalization program and who remain opposed to taking the smallest projective test, particularly the written kind.

However, as a clinical psychologist, I must rely on some projective tests. That is why, when I met Dr Davido at the International Council of Psychologists convention at Mexico City (2009), and knowing her as the author of CHaD, I proposed a joint research on CHaD for the terrorists.

The CHaD, with a big part of its approach being clinical and being able to orient itself towards a therapeutic end, seems to be better able to adapt itself to these cases and perhaps permit a personalization, better target the de-radicalization program and to understand its relative failings with extreme radicals. None of them has refused this new approach (drawing, not writing).

The test is paper and pencil test. The equipment needed is a few blank A4 or folio size of white papers, a black pencil and some color pencils. Adult subjects are required to draw pictures he/
she most frequently/likely to draw when they are small children, which is called as the Childhood drawing). The second task is to draw hands, as many as you like, and the last one is a drawing on hands that disturb, which always disturb you. You may put colors or leave it just black and white, as you like. Interview is taken after all drawings have been done, using the drawings as the initial stimulus for the interview.

Results of Chad.
The Childhood Drawing (c)

Types:
- mountains bordering paddy fields: 7 cases
- figures (people): 1 case
- boat: 1 case
- tree: 1 case
- absence of sun: 7 cases
- presence of water, of the moon: 2 cases
- absence or weak intensity of colors: 6 cases

Reply to Interview on CHaD:
- primary educational period: 9 cases or very young (3 years old): 1 case
- evoked the father: 1 case (introduction into a radical organization)
- evoked the mother: 2 cases
- childhood activities: 2 cases

Interpretation
All together, the childhood drawings are similar to those of the Indonesian non-terrorists subjects (control group), i.e. pointy mountains and paddy fields. In the case of the terrorists, there is perhaps a bit less life: the colors do not stand out, pastel, trees are rare and when they appear they’re half dead, without leaves.

This is a very typical child drawing in Indonesia. Almost every child in Indonesia, and also adults who are asked to draw child
drawing, will draw mountains and paddy fields. Sometimes with sun, clouds, birds or trees. It is because they are taught to draw so when they were in elementary schools. However, I saw children drawing rifles and soldiers in conflict areas in Ambon, and my own granddaughter and grandson prefer to draw “hen on her nest” or “butterflies”. They don’t draw mountains and paddy fields. It means that the subjects (ex-terrorist) come from average normal family and neighborhood life, no physical conflict as well as not much creativity was developed.

However, parental image is practically inexistent in their commentaries and in most of the drawings. Only one case drew a beautiful, warm sun and yet at the same time relates, in a somewhat confused fashion, his hectic conjugal and familial life.

The motherly image is only sketched out by a few: in two cases through the commentary and in two other cases in the drawing. The little warmth, the tone and the monotone banality of most of the drawings confirm that these subjects lived a little sheltered childhood, mostly stripped of children’s games, which is also common to Indonesian kids. One says that he “uses red” because “it’s courage”.

The age that dates the drawings is unremarkable: it’s that of the years of elementary school in 9 cases. Only one subject says that he was three when his landscape of bluish mountains was destroyed by construction. One thus finds nothing that resembles a shock, a trauma, the first trauma relating to the body like in those western childhood drawings, but here, most of the subjects speak of these young years where “a peaceful calm” reigned, surrounded by family, friends, a “happy” mother and where one played. But most of them seem to be lonely, without real goals. This is also typical for Indonesian children. Only one case remembers that he had to study the Koran.

The graphic process they chose here for the childhood drawings are the habitual processes of restitution or reconstitution; no subject used reconstitution. Despite the monotony of the landscape
drawings, one can recognize a few childlike graphic characters, but above all there is a frank coherence between the drawing and their commentary, which thus signifies in principle that the subject is capable of constructing a limit between the real and the imaginary.

This discordance between “Occidental” and “Indonesian” observations can at first sight be cultural, but the childhood drawing is something very profound that puts into play the fundamentals of the person among all other human beings. One can also put forth the hypothesis that for the terrorists there is probably a scouring of the basics of their mental construction.

All of them understand the question, and are able to answer, by drawing a real childhood drawing with real commentaries about when they were children. It might be the proof that they are mentally healthy people and able to regress normally whenever necessary, like any one else. The subjects, by now, are able to construct a real wall, between who they used to be, and who they are now. It means that they don’t mix real world and imagination. They are aware about the gap between who they were and who are now. The gap is huge as we will see that in the H and D drawings.

**Hands drawings (H)**
There is only ONE hand in each drawing; most of them are one big hand, meaning huge EGO. However, most subjects claim that the Hs are not theirs. Five cases said that the hands are not theirs, and in three more cases, claimed that they belong to someone else. Most of them are described as negative hands.

It might show that these hands, which SHOULD be their own Hand, are considered as UGLY. It means that the ex-terrorists project a negative self and do not feel well with their own mind and body. For people with such a huge Ego like the ex-terrorists, the feeling of having a negative self is a big dissonance. They are not happy with it and would like to get rid of the negative self image.

Other people might try to get more positive self image by being
active in sport, music, or social organization, but they have already the negative stigma from the society, that constraints them from being a “good” citizen.

Disturbing hand (d)
It is much similar to the H. Only one too, the same size as H, but very interestingly, seven subjects admitted that these Ds (Hands that disturbs) are THEIR OWN hands. It means a bad image of themselves, of theirs acting out, and culpability. It is obvious in the drawings of cut wrist.

I think that there might be an over self control now. On the one hand they want it very much to improve or repair their self image due to their activities in the past. On the other hand they have to face internal (self-doubt, low self confidence) and external (stigmatization) constraints. The result is a kind of doubtful, uncreative and preserved personality.

The gap between what they used to be and feel when they were children and the feeling to be an ugly adult, who has to hide his conscience weakness into a HUGE EGO, as big as their own H and D, can be reduce by bridging between what they think and what they do.

In the case of Muh. Iqbal, for example, his trauma against his father was projected to the government and the state of Indonesia. He went to war in the name of his religion, which was actually an expression of his angry Ego. His body moved beyond the control of his conscience, until he joined our training program in 2009. However, when he has to face another bad experience with a particular police officer, he was out of control again, and was thinking of going back to war against the thogut (evil) government. He can regain his control after a police general who is a friend of mine, helped him to go through with his problem according to the proper law, and protected him from the disturbing police officer. It is obvious from his D drawing, which is a hand holding something, that MI’s fragile personality always need external support for him to cling on.
The training program in 2009 provided that support which evidently needs to be continued with follow up programs. The university can provide the follow up for this particular group only in year 2011. However this kind of program cannot rely on a research fund of a university only. Beyond the limited number of participants in my research group there are hundreds more, and their families too, to be supported and followed up. Not just financially, but more importantly, socially and psychologically. It needs the commitment of some government institutions, such as the ministries of Social Affairs, Religious Affairs, and Education and Culture.

**Results of the CHaD-TEST**

Such an inner conflict was found in MI case, but not in other participants. MI was born a son of a middle class family, her brother and sisters were well educated, one of the sisters is a medical doctor, and MI himself is a Bachelor in Mechanical Engineering. But he suffered abused from his father, so that he seeked safety in his remote house of his Grand-father. His traumatic experience with his father stimulated MI to study radical Islamic teaching by reading or listening to speeches of radical ustaz, or having discussions with other radical yang persons.

His self-radicalization is more similar to the terrorist Anders Behring Breivik, who on July 21, 2011 has single handedly bomb the Prime Minister’s office at Oslo and killed over 90 youth of a socialist party who are camping in a nearby island.

MI’s childhood experience is not shared by the other nine ex-terrorists, who came from normal lower level family, without any record of family conflict or violence.

The rest of terrorists became radicals after they were persuaded by friends to join the radical group. As teen agers, then, they were very exited of going abroad, being trained in a military academy and fight on the name of Islam. The huge Ego developed after they came back from Afghanistan. They feel like a hero, who have defeated the infidels, the enemy, the Russians. Many of them
witnessed how their comrades died in war, and as a survivor they feel obliged to continue the *jihad*.

In other words, coming home from Afghanistan, these fellows were ready for another war against infidel. However, the situation is not that obvious in Indonesia. Indonesia is not Afghanistan. So they were arrested by the police and they found out that nobody supports them for their terrorist actions.

**References**


Davido R. D. 1994, *The “Childhood Hand that Disturbs Projective Test”*, preface du Dr L. Bellak, Wesport USA, Praeger,


Iqbal (2009). Demokrasi dan Islam dalam pandangan NII. (Democracy and Islam in the view of Islamic State of Indonesia), internal manuscript.


Iqbal (2009). Ridho dengan Hukum Alloh (Sincerity under Allah’s law), internal manuscript.

Ismail, Noor Huda (2010), Temanku Teroris? (My friend is a terrorist?), Jakarta: Hikmah Publishing


Samudera, Imam, 2004, Aku melawan teroris, (I am against trerroist), Jazera.


Sarwono. SW, 2003b, Motivational Values of Three Conflicting Ethnic in West Kalimantan, 3rd International Convention of Asia Scholars, Singapore


The Sound of Silent Skills: how to recognize and define tacit knowledge

Giuseppe Paxia
Trainer and Consultant in the Human Resources field
Transnational pilot projects dealing with management and development of skills
giuseppe.paxia@kairos-consulting.com

Abstract
While private-sector corporations play a very important role in our economy, public-sector corporations arguably have a more direct and significant impact on social life and environment and meet the basic needs of society. Nevertheless, in the Italian public sector often has a level of management and development of internal expertise poorly structured and not very effective, even if we can find, both at national and international level, cases of good practice.

Computil – Competence for Public Utilities, is a transnational pilot project aimed to the development of a model for recognizing and managing transversal skills for Italian public utilities services (energy, transportation, water, waste), analyzing national and European experiences and good practices. The project partners wanted to identify and describe the behaviors of the best performers both in routine situations and in critical situations, and associate these behaviors to the distinctive skills of these workers, which is what really set them apart from other colleagues. In the framework of the project, several workers have been interviewed, using both the explicitation interview (developed by Vermersch, 21994) and the behavioral event interview (McClelland, 1998).
Introduction
The new business environment, more and more competitive especially in times of global economic crisis, puts the emphasis on people and then on their technical and professional skills and behavior. Skills management becomes a strategic element, since it means designing an organization able to achieve its mission. In turn, the possibility of effective management skills requires a valid detection methodology.

Therefore, the choice of a method for mapping the needed skills becomes a primary decision that management in general and the Human Resources Department in particular have to face in the process of development of business skills. And when the distinctive skills, those that distinguish a best performer from a mediocre worker, are mainly tacit skills, you need to make them come to the surface, to describe them, to make them a shared heritage for the entire organization (Hay/McBer Training Resources Group (2000).

From the end of the 80s, with the gradual opening of markets and the development of economic policies increasingly oriented to improve the competitive model (Grandori, 2001), the business world has rediscovered a paradigm that might seem obvious and predictable: the enhancement of know-how within the organization.

Working at the boundaries of the organization, put the emphasis on processes, enhancing the best performers’ know-how, become buzzwords in the enterprise as well as the customer-supplier model, taken as reference for the organizational functioning.

The creation of value for all stakeholders - shareholders, customers, employees, authorities, social partners - and performance management become central to all staff regardless of their level or role.

Overall, all this has had significant impacts on organizations to be more streamlined, proactive, fast, efficient. People in this context become the hub for the operation of the company as well revisited:
they are asked to be more and more actors and performers of value creation. From here the rediscovery of the skills to create value: people are asked not only to be able to fully supervise the technical and professional aspects but also to know how to implement organizational behaviors consistent with the company’s values and to confront a competitive environment more and more complex. It becomes imperative, then, to combine the continuous development of the company and the growth of the human resources involved, through their policies and instruments aimed at enhancement, such as the analysis of the skills, potential and development of training plans and guidance. In this context, the identification of those - organizational and personal - competencies, that can “make a difference” is particularly important.

The project

*Computil – Competence for Public Utilities*, is a transnational pilot project aimed to the development of a model capable of recognizing and managing transversal skills for Italian public utilities services (energy, transportation, water, waste), analyzing national and European experiences and good practices. While private-sector corporations play a very important role in our economy, public-sector corporations arguably have a more direct and significant impact on social life and environment and meet the basic needs of society. Nevertheless, in the Italian public sector often has a level of management and development of internal expertise poorly structured and not very effective, although not lacking, both at national and international level, cases of good practice. Specifically, we wanted to identify and describe the behaviors of the best performers not only in routine situations, but especially in critical situations, and associate these behaviors distinctive skills of these workers, which is what really set them apart from other colleagues. In the framework of the project, we interviewed several workers, some of them identified by Human Resources managers as *best performers*, using both the *explicitation interview* (Vermersch, 2005): and the *behavioral event interview* (McClelland, 1998) methodologies. I’m going to explain in more detail below.
**Theory**

Many tasks are the so difficult to describe, because they have to do with the so-called *tacit knowledge*, firstly described by Michael Polanyi (1979), a chemical engineer turned philosopher of science. Tacit knowledge is contrasted with explicit or propositional knowledge. Tacit knowledge is disorganized, difficult to describe, regarded as being of minor epistemic worth.

Polanyi argues that we tacitly know the things that we try to learn. The dialogue between Socrates and the slave boy is, for Polanyi, a parable of reflection on tacit knowledge: “*[T]he Meno shows conclusively that if all knowledge is explicit, i.e., capable of being clearly stated, then we cannot know a problem or look for its solution. And the Meno also shows, therefore, that if problems nevertheless exist, and discoveries can be made by solving them, we can know things, and important things, that we cannot tell*” (Polanyi, 1966, p. 22).

If a competence is the set of theoretical knowledge, specialized knowledge, abilities, attitudes and orientations of the people included in an organization, whose behaviors can create value and enable the organization to achieve its vision, mission, strategy, from the point of view of the company, to develop the skills of individuals means to connect them to the needs of the market, but also to develop and disseminate expertise, through which the company can get the achievement of its strategic objectives and organizational distinguishing by competitors.

The *knowledge-management* is strategic for the management of Human Resources and it’s an organizational intervention. Therefore, on a strategic level, the availability of application of organizational knowledge can be the element that makes the difference between a competitor and another. Beginning from an analysis and assessment of skills is possible to draw a picture of organizational context, build evaluation systems, undertake an analysis of training needs, develop strategies for organizational development.

The competence approach places the individual at the center of
the organization. Only from the recognition and enhancement of individual qualities, it's possible to put in place measures to redesign work roles, and strengthening the organization.

Managing competences means:

- research and identification of resources in an organization;
- enhancement and development of individual resources;
- combination of the set of individual resources for a better overall result;
- management and continuous innovation of knowledge.

In this perspective, mapping of business skills is an effective instrument for the implementation of activities aimed at combining the business needs of management (a single function or the entire organization) with those of individual development. In particular, it allows us to:

- recruit staff in a targeted manner;
- measure the actual knowledge of staff added to a given function, to compare them with the optimal degree of professionalism;
- identify the most suitable resources to occupy a higher position in the hierarchical level or higher profile, placing at best all available resources, with positive effects on organizational effectiveness;
- identify the critical resources that need interventions and / or improvement actions to develop their potential;
- ensure wide margins for flexibility with regard to the evolution of the reference scenario
- use the knowledge possessed to assess the entry into new business or new markets;
The Sound of Silent Skills: how to recognize and define tacit knowledge

- encourage the development of more professional groups related to the core business, and then with a know-how that is particularly valuable.

In order to define skills, it’s needed to verify the existence of some characteristics closely related one another: the skills must be recognizable, measurable and developable.

The skills can be read basically from two perspectives:

- individually: focused on the conditions of individual success and focuses on the best performer according to organizational vision that descends directly from the strand of “Human Resources Development”;

- strategically: linked to the conditions for success of business and focused on core competencies for the generation and maintenance of competitive advantage over time.

The choice of mapping method is the primary decision that management and the Human Resources department must deal with in the process of skills development. To define the approach of its intervention is the essential step to proceed in a consistent manner and to manage the whole process.

The concept of competence is described in the literature and in business practices, by many definitions that emphasize diversity of approaches, references, methods. It is not possible to be exhaustive with respect to different definitions of this term (a 2005 study has shown at least thirty), but in most cases is given great importance to the contextualization, i.e. the fact that competence is activated in a specific context.

Without going in the many definitions that have been formulated over the years, we will just outline what more can be useful for operational purposes within an organization.

A definition that has gained a lot of success is that formulated by Boyatzis (1982), who defines competency in terms of an underlying
characteristic of an individual which is causally related to effective or superior performance in a job. According to this perspective, which is also called *individual* or *psychological*, competence is an integral and lasting settlement of the personality of an individual and is reflected in the behavior and superior results that best performers get in a role or in a specific situation.

Guy Le Boterf describes competence as “*a recognized and proven group of representations, knowledge, abilities and behaviours, mobilized and combined coherently in a given context […] it’s a specific quality of the subject: knowing how to combine resources to manage and face situations effectively, in a given context*” (Le Boterf, 1990, p.87; 2000). Representations, knowledge, abilities and behaviors can be summarized by the term *resources*, leading us to assert that the competence is a specific quality of the subject: that of knowing how to combine different resources, to manage or deal effectively with situations, in a given context.

Le Boterf has played a pioneering role in the development of collective expertise in an organization, developing for several years, the method CC+ (Collective Competence), which allows a company or an organization, to draw up a map of the collective expertise it needs, as well as to identify the set of conditions to be created, in order to maximize the likelihood that these skills are used effectively. This approach proposes three possible access routes to deal with the appropriate instruments, the collective expertise: analysis of the collective dimension of individual skills, processing map of key partnerships that need to be undertaken, identifying and managing the collective know-how of a company or an organization.

According to a different approach, called strategic competence is “a set of skills and technologies that enables a company to provide a particular benefit to customers.” According to this concept the competence does not belong to individuals but it is a fact that crosses all organizational functions and units of the organization, is not exhausted in the single individual skills, but instead requires the combination and integration with existing technology to result
in unique products / services.

It is clear that the two approaches do not define the same phenomenon since the first focuses on the recognition of the value of people and their growth opportunities (skills in the strict sense, identified according to a bottom-up process), and the second is interested in the conditions for success of the company, its ability to generate a differential competitive starting from the business and the strategy (core competences, defined according to a top-down process).

The different point of view is reflected in the different methodological approaches that companies take to build the model.

The management models set according to the first perspective are inductive because the skills are defined from below, i.e., through the observation of specific individual behaviors of success but, for this reason, has a greater complexity in their processing.

The management model linked to the second approach, instead, is defined in advance, starting from business strategy through lists of ideal characteristics deemed necessary to deal successfully with the business.

The new competitive scenario requires to overcome the opposition between these two levels (individual skills and organizational skills) and to integrate the two views according to a new model linking individual skills and their development to the specific conditions of the business context and its evolutions.

Confine itself to a single perspective would be binding since both have a critical issue: the individual perspective focuses on the best performers of today without posing the question that tomorrow they may be inadequate, the strategic perspective, however, too prescriptive, does not explain how the strategies are feasible because it neglects the connection with individual skills.

A winning choice for a company will be to find a dynamic balance between the two approaches: the company will determine the strategies and functional expertise to these, but at the same time,
recognize and develop those actually held by its resources in order to set the due corrective measures to ensure the continuity of successful performance, consistent with the values, goals and strategies of the business.

**Tools and Methods**

Mapping and evaluation of each Role and Profile, as well as the gap between personal skills and expected skills, require adequate tools for the detection and evaluation of a skills dictionary.

Profile is defined as the set of skills related to a business role. For each role can be identified:

- an expected profile - the ideal profile to which human resources should aim, also called “the best performer profile”, in relation to the assets, skills, knowledge related to the role in question;

- one or more current profiles performing the role in question.

The comparison between current profile and expected profile allows you to detect differences in competence - gap - between the two profiles and identify areas of knowledge, skills and abilities on which to intervene so that the resource being investigated - current profile - increases their skills in function of the role it is called upon to play - expected profile.

The mapping of the different profiles require choices between different valuation methods and tools. For mapping, both current and in the expected profiles, different methodologies can be used that involve:

- the same persons subject to mapping in case of self-assessment;

- other people in case of hetero-assessment: hierarchical superiors, subordinates, Human Resources Managers;
combination of two different methodologies: eg. to map current and expected profiles.

To measure competency different tools can be provided.

A method used to identify the skills is the Behavioral Event Interview, structuring of a set of general questions focused not on the skills possessed / to possess, but the behavior in certain situations, from which deduct skills mostly used for job interviews and well described by McClelland (1998), it is based on specific episodes, in which the interviewee is asked to describe, in the form of short story, three big hits and three great failures. The interviewer asks questions such as “How it came to that situation?”, “Who was involved?”, “What he thought, felt and decided to do to resolve this situation?”, “What did he actually do?” “What happened? What was the outcome of the episode?”.

Through the story and the statements of the interview it is possible to identify the skills actually act in that specific situation.

The method can be used for different purposes: on the one hand, you can apply it to identify which are the skills that are causally related to successful performance in a particular professional group (eg managers, or vendors). To do so, you should administer interviews to a sufficiently large number of subjects, divided into two groups: one group consists of “excellent” individuals (*best performers*, those who, on the basis of specific indicators, have obtained successful results) and the other group is composed of “medium” individuals and is needed as a control group. Once you have identified the “successful” skills for a specific job profile, you can use the interview to select the human resources allocated to those certain positions.

Another interesting method, especially useful for explicitation of tacit knowledge, is the *explicitation interview* developed by Vermersch (1994), a tool that aims to encourage, assist, solicit descriptive narration, verbalization of how an activity was made, of the action as it has been effectively implemented in the execution...
of an accurate, contextualized task defined.

The term “action” refers not only to physical actions, but also includes mental acts: it appears that the need for a labor of explanation when we perform an action simply because some of the key knowledge used is tacit, implicit, no-conscious.

This implicit character is inevitable, because inherent to the intellectual functioning of people. In the realization of a task, in the representations arising from the interaction with reality, we continually build these types of tacit knowledge, for the mere fact of acting: they relate to the fact that they are developed starting from the experience and, therefore, are critical for the understanding of what makes an action effective.

Becoming aware of these implicit knowledge and actions allows to specifying them, to enhance them making it an opportunity for professional development, to exploit them better in training situations, to improve the effectiveness of learning.

The awareness goes through the verbalization of experience that becomes an object of knowledge and therefore of experience.

The interviews
M., one of the best performers interviewed, is a ticket controller for a public transport company. He’s been a driver for many years, then, for health reasons, his role within the company has changed. He is very good in his job. He is a “best performer”, an employee who reaches the maximum level of effectiveness in his job.

His is a very delicate position, he is a good controller because, and according to the Human Resources manager of the company he is able to “be effective in his job but correctly managing conflicts with customers that every day occurs in this job”. Ok, but the question is: “how does M. do so? What does it mean to be effective in this job? Which are the “distinctive skills” (Hayes, 1997) of M., that means the skills, capabilities, and personal qualities that differentiate a best performer by his colleagues?
These are not easy questions because when we analyzed M’s job description, within the framework of *Computil*, we discovered that it described his tasks as following:

- monitoring the proper functioning and punctuality of the service
- check tickets on board
- monitoring schedules and work shifts
- possible replacement of any missing drivers

But when we interviewed the Human Resources manager and some employees, we understood that the most complex tasks were those that had to do with relational aspects, and that presupposed a good level of possession of soft skills, and many of them were very hard to define and describe.

We interviewed M. (and other 9 best performers from several Public companies) using Vermersch’s *explicitation interview* to help him to become aware of his actions and help us to understand his tacit knowledge, asking him *why* he does what he does (reflection on action).

Then we wanted to understand the difference between *routine actions*, which referred to the prescribed behavior, and actions carried out in unusual situations or during critical incidents, in order to understand which are those skills activated when there is the need for problem solving.

**Conclusions**

Most of the tacit knowledge refers to experiential learning and is very often strictly related to *soft skills*, personal attributes that enhance an individual’s interactions, job performance and career prospects. This kind of knowledge, as said, is difficult to describe, so it’s difficult to transmit. Thanks to *Computil*, we could identify several distinctive behaviors and analyzing in detail we could
connect these behaviors to the relevant distinctive skills, often unknown even to those who put them in place. This knowledge, previously tacit, has become common heritage of the organizations involved in the testing of the model *Computil*, and is used for the definition of internal training programs.

**Bibliography**


The Paradigms of a Constructed Reality: an overview of bullying through the Italian newspapers media

Eleonora Bordon
PhD Sociology and Social Research
University of Padua
eleonora.bordon@unipd.it

Mariselda Tessarolo
Full Professor Sociology of Communication,
University of Padua
mariselda.tessarolo@unipd.it

Abstract
The research aims to analyse how the definition of bullying has changed over the years, to identify its paradigms as a socially constructed reality, and to through the analysis of journalistic narratives schemes on bullying, using both qualitative and quantitative methods, such as Taltac & Spad-T. We have considered all items relating to bullying which appeared in the biggest (by number of sales) Italian newspapers in the last ten years. Newspapers are still an authoritative source in the Italian information system and have a strong legitimacy.

The choice to analyse years 2000, 2005 and 2010 was guided by the desire to understand the phenomenon longitudinally and observe its changes over the last decade. In order to understand the phenomenon, we collected 146 articles, 89 respectively in 2010, 45 in 2005 and 11 in 2000. Regarding the texts collected and the operational analyses adopted, we identified the word “year” as a variable to observe the change in the concept of bullying.
Many have been the national and international studies on the subject of bullying; in the past to this term were often associated, mainly, acts of juvenile violence in which a subject was beaten or torn by the group of youths of his same age. The concept of bullying was referred to a violence that was objectivated and made argument of social reprobation. The scholar Baraldi observed that (2008, 276) “a step forward in the analysis requires observing that the term ‘bullying’ doesn’t denote an objective, psychological or behavioural reality, but a construction of cultural meanings”. To the light of these reflections the concept of bullying is stripped of its objective dimension and becomes by full right a theme linked to the public sphere and therefore necessarily inherent to the social world. The definition of a deviant behaviour doesn’t consist elusively in the transgression of a rule coded by the juridical system, but its evaluation of unacceptability is circumscribed by a value attribution. A conduct around which materialise fears and anxieties. Awareness of conscience of the inadequacy of the Institutions that, according to the assumptions of the modern State, should rule the society assuring safety to the population. Social action is strongly channelled by the degree of confidence that the individuals put in their own social group. Safety becomes therefore one of the core constructs of a community; anticipating a constant and safe future become therefore the main traits on which one builds his own sense of social identity. Safety is therefore a trait that is built and is confirmed constantly in the routine of daily life. The habits, the anticipation of the future, of the constancy in the continuity and of the linearity of the answer in the relations actuated in the public, affective sphere and in the intimacy, represent the fundamental elements on which to build psychological confidence. According to Giddens, 1990, when this foresee ability is undermined and unexpected dynamics are structured, are generated anxiety states able to disturb the individual system to the point of injuring the core constructs of the individual. If the fear and the perception of having lost our own ability of facing events and of being therefore main actors in our own life become strongly invasive, they induce subjects to
accomplish the only action in which they still have a certain degree of freedom. Suicide becomes, to the light of these assumptions, the extreme act of freedom and independence of the menaced subject. The etno-methodologists locate in communication one of the main elements to which subjects resort to be able to evaluate their own confidence and efficacy toward the Self and the world. The narration of the communitarian life and the definition of its actors and of the argumentative script sensibly orientate the evolutions of a community. The unanimous expressed by the news that are published in the newspapers, and their emphatic ability represent a privileged vehicle to build narrative repertoires to which common sense is referred. The news reported in the newspaper synthesizes the value and the attribution criterion of social actions and supports their redefinition according to parameters of legitimacy, value and of emotional expression. A sort of transposition and representation, like on a stage, of the sensitiveness and thoughts of every single individual who, united by the same culture and historical age, express through the newsworthiness of an happening, a super ordination of one’s own emotional and cognitive structure.

**Aims and method**

Regarding the texts collected and the operational analyses adopted, we identified the word “year” as a variable to observe the change in the concept of bullying close examination of the historical data (reported in Table 1).

The historical data do not indicate the absence of bullying as a social phenomenon in the decades prior to those analysed, but that this issue stirred less the media’s interest and that the bullying theme only later took the connotation of an important event that describes the social-cultural and institutional Italian context.

The narrative dimension codes and decodes social events becoming even more tangible in the youths, i.e. through the perturbation of his own cognitive system the subject modifies the perception of the Self, of his own identity and therefore of his entire biographical path. The main Institutions that have a relevant role
in the construction of the identity are family and school. During growth family is structuralized as a background element on which to organize and to monitor one’s own efficacy and confidence regarding himself and the world in which he acts. School becomes the space in which the subject tests and redefines his own personal model, which is structured on the base of the evaluation of his own successes and failures and also on the construction and observation of relations and communication styles with youths of the same age and teachers who, besides representing the world of the adults, in this specific case embody also the role of authority. In this way role representations are also structuralized and every time one’s own relational abilities are developed and enhanced, it becomes therefore important to observe the specific context in which the youth is inserted to anticipate the possible development paths. A strongly invalidating, violent and castrating context will aim to sustain an idea of impotence and uselessness coming, in the most extreme cases, to the point of not being able to count on one’s own defence mechanisms any more. One’s own image reflected in the others, in this specific case, is expressed through a constriction of the self until having a collapse of the entire system with a following retraction of the subject, thing which probably will lead to the psychotic lack of balance or to the suicide. In one of the first Italian researches on the phenomenon of bullying, Fonzi 1993, has been verified that the number of cases found in our country are more than two times the number of those found in North Europe; the argumentations that try to interpret such a phenomenon have been found in the social dimensions linked to friendship, to poor trust toward Institutions with the following reduction of the denunciations of the acts of overbearing or violence and in the superficiality of teachers and fellow-students in codifying the event. The act of bullying is often codified as a sporadic act and which is not going to be perpetuated in time, but which is done only to ascertain one’s own strength, like a sort of tribal ritual which determines the hierarchical structuralization of the group of youths of the same age. It is an almost painless trial perceived, in many cases, as a natural step in the individual
development. Bullying though is not reduced to an episode and the lightness with which has been faced in its beginning legitimates its reiteration until it becomes the new normality, the results of which usually are destructuralized for all its actors, for both the victims and the executioner.

Tab. 1 Articles about bullying on Corriere della Sera newspaper

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Articles number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results
As regards to the body which represents our query object and which is composed by 146 articles, we observe that in the course of a decade the occurrences in the articles analyzed inside the Corriere della Sera newspaper have almost tripled, tab. 2.
The Paradigms of a Constructed Reality: an overview of bullying through the Italian newspapers media

### Table 2 occurrences by year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Occurrences</td>
<td>3896</td>
<td>6115</td>
<td>9413</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tab.3 represents the ranks of the lexemes which have a dimension of sense of fulfilment, except articles, pronominal particles, pronouns, presented in ascending order of frequencies in the text.

### Table 3 Ranks of lexemes by year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Used words</td>
<td>Counts</td>
<td>Used words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Years</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>School/E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>School/E</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Music</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Children</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Group Teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the data reported on the base of the observation of the frequencies, we see among the lexemes mainly used in the narrative construction, though after 10 years, that dimensions of meaning closely connected to temporal variables as “years” and “school” are outlined. To the ends of the current query it is interesting to perform the text analysis observing the presence and the construction of clusters of meaning beginning from the term bullying itself, indicated as the argumentative axis of the social dynamic observed. The term “bullying” appears 235 times and we find respectively 13 frequencies for the year 2000, 73 for the 2005 and 157 for the year 2010.
Particularly, by observing the narrative repertoires which constitute the text, it appears interesting to analyse the meanings which the term “bullying” carries by means of the bonds of continuity that are present in the text. To such end we have considered the terms which precede and follow it, to the end of comprehending the symbolic dimensions which are attributed to the construct.

In year 2000 the newspaper reports events of bullying referring, in most cases, to events linked to school chronicle: it seems that bullying is a social fact which in Italy is primarily found in schools. The frequency with which “bullying” appears connected to the theme of school relations is 4. In the other articles bullying expresses itself to carry dynamics linked to elements such as hazing and university spirit. In Italy, during the 20th century, these elements have characterized phenomena of intergroup distinction between the category of the elders and of the youths respectively and exclusively referring to the military context for what concerns hazing, and to the goliardic context for what concerns university experience. They marked a prearranged ritual to which youths had to submit, executing the elders’ orders.

Further we verify that in the same annuity it is faced the theme of bullying referring to: prevention, baby gang, psychological problems, violence and aggressiveness, difference of gender, and “social phenomenon”. Although the treated theme suffers a poor frequency during the year span, already in year 2000 we find almost all the elements that will characterize the narrative repertoire used in Italy concerning bullying.

In table 4 we report the excerpts referring to the annuity of year 2000.
Table 4 Excerpts present in year 2000 articles having bullying as keyword

- The school, the next year also, will agree to the sensitization courses against BULLYING
- But even more, to the eyes of the amsteurs of BULLYING, for the profile of the two very vain pigeons
- School BULLYING and juvenile deviance
- In elementary schools also, BULLYING anticipates hazing and university spirit
- hazing, university spirit and BULLYING are male rituals: they ritualise aggressiveness
- If it is not made, youths take care of it and revive BULLYING, university spirit and hazing
- BULLYING: a game of daily violence
- BULLYING phenomenon
- BULLYING in schools
- Preventing BULLYING; there exist strategies to face, inside the school, this particular type of violence
- That BULLYING might be at the origin of psychological and social problems
- The baby gang might be the degeneration of the more diffused BULLYING
- Between boredom and periphery BULLYING

In year 2005, bullying starts being distinguished for some elements closely linked to criminality, to childhood and adolescence. The theme outlines itself starting from violence events that took place mainly in school ambit which refer to aggressiveness and to pressures both physical and psychological exerted on a fellow-student. In year 2005 narrative repertoires given by the analysed newspaper orients more its own production on dynamics which refer to prevention and strategies to reduce this form of violence between peers. In this annuity also are found articles in which is present the description of the social, familiar and school implications, in that which the media
often define as a phenomenon of youthful deviance. Considering the extension of the repertoire produced, we report in table 5, as an example, only some excerpts present in the sub corpus 2005.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5 Excerpts present in year 2005 articles having bullying as keyword</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- BULLYING: trial for 4 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The defendants subjected their victims to acts of BULLYING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- episodes of BULLYING, the regional school board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- BULLYING: the word doesn’t seem big enough to contain the violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- BULLYING in the classroom: teachers studying how to prevent it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- How to know and prevent BULLYING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- At school the course against bullying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Teen BULLYING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- BULLYING and machismo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- And in September we restart again. Sure that this time also there will be events of BULLYING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- BULLYING recorded with mobile phones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- What is happening to our children? BULLYING and use of dopes even since the elementary schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- to adopt a hard line against BULLYING (...) is the way of reducing the number of youths that fall in the trap of criminality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- in the beginning it seemed only BULLYING between fellow students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- let’s think to military barracks where discipline doesn’t ever seem to be missing and nonetheless BULLYING has always proliferated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- starting from school BULLYING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- found episodes of BULLYING in secondary school in the near Ragusa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- it is the last of a series of episodes of violence and BULLYING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- and are unveiling a phenomenon of uneasiness in Ragusa and province BULLYING</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Paradigms of a Constructed Reality: an overview of bullying through the Italian newspapers media

- the episodes of BULLYING
- According to the Procura, at school the two boys were objects of episodes of BULLYING, phenomenon lived by other students as well
- real BULLYING
- BULLYING has its own reasons and usually they are a matter of repressed rage and frustration vented later on the most weak or different, or uncertainty of one’s own status of young male and so on
- BULLYING alarm, Violences in the school, Families in crisis
- That of the BULLYING in schools and in the streets of Milano
- BULLYING alarm, too much violence inside the school
- Teen BULLYING becomes chronic and feeds,
- BULLYING is expressed mostly in psychological prevarication rather than in physical aggression
- Among the forms of physical BULLYING, preferred by males; psychological-verbal, present in both genders
- here BULLYING is rather diffused, though not at the levels of the other countries.
- The first encounter between bullies and their victims happens inside a McDonald’s
- BULLYING may have destructive consequences on the victims
- On the theme of BULLYING, the association for the protection of childhood is setting up a manual intended for the schools
- A bully is destined to become a criminal?
- Teasing someone is BULLYING as well?
- In what way a victim of BULLYING can be recovered?
- to fight the BULLYING in the schools
Lastly for what concerns year 2010 we verify, in addition to the sensible increment of the frequency of the repertoire inherent to bullying, also a new connotative variable. Bullying though remaining closely linked to the events which are outlined in the school institutions and to the traditional forms of interpersonal relationship configured in year 2010 as a declination of the term, that is cyber bullying. This dimension amplifies the extension of the term to the virtual spaces, to the relationships in the social networks, a violence which becomes more subtle and invalidating because it loses the clarity of its material boundaries and becomes a true menace for the self. In year 2010, compared with the past, are encountered more elements of specific concerning the politics aimed to contrast this dynamic and to the dimensions of factual violence, but to the presence of many cases of chronicle in which are directly expressed discriminations and violences among youths of the same age generated by real or attributed personal choices relative to sexual orientation, (tab. 6) the new elements are the ones which define the theme. Young teenagers are deprived of their serenity because they are considered, by some, gays or lesbians. Like for the year 2005 also in year 2010 are reported some exemplifying excerpts of the narrative repertoire generated by Italian newspapers during the last year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6 Excerpts present in year 2010 articles having bullying as keyword</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>– BULLYING and the confrontation between parents and children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– The cyber-bullying, or the BULLYING exerted through the telematic media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Homosexuals boys and girls victims of discriminations and acts of BULLYING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– BULLYING, fifteen years old boy almost choked 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Homosexuals girls victims of discrimination and acts of BULLYING</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Paradigms of a Constructed Reality: an overview of bullying through the Italian newspapers media

- Among the most frequent crimes, robberies (in line with the past years, 223 versus 251) are almost always in a context of BULLYING.
- Here we want to stress in particular gays’ rights. If you also are a victim of acts of BULLYING, speak with who is ready to listen to you. Call the number...
- Teenager BULLYING,
- A black and white clip of 15 minutes length which speaks of BULLYING.
- One speaks of BULLYING only when there are events of chronicle.
- BULLISMO on the web, the fear for denouncing.
- Characteristic of cyber-bullying is the absence of a space-time limit.
- Rage, traumas, mournings and BULLYING, they clash, but they also meet.
- Victims of violences, BULLYING and cyber-bullying.
- BULLYING doubled in the last 10 years.
- The episode of BULLYING seems linked to the handicap of the boy.
- BULLYING acts.
- Preventing acts of BULLYING.
- A week against BULLYING.
- Campaign against BULLYING.
- Impoverishment of personal relationships and BULLYING.
- Escape from the cyber-bullies.
- Victim of the cyber-bullying.
- Cyberbullying not there yet, experts are now beginning to collect half of which also for cyber-bullying.
- Stop to the cyber-bullying.
- The characteristic of cyber-bullying is anonymity.
- The dramaticity of the cyber-bullying.
- More physical the male BULLYING, more psychological the female one.
– Absolutely unisex: the cyber-BULLYING
– Message against homophobia and BULLYING
– Gays of the same age victims of BULLYING
– These youths have been victims of BULLYING
– We must oppose to he who accomplishes acts of BULLYING
– Against BULLYING which makes gay teenagers in USA the objects of its attacks
– Song to win BULLYING
– Prevention of BULLYING
– BULLYING and dope in the classroom; victim one student on two
– Raise of the cyber BULLYING
– And confronting BULLYING
– Anti-BULLYING centre
– Dope, BULLYING, violence
– Reflecting on BULLYING inside schools
– A videogame will save school from BULLYING
– They thought to BULLYING in a physical way
– Acts of BULLYING towards a child
– In the schools to fight BULLYING
– From youth BULLYING to joint economy
– Those bound to BULLYING in school ambit
– With much situations of BULLYING on the net
– There are no signs of dope, alcohol or BULLYING
– But today they make room also for micro-criminality, for BULLYING
– Making a stand against dope assumption, superficial criminality, clandestine immigration, BULLYING
– The anti-BULLYING ordinance?
– Preventing BULLYING and youth micro-criminality
The Paradigms of a Constructed Reality: an overview of bullying through the Italian newspapers media

- BULLYING, 8 charged and 3 wounded
- Laws on BULLYING
- How BULLYING is undergone by the weakest ones
- BULLYING inside schools and the overweight spring
- The cyber-BULLYING becomes reality
- They are 55 the cases of victims of BULLYING who have tried to kill themselves during the last two years
- And aggravated by the cyber-BULLYING.
- The bully seeks the spectacularization
- The antidote to BULLYING is creativity
- BULLYING, dope, alcohol
- BULLYING and that here assume outlines decidedly anti-states.
- Mafia BULLYING
- Committee for the prevention of uneasiness and of BULLYING at school
- Last year, during a moment of space BULLYING
- BULLYING is spreading among students.

It has been made the elaboration of the data coming from the vocabulary with the process of the factorial analysis. This operation allows to outline the talkative modalities used by the journalists and therefore corresponding to the main cognitive tools of the social groups during the construction of the common meaning of bullying. The text identified by the categorial variable “year”, after the factorial analysis executed by mean of the Corbi procedure, expresses in graphical form the two statistically most relevant factors in the description of the textual production emerged in year 2000. On the Cartesian plane can be observed that the linguistic labels “success”, “sensitization”, “problem”, “against bullying”, “seriousness”, “society” exhaust the first factor while the second one becomes saturated by elements such as “episodes”, “vandal
acts”, “condemnation”, “author”. The distance of these elements from the central axis denotes the independence of the lexemes in the construction of the reality in year 2000 compared to the dimension of bullying, graph 1; it can be hypothesized that it has been necessary only afterwards to connect to the term “bullying”, in its initial conformation of localization of a social fact clearly identifiable, some behaviors which define and determine it. Through the use of these repertoires the “bullying” reality is configured by means of modalities which imply the maintaining of reality in a circumscribed manner, deciding reality as a sure and immutable datum, without explicitating the used criteria and therefore not offering elements which would allow to share as previously stated.

A Close examination of the data reveals that the debate on the subject has significantly increased, whereas, in the nineties, it was almost absent from the national public media scene. Since 2006, interest appears to have increased, until falling sharply in 2010. In fact, the frequency of the coverage didn’t follow any identifiable and significant pattern and was pretty constant between 1992 and 2004 with an average of 17.4 articles per year and a total of 138 articles for the entire eight-year period.

In the decade from 2000 to 2010, all terms referring to bullying analyzed in the “Corriere della Sera” newspaper have approximately tripled. From 3896 articles in 2000, we reach 6115 in 2005, with a significant peak of 9413 in 2010. To further understand the context of the claims-making process under study, we analyzed the newspaper coverage on “bullying” and any topic related to it.

As far as time is concerned, even after 10 years, among the most frequently used lexemes in narrative construction, the outline dimensions of meaning are closely related to temporal variables such as “years” and “school”. The term “bullying” appears 235 times, respectively 13 occurrences are found for the year 2000, 73 for the year 2005 and 157 for the year 2010 (graph 1).
The Paradigms of a Constructed Reality: an overview of bullying through the Italian newspapers media

Graph 1. Discursive process on bullying related terms for year 2000

In relation to the texts produced in year 2005 we see that three areas of relevance are formalized by means of construction of clusters of meaning. The first area is constituted by the terms “bullying acts”, “forced”, “violence”, “males”, “prevarications”, “males”, dimensions which in the collective imaginary refer to a symbolic representation relative to violence. These are elements which often typically are associated denoting bullying itself. The second area is defined beginning from the lexemes: “do-gooder”, “trouble families”, “good family”, “sudden fit”, “also worst”, “particularly chilling”; in this grouping emerge both dimensions of role and elements which allow to build reality by means of reassuring interpretative paradigms because they represent cognitive models socially shared and structuralized. Finally in the third area are located two clusters which constitute, though in their distinction, an interpretative body which is oriented to include and to build the reality of bullying according to dimensions more oriented toward aspects of understanding and deduction. In the first section we find lexemes like “cheer up”, “what is happening”, “considered criminals”, and in the second lexemes such as “always”, “because”, “also”, “to intervene”. Specifically we see, like for the articles of the year 2005, how the journalists use, referring to bullying, modalities which maintain the state of things without contemplating change sceneries and describing the events according to their own point of view or to a personal evaluation, graph 2.
Finally concerning the articles produced in year 2010 emerges the use of repertoires of the judgement, of the sanctioning, of the cause, of the description and of the strategy. In these articles emerges therefore, differently from the previous years, the use of repertoires of the cause and of the strategy. Specifically it is noticed how in reporting facts of chronicle relative to “bullying” one resorts to modalities which tend to find the causes that undergo the carrying out of specific behaviours like, for example, in the excerpt: “It happens because women followed men on the ground of no-communication: according to their nature women would talk 4-5 times more than men, but they lost the ability to do it. They do not converse, they do not explain.” The use of such a modality, establishing a relationship of cause and effect between two parts of the speech, is based on common sense presuppositions, because it does not make explicit the references used to postulate such relationship.

The modality that differentiates year 2010, shifting the focus from the definition of “bullying” reality to the handling of it, is the use of the discursive modality of the strategy, that is to say that the journalism start offering to the common sense how such a reality can be handled. They describe the interventions the world of social can offer and what roles can be implied; “psychologist” for example is a graphical form which doesn’t appear in the
articles of years 2000 and 2005 but only in the argumentations offered for year 2010. Moreover one can see a greater connection between “bullying” reality and argumentations inherent to the psychiatric ambit, see for example the use of the graphical form “depression”. As regards to the causes of the “bullying” reality, indeed, during the passing of 10 years one can see an escalation in linking, in terms of cause, the bully modalities to the social and psychological-social context. In year 2000 the actions linked to “bullying” reality were inferred as “violent jokes”, in 2005 it begins to seek the cause posing the query inherent the “origin of the uneasiness” linking it to the “social uneasiness”. Also in year 2005 it begun to speak of “specialized centres”. In 2010 is noticed the explosion of the utilization of the causes so called psychiatric, so the actions of the bully are linked to labels such as “depression” and “anxiety”. In year 2010 the graphical representation due to the plotting of data emerged from the factorial analysis shows a trend inversion compared with year 2005 and a return to the polarization expressed in year 2000. The two great clusters of meaning are distributed in proximity of the axes of the two main factors and are expressed by means of linguistic labels like: “context”, “they don’t go to school”, “criminals”, “degradation”, “crime”, “ownership” aspects that describe a interpretative dimension which expresses itself by means of the use of moral values. In the second cluster aligned along the axis of the second factor one can find lexemes such as: “social”, “depression”, “obesity”, “anxiety”, or a descriptive variable which takes its matrix from meaning attributions more linked to the psychological interpretation, graph 3. The description of the bullying phenomenon is expressed by means of a interpretative paradigm which bases its own being on abstract and symbolic dimensions; such aspect seems to be linked to the presence of the declination of traditional bullying in cyber-bullying. It is presumed that exists a correspondence in the social imaginary between the abstract and changing dimensions linked to the new media and the description of a social phenomenon which moulds to the new relational context, a sort of symmetry between the relational organization mediated by the medium and
the interpretative matrixes which constitute the attributive and behavioural repertoires of the social groups.

Graph 3. Discursive process on bullying related terms for year 2010

**Conclusions**

One of the goods considered primary in the third millennium society is not any more exclusively linked to processes of material production, it frees itself from them and the western man who lives in post-modernity puts in knowledge the hinge of his development. The social and the individual evolution it inflect starting from sedimented knowledge. In the current context, though with a moderate national difference due to the amount of press freedom, the subject can rapidly access a remarkable amount of information. The media and in particular the new technological discoveries on which they rely have allowed to remarkably increment the circulation of information. In the Italian context, though the information media mostly used by the population that might be found are the net and the television, the information provided by the newspaper press is considered with a greater degree of legitimation and veracity. The narrative repertoires by means of which the facts are shared with the public give paradigmatic matrixes which bind the collective knowledge because they delimitate the boundaries of the pertinence inside of a given theme.

In Italy the bullying takes a role of specificity compared with the argumentations and the debates which emerge on the international
stage. The peculiarity of the Italian case consists in its description circumstantiated to the scholastic dynamics. The term, outside the school boundaries in its expressions of interpersonal relationship more than in its formative elements, loses every cognitive-symbolic meaning. From our analysis it results that in Italy the phenomenon of bullying has taken a certain degree of interest and relevance, so to be quoted in the chronicle episodes by one of the chief national newspapers for authority and number of copies sold, only starting from the end of the nineties. The greatest interest is found though only in the half of the first decade of year 2000. The theme of bullying in year 2000 took interpretative values which express an attempt of understanding of a hybrid phenomenon because in part it goes along the traits of the juvenile group violence again, traits already known and widely studied by literature, and in part it is expressed by means of emerging and changing schemes of specificity and symbolic attribution. In year 2005, according to the data found in the newspaper examined, we witness a sedimentation regarding the community of the peculiar traits of the phenomenon intended as an act of violence inside the school in which the recodification of the diversity and of the choices can be understood by means of the localization and the isolation of some variables. The gender and the sexual orientation appear relevant aspects and worthy of to subsume the phenomenon itself (Corvaglia, Majorano, Corsano, 2008). It is argued on the fact that bullying, seen as a social phenomenon, is a behaviour actuated mainly by males; the variable “gender” takes therefore a value of interpretative discriminator, it reflects on the violence expressed as a consequence of a labelling generated by a real or presumed sexual orientation, the victims similarly to the bullies take stereotyped traits. The victim is labelled for his/her weakness and for his/her being gay or lesbian while the bully is represented by the boy, a boy who comes either from a good family or from a trouble family. A sort of cognitive antithesis, almost never the bully is described as the child of a normal family, media label which is often attributed to boys when involved in other chronicle events.

In year 2010 is introduced the concept of cyber-bullies, a bullying dimension which is defined starting from its expressive peculiarity,
i.e. a dimension of aggressiveness between youths of the same age in the school world by means of the use of the computer systems. The possibility of being shielded by means of a support that in a certain way depersonalizes the other, allows the bullying itself to mobilize its boundaries and to loosen the dimensions of attribution rebuilding the reality generated with loose constructs (Kelly, 1955). The expansion of the interpretative paradigm is found also in the observation of the data emerged from the factorial analysis and from its subsequent transposition in graphical form. The variable “gender” in year 2010 seems to be an element which loses meaningfulness during the process of phenomenon interpretation because from the data found the cyber-bullying is expressed in a rather not differentiated way among the two genders. Following the observations of meaning and the longitudinal analysis, new sceneries of investigation open regarding the theme of bullying; it seems that the expression of this social phenomenon doesn’t feel directly the effects of the weight of the rank, of the degree of instruction, of the gender, therefore it is interesting to be able to observe what might be the latent and the expressed factors which mostly influence in the construction of this social phenomenon.

The case of Italian newspaper media fits almost perfectly the typical framework of claims-making. The early claims have tended to focus on severe cases typifying bullying in very dramatic terms, as a form of juvenile delinquency and group violence. Once the attention has been successfully drawn to the issue, new policies and interventions have been proposed. Finally, the problem domain has been expanded to raise concern for different problems such as Internet technologies. However, this study has only addressed and not deeply analyzed the contingencies and the context in which bullying has recently emerged as a social problem in Italy. A further research illustrating how the focus and the content of the news media have shifted over a longer time and on different newspapers is necessary to validate the findings. Finally, international comparative research about bullying is needed to facilitate international awareness, to test hypothesis about social and relational factors related to it, and to identify the reasons that
lead to a great deal of publicity about bullying in some countries and to a limited attention in others.

References


www.corriere.it
Slow Movement and Ecofeminism

Ana Guil, PhD
Manuel Cruz
Sara Vera
Department of Social Psychology
University of Seville, Spain

Abstract
In this chapter we present the main characteristics of the Slow Food movement, its origin as an eco-gastronomic movement and its development to an environmental worldwide one. We also introduce some elements of the Slow Cities movement as a derivative movement of the former one. And finally, we argue that there are some important similarities between them and Ecofeminism.

Introduction
This work is the continuation of a study that was presented at the San Diego Convention that analyse how men and women in Europe spend their time. While doing the mentioned study, one of us encountered this interesting movement that we think can help us to cope better with this hectic life style of us, reducing stress and eventually, enriching our lives.

We have also notice that it has many similarities with the principles of what is called Ecofeminism.

---

7 The mentioned study aimed to show the differences in the use of time between men and women. The article presented at that convention (Guil, 2009), which was a part of this wider study, was done with Andalusian sample and it have among its conclusions that there is a great imbalance between women and men -especially in non-remunerated work – and that this have consequences for women lives.
**The beginning**

The germ of the movement is considered to be the foundation of the Free and Praiseworthy Association of the Friends of Barolo\(^8\) in 1980\(^9\) (Petrini, 2003). Some of its members (among them was Carlo Petrini) would later form the association Arcigola in 1987. And they were among the demonstrators who protested against the opening of a McDonald’s branch in Piazza di Spagna the same year. It was at that point when the name of Slow Food was coined for its opposition with the concept of fast food (Petrini, 2003).

An additional fact that also seems to have influenced the movement was the poisoning with cheap wine mixed with methanol that resulted in the death of 23 Italians and many others affected and that shocked all Italy\(^10\) (Popham, 2009; Heitmann, Robinson, and Povey, 2011; Il Corriere della Sera, n.d.a, n.d.b). But it was not until December 1989 that the movement became international with the signing of the Slow Food Manifesto.

In the following years, it would attract a growing number of people interested in gastronomy and in preserving agricultural and cooking traditions, keeping local products viable, and promoting conviviality (Petrini, 2003).

Those new members joined and established new convivia\(^11\) under the supervision of a co-coordinator. They volunteered their time and energy and it is thanks to them and the activities they have implemented (with emphasis on educational programmes) that they have been able to reach the current extension of the movement and make known its philosophy to the rest of the world.

---

8 Libera e Benemerita Associazione Amici del Barolo.
9 Other sources dated that moment in 1981, or November 1981; the latter one was when the first meeting of the Association took place.
10 It would be later known as ‘The scandal of methanol wine’ (Lo scandalo del vino al metanolo)
11 Local Slow Food branch constituted by individual Slow Food members (convivia in plural, and convivium in singular) (Slow Food,n.d.a).
Philosophy -
Slow movement is an eco-gastronomic movement that opposes the standardization of taste and culture, whose embodiments are fast food chains. They request to limit the power of multinationals and industrial agricultures that are partly responsible of that process.

They believe that all people are entitled to enjoy good food and that this is not an exclusive pleasure of a few. They defend that protecting the heritage of food, tradition and culture are task that are the responsibility of all the society (Slow Food, n.d.e).

They defend that there are strong connections between plate, planet, people and culture (Slow Food, n.d.e).

12 The dates have been taken from different sources and materials like photographs (Martino, n.d.) and newspapers articles (Popham, 2009).
Core Principles
Slow Food’s approach to agriculture, food production and gastronomy is based on a concept of food quality defined by three interconnected principles (Slow Food, n.d.b; Petrini, 2003):

Good
A fresh and flavour some seasonal diet that satisfies the senses and is part of our local culture.

In this concept is very important two kind of subjective factors: (1) taste, which is linked to the sensorial area of each one of us and (2) knowledge, which is a more cultural factor and that is related with the environment, history of the local cultures and places.

Both can and should be taught in order to help youths and adults to appreciate local food, and also to eradicate sensorial ignorance that do not let us recognise between a good product and a bad one.

It also should be considered whether the product is natural which means that not too estrange or artificial elements have been introduced in the system environment/person/raw material/transformation\textsuperscript{13}, that is, no chemicals nor intensive practices (i.e. farming, livestock) have been employed.

Clean
Food production and consumption that does not harm the environment, animal welfare or our health.

It makes reference not only to the production methods, but also to the transport and distribution ones, because there often are hidden environmental cost that we are not aware of. One of the main problems is that the information needed to assess whether they are more or less eco-friendly\textsuperscript{14} is not available to the consumers (e.g.: we do not know if they have been transport by boat, train,

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{itemize}
\item Transformation: any kind of man intervention between the raw material and the final product (Petrini, 2003, p. 135).
\item By eco-friendly we mean that it does not contaminate, waste nor overuse natural resources.
\end{itemize}
\end{footnotesize}
truck or plane; having each of them a different impact on the environment).

Fair
Accessible prices for consumers and fair conditions and pay for small-scale producers. Taking into account both social sustainability (to promote quality of life, decent jobs that ensure livelihood and decent pay) and economic sustainability (to cover production expenses, and to pay wages according to the work).

In addition to the three principles mentioned above, it is to note the importance the Movement has given to the education of its members.

Key role of education
The slow movement have considered the education as a key point on its strategy as stated in its Education Manifesto (Slow Food, n.d.d). A fact that is also supported by the publishing of the Education Handbook (Slow Food, n.d.c) and the development of educational programmes.

Those programmes are implemented by the convivia they are not limited to its members (Heitmann et al., 2011). Its main purpose is to help to recognise high quality food, therefore taste education is its main component.

One of their objectives is that the participants learn to pay attention to their own senses, using them as instruments of discernment and pleasure (sensory education). But also introducing the cultural factor we talked about above, teaching how food is produced (or how animals are raised) and how arrives to the table, what are the local products and specialities and how to cooked them.

This process reached a new stage when the University of Gastronomic Sciences was established in 2004 (University of Gastronomic Sciences, n.d.).

The philosophy of the Slow Food has extended beyond the limits
of a gastronomic movement, serving as a basis for other projects or ideas. That is the case of Slow Cities.

**Slow Cities (Cittaslow)**

It consists of a network of cities dotted around the world; 182 cities in 28 different countries have joined the network so far (Cittaslow, 2013).

Its main aim is to promote sustainable development, and to improve the urban life (Cittaslow, n.d.). They foster changes to help people to lead an easier and a more pleasant way of life.

They invite us to live slowly, trying to be more human, environmentally correct and sensible for the present and future generations.

They do not deny nor reject globalisation, but try to respect small realities, and get profit from establishing a worldwide net. Using it as a source of good practices and ideas (Cittaslow, n.d.).

In line with the Slow Food principles, they also aim to promote dialog and communication between local producers and consumers, local production and a kind of tourism that respect local communities (Heitmann et al., 2011).

Among some of the requirements (Cittaslow, s.f.) are: (a) to adopt an environmental policy of fostering waste collection and recycling; (b) raising awareness of both the inhabitants and the tour operators about what means to be a slow city, paying special attention to educational programmes for the young; and (c) to have less than 50,000 inhabitants.

**Recommendations**

What can we do to slow down our lifestyle? How those abstract concepts can be applied to our everyday life? Here are a few recommendations:
- Have a slow hobby: read, write, knit, paint, do some gardening…

- Do not check the clock and respect your natural sleep rhythm.

- Limit pending things, making time for people and activities you enjoy.

- Buy fresh, local and handmade products.

- Cook peacefully, savouring the moment without turning on the TV, enjoying the company and conversation of others or just stay in peace and calmly.

- During holidays slow down your rhythm. Do not intend to do all you have planned, travel to quiet cities that have restaurants with homemade local food.

Some connections with feminism
Although, as we have explained above, the Slow Movement has its roots in a culinary context, there are some principles of its philosophy that are in common with other previous movements. Specifically, we refer to the linkages between feminism and ecology, which resulted in a movement which French feminist Françoise d’Eaubonne (1974) coined as “Ecofeminism”.

Ecofeminism emphasises the interconnections among various form of oppression, such as racism, class exploitation, militarism, sexism and ecological destruction. Although, ecofeminism does not appear to privilege gender subjugation, sex and gender based system of oppression have served as conceptual framework whereby analyse the majority of human and planetary experience (Li, 2007). Ecofeminism’s philosophy argues that one of the most enemies of the planet- and anything else that inhabit it- is the
male power, which is the main domination system. All that part of
the planet, including the ecosystem and women themselves have
been subjected to this male power, so they have been used for the
exclusive benefit of man. This domain system has marked the way
humans have been related with nature and its resource which it
have been transformed into a means to get money (Tardón, 2011).

According to ecofeminism, globalisation as the real expansion of
industrial capitalist model has imposed that all communities of
the world work at the same rhythm, although each has its own
idea of progress and lifestyle. Because of this, globalization is an
asymmetric system in which certain groups dominate other groups
based on their own idea of production and progress (Castells, 1999
cited in Medina, 2012). Linking this argument with the oppression
conditions of women, male power has defined a dual system in
where woman are in an inferior position. Traditionally, the dualism
which has generated more disadvantages for woman is related to
activities of production/reproduction. Reproductive activities has
been assigned to women by men and theses activities instead of
be considered as an important part of survival and human support,
have been relegated to the private sphere. The connection between
environmental ethics and feminism has established based on
the responsibility assigned to women care and life support, and
because of this we can see how most of animal and environmental
protection associations are composed mostly by woman (Tardón,
2011).

In the same way, another traditional dualism comes from binomial
Culture-Nature; in this binominal Nature is seems to be something
to conquer and own as a separate part of the human being instead
of being part of it. The own women, conceived during centuries as
a part of the nature, were to be dominated by men, makers of the
Culture defined as a transformation of the Nature by the men.

Under the above arguments, Ecofeminism claim rebuild our
relationship with the ecosystem, from the recognition of the value
that possess both nature itself and the groups that considered part
of it have been traditionally oppressed. In this sense, ecofeminism
urged to practice a lifestyle more environmentally friendly, freeing of globalization and closer to local realities and its idiosyncrasies as well as valuating the features that make human life possible in line with these values such as care, nutrition, protection, etc.

To spread this way of interacting with the environment, which is more respectful with life and its rhythms, a strong pedagogical project is needed. And Ecofeminism, as a pedagogical project, tries to make collective educational efforts to examine the current social norms in a critical light, aiming to introduce new ethical norms in the global community (Li, 2007).

As previously said, Slow Movement and Ecofeminism have some points in common. Although ecofeminism has broader claims and is more linked to a philosophical theory, the way their principles are applied are very similar. Both recommend us to try to slow down our rhythm and to connect with our true human side. A side that is far from the rapid technological transformation and extreme mercantilism of our ecosystems. Both stress the importance of being respectful of the environment, being close to local markets and not to contribute to the globalisation process. And last, both seem to consider that the best way to extend this philosophy among citizens is developing educational activities.

In some way, Slow Movement— as Ecofeminism— tries to defy the premises of the western model of modern production, which is based on quantitative quality instead of being based on qualitative ones. This movement that started with something small is spreading relatively quickly, and can help women to break free from the load allocation of the patriarchy, but only if men undertake to be “slow”.

**Conclusions**

Slow Movement believes that food is tied to many aspects of life, including culture, politics, agriculture and the environment. They envision a world where all people can access and enjoy food that is good for them, good for those who grow it and good for the planet.
Slow Movement and Ecofeminism

Its main goal is to live better and longer, enjoy life, be in harmony with our environment and appreciate quality over quantity.

Slow Movement principles are closely related to Ecofeminism Philosophy. Respect for nature, non-androcentric vision of itself and rational use of natural resources, are some of the common principles of these two social movements.

However, many times the use of the term “feminism” alarmed those who refuse to surrender their male privileges and because of this, we think Slow Movement could be a more effective way to introduce benefits in the lives of both women and men.

References


Instituto Andaluz de la Mujer (2010). Tiempo y desigualdades de género: distribución social y políticas del tiempo. IAM.


World of Warcraft Gamers: behavior addiction and consequences

Roswith Roth and Ulrike Pichler
University of Graz, Austria
69th Annual Convention of ICP, Washington DC, USA

Introduction

1. Behavioral Addiction

Historically, addiction has been defined as physical and psychological dependence on psychoactive substances (e.g. alcohol, tobacco, heroin and other drugs) temporarily altering the chemical milieu of the brain, see DSM-IV-R (APA, 2000) and ICD 10 (WHO, 2010). The most important characteristics of addiction are (a) loss of control, (b) development of tolerance and detoxification syndrome, (c) consequences in social life and health and (d) psychological dependency, which ends up in a habit.

Behavioral addiction (as opposed to chemical addiction), also referred to as soft addiction, process addiction (Shaffer, 1996), or non-substance-related addiction (Albrecht et al., 2007; Potenza, 2006), is a form of addiction not caused by the usage of drugs. Behavioral addiction consists of a compulsion to repeatedly engage in an action until it causes negative consequences to the person’s physical, mental, social, and/or financial well-being (Stein et al., 2009; Parashar et al., 2007). Behavior persisting in spite of these consequences can be taken as a sign of addiction. Behavioral addiction is applied to behaviors such as compulsive shopping, sex addiction/compulsive sex, overeating, problem gambling and computer/internet addiction. In DSM-IV these disorders are classified as „impulse control disorders“. Behavioral addictions has been proposed as a new class in DSM-5 (APA, 2013), but the only category included is gambling addiction. Internet gaming addiction is included in the appendix as a condition for further study.
It is estimated that at least 90% of Americans have at least one form of soft addiction in their lives. While it is healthy to relieve stress with behaviors like drinking coffee and watching television, when they become habitual they become problematic to one’s health and happiness (Davies, 2005). Young (1998ab, 1999) has addressed Internet addiction as one of the most common types of “soft addictions” and has linked excessive Internet use to pathological gambling. Another “soft addiction” would be considered as texting, or repetitive behaviors such as (Deardorff, 2007). Research around addictions and social media sites has been growing. The Retrevo company recently came out with research suggesting that there is an obsessiveness to the way people are checking their pages.

2. Massively multiplayer online role-playing games (MMORPG)
Massively Multiplayer Online Role Playing Games (MMORPGs) are a combination of Role Plays and Online Games (Seifert, 2007). MMORPGs are internet games, bound to computers using mainly the keyboard and mouse. Those games are real-time games, the data are permanently processed between client and server. A steady and quick internet connection is needed for playing MMORPGs (Seifert, 2007)

Up to thousands of gamblers live together with other gamblers in their own play world. Each character has his/her home on a server (realm), where they can log in (they can play with more than one character). Over time, the MMORPG community has developed a sub-culture with its own slang and metaphor, as well as an unwritten list of social rules and taboos. Players will often complain about ‘grind’ (a slang term for any repetitive, time-consuming activity in an MMORPG), or talk about ‘buffs’ and ‘nerfs’ (respectively an upgrade or downgrade of a particular game mechanic). Social rules exist for such things as invitations to join an adventuring party, the proper division of treasure, and how a player is expected to behave while grouped with other players.

Debate rages in various gaming media over the long-term impact of video game overuse. The On-Line Gamers Anonymous forums are
filled with stories of players that have neglected social, employment and/or family responsibilities in favor of their ‘virtual lives’.

2.1. World of Warcraft (WoW)

World of Warcraft (WoW) is a MMORPG created by Blizzard Entertainment. The game of WoW is set in a fictional world known as Azeroth and later extending to a further world called Outland. With the latest expansion, Cataclysm, the classic continents of Azeroth were drastically changed as some zones were destroyed and new ones unveiled.

In the game, players design a character to play based on a number of starting options, such as the race of character and its type or class. Gameplay primarily consists of completing quests (kill quests, gather quests, delivery quests and escort quests) and dungeon runs, and other in-game activities, in order to obtain rewards which will allow one to improve one’s character and equipment in order to be able to complete the more difficult quests and dungeon runs (http://www.wowwiki.com/Newbie_instance_guide).

To enter the game, the player must select a server, referred to in-game as a realm. Each realm acts as an individual copy of the game world, and falls into one of four categories. Available realms types are:

- Normal – a Player Versus Environment (PvE) realm where the gameplay is more focused on defeating monsters and completing quests, player-versus-player fights must be consensual, and any role-play is optional.

- Player versus Player (PvP) – an environment where, in addition to defeating monsters and completing quests, open player-versus-player combat is the norm and a player can be attacked by an opposing faction’s player at any time.

- Role Play (RP) – a variant of PvE, where players role-play in-character.
- RP-PvP – a variant of PvP, where players are in-character and cross-faction combat is assumed.

Realms are also categorized by language, with in-game support in the language available.

In German speaking countries 86 German Realms exist for WOW with >1000s gamers per realm.

With 11.4 million subscribers as of March 2011 and 77 million subscribers in 2013, WoW is the world’s most-subscribed MMORPG (Karmali, 2013). An important issue in these Online-Role-Plays are the in the interface integrated chat channels, to communicate with gaming partners, you are able to perform „group games“. These social factors are important incentives for many gamers. When you log out, the game goes on – when you log in again, the „world“ has changed, so staying in the game is rewarding.

3. Loneliness
Loneliness is a complex and usually unpleasant emotional response to isolation or lack of companionship. Loneliness typically includes anxious feelings about a lack of connectedness or communality with other beings, both in the present and extending into the future. As such, loneliness can be felt even when surrounded by other people. The causes of loneliness are varied and include social, mental or emotional factors.

Whether a correlation exists between Internet usage and loneliness is a subject of controversy, with some findings showing that Internet users are lonelier (Hughes, 1999) and others showing that lonely people who use the Internet to keep in touch with loved ones (especially seniors) report less loneliness, but that those trying to make friends online became lonelier (Sum et al., 2008). On the other hand, studies in 2002 (Shaw et al., 2002) and 2010 (Kelley, 2010) reported that internet use was found to decrease loneliness and depression significantly, while perceived social support and self-esteem increased significantly and that the Internet has an
enabling and empowering role in people’s lives, by increasing their sense of freedom and control, which has a positive impact on well-being or happiness.

4. **Flow**

Flow is the mental state of operation in which a person performing an activity is fully immersed in a feeling of energized focus, full involvement, and enjoyment in the process of the activity. In essence, flow is characterized by complete absorption in what one does. Proposed by Csíkszentmihályi (1990), this positive psychology concept has been widely referenced across a variety of fields.

Flow is one of the main reasons that people play video games (Murphy, 2011). This is especially true since the primary goal of games is to create entertainment through intrinsic motivation, which is related to flow. Through the balance of skill and challenge the player’s brain is aroused, with attention engaged and motivation high. Thus, the use of flow in games helps foster an enjoyable experience which in turn increases motivation and draws players to continue playing. As such, game designers strive to integrate flow principles into their projects (Chen, 2008). Overall, the experience of play is fluid and is intrinsically psychologically rewarding independent of scores or in-game successes in the flow state.

5. **Coping**

Additional to emotion-oriented and task-oriented coping (Endler & Parker, 1990) internet-oriented coping is a new kind of dealing with unpleasant events as loneliness and even with severe life experiences (Deatherage et al., 2014; Seepersad, 2004). The distraction and flow effect respectively of internet use are strong rewarding incentives using the internet. Gupta et al. (2004) investigated 587 youngsters in the age between 12 and 17 years of age to show the relationship between gambling and coping strategies. They found that pathological gamblers preferred emotion-oriented, avoidant and distracting coping in comparison with social- and non-gamblers.
6. Aim of the Study
The aim of the study was to investigate the proneness to addiction of World of Warcraft (WoW) gamers and their relation to flow-experience, loneliness and coping behavior. We assumed that people with high WoW addiction or proneness to addiction report more flow-experiences, higher loneliness, and prefer emotional-coping use over task-oriented coping and the use of internet activities to cope with problems.

7. Method
To reach as many WoW gamers as possible an online lime survey has been conducted. Sociodemographic aspects as age, gender, family status (with vs. without partner), education (with, without school leaving exam = Matura, Abitur and enables persons to enter the university in German speaking countries), living situation (alone, with partner and/or children, with parents), job (yes, no) and country (Austria, Germany, Switzerland, others) were collected. Gambling specific data were duration of gaming experience, how many characters were regularly used in the WoW, how many days per week and how many hours per play-unit are usually gambled.

The following questionnaires were endorsed by the subjects: (a) the Internet Addiction Scale (Hahn & Jerusalem, 2001). It consists of 5 Subscales: Loss of Control, Increase of Tolerance, Signs of Deprivation (Detoxification), Negative Consequences for Work and Achievement, Negative Consequences for Social Relationships. The UCLA-Loneliness- Scale (Russel et al., 1980), the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situational-CISS (Endler & Parker, 1990), containing 3 Subscales: Emotion-oriented Coping, Task-oriented Coping, Avoidance-oriented Coping (distraction, dissipation). An Internet-Coping-Scale (developed by Pichler, 2009) and the Short Flow-Scale (Rheinberg, Vollmeyer & Engeser, 2003), comprising 2 Subscales: Being absorbed, Worries.
8. Results

8.1. Socio-demographic Variable

341 WoW gamers completed the questionnaires. They were divided into three groups using a cutting score of the total Internet Addiction Scale: No risk (<30) – NR, Moderate Risk (30-39) – MR, High Risk (≥ 40) – HR. Males and females and the risk groups were distributed proportionally ($\chi^2 = 2.279; p = .320$) (see table 1).

Table 1: Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No Risk</th>
<th>Medium Risk</th>
<th>High Risk</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>341</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of variance showed ($F_{2,335} = 2.853; p = .059$) that the HR group were younger than the NR ($M_{HR} = 22.95$, $M_{MR} = 24.35$, $M_{NR} = 25.78$), and that males are in this sample slightly younger than females ($F_{1,335} = 2.695; p = .102$) ($M_{Male} = 24.05$, $M_{Female} = 25.57$).

More NR than HR and MR individuals ($\chi^2 = 6.075; p = .048$) and more females (54:25) (95:167) than males ($\chi^2 = 2.541; p < .001$) got a partner.

More HR than NR and MR ($\chi^2 = 12.33; p = .002$) and more males lived with their parents ($\chi^2 = 18.39; p < .001$). 35 gamers (10.3 %) had one or more children, women had more children than males ($\chi^2 = 4.280; p = .039$).

As for school leaving exam which give access to a university no differences in addiction-risk groups were observed ($\chi^2 = 3.23; p = .199$), but slightly more females got the school leaving exam ($\chi^2 = 3.18; p = .075$).

More NR and MR than HR had jobs ($\chi^2 = 9.78; p = .008$), but no gender differences arose ($\chi^2_{1,341} = 0.25; p = .872$).

Most participants were Germans (86.5%), 10.6% Austrians, 1.8% Swiss gamblers, and 1.2% lived in another country.
World of Warcraft Gamers: behavior addiction and consequences

8.2. Gambling Behavior: Days/Week and Hours/Session
Gambling days per week showed a significant difference in the Addiction Groups ($F_{2,335} = 10.913; \ p < .001$), HR played more days/week than MR and NR. No gender differences arose ($F_{1,335} = 0.148; \ p = .700$) (see Figure 1).
Comparing hours per session an interaction Addiction Groups x Gender ($F_{2,335} = 3.263; \ p = .039$) showed that HR men played more hours/session than MR and NR men and women. A slightly significant gender difference was seen ($F_{1,335} = 3.099; \ p = .079$), males play longer/session than women (see Figure 2).

8.3. Loneliness, Coping and Flow Experience
Loneliness scores showed the expected result. HR individuals felt the highest loneliness ($F_{2,335} = 11.259; \ p < .001$), no gender differences were seen ($F_{1,335} = 0.222; \ p = .638$) (see figure 3).
HR individuals used more emotion-oriented Coping ($F_{2,335} = 11.623; \ p < .001$), and women showed more emotion-oriented Coping ($F_{1,335} = 11.817; \ p = .001$) (see Figure 4)
In contrast to emotion-oriented coping HR subjects used less task-oriented Coping \((F_{2,335} = 6.013; p=.003)\), in task-oriented coping no gender differences appeared \((F_{1,335} = 0.021; p=.885)\) (see Figure 5).

In Internet-oriented coping the expected differences could be observed. HR individuals used more of internet-coping \((F_{2,335} = 13.488; p<.001)\), and males preferred internet-coping compared with women \((F_{1,335} = 14.616; p<.001)\) (see Figure 6).

![Figure 5: Task-oriented Coping](image)

![Figure 6: Internet-oriented Coping](image)

The flow experience contains two aspects: being absorbed by the task and worries to accomplish the task. HR individuals reported being more absorbed than the MR and NR groups \((F_{2,335} = 17.586; p<.001)\), no gender differences were observed \((F_{1,335} = 0.018; p=.892)\) (see Figure 7).

Worries about fulfilling the task again showed more worries in HR individuals than in NR \((F_{2,335} = 17.637; p=.000)\), and men felt more worried than women \((F_{1,335} = 7.230; p=.008)\). (see Figure 8)

To have a multivariate overview including the gambling-, coping-, flow-, and loneliness aspects, we calculated a discriminant analysis to see which variables could

![Figure 7: Flow: Being Absorbed](image)

![Figure 8: Flow: Worries](image)
distinguish the three addiction risk groups. The significant results (data not shown) indicated that Individuals at high risk (HR) to develop a behavioral internet addiction could be significantly discriminated from subjects at medium (MR) or no risk (NR) by gambling habits (longer experience, more days/week, more hours/week and more hours/session), by socio-demographic aspects (younger age, no partner, no job, living with the parents) and psychological variables (higher loneliness, higher emotion-, lower task- and higher internet-oriented coping, and higher flow experiences (being absorbed, worries about the game).

8.4. Prediction of Addiction Dimensions
The (Behavioral) Addiction Scale comprises five dimensions in accordance with substance addiction: (1) Loss of Control, (2) Increase of Tolerance, (3) Deprivation („Detoxification“), (4) Negative Consequences for Work and Achievement and (5) Negative Consequences for Social Relationships.

Loss of Control can be predicted \( F_{20,320} = 6.342; p< .001, R^2=.284 \) by being absorbed, worries, emotion-oriented and internet-oriented coping. The more absorbed and worried the subjects, the more emotion-oriented and internet-oriented coping they use the higher the loss of control (see Table 2).

Prediction Increase of Tolerance \( F_{20,320} = 8.169; p< .001; R^2=.338 \) shows that the more hours/week the individuals gamble, the less gambling experience they have, the more absorbed and worried they are and if internet-oriented coping is the preferred coping style the higher is their increase of addiction tolerance (see Table 3).

Deprivation (detoxification) can be predicted by several aspects \( F_{20,320} = 8.269; p< .001; R^2=.341 \). The older the subjects are, if they have small children, if they play only with less WoW characters, if they have less gambling experience, play less hours/unit, play more hours/week felt more absorbed and worried, use more emotion-oriented and internet-oriented the more they suffer deprivation (see Table 2).
Negative Consequences for Work and Achievement ($F_{20,320} = 11,042; p< .001; R^2=.408$) are determined by gender (men), no job, the more hours/week, the more emotion-oriented and internet-oriented coping but less task-oriented coping the higher the negative consequences for work and achievement (see Table 2).

Higher negative consequences for social relationships ($F_{20,320} = 11,042; p= .000; R^2=.401$) are predicted by using a small number of WoW characters, the more gambling hours/week but the shorter the gambling time/unit subjects reported, the lonelier they feel, the more absorbed and worried and the more they use internet oriented coping they apply (see Table 2).

Table 2: Predictors of the Addiction Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Loss of Control</td>
<td>Being absorbed</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>3.615</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Worries</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>2.208</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotion-oriented Coping</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>3.246</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internet-oriented Coping</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>1.776</td>
<td>.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance</td>
<td>Gambling Hours/Week</td>
<td>.506</td>
<td>1.912</td>
<td>.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gambling Experience</td>
<td>-.138</td>
<td>-2.852</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loneliness</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>1.848</td>
<td>.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Being absorbed</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>2.091</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Worries</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>2.915</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internet-oriented Coping</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>2.247</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deprivation</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>1.691</td>
<td>.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Children</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>2.203</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of WoW Characters</td>
<td>-.101</td>
<td>-2.084</td>
<td>.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gambling Hours/Week</td>
<td>.689</td>
<td>2.612</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gambling Hours/Session</td>
<td>-.482</td>
<td>-2.111</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
World of Warcraft Gamers: behavior addiction and consequences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gambling Experience</td>
<td>-.081</td>
<td>1.679</td>
<td>.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being absorbed</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>2.918</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worried</td>
<td>.144</td>
<td>2.529</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion-oriented Coping</td>
<td>.124</td>
<td>2.144</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-oriented Coping</td>
<td>.137</td>
<td>2.372</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Negative Consequences for Work and Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>2.903</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job</td>
<td>-.155</td>
<td>-3.009</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambling Hours/Week</td>
<td>.576</td>
<td>2.292</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion-oriented Coping</td>
<td>.239</td>
<td>4.353</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task-oriented Coping</td>
<td>-.151</td>
<td>-3.069</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-oriented Coping</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td>1.971</td>
<td>.050</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Negative Consequences for Social Relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of WoW Characters</td>
<td>-.122</td>
<td>2.669</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambling Hours/Week</td>
<td>.665</td>
<td>2.660</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loneliness</td>
<td>.258</td>
<td>4.296</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambling Hours/Session</td>
<td>-.385</td>
<td>-1.777</td>
<td>.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being absorbed</td>
<td>.145</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worries</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>2.815</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-oriented Coping</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>3.007</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Discussion

Our lime survey was endorsed by a grab sample which might not be representative. 564 subjects started to fill in the questionnaire but only 341 (60.46%) completed it and could be analyzed.

In our sample the average age is 24.40 years, women were older (25.57 yrs) than men (24.04 yrs). Cypra (2005) investigated 11 445 gamblers and found the same age differences between male and female gamblers. Griffiths et al. (2004) observed that in younger gamblers (<19 years of age) women are less represented than in the adult gambling groups. In our sample the age range was 16 to 50 years and about 1/3 women and 2/3 men. The HR group was younger than the MR and NR groups.
About 56% of the subjects had no partner, in particular people high at risk to be addicted to WoW gambling lived without partner. Taking into consideration how much time is spent with gambling it does make sense that time is short for partners. The time spent might be the cause not having a partner but also a kind of compensation for a missing partner. Seifert’s (2007) investigation of WoW-gamers showed 63.5% singles. A similar explanation may hold for the fact that 41.1% of the gamblers live with their parents, in particular is the rate of HR gamblers higher than the MR and NR individuals. Seifert (2007) reported that 58.9% of the WoW-gamblers live with their parents.

HR individuals play about 6 days/week, MR gamble one day less and NR two days less than HR. It is important to look at the gambling duration/day. If they play daily for 3 hours after work, it might not be that problematic as if they play excessively from morning to evening. The average session duration is about 5 hours for men and 4 ½ for women. HR men play over 6 hours per session.

The subjects play in average 27.47 hours WoW per week, the high risk men 37.6 hours/week. Cypra (2005) observed an average WoW play time of 24.6 hours, and Seifert (2007) reported 25.76 hours/week. Subjects who are at high risk gamble in average 37.4 hours/week (Cypra, 2005). Hahn & Jerusalem (2001) showed that addicted WoW gamblers were 38.5 hours/week involved in the game, in contrast to not addicted people who used in average 4.9 hours/week the internet. In general the younger gamblers seemed to be more prone to addiction than the older ones.

We hypothesized that the high risk WoW gamblers feel lonelier than those without risk. Excessive WoW gamblers are described in the social media as introverted people who prefer the virtual over the real world. Several studies and our findings confirmed this view that excessive and pathological internet user feel more loneliness than normal internet users (Engelberg & Sjöberg, 2004; Seepersad, 2004; Özcan & Buzlu, 2007; Morahan-Martin & Schumacher, 2000).
Our assumptions about coping were confirmed. The higher the WoW addiction risk the more prominent were emotion-oriented coping and internet-oriented coping. MR and NR persons preferred task-oriented coping. Weaver et al. (2000) showed that substance addicted women changed their coping style from emotion-oriented to task-oriented, when they get abstinent. Grüsser et al. (2005) postulated that, if children play excessively computer games during childhood, they acquire inadequate coping strategies. They withdraw to a “good” virtual world and task-oriented dealing with the real world is not ensured anymore (Young, 1999). To acquire task-oriented coping strategies might prevent internet addiction and could be used in intervention programs for kids and youngsters.

Our findings that WoW gambling foster flow experiences were replicated in several studies (Seifert, 2007; Wan & Chiou, 2007; Chou & Ting, 2003). Flow experiences are able to increase intrinsic motivation and lead – in a positive sense, to increased knowledge in educational games or game-based learning (Gee, 2007) – and in a negative sense, to internet addiction.

The best common predictors of the five addiction dimensions were high internet-oriented coping, playing more hours/week, and higher scores in the flow-scales being absorbed and worries about the game. Men fit the hypotheses and expectation better than women.

To sum up the results of our study could be used to develop prevention and intervention programs for kids in schools. Young people are often left alone with the internet. No regular curricula units in school are provided for students how to deal with internet problems like cyber mobbing, giving private data away, gambling daily for hours etc. (Ruthven et al., 2007). About 98% of 10-18 years old are in the internet on a regular basis, about 1/3rd say it is the most attractive leisure activity – are these the internet addicted in the future?
10. References


Cyberpsychology & Behavior, 6, 663-675.


[02.04.2009].


Retrevo Company (no date) http://www.retrevo.com/content/blog/2010/03/social-media-new-addiction%3F [23.02.2014].


Seville Conference:
CELEBRATING 70 YEARS OF WORKING TOWARDS
HEALTH, PEACE AND SOCIAL JUSTICE
Personal Happiness
(symptoms, causes, and treatment based on recent research)

Ludwig F. Lowenstein Ph.D.
Southern England Psychological Services
ludwig.lowenstein@btinternet.com

Abstract
Most people whatever their age, sex, ethnic background or any other factor would prefer to be happy rather than unhappy. In what follows we will consider the symptoms of individuals who are happy and those who are unhappy, how they differ and why they differ. Hence we will also consider the causes of happiness and unhappiness in individuals. Much will be based on the research carried out on the subject worldwide. We will next consider how to develop or promote happiness in those who have failed to achieve that state of being.

Introduction
Unhappiness, and in more extreme cases its opposite, depression, often is a part of human existence. Most people will agree that the seeking and attaining of happiness is of paramount importance. In what follows we will consider the psychological aspects which cause or contribute to happiness or its opposite unhappiness or in the extreme, depression. We will first look at the symptoms, then the causes, followed finally by what efforts that can be made to achieve happiness. We will further consider what can be done to understand the causes of an unhappy disposition. The references that follow statements refer to the research that has been done by others into the subject of unhappiness, depression and happiness.
Happiness and unhappiness in the east and west of the world varies to some degree as noted by Uchida & Kitayama (2009). Americans associated positive hedonic experiences of happiness with personal achievement while the Japanese associated it with social harmony.

**What are symptoms of happiness and unhappiness?**
Mood disorders, especially depression, counteracts the individual’s capacity to enjoy life and hence to be happy. Clinical depression leads to long-lasting psychological pain (Isacson et al, 2005), and due to a feeling of despair, indecisiveness and hopelessness, as well as extreme suicidal ideations. Low mood makes individuals feel empty, anxious, miserable, and humiliated. They no longer have a sense of humour (Benazzi et al., 2004).

Most people with mental disorders were happy 68.4% of the time and while those without mental disorders were happy 89.1% of the time according to a Dutch study by Bergsma et al., 2011).

Furnham & Cheng (1997) used the Oxford happiness inventory to assess individuals and to ascertain whether they were happy or not. Stability appeared to be an insulator against unhappiness as well as conscientiousness, dutifulness, achieving and striving as well as self-discipline.

Social relations and the effectiveness of these relations also produced happiness in many people rather than unhappiness. This is often combined with occupational involvement and success achieved (Haller & Hadler, 2006). What appeared to count most in life was the ability to cope with life, including subjective health and financial satisfaction as well as close social relations.

Good intimate relationships were also important in adolescence as they increased self esteem and provided social support (Lasko et al., 1996). It was also noted that happy people perceived, interpreted, and thought about the same events in more positive ways than do unhappy people. They often saw humour even in adversity (Lyubomirsky & Tucker, 1998).
A study by Minkov, (2009) sought to ascertain predictors of differences in subjective well being across 97 nations in this cross cultural study. The main predictors of cognitive life satisfaction are a perception of life control followed by wealth.

In the extreme unhappy people lose a sense of purpose, initiative and show less action and move more slowly (Beck, 1967). Beck describes unhappiness or depression as a “paralysis of the will”. Such individuals are in the extreme opposite to those who are happy. They are frequently beset by negativity, pessimism, hopelessness and helplessness. They frequently suffer from attentional and memory problems (Bremner et al., 2004). They tend towards tiredness, and hence eat and sleep less or excessively (Genchi et al, 2004).

Unhappy people see the world as an unhappy place and suffer from numerous personal problems (Cromby et al., 2007) Unhappy people have lost their sense of reality and frequently have bizarre ideas which have no foundation or are exaggerated in their minds. They are fettered in a sense to their delusions which create a feeling of unhappiness. In the extreme, they suffer from a major depressive disorder or a bipolar disorder. This is when their depression is interspersed with manic episodes (Angst et al., 2005; Bowden, 2005).

**What causes happiness and unhappiness?**

Some individuals appear to be unhappy for no apparent reason as if this was a trait innate to themselves and their nature. In others, it is triggered by stressful events, which an innately “happy” individual could overcome due to their resilience related to their being of a happy predisposition (Henn & Vollmayr, 2005).

Unhappy individuals view life and events pessimistically. They often have a sense of hopelessness and helplessness. They always expect the worst to happen and prepare themselves for this. Frequently, genetic factors play a role. All kinds of research has been carried out to prove the importance of genetic aspects. These
are family pedigree, and twin and adoption studies. Close relatives, especially to the unhappy individual appear in 20% of cases to have a similar disposition.

In the case of identical twins, if one twin has an unhappy nature, or suffers from depression, there is a 46% chance that the other will also have an unhappy nature or suffer from depression. In the case of fraternal twins i.e. non identical twins, the congruence is shows only 20% chance of both being unhappy (McGuffin et al., 1996). An abnormality in the 5-HTT gene is likely to be in part responsible. This gene influences the neurotransmitters with creating low activity of norepinephrine and serotonin (Hecimovic & Gilliam, 2006). Cortisone is one of the hormones released by the adrenal glands during times of stress leading to unhappiness (Neumeister et al., 2005). The “Dracula hormone”, melatonin is also involved in controlling depression or unhappiness.

Lane (2000) presents evidence of a rising tide of clinical depression in most advanced societies in US studies. He points out that the main sources of well-being in advanced economies are friendship and good family life. This is in contrast with poverty in the past. Larger incomes can contribute almost nothing to happiness providing the income is sufficient.

The physical conditions and physical behaviour also affects how the individual feels about himself, and how he/she behaves. Hence, the elderly, whose health and hence physical activity deteriorates over time, frequently suffer from depression and unhappiness (Callahan et al., 1998; Penninx et al., 1990). Other events such as the weather and climate, especially the amount of sunshine present affects people’s feeling of happiness or unhappiness.

On the whole, light has a beneficial effect on individuals with winter sometimes causing what is termed ‘seasonal affective disorder’ (SAD)(Neto et al., 2004). In other words the emotion of feeling unhappy is very much dependent also on others. Unhappy people also suffer from low self esteem and generally feel unworthy about being loved (Busch et al., 2004).
Unhappiness in childhood
This is, according to the psychodynamic approach due to an early loss such as that of a much loved relation or some other serious disappointment in their lives (Goodman, 2002). Sometimes the cause of later unhappiness may be due to poor child rearing styles termed “affectionless control”. This consists of a mixture of poor care and a high level of protectiveness (Martin et al., 2004). Not all children however, who suffer in this way become unhappy in later life leading one to the resolution that many humans are resilient, or develop resilience, and get on with their lives rather than become unhappy adults. In children unhappiness is due to the fact that they may suffer from certain conditions such as obesity (Chang & Nayga, 2010).

As has long been known divorce by parents has a significant impact on many children’s feelings of contentment or happiness. Condrell (2006) emphasises the importance of parents being vigilant and recognizing the signs that one or more of their children have concluded that they are failures and that they are not as good as other children. Many children suffer from unhappiness due to lack of friends and the fact that they have continuing quarrels with others. Favouritism, i.e. when parents favour one child against another, is another reason for a child feeling unhappy. Children do not like a great deal of permissiveness as it does not prepare them for life’s challenges. Some children also suffer from sibling abuse or bullying by older children.

Martin (2005) looks at the origins of happiness within the individual during the lifelong process of development from birth to death. He explores the relationship between happiness and success and the ways in which early experiences, parents and education influence each individual’s capacity for happiness.

Physical aspects
It seems almost obvious to consider that healthy people when compared with brain or spinal injured individuals who have been in automobile accidents are much happier than those who have
been injured (Pachalska & Ziolkowska, 2011). It was also noted that losing a close partner was the main reason for unhappiness, along with loneliness, lack of love, lack of friends, loss of house or job, or being expelled from university, as well as suffering from sickness, disability, pain, and feelings of insecurity. Disabled people feel subjectively less happy than students and random adults.

Finally, Wright and Garrison et al. (1991) investigated parental substance abuse and childhood unhappiness. Children were likely to be more unhappy and feel stressed if their parents indulged in drug taking and when they experienced financial problems, physical abuse by a parent and chaotic living conditions.

Another cause of unhappiness comes from the feeling that life for the individual has been disappointing, unfair, with a lack of rewards. Such individuals set themselves goals which they fail to attain in the area of education, vocation, avocation or in personal relationships. Sometimes this is due to being over ambitious and at other times it is being involved in areas that are likely to result in failure rather than success. This behavioural view has been explored by Lewinsohn et al. (1999). The interpretation as to whether one is a failure or not is based on negative thinking (Beck, 2002) resulting in a depressed mood and in other extreme reactions such as ‘learned helplessness’ or other maladaptive attitudes.

The relationship between work, happiness and unhappiness has been studied in recent times (Warr, 2007). Research on unemployment and retirement indicates that early retirement from work is not beneficial. Enjoying one’s work leads to happiness rather than unhappiness (Bryce, 2009).

Beck (2002) considers that unhappiness occurs due to faulty thinking or maladaptive attitudes leading to a cognitive triad in which the individual interprets their experiences, themselves and their future negatively, and drawing the wrong conclusions in their thinking about themselves. These individuals also have selective memories by seeing all their experiences in the past negatively. Unhappy people often selectively remember or ruminate about
past failures and past disappointments and generally are unhappy about the events they have experienced. This results in an attitude of pessimism and acceptance of real or imagined and anticipated failures in the future, and having no control over their lives (Mezulis et al., 2004). This again leads to a total feeling of inadequacy and a sense of hopelessness.

Cultural and social aspects
Social and cultural factors also influence whether an individual will suffer from unhappiness and depression. There are some interesting differences between cultures also (Tsai & Chentsova-Dutton, 2002). In the non Western world, people demonstrate their unhappiness via physical symptoms including fatigue, weakness, sleep disturbances and weight loss. In the West, it is low self esteem, guilt, and self-blame and other similar symptoms previously mentioned.

There are also gender and racial differences with depression and unhappiness being much higher in females (Whiffen & Demidenko, 2006) compared with males. This may be due to the fact that social and other pressures are greater for females than males in many cultures.

Six explanations have been given why women are more prone to unhappiness and depression than men. None of these explanations are satisfactory on their own and may indeed interact with the other reasons provided, they are:

1) The artifact theory – this considers that men may not be ready to admit their unhappiness considering it less acceptable by society while women do show this (Brommelhoff et al., 2004). Instead men may display their distress via anger (McSweeny, 2004).

2) The hormone theory – this considers that women’s lives are more influenced by hormones during puberty, pregnancy and menopause which cause unhappiness and depression

3) The quality of life theory – this considers that females are more
prone to experience stress including poverty and excessive and often total responsibility for the care of children. They are also likely to be paid less when being employed (Maciejewski et al., 2001).

4) The lack of control theory – this stresses women and they may suffer more from ‘learned helplessness’ due to being victims of child abuse, rape, domestic violence etc. (Whiffen & Demidenko, 2006).

5) The self blame theory – this stresses that women are in general more likely to blame themselves for failure than men and attribute success to good fortune (Abramson et al., 2002). This reason for feeling unhappy has changed with women now attributing success more to hard work much as men do.

6) The rumination theory – this theory considers that women are more likely than men to focus in their feelings of unhappiness, e.g. “Why am I feeling so low….I will not be able to do what I thought I could do....” (Nolen-Hoeksema & Corte, 2004).

Research has also shown that marital status plays a major role with unhappiness being highest in those who are separated and divorced (6.3%) and lowest in those who are married or widowed (2.1%) and 2.8% in those who never married (Weissman et al., 1991).

In the United States poor socio-economic conditions among native Americans also contributed to unhappiness; 37% of women and 19% of men suffered from unhappiness and were frequently depressed (Ayalon & Young, 2003). The unhappiness among Americans born Hispanics and African Americans was higher than African Americans and Hispanic immigrants or when compared to Mexican Americans and Cuban Americans (Oquendo et al., 2004).

Isolated people without social support tended to be unhappy people and are more often also depressed (Kendler et al., 2005). In the UK, mothers with 3 or more children without social support such as from a partner or good helpful friends are likely to be especially unhappy (Brown et al., 1995) with their lives.
Profound multiple disabilities (PMD) undoubtedly affect satisfaction with the quality of life (Dillon & Carr, 2007). The matter is made worse when unhappy individuals are also inclined to dwell about themselves and consider their adverse consequences (Lyubomirsky et al., 2011). This is more likely to happen when an individual suffers from sickness, disability, pain and feelings of insecurity due to having a sustained serious accident (Pachalska & Ziotlkowska, 2011). Unfortunately poor health frequently leads to the exclusion of such individuals from participating with others and reduces the likelihood of happiness (Ward & Coates, 2006).

Dealing with or treating unhappiness

We will now consider some of the strategies or ways unhappy individuals can deal effectively with their unhappiness. For some this will pose a greater problem than for others. There is a need to combat those aspects that make some individuals less able, due to innate factors and events in their lives, to be happy. There are even those who wallow in their sadness and depression, while others cannot see their lives changing for the better considering their states of mind. They experience and accept life as an inevitable and unchangeable burden that must be accepted.

Psychotherapy has been used to increase an individual’s happiness by ridding them self of the unhappiness often dealing with the past, this leading to sadness or depression. The objective is to develop pleasure, engagement, and meaningfulness (Burns, 2010). Dissatisfaction with one’s life is frequently due to low self esteem and this must be counteracted through therapy (Furr & Funder, 1998). The choice of the type of work in which one engages and the gratification derived from it is an important factor in developing happiness (Spevack et al., 2004)

Such a feeling of helplessness of hopelessness is not easily overcome. Such individuals therefore have an attitude of mind that unhappiness is inevitable and that they either accept this fact
Personal Happiness (symptoms, causes, and treatment based on recent research)

or not, or end up disappointed. Several approaches have been recommended. These include drug therapy and psychotherapy. The most obvious solution is to resort to medication in the form of drug therapy. These are advertised widely as the ‘magic solution’ for those who are extremely unhappy or depressed. Drugs of medications are often successful despite the accompanying side and long term effects of anti-depression medications. Psycho-dynamic therapy has been moderately successful (Karon, 2005; Busch et al., 2004). Such therapies have been undermined by the passivity of unhappy, depressed individuals who do not always engage and co-operate with what the psychotherapy is attempting to achieve. Short term psychotherapy has been somewhat more successful because the individual who in unhappy does not become impatient with the length of therapy and hence give up (Leichsenring, 2001).

Another approach is behaviour therapy. Here a therapist introduces unhappy clients to pleasurable activities often personal to themselves and provide rewards or reinforcement when the individual actively participates. It tends to increase the circulation and flow of what can only be described as greater secretions of happiness hormones (serotonin, norepinephrine) leading to an increase in happiness due to the activities in which the individual is participating. The reward comes from the activities reducing or totally eliminating the unhappiness of the individual. The reward also comes when a number of behaviour approaches are combined with cognitive approaches, in order to effect changes of thinking and behaviour. It is always necessary to praise any improved behaviour of such individuals as a way of reinforcing happiness rather than unhappiness. Promoting the learning of social skills which reduce the isolation of the individual is also important (Jacobson et al., 1996).

Cognitive approaches are also effective in reducing unhappiness especially when combined with such behavioural procedures previously mentioned (Clark et al., 1999; Lewinsohn & Clarke, 1999). Cognitive approaches, such as attempting to eliminate negative and illogical thinking are used to combat unhappy and depressed individuals who suffer from depressed moods (Beck &
There is an emphasis, as previously mentioned, to increase movement, activities and encourage greater self confidence by learning to abandon thoughts with a negative bias. Days and hours are precisely planned for the individual who is then encouraged to follow this plan of action. In so doing, negative and distressing thoughts are inevitably to be rejected via distractions, while hopeful thoughts and activities are substituted in their place. Hence, previous unhappy thoughts are displaced by positive, constructive and happy thinking. This is then reflected in the changes of behaviour of the individual. These approaches of ridding oneself of being unhappy have shown themselves to be effective in 50-60% of cases (Hollon et al., 2006; Petrocelli, 2002).

In many societies, it has been noted that unhappiness if found due to the inability to establish an happy relationship with another person. This is likely to be due to interpersonal deficits (Weissman & Markowitz, 2002). This may be shyness or over-assertive or aggressive demeanour which prevent the development of good personal and satisfying intimate relationships. The learning of new social skills may therefore well be the answer to help individuals realise the impact their negative behaviour has on others. Here it is vital to develop empathy and sensitivity towards the feelings of others. This increased the likelihood of being liked rather than being disliked by others. This in turn reduces the likelihood of feeling unhappy due to one being rejected by others. Individuals need to learn that having an abrasive personality is likely to result in being alone, lonely and rejected by others and hence being unhappy as a consequence.

Most but by no means all seek a relationship with another in order to be happy. Unhappiness is often due to being in a dysfunctional relationship. Here couples however, need to learn how to change harmful interactions, inability to communicate effectively and need to be helped to solve their problems rather than exacerbate them. In order to achieve a good and happy outcome, it may be necessary to involve a psychologist who can work with an unhappy couple and provide ‘couples therapy’ and thereby resolve their differences,
break down defences, or recommend parting from one another in the most amicable way. The latter resolution should only be contemplated when the individuals in the relationship are in a totally dysfunctional union. In that case, they are unlikely to respond to any form of treatment which can resolve their mutual unhappiness and lead to harmony and happiness for both parties. Most individuals need to be compatible, at least in some way for them to be able to develop a reasonable relationship with happiness to follow.

Research has indicated that happiness as opposed to unhappiness is dependent on many aspects. Some individuals, due to their genetic predisposition are more happy than those not so predisposed. Some are helped via distractions by participating in activities which counteract being unhappy. This is especially the case when individuals are able to adopt positive and constructive attitudes and thinking leading to positive behaviours. Of especial importance is the capacity to learn to think positively instead of negatively and to follow accordingly via the behaviour adopted (DeRubeise et al., 2005). Adopting a combination of strategies to attain happiness is likely to increase the likelihood of individuals demonstrating happy versus unhappy attitudes and behaviour (Apter et al., 2005; Hollon et al., 2002).

While medication works more quickly than cognitive, behavioural and interpersonal approaches, there are side effects in the use of medication. There are no side effects in the use of other non drug therapy approaches. Using non drug therapy also is more likely to prevent the recurrence or relapse into further unhappiness (Hollon et al., 2006). This is especially the case when some kind of maintenance therapy is provided to prevent relapsing into further unhappiness and possible depression.

**References**


Clark, D. C. (1999). The puzzle of suicide in later life. In M. T. Stimming & M. Stimming (Eds.), *Before their time: Adult*


Kanner & Y. I. Sheline (Eds.), *Depression and brain dysfunction* (pp. 51-84). New York: Taylor & Francis.


Positive Psychology. Indices of resilience in assessing personality

Anna Laura Comunian
University of Padua Italy
annalaura.comunian@unipd.it

Abstract
Certain psychological processes are inherently beneficial for well being. We review evidence that challenge this assumption. Recent research reveals that whether ostensibly positive psychology processes benefit or harm well-being depends on the context of various no-interpersonal domains as well. We review evidence that resilience factors can either benefit or arm well being depending on the context in which they operate. An understanding of the concrete human condition requires recognizing that psychological processes are not inherently positive or negative-whether they have positive or negative implications depends on the context. We conclude by arguing that any movement to promote well-being may be more successful to the extent that it examines the complete and concrete human conditions on the country and on the culture.

Positive Psychology
Over the past two decades, the field of positive psychology underlined the assumption that certain psychological processes are considered beneficial for well-being. This assumption gained considerable impetus when Seligman in the 1998 presidential Address of the American Psychological Association (Seligman, 1999; Seligman & Cisikszentmihalyi, 2000) established the field of positive psychology as a way to promote the study of psychological characteristics presumed to benefit well-being. Research (Fredrickson & Levenson, 1998) has shown that positive emotions can help reduce levels of distress following aversive events both
by quieting or undoing negative emotion and by increasing support from people in the person’s social environment. The fundamental role of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 2001), of resilience (Rutter, 1985, 1999), of optimism (Scheier & Carver, 1994), hope, humor, and of moral development (Comunian, 2006), are all aspects for the promotion of individual resources that can be assessed with objective and valid instruments. In fact no important change can be defined without measurement and research. The field has grown with the appearance of various application and numerous publications (Mestre, A. L. Comunian & M.L. Comunian, 2007). In this particular growth, some have observed that positive psychology have not paid enough attention to the interpersonal context in which people spent much of their life (Fincham & Beach, 2010; Maniaci & Reis, 2010; McNulty & Fincham, 2012). The focus in research has shifted from “protective factors” toward “processes”, trying to understand how different factors are involved in both in promoting well-being and protecting against risk.

**Resilience**

Resilient people are those individuals who display “the capacity to remain well, recover, or even thrive in face of adversity (Hardy, Concato & Gill, 2004). Resilience also has been defined as successful adaptation or the absence of a pathological outcome following exposure to stressful or potential traumatic life events or life circumstances. Thus it involves both the capacity to maintain a healthy outcome following exposure to adversity and the capacity to rebound after a negative experience (Rutter, 2007; Silver, 2009; Seery, Holman & Choen Silver, 2010).

Resilience has been described in many ways but really boils down to possession of and access to a set of personal characteristics (resources) and life circumstances (protective factors) that an individual can use when faced with adversity in order to emerge from the process functioning at the same level as they were prior to the difficulty or at an enhanced level.
Resources of intelligence, easy temperament, flexible personality, optimism, positive self view, self-efficacy, sense of meaning, good regulation of arousal and impulse, a sense of humour and attractiveness to others have been identified as important for a resilient person (Flyn, Ghazal, Legault, Vandermeulen & Petrick, 2004). External protective factors at family level are parent’s behaviour, warm close relationships, and an organised home with low conflict levels. Examples at the community level include good schooling, socially cohesive neighbourhoods, high levels of informal social control and relationships with pro-social persons. Strumpfer (2001) emphasises process, describing resilience as a psychological activity which energises goal directed behaviour, cognition and emotions.

Some researchers draw a clear distinction between resource factors as being helpful at any risk level and protective factors which act as buffers against high risk but have little or no effect otherwise (Masten 2001). Additionally, a factor may function as either a risk factor or protective factor depending on the circumstances (Harvey & Delfabbro, 2004; De Haan, Hawley & Deal, 2002) e.g. running away from home is protective if the home environment is more dangerous than the streets but the reverse is true if not, which creates scoring problems for such items on questionnaires.

Researchers ask whether adults can learn in the life environment to be more resilient to aversive events or whether different protective factors foster resilience for different types of events (Brewin et al., 2000). Resilience has been regarded narrowly as an individual property by most investigators (Cacioppo, Reis & Zautra, 2011). Resilience also has been conceived by some as a set of traits, others as a process or even an outcome (Aherne, Kiehl, Sole & Byers, 2006) but arguably it comprises all of these. Clearly this is an important area of research. It is important that future investigations include more detailed study of the full range of possible outcomes.

Resilience is both an outcome of interactions between individuals and their environments, and the processes which contribute to these outcomes. Outcomes and processes are both influenced
by person’s context (the well-being of their community as well as the capacity of social institutions to meet person’s needs) and culture (the values, beliefs, and every day practices associated with coping).

Basic processes of resilience are understood in analogy to biological processes, which are: protection (e.g., immune system), repair (e.g., wound healing) and regeneration (e.g. sleep). Defining resilience by outward function alone raises several issues. First, it ignores the component of inner well-being. Some socially competent resilient young people report greater anxiety, depression and self criticism than equivalently performing less stressed peers (Harvey & Delfabbro, 2004). Many individuals display resilient outcomes in certain domains only (Tusaie & Dyer, 2004). An adult abused as a child may shine academically and at work but be unable to form close relationships. Additionally, different countries and even different strata of the same society can often display wide variations in cultural definitions of highly functional behaviour (Al-Nasar & Sandman, 2000; Aroian et al., 1997). This is especially true with marginalised groups who are often exposed to the most adversity (Harvey & Delfabbro, 2004). This is reflected in the finding that when certain resilience scales have been used in different cultures, different factor structures have emerged (Aroian, Schappler-Morris, Neary, Spitzer & Tran, 1997; Yu and Zhang, 2007). Age also significantly influences norms of behaviour. In 2006, Aherne et al. found that only one of thirty two different resilience scales was appropriate for use with adolescents.

Today a crucial issue pertains to the commonalities and difference in resilient functioning across the life span. Developmental theorists have argued that resilience to aversive childhood contexts results from a cumulative and interactive mix factors: as disposition (genetics), family interaction (personal) and support system (environmental) or protective factors (Rutter, 1999; Werner, 1995). It is crucial to determine how resilience can vary across the life span, how adult resilience relates to development experiences and whether the various factors of adult resilience might also
function in interactive and cumulative manner (McFarlane & Yehuda, 1996).

Social resilience however is a new multilevel construct- revealed by capacity of individual but also groups - to foster, engage in and sustain positive social relationships and to endure and recover from stressors ad social isolation.

**Social Resilience**

Cacioppo, Reis & Zautra (2011) identify nine personal resources that foster social resilience: capacity and motivation to perceive others accurately and empathically; feelings connected to other individuals and collectives; communicating caring respect to others; perceive others’ regard for the self, values that promote the welfare of self and others; ability to respond appropriately and contingently to social problems; expressing social emotions appropriately and effectively; trust; tolerance and openness.

Emergent levels of organization, ranging from dyads, families, and groups to cities, civilization, and international alliances have long been apparent in human existence, but identifying the features and norms that promote relationships and group structures and norms that promote social resilience - and determining effective interventions to built social resilience - represent some of the most important challenge facing the contemporary science. Social resilience emphasizes an individual’s capacity to work with others to achieve these endpoints and, consequently, the group’s capacities to do so as well.

Whether psychological characteristics promote or undermine well-being depends on the context in which they operate. An important task in future research is to examine possible causal association between self-conscious emotions and well being to better understand the interplay between the development of self-conscious emotions and psychological well being across the life span (Orth, Robin & Soto, 2010).
Unlike other forms of personal resilience, social resilience is intrinsically multilevel and includes a) the person’s characteristic way of relating, b) interpersonal resources, c) collective resources and capacities. Social resilience depends on the development of greater awareness of multiple capacities for social action that can lead to the attainment of both personal hopes and social purposes.

Choices informed by social connection as well as personal values lead to resilient outcomes that are suitable with respect to the social worlds. Social resilience also modulates the development and expression of individual resilience. Indices of social resilience in assessing the personality are very useful.

**Conclusion**

The extant literature includes very few studies in which researchers have directly examined positive psychology, particular contexts, and indices of resilience. There is a large literature on the development of a) general emotional dispositions and b) personality traits. It is interesting that these two bodies of research support two general principles: the positivity principle and the maturity principle. Maturity and positivity can be assessed.

Today resilience has been shown to be more than just to be the capacity of individuals to cope well under adversity. Resilience better understood as the opportunity and capacity of individuals to navigate their way to psychological, social, cultural and physical resources that may sustain their well being, and their opportunity and capacity individually and collectively to negotiate for these resources to be provided and experienced in culturally meaningful ways.

Resilience is both an individual characteristic and a quality of that individual’s environment provides the resources necessary for positive well being despite adverse circumstances. Resilience is a disposition for action generally acquired within the family system and on influences from outside the family.
On the research on positive psychology and resilience, an understanding of the complete human condition requires recognizing that psychological processes are not inherently positive or negative—whether they have positive or negative implications depends on the context in which they operate. Any movement to promote well-being will be more successful to the extent that it examines the concrete human conditions of the country and of the culture.

Most research now shows that resilience is the result of individuals being able to interact with their environments and the processes that either promote well-being or protect them against the overwhelming influence of risk factors. There is controversy about the indicators of good psychological and social development when resilience is studied across different cultures and contexts. However it is fundamental to study the impact of culture, history, community values, and geographical settings on resilience and well-being.

References


Maniaci, M. R., & Reis, H. T. (2010). The marriage of positive psychology and relationship science: A reply to Fincham 10 &


Roswith Roth & Claudia Feichtenhofer
University of Graz, Austria

Abstract
There has been a constant rise in the geriatric population throughout the world. The elderly are highly prone to develop mental and physical disorders, and becoming in need of care in later life. A move to a nursing home might be experienced as life event with high negative impact on the quality of life.

A psychological intervention has been conducted for movers to a nursing home. The intervention comprised training units to increase positive resources, to enhance social activities and contacts, to improve orientation and problem solving skills. 20 people between 60 and 96 years of age (mean age 81,95 yrs) were studied at the move to the nursing home and 30 days later. An intervention group (10 individuals) and a control group (10 individuals) endorsed the Nuernberg Quality of Life Questionnaire (NLQ), the General Depression Scale (ADS), the Satisfaction in Life Scale (SWLS) and the Mini Mental State Examination (MMSE).

Results showed at the beginning of the stay in the nursing home no differences between intervention and control group. After 30 days the intervention group differs in all aspects from the control group. Men and women benefit differently from the intervention.

To sum up, a psychological intervention at the move to a nursing home facilitates the transit to a new environment and brings benefits
as well for the elder people as for the caring personnel and should become a welcome standard in homes of the aged.

Introduction

The ageing process is of course a biological reality which has its own dynamic, largely beyond human control. However, it is also subject to the constructions by which each society makes sense of old age. In the developed world, chronological time plays a paramount role. The age of 60 or 65, roughly equivalent to retirement ages in most developed countries is said to be the beginning of old age. In many parts of the developing world, chronological time has little or no importance in the meaning of old age. Other socially constructed meanings of age are more significant such as the roles assigned to older people; in some cases it is the loss of roles accompanying physical decline which is significant in defining old age. Thus, in contrast to the chronological milestones which mark life stages in the developed world, old age in many developing countries is seen to begin at the point when active contribution is no longer possible (Gorman, 2000). Definitions fall into three main categories: (a) Chronology, (b) Change in social role (i.e. change in work patterns, adult status of children and menopause), (c) Change in capabilities (i.e. invalid status, senility and change in physical characteristics).

Social theories, or concepts, propose explanations for the distinctive relationships between old people and their societies. One of the theories is the Disengagement Theory proposed by Cumming und Henry (1961). This theory proposes that in old age a mutual disengagement between people and their society occurs in anticipation of death. By becoming disengaged from work and family responsibilities, according to this concept, people are enabled to enjoy their old age without stress. This theory has been subjected to the criticism that old age disengagement is neither natural inevitable, nor beneficial. Furthermore, disengaging from social ties in old age is not across the board: unsatisfactory ties are dropped and satisfying ones kept.
The Activity Theory (Havighurst, 1961), also known as the implicit theory of aging, normal theory of aging, and lay theory of aging respectively, proposes that successful aging occurs when older adults stay active and maintain social interactions. It takes the view that the aging process is delayed and the quality of life is enhanced when old people remain socially active. The activity theory rose in opposing response to the disengagement theory and argues that disengagement in old age occurs not by desire, but by the barriers to social engagement imposed by society.

According to the Continuity Theory (Atchley, 1989), in spite of the inevitable differences imposed by their old age, most people try to maintain continuity in personhood, activities, and relationships with their younger days.

Socio-emotional Selectivity Theory (Carstensen, 1993) also depicts how people maintain continuity in old age. The focus of this theory is continuity sustained by social networks, albeit networks narrowed by choice and by circumstances. The choice is for more harmonious relationships. The circumstances are loss of relationships by death and distance.

There has been a constant rise in the geriatric population throughout the world. Rapid aging populations are expected worldwide (Department of economic and social affairs.

Population division, 2002). Ageing society represents a major demographic challenge and is linked to several issues, including, persistently low fertility rates and significant increases in life expectancy during recent decades. Improvements in the quality and availability of healthcare are likely, at least in part, to explain the latter, alongside other factors such as increased awareness of health issues, higher standards of living, or changes in workplace occupations from predominantly manual labor to tertiary activities. The average life expectancy of a new-born baby in the world was estimated at 67.9 years (for the period 2005 to 2010): the value of this indicator increased by 3.5 years compared with the period 1990 to 1995. In the EU-27, life expectancy at birth is generally
higher than in most other regions of the world and stood at 79.7 years in 2009. In 1900 e.g., there were 3.1 million people aged 65 years and older living in the United States. However, this population continued to grow throughout the 20th century and reached 31.2, 35, and 40.3 million people in 1990, 2000, and 2010, respectively.

According to the Journal “Demography”, there is a rise in the elderly living alone if not with a spouse. Individuals 75 and older have decreased in amount needing help taking care of themselves. Many new assistive devices made especially for the home have enabled more old people to care for themselves. Some examples of devices are a medical alert and safety system, shower seat (making it so the person does not get tired in the shower and fall), a bed cane (offering support to those with unsteadiness getting in and out of bed), an ADL cuff (used with eating utensils for people with paralysis or hand weakness) (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2005) and other devices (Elderly Health Service, Department of Health, Hong Kong, 2006).

However around 25% of individuals 85 and older say that they need help with their activities of daily living. There are many options for long term care to those who require it. There is home care in which a family member, volunteer, or trained professional will aid the person in need and help with daily activities. Another option is community services which can provide the person with transportation, meal plans, or activities in senior centers. A third option is assisted living where 24 hour round the clock supervision is given with aid in eating, bathing, dressing, etc. A final option is a nursing home which provides professional nursing care (Congress of the United States: Congressional Budget Office, 2013).

A move to a nursing home might be experienced as life event with high negative impact on the quality of life. Changes at least on three levels occur: (a) Environment – smaller place, (b) Social – loneliness in a crowd and (c) Psychological – loss of activities (cooking, shopping etc.).
The aim of our study was to investigate an intervention program for people who are moving to a nursery home (IG) and compare quality of life, depression, cognitive functioning and satisfaction with life with a control group (CG) without intervention. We expected that the subjects of the IG and CG do not differ at the move into the nursing home (t1) but after the intervention (t2) the IG will show significantly improved values in the measured variables, but the CG doesn’t better or even is getting worse.

**Methods**
The intervention comprised training units (a) to increase positive resources, (b) to enhance social activities and contacts, (c) to improve orientation and (d) to improve problem solving skills. Two hours were offered per module and two hours per week for four weeks.

Measures were taken at the move into the nursing home before the intervention (t1) and after the intervention (t2), 4 weeks later.

The following questionnaires were used to evaluate the intervention: (a) the Nuernberg Quality of Life Questionnaire (NLQ) (Oswald & Fleischmann, 1995), the General Depression Scale (ADS) (Hautzinger et al., 1993), the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) (Diener et al., 1985) and the Mini Mental State Examination (MMSE) (Folstein et al., 1975).

The questionnaire values were compared using univariate analyses of variance, frequencies by Chi square test.

**Results**
Both the intervention group (IG) and the control group (CG) consisted of 10 individuals. One subject of the IG and 3 of the CG had partners (1 female, 3 males), 8 persons of the IG and 8 of the CG had only basic education (12 females, 4 males) and 8 individuals of the IG and 7 of the CG came from urban locations (9 females, 6 males). Most subjects moved to the nursing home for
health reasons (9 females, 6 males) and they moved directly from hospital (7 females, 6 males). About half of the people indicated many activities at home (3 females, 5 males) and many social contacts (7 females, 3 males) (see table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intervention Group</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>84.85</td>
<td>76.57</td>
<td>81.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No partner</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary education</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very active at home</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social active at home</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moved from hospital</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moved for health reasons</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analyses of variances showed an interaction group x time (p=.049) in the depression scale (ADS). In the IG the average depression score has been reduced, in the CG depression has not changed over time. Both males and females felt less depressed after the intervention. The same holds for the Quality of life (NLQ) (group x time, p =.05). NLQ increased in the IG significantly, small non significant increases are seen in CG. Gender differences could be observed: males reported better quality of life than women, but both gender got benefits from the intervention. In Life satisfaction two interactions arised (Gender x Intervention  p=.034; Time x Gender x Intervention  p=.05). In females life satisfaction decreased in IG and CG, in males life satisfaction increased, but only in the IG. As for the cognitive performance (MMSE) a Time x Gender x Intervention (p=,009) could be observed, indicating that males showed in average a better cognitive performance and only males benefited cognitively from the intervention.
To predict the psychological functioning at t2 (after the intervention) multiple regression analyses were calculated using the socio-demographic (age, gender, children, education, partner) and the psychological variables at t1 as predictors (NLQ t1, ADS t1, SWLS t1, MMSE t1). All four psychological variables at t2 could be significantly predicted. Only significant predictors are reported (see table 2).

Table 2: Prediction of Quality of Life (NLQ), Depression (ADS), Satisfaction with Life (SWLS) and Cognitive Performance (MMSE) after the Intervention (t2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>β</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Quality of Life (NLQ) t2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.880</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>0.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Depression (ADS) t2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moving from Home</td>
<td>0.638</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason for Moving</td>
<td>-0.974</td>
<td>0.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NLQ t1</td>
<td>-0.588</td>
<td>0.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Satisfaction with Life (SWLS) t2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.638</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-0.660</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner</td>
<td>0.411</td>
<td>0.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moving from hospital</td>
<td>0.791</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Contacts</td>
<td>-0.501</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cognitive Performance (MMSE) t2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>-0.738</td>
<td>0.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moving from hospital</td>
<td>0.711</td>
<td>0.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression t1</td>
<td>-0.860</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Quality of Life was predicted by age and children, the younger the individuals and if they had children the higher the NLQ at t2.

If moving from home for health reasons and the lower NLQ at t1 the higher the report of depression at t2.

Life satisfaction at t2 was higher if the individuals were younger, males, having a partner, moving from hospital and less social contacts at home.

The MMSE could be predicted, if they had no children, moved from a hospital and showed lower depression at t1 the higher was the observed cognitive performance at t2.

**Discussion**

Moving to a nursery home can be called a serious life event in the life of older people. To leave the well-known environment at home, often for health reasons and being forced to live together with many other people, sometimes even not having an own room is a big change in the quality of life in individuals. Life satisfaction might depend also on the support from the nurses, the partner and children respectively (Thomassini et al., 2004). Giving a standardized intervention or support might reduce the stress and negative experiences of the move to a nursing home.

The intervention in the presented study focused mainly on strengthening positive resources of the individuals, to enhance social activities and contacts, to improve orientation in the new environment and to advance problem solving skills. These are major skills to master the challenge of a new environment and decrease mental and physical health.

Most intervention studies of old people focused on depression. Mitmansgruber et al. (2002) stated that for elderly people moving to a nursing home means a challenge for adjustment with severe consequences to mental health and high cost in the health care system. They conducted an intervention program to give psychological support to individuals at their move into a
nursery home. The subjects were accompanied for about 47 days to improve their adjustment. It led to a decrease in depression in the intervention group, similar to our results.

Bär, Böggemann, Kaspar, Berendonk und Seidl (2006) conducted a study to increase positive resources. Just talking did not result in positive outcomes showed the control group. But stimulating positive memories increased quality of life. In our study recalling positive life events had a high significance for the elderlies.

Wiesmann et al. (2004) demonstrated that interventions focusing on physical and mental activities and positive resources could better the satisfaction with their lives in 168 older subjects.

An attitude survey considering moving in a nursing home was conducted by Thiele et al. (2002). The sample consisted of 45 senior citizens. They presented a critical view about their life in a nursery home and stated they had problems to establish social contacts. So to train social communication and initiating social contacts, as in our study, is an important factor to increase life satisfaction and quality of life.

Feichtinger et al. (2002) interviewed 100 elderlies about their expectancies and worries about moving in a nursing home. They observed that if the elderlies could continue their daily life as usual than mental health and life satisfaction could be maintained.

We could show that a short intervention at the entrance in a nursing home reduced depression and increased quality of life. Males seemed to benefit more from the intervention in life satisfaction and cognitive performance.

Several limitations of the study have to be mentioned. Only a small number of subjects were investigated and could benefit from the intervention. Age differences between men and women and IG and CG appeared, women were older than men, and the subjects in the IG were older than in the CG. Also the duration of the intervention was very short; we supported our intervention group only for 30 days. Although we could show that the elderly subjects benefited
from the intervention at the entrance in a nursing home. Supporting old subjects when entering the home for the olds should become a routine procedure to facilitate coping with this important life event.

References


info.gov.hk/elderly/english/healthinfo/elderly/assistivedevices-e.htm [21.02.204].


Abstract
From a psycho-social perspective, the age can also influence beliefs implied of the skills of older persons, as well as configuration stereotypes (Levy, 2001). Most authors are agreed that we live in a society geared towards youth, where various forms of discrimination on grounds of age are widespread (Kelchner, 1999; Palmore, Rama, and Harris, 2006). Based on the original questionnaire Relating to Older People Evaluation (ROPE) Cherry and Palmore (2008), we have developed an instrument rating on the Elderly (EPM).

Theoretical justification
Most people are familiar with the concept of age discrimination, which refers to any form of prejudice or discrimination based on chronological age. Butler (1969) was the first to coin the term, and from this moment, an ample experimental evidence documenting the frequent and widespread studies on age discrimination in our society today (Palmore, 1999, 2001). From a psychosocial perspective, age may also influence implicit beliefs about own skills of older people, as well as in shaping stereotypes (Levy, 2001). Most authors agree that we live in a youth-oriented society, where various forms of age discrimination are widespread (Kelchner, 1999; Palmore, Branch, and Harris, 2006). In fact, many behaviors perceived as a demonstration of courtesy to the
Assessment on Aging: what social perception do men and women have about older people?

elderly can be just manifestations of discrimination, based on the expression of stereotypical attitudes (Palmore, 1999).

The purpose of this research is to develop a profile of older people in relation to positive and negative behaviors that occur to them in their daily lives. In the scientific literature can be found several researches on age discrimination, such as the scale of attitudes toward the elderly (Kogan, 1961), or on Aging Semantic Differential (Rosencrantz and McNevin, 1969). Recently, it has developed a questionnaire to measure prejudice and discrimination against older people (Palmore, 2001). Thus is demonstrated the importance of taking into account the incidence and prevalence of age discrimination in society at large.

In this paper, we present the analysis of the frequency and types of behaviors towards older people in general. The questionnaire used contains 20 kinds of behaviors related to the elderly: 6 items relate to the age discrimination in positive and 14 are negative. By way of example, include items such as: “It keeps the door open for the elderly because of their age” or “Vote for an older person by their age.” In the negative sense include for example: “Conratulates the elderly for his birthday to joke about his age” or “Vote against a senior for his age.”

The questionnaire is designed to measure discrimination of older people on a personal level (negative or positive). This distinction between negative and positive typology is based on the concept of age discrimination by Palmore (1999). As Palmore in their study, we aim to answer questions such as the following:

What is the prevalence of behaviors of age discrimination in the Andalusian society?

What types of behaviors age discrimination more often?
Method

Sample
A total of 108 people participated in this study. Participants include university students in 4th and 5th of Psychology, and senior students belonging to Classroom Experience at the University of Seville. The sociodemographic characteristics of the sample are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychopedagogy’s students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly Program’s students</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To carry out the surveys were programmed days that would pass pollster Psychology classes and Classroom Experience respectively, thus ensuring maximum attendance of students and a representative sample of the population under study.

Also, the same investigator applied the questionnaires in an attempt to standardize the application instructions.

Results

Frequency analysis
Overall, the results indicate that the behavior of age discrimination is widespread and common in all ages. Virtually all respondents admit one or more behaviors of discrimination. In addition, the prevailing expression of positive and negative behaviors.

The most common behavioral discrimination expressed by 98 % of respondents, has been” We ask for advice from an older person by their age.” Almost as often occurs in two other affirmative behavior
Assessment on Aging: what social perception do men and women have about older people?

“Enjoy conversations with older people because of age” (91%) and “keeps the door open for the elderly because of their age” (86%). The positive performance of age discrimination was less frequent “Vote for a person more by their age” (23%).

Frequency analysis of the negative behaviors of age discrimination shows that 90% say they tell an older person “You’re too old for this.” This statement may seem positive, but it is actually negative, since underestimating the capabilities of the older person. The second most common negative (64%) has been “When you have ahead of you at a slow driver, he thinks, should be a parent.” The three less frequent negative behaviors were “Avoid the elderly because they are irritable” (17%), “Vote against an elderly person because of age” (19%) and “For the old jokes about older people” (21%).

Gender and age differences
From this study we derive two age groups: the young adults (21-49 years, n = 33) and middle-aged adults, older (50-82 years, n = 75).

With this data found little or no significant difference between the age groups, in either behavioral manifestation of positive or negative discrimination. Performing a non-significant ANOVA effect confirmed based on the age groups (p = 0.62). Thus, how to relate to older people is cultural and not usually change as it changes the age of the subjects. The relationship was significant affirmative behaviors F (1, 108) = 92.05, p < 0.001.

With regard to possible gender differences, we expected that men and women would give similar answers. Contrary to our expectations, the analyzes show an effect on the answers given by women. In fact, women report more affirmative behaviors towards older people than men (F (1, 108) = 5.41, p = .02), although neither men nor women differ in their perception of negative behaviors of discrimination by age.
Discussion

We assume that most older people have suffered various forms of discrimination on grounds of age (Palmore, 2001, 2004). However, until recently, there has been interest in measuring the frequency and types of behaviors ageism. The results have shown that people of all ages admit to positive behaviors ageism. Also, it was found the prevalence of positive behaviors in the responses of women.

Our first finding of interest in this study concerns the predominance of positive over negative behaviors in relation to discrimination. Thus, we find that the questionnaire used appears to be a valid instrument to measure the behaviors of age discrimination in a wide range of participants.

The second interesting finding in this study was that young and older adults have shown discrimination have quite similar behaviors. However, attitudes toward behavior decreases with age discrimination and greater life experience (Kalavar, 2001; Rupp, Vodanovich, and Cred, 2005). In this sense, our results suggest that age is not a determining factor when carrying out behaviors age discrimination.

The third finding of interest stems from the gender analysis, which reveals that the affirmative woman shows more often than men. Consistent with this view, Stuart -Hamilton and Mahoney (2003) found that those with a greater knowledge of aging attitudes can maintain lower age discrimination.

Therefore, the results of this study highlight the importance of providing information and training on aging well through a curriculum (as proposed by the Hall of experience), or through continuing education workshops professionals working with older people. Thus, educational programs and workshops that focus on improving knowledge about the stage of aging are essential for professionals who may come into contact with the older adult population, given the demographic trend in a continuous rise of older adults in the society today and in the future (Jackson, Cherry, Smitherman & Hawley , 2008).
Assessment on Aging: what social perception do men and women have about older people?

In our study we have detected two methodological limitations. First, people may deny or minimize the frequency of their behavior if they perceive that it is bad or socially undesirable. Also, may exaggerate the frequency of this type of behavior if they perceive that it is socially desirable, which tends to increase the frequency of positive elements, giving the phenomenon of social desirability. In subsequent studies, should include the actual behavior observation or instrument that controls this effect. Second, for the present study has not been made a representative sample of the population. Hence, the results should be interpreted in light of these limitations.

References


Alfonso J. García and Yolanda Troyano


Cooperative Learning in Elderly University: strategies for implementation in social context of justice

Alfonso J. García
Yolanda Troyano
Universidad de Sevilla

Abstract
In this work raises a number of arguments about why we must change our way of teaching in university classrooms whose students are elderly. Cooperative learning is one of the main shocks, where the older person takes an active role in their own learning process. We consider it very important methodological issue within the university, since the construction project of the European Higher Education.

How to make students learn more actively and cooperatively?
One way of teaching that encourages active student learning is necessarily because experience teamwork. And to work in groups one of the best methods is based on cooperative learning, which in turn requires the learner an active role. In this sense, when we propose the realization of a practical task to our students over, take care that meets the following requirements:

1. Specify the objectives clearly and simply. Our materials are to be clearly set objectives. It is not an easy matter, although it is true that a good formulation of objectives is one of the best aids for students (Felder and Brent, 2003).
2. Define activities as the cornerstone of the program. The teaching guide should be organized as a sequence of
Cooperative Learning in Elderly University: strategies for implementation in social context of justice

cooperative activities, each of which must include:

a. Objectives.

b. Work plan (inside and outside the classroom).

c. Timing.

d. Expected results of the student.

e. Continuous evaluation criteria.

3. Set different kinds of activities. An educational program should consider different types of activities that all students have an opportunity to “grow academically and professionally.” Among the different types of tasks vs. distinguish cooperatives. competitive, lectures, individual and group readings, development of new technologies, work-based collaborative learning projects, presentations, etc.

4. Estimating the timing flexibly. According to the EHEA, each cooperative activity that we propose should estimate the time a student should spend. One way to set the timing could be through field day where students systematically record the time spent on the matter:

a. Type activity.

b. Spent time.

c. Productivity level (loss of time, neutral, very well used).

This systematic collection of data is necessary in the first class sessions, for teachers to be making appropriate adjustments to their estimates closer to reality. In this way, the student perceives is expected of him regularly dedication, and to promote the habit of timescale.

5. Making a schedule for activities. Each proposed activity must have a finite time in the schedule, which is delivering the expected result in a deadline. If not delivered in a timely
manner, the student clarifies his situation "vulnerability".

6. Any student who reaches the end, exceed matter. If in our repertoire of cooperative activities, the students made the all, so that the teacher has been able to analyze the learning process, giving feedback, and the students have been seizing the teacher’s suggestions when he has been required to approve the subject.

In the case of students that we have to aim higher points 5 and 6 are not exhaustively developed since the pace of learning is marked by the very same motivation. Thus, the student is not required to deliver activities or testing or evaluation of materials involving overcoming.

Cooperative learning methods that can be applied to college seniors

There are various methods that are being implemented successfully, to offer great advantages, among which we highlight its low cost, motivate to action, make content interesting, they are flexible to fit in the proposed educational goals, enhance an attitude planner which facilitates the students decision making realistic and responsible and profitable to teachers both in terms of personal energy expenditure, and as regards the fulfillment of objectives.

Below we describe each of these methods of learning.

1. **Puzzle**

Is a technique designed by Elliot and Aronson and colleagues (Aronson et al, 1975, Aronson et al, 1978 and Osherow Aronson, 1980). For its implementation requires prior preparation of the materials from the teacher, as the theme to work by students is to be distributed in different parts like pieces of a puzzle. It is rare to use existing materials such as books, because they rarely can be divided neatly into parts that make sense, therefore, have to
Cooperative Learning in Elderly University: strategies for implementation in social context of justice

prepare layout designer rewriting or topics so that each part makes sense in isolation.

In the puzzle all students in the class works the same subject. The teacher divides the students, made in small groups, the academic material that is split or divided into many sections or parts having the group members and where each of the sections should be written in a way that is understandable in itself. Each student will be responsible, therefore, to study and learn just one of those sections. In this way, each studying different sections of studying the rest of the group, becoming “expert” to possess unique information. Then the members belonging to different groups who have studied the same section meet in” expert groups” to discuss their sections. Then each of the members returned to their original groups and teach their section to the rest. The only way they learn the other sections, not theirs, is to listen carefully to the rest, will be motivated to show interest each for the work of others, making this technique equally with individual responsibility of each group members. The teacher must decide how to present the issue to the rest of the class or the assessment is done (No class group exhibition held, individual work to check what has been learned, etc..)

This technique has two important features: First, no member of the group could do without the help of the rest. Second, each member has a unique and essential contribution to make.

2. Learning together

Technique developed by brothers David W. and Roger T. Johnson and colleagues at the Center for Cooperative Learning (Cooperative Learning Center) at the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis (Johnson and Johnson, 1987, Johnson, Johnson and Smith, 1991; Johnson, Johnson and Holubec, 1999a).

To apply this technique, it is necessary that the previous four steps performed teachers (Johnson and Johnson, 1975; Lyons, 1980, Roy, 1982 Shepherd, 1990):
a) Choose a topic for group work.

b) Making decisions: determining the group size is more appropriate for the theme to work, assign students to groups, arrange the classroom in order to, in this way, access to all groups which material is best suited to provide the students.

c) Work in groups: group discussion, communication strategies, conflict resolution, etc..

d) Monitoring of the groups: the teacher needs to carefully observe the operation of the groups in this way, intervene when necessary.

Once grouped the students in heterogeneous groups, are given activity sheets and must learn effective ways to work together and discuss the performance of their groups to reaching the target group raised. Each group delivers a single job and receives praise and rewards based on group work. The student must show individual dominates the subject by examination, this group helps the group reach a score consisting of the average of the scores obtained group members individually.

3. Research group

It is a modality developed in a particular way by Shlomo Sharan, Yael Sharan and his colleagues at the University of Tel Aviv (Israel), although it is a form of cooperative learning that goes back to the work of John Dewey (Sharan and Sharan, 1976; Sharan et al, 1984; Sharan and Shachar, 1988).

It is impossible to include this method in a way that encourages dialogue or neglects interpersonal social - affective dimension of learning in the classroom. It is therefore considered necessary that to successfully develop the implementation of the Research Group is required prior training of social and communication skills where both the teacher and the students, made a number of academic and non-academic activities that set standards cooperative behavior for
Cooperative Learning in Elderly University: strategies for implementation in social context of justice

the classroom, being very important for the teacher to act as a model of social and communication skills (active listening, empathizing, paraphrasing, stimulate participation through questions, etc..) you expect from your students.

The Research Group is suitable for integrated research projects dealing with the acquisition, analysis and synthesis of information to solve a multifaceted problem. Academic activity should allow diverse contributions of the members of the group and not be designed simply to get answers to factual questions (who, when, what, etc..). In general, the teacher designs a global issue and then breaks it down into subtopics students, arising from their own knowledge and interests, as well as the exchange of ideas with the other groups, although the subtopics selected for investigation need not to be the only thing to consider about a specific topic, and that can complement the teaching by the teacher of other issues they consider important. Then the unit can be applied by direct teaching to the whole class, individualized instruction in special schools or any combination of methods. These activities may occur before, during or after class to do its work Research Group (Cohen, 1986 and Sharan and Sharan, 1992).

Central to this approach is the” cooperative planning” that makes the students. Plan consists of various dimensions and needs of your project. Together they decide what they want to investigate to”solve” the problem, what resources they need, who will do what and how to present their completed project to the class group. Anyway, cooperative planning skills should be introduced gradually in the classroom, and should be practiced in various situations, before the class undertake a research project on a large scale. Teachers can conduct discussions with the whole class or in small groups for ideas to bring out different aspects of classroom activity. Students can plan short-term activities (they last only for a class) or long term.

This is a general organizational plan of the class in which the students form their own groups, as common interests for a theme, and work in small groups, ranging from 2-6 members, where they
have to select the aspects to be analyzed a subject to be studied by the entire class, using cooperative questionnaires, group discussion and planning and collaborative projects. Each group divided the work among its members, becoming the subject of study in individual tares, and carries out the necessary activities, i.e., seeking information from various sources (books, institutions, people, etc.). They usually offer a variety of ideas, opinions, data, solutions and perspectives on the problem under study. Then the student evaluates and summarizes the information provided by each group member, for a group report, to be presented to the class group which evaluates (Sharan and Sharan, 1992).

In summary, the authors propose that, in the Research Group, students performed six stages or moments:

a) Identification of the subject and research group organization.

b) Planning group learning activity.

c) Conducting research.

d) Preparation of a final group report.

e) Final report to the class.

f) Evaluation of achievement.

4. Structured Cooperation

A feature of this method is the use of dyads or groups of two participants, where none of them is an expert in the task, and the two engage in a series of guided activities designed to enhance the processing and retention of learning object task. In addition, tasks or activities using information processing, which explicitly focus on cognitive and metacognitive activities of the dyad.

Although the same script can be applied to different tasks (reading, writing, etc.) Is often applied primarily to word processing (Dansereau, O’Donnelly, Lambiotte, 1988; O’Donnelly and Dansereau, 1990, Shepherd, 1990).
The students, once the teacher divides the text into sections, follow these steps:

a) Both participants read the first section of the text.

b) Participant A repeats information without looking at the text, playing a role of “learner / reciter” of learning.

c) Participant B provides feedback without looking at the text, acting as a “listener / Examiner” for errors or omissions.

d) The dyad works section to have it learned.

e) Both participants read the second section of the text.

f) Exchange of roles among the participants.

g) A and B continue until they have completed all sections of the text.

4.5. Student Team Learning

Methods of Student Team Learning cooperative learning are developed and investigated by Slavin and collaborators (1999), continuing and expanding the work of DeVrier and Edwards, at Johns Hopkins.

The Student Team Learning is a series of fundamental techniques that emphasize the use of group goals and group success which can only be achieved if all members of the group learn the material properly and simply not doing homework as a team.

Slavin (1992) argues that there are three core elements characteristic of this method:

a) Rewards team. It gives them some sort of reward when they reach or exceed certain criteria and compete to earn these rewards. All equipment, if any, can achieve at the same time.

b) Individual Responsibility. The team’s success depends on the individual learning of its members. The main activity responsibility in fact help them learn and make sure everyone
is ready for some type of evaluation that will individuals without the help of other members of the group.

(c) The existence of equal opportunities for success. It means that students bring to their teams, private improve, their own past performance. This ensures that students of high, medium and low achievement is also obliged to look their best and that values the contributions of all members.

In this method, we can distinguish five techniques: learning teams grouped by performance; learning Tournament Team; Puzzle II Individual learning assisted by a team, and cooperative integrated reading and writing [For a review of these can be (Troyano, 2002)].

**Method**

**Participants**

The participants of this research were all students enrolled and attending the area of “Social Learning of adults: be greater today” in the Aula of the Experience of the University of Seville. This material has been provided in 2008-2009 in two shifts: the first 17-19 hours and the second for 19-21 hours.

**Instrument**

The instrument used to gather data about the development of behaviors and behaviors associated with each of the five elements that define cooperative learning (Positive Interdependence, Promotional Face to Face Interaction, Liability and Personal rating, Skills Interpersonal and Small Group Management. Processing Group) is performed by Arellano, Navarro and Sosa in 2007 applied to Basic Education teachers. The students had to answer a frequency Likert scale of 32 items with four values for Always, Often, Rarely and Never.

Our study has allowed for the validity and reliability analysis based appropriate to the instrument and the study population, obtaining
Cooperative Learning in Elderly University: strategies for implementation in social context of justice

a consistency index of 0.83. It has also undertaken a descriptive analysis of frequencies to obtain results.

Procedure
To carry out the surveys were scheduled day in which the interviewer would go through the Hall of experience in order to ensure maximum attendance of students and a representative sample of the population under study.

Also, the same investigator applied the questionnaires in an attempt to standardize the application instructions.

Results
The results are presented in percentage frequency descriptive statistics for each of the defining elements of cooperative learning developed by the greatest of Classroom Experience.

With respect to the first element greater cooperative learning students shows positive interdependence based on that 63 % of students say they often need mutual support to complete an activity, followed by 37 % with the Always option, which makes cumulative frequency of 100 %, demonstrating so students rely on their peers for carrying out their activities. In relation to whether students share their resources when performing an activity, the answers show that 78 % always share their resources which ensures that by sharing links are generated between students to facilitate group work.

In regard to the second element of the coupon face to face interactions, most of the sample (78 %) say always interact to perform a cognitive task. Also, most students (84 %) agree in stating that whenever they interact with peers is easier to carry out meaningful learning.

The responsibility and personal assessment is defined by 94 % of the population surveyed stating that always strengthen their learning academically individually finally reversing the continuous improvement of the group. Supporting this argument a
similar percentage of students (91 %) always respect the individual characteristics of the peer group at their own pace of learning.

Fourth are the interpersonal skills and group management in relation to whether students develop social skills such as confidence, acceptance, honesty, dialogue, etc... It is noteworthy that the majority of students major (72 %) believe that almost never can develop these skills, as 63 % believe that almost never give precise instructions about how to group activities.

Lastly we have the group as a processing cooperative learning. In this case, 56% of the older students always and 32% often have a reflective and critical to the completion of the work group. With respect to students’ reflection and discussion about the achievements and goals outlined in the activities assigned by the teacher, most members of the group (83 %) need to reflect and discuss whether they are achieving the goals and maintaining working relationships and effective and appropriate.

Conclusions
One of the most interesting aspects of cooperative learning discussed in this study is that it is not only methods that improve relationships and interpersonal and intergroup attitudes in students increased, but also allow a better grasp of the experiences encountered in the university classrooms. Furthermore, as expressed Shepherd (1993) in his contribution from Social Psychology, it is noteworthy that every one of the existing different cooperative learning methods, mainly the four most important, namely, that of Aronson, Johnson’s and Johnson, Slavin and Sharan, have positive effects on a variety of variables, cognitive and non-cognitive, being in any case their similarities major differences.

Participation being something that has to have as a priority on those activities of more than one speaker, is in the area of training where their achievement becomes particularly relevant. Overcoming competitive and individualistic approaches, uses and roles traditionally accepted in academic, between teachers
Cooperative Learning in Elderly University: strategies for implementation in social context of justice

and students, emerges forcefully teaching a new paradigm, based on theory, research and applications in education, differentiated by a construction joint knowledge and the establishment and maintenance of interpersonal relationships.

In this sense, it would be desirable that teachers adopt a structure or a combination of several depending on each of the changing educational contexts to be found, be it of the utmost importance and will lead students towards one outcome or another.

Also in cooperative learning groups can be of various types and activities to develop must incorporate certain essential elements for effective cooperative action. The own performance and that of others is achieved by working cooperatively, forming small groups and ensuring that all members master the assigned material. The implementation of the various methods of cooperative learning in the teaching has increasingly successful because of its clear advantages and applicability.

Finally, note that, in providing empirical reviewed here, the senior students Classroom Experience shows positive results in each of the defining elements of cooperative learning, except in reference to the acquisition and improvement of interpersonal and management skills group. And is that students are calling for greater teacher involvement in proposing the activities of a group and teamwork, allowing the development of cooperative learning.

That is why we think interesting that teachers of students most of our universities to develop these components making the process of teaching - learning is dynamic and effective, enabling students to develop interpersonal skills, interact with peers, and expand on them responsibility and personal assessment allowing a positive attitude to their peers in group work (Arellano, Navarro and Sosa, 2007).

We conclude therefore as the theoretical foundation and the results that the largest cooperative strategies carried out effectively for better results in the learning process, and that cooperative
learning provides the student benefits decreasing feelings of isolation, favoring the feelings self-efficacy, and promoting shared responsibility for the group’s results.

References


Cooperative Learning in Elderly University: strategies for implementation in social context of justice


The purpose of this experiment is to study the effect of stress inoculation training on perceived stress in different identity styles.

Participants were chosen via simple random samplings among undergraduate female students studying Educational courses in Islamic Azad University, Roudhen branch and identity styles questionnaires were performed.

Entrance criteria for participants were included and then 54 subjects were divided by random assignment into 2 subject groups on the basis of their identity styles (normative, diffuse/avoidant), 2 control groups specialized to each group.

In the pretest stage perceived stress questionnaires were performed. Then we presented our treatment in 12 sessions. In the post test we repeated again perceived stress questionnaires.

The results indicated stress inoculation training and identity styles can decrease perceived stress but there is not meaningful effectiveness in their interaction.

Explanations and evaluations of events in mind are important in stress. Changing on the basis of self instruction can affect on perceived stress.
Introduction
Stress is a condition of daily living that is not fitting with individual’s on going potentials and so cause disequilibrium and internal conflicts. Today, stress is a huge problem and according to some considerations, is related to 75% of physical illnesses and an effective factors in developing heart diseases and cancers that are two leading factors in mortality rate around the world. Stress is also a psychological phenomenon that causes and maintains many psychiatric disorders. Therefore, in recent years researchers have increasingly interested in stress sources and it’s coping strategies in different groups and found that using effective coping strategies have an important role in reducing stress.

There are two major strategies to coping with stress: problem-focused strategy that include direct action on environment to modify subjective threatening conditions; and emotional focused-strategy that include maladaptive actions or thoughts to control unpleasant feelings caused by stressful conditions. Modern perspectives on stress are focused more on individual’s. In this region how individuals cope with stress is more important than stressor situation and it’s frequency.

According to Lazarus, how an individual appraise her life events is an important factor that determines whether they cause stress, and there for interpretations of stressful events are more important than events themselves.

Lazarus (1986) have proposed an interactional model on stress that offer a comprehensive frame work for this phenomena based on the notion that differences in cognitive appraisal of threatening events is an important factor in determining the intensity of individual’s emotional and physiological responses and explain the relationship between environmental stimuli and their outcome different reactions.

One of stress’s coping strategies is self structural technique called stress inoculation training developed by Meichenbaum (1974) propose with modifying individual’s self statements we can
reduce maladaptive thoughts and behavior and increase adaptive ones.

Stress inoculation training has three steps: first step is conceptualization in which the therapist develop report with clients, help them in better understanding stress’s nature and it’s effects on emotions and functions, and finally conceptualize these notions again.

The second step is called skills acquisition, in which the clients are familiarizing with different cognitive – behavioral coping techniques including, cognitive restructuring, problem solving, self-encouragement, self guiding, and stress release and practice them first in clinic and then in real life situations, the third steps is application and follow –through phase that indicates the importance of booster sessions and follow ups in preventing relapse.

Stress inoculation training is a cognitive – behavioral therapeutic approach that focuses on learning coping skills, especially the skill of identifying maladaptive self – statements in stressful situations.

The principal components of this educational approach for people that encounter stressful conditions include: changing ideas about behavior and modifying self – statements about how to cope with stress.

Heinz (1999) believes stress inoculation training, has deep and long term effects on individuals because it organize cognitive structures multi dimensionally with thoughts, feelings, and physiological processes.

According to Bersonsky (2005), cognitive theorists, identity can be a mediator factor in psychological components.

Identity, awareness, and self are triad axes that explain human behavior in cognitive perspective, identity is a representation of individual’s perception and any identity disorder can cause disruption in cognitive that related to self awareness.
Bersonsky (2003) has focused on the role of cognitive and social processing in identity development and dynamics of self system; and define identity as a self theory. Self theory is a conceptual construct that consists of systematic set of processing strategies or functional constructs that organ individual’s perseverance to adjusting and coping with daily living.

Bersonsky (2007) stressed identity process is a cognitive issue and a function of individual’s thinking of who am I and how explain their experiences. This is individual’s explanations of experience that shape reality not the experiences themselves.

Berntsen (2008) found a significant relation between individual’s identity and stress and it’s symptoms perceive.

Giving that how an individual perceive and process a stressful situation is more important than the situation itself and cognitive appraisal has an important role in mental health, we can say that intervention and stress release education is a suitable way to stress control.

Also, with regard to important role of identity in behavior, thought and feeling, standing identity in conjunction with effects of therapy on perceived stress can be useful.

Therefore, in this study we review the effectiveness of stress release education on perceived stress with regard to identity styles.

Sample statistical population and sampling method
In the first stage regarding to available result in research findings identity style questionnaire carried out 360 females. They were told to write down the code written at top of the page then the groups were separated according to informative, normative and avoiding/diffusive identity styles. Also people with informative identity style lacking psychological disorder were not included for treatment. Accordingly people with normative identity style and avoidant/diffusive one were invited for treatment and forming experimental and controls groups. The internal and external
criterions for participants were considered. Then participants with normative and avoidance/diffusing identity styles based on random assignment were specialized in 2 experimental groups and also 2 control group were considered for each of them. 12 subjects were put in avoiding/diffusive groups and 15 in normative groups and treatment were performed in 12 sessions then after 3 month Follow up stage was performed on each group.

Tools

1) Perceived stress scale
This scale has been formed by Cohen and his colleagues (1983), It includes 14 questions. The questions have been asked in a way that students can say their ideas about uncontrollable and being difficult the stress in their lives.

Furthermore, this scale contains some directed questions about active stress stages in persons.

The questions are general, so they don’t include any specific content which is related to a definite sub group.

It isn’t limited to particular situations, but it pays attention to rare events in ordinary life conditions. it also includes the stress which is related to friends and relatives lives. In this research, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was: 0/9.

2) Bersonsky Identity Styles Scale
Identity styles inventory was at first created by Bersonsky (1992) and was subsequently revises by others. It contains 40 questions that 11 of them are allocated to informative style, 10 to confused/ avoidance identity style, 9 to normative identity and to finish, 10 to commitment scale (In view of Bersonsky, commitment is one of the results of identity and because these 10 questions are separated from others and do not measure identity style; so it doesn’t have been used in this research). In the inventory, numbers 9, 11, 14 and 20 have reverse scoring. Answers have been rated
based on a range of entirely disagree to entirely agree that, scores 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 have been arranged for alternatives. Choices rated based on a range of one: entirely disagree, two: disagree to some extent, three: I’m not sure, four: agree to some extent, and five: entirely agree.

In this research, for studying the validity of the above scale, internal consistency has been considered and coefficient is 0/71. internal consistency for informative style is: 0/79, for normative style: 0/6 and confused / avoidance: 0/84.

**Performance method**
At first, student answered the identity style inventory. They were differentiated based on the results of the questionnaires and based on the three styles as motioned. Then students with normative style and confused / avoidance, were arranged in two experimental and two control groups (students with informative identity style haven’t been participated in the intervention of the therapy).

Treatment according to relief stress on experimental groups was performed. After the test, perceived stress questionnaire was done and four groups answered it.

Assessments were done on four groups and after three months, experimental group was studied. This is the therapy sessions schedule.

**The therapy sessions schedule**
*First session:*
Explanations related to stress and its influence on life

*Second session:*
Explanation related to stress inoculation training goals and Meichenbaum experience and stress relational factors, self monitoring practice.
Third session:
A- B- C model training, Jacobsen progressive relaxation training (7 group stage).

Fourth session:
Acquaintance with (core belief, intermediate belief, superficial belief) thought layers and irrational thought measures.

Fifth session:
Guide self dialogue training, repeating stage four.

Sixth session:
Problem solving method training, unpleasant imagery, remembering stage training

Seventh session:
Pleasant and unpleasant imagery training. Remembering stage training and graduated relief stress counting.

Eight session:
SIT counting stage training, facing with reality training

Ninth session:
Continuing and reality facing training, SIT reviewing stage training.

Tenth session:
Group discussion about the educated methods.

11th session:
Doing post – tests

12th session:
Final assessment and feedback of the clients and the clients’ discussion about future and quality of practice continuity.

Finding
To answer the research question, at first, descriptive tables and then inferential tables are presented.
Table 1- Frequency Statistical Index in Control, Experiment And Follow-up Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistical Index</th>
<th>Norm</th>
<th>Confused</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow - up</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2- Central And Dispersion Indices Of Stress (Tenseness) With Separation Of Control And Experiment Groups On Pretest & Post-test Stages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Statistical Index</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre – test</td>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>26.95</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>25.29</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Confused</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>21.75</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>27.85</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>13.44</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Follow – up</td>
<td>13.88</td>
<td>6.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Confused</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>7.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>13.91</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Follow-up</td>
<td>15.57</td>
<td>6.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For doing covariance analysis test, taking into consideration defaults related to this statistical method is necessary. The principle hypotheses of being normal, homogeneity of regression coefficients show that distribution of hypothesis scores has observed normality (Kolmogorov Z = 0.6 p > 0.85).

Covariance homogeneity hypothesis regarding the following table indicates covariance homogeneity.
Table 3- Results of Examination of F Level Test for Investigation of Covariance Homogeneity Hypothesis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Df1</th>
<th>Df2</th>
<th>Meaningfulness level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Covariance Homogeneity Hypothesis</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Covariance homogeneity hypothesis (F = 1.95, P > 0.13) indicates observance of this hypothesis. Therefore, covariance analysis test can be done.

Table 4 – Covariance Analysis Test Results In control – experiment groups in pretest and post – test stages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Total Square (Roots)</th>
<th>Freedom Degree</th>
<th>Square (Roots) Average</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3571.25</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>331.32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.32</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>19.36</td>
<td>14.235</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>176.56</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>176.56</td>
<td>64.39</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>102.23</td>
<td>37.28</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity * group</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3571.25</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Meaningfulness in 0.05 level ** Meaningfulness in 0.01 level.

Information stipulated in table shows that F computed for groups is 331.32 which is more than F of table. Therefore, hypothesis of zero indicates inexistence of difference of rejection and contrary
hypothesis. Therefore, by confidence of 0.99 we can claim that stress removing (relaxation) training could have changed stress signs in groups. Results of F obtained (176356) for identity styles show that they affect on stress. Interaction of groups and identity (F=0.342) could not make meaningful effect on stress quantity.

For examining the effect of stress removing (relaxation) training in the experiment group in follow – up stage, covariance analysis training is used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Total Square (Roots)</th>
<th>Freedom Degree</th>
<th>Square (Roots) Average</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>14.19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.19</td>
<td>0.256</td>
<td>0.615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3437</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>55.43</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>364.12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>346.12</td>
<td>66.09</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>130.46</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>130.46</td>
<td>19.36</td>
<td>0.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>15.62</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>6.73</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity * group</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3437.04</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>55.43</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Meaningfulness in 0.05 level** Meaningfulness in 0.01 level.

Information stipulated in table shows that F computed for groups is 364.12 which is more than F of table. Therefore, by confidence of 0.95 we can claim that stress removing (relaxation) training could have changed stress signs in groups. Therefore, in follow- up stage although we observe reversion of stress in people of experiment
group, effectiveness of training quantity in meaningful level 0.05 has been re-observed. Results of F obtained (130.46) for identity styles show that identity makes meaningful effect on stress, although this meaningfulness is changed from 0.01 in experiment stage to 0.05 in follow-up stage. Interaction of groups and identity (F=4.6) could not make meaningful effect on stress quantity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Total Square (Roots)</th>
<th>Freedom Degree</th>
<th>Square (Roots) Average</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>327.67</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>327.67</td>
<td>1082.013</td>
<td>0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>195.75</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>195.75</td>
<td>646.386</td>
<td>0.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity * group</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.942</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Meaningfulness in 0.05 level** Meaningfulness in 0.01 level.

Information stipulated in table shows that F computed for groups is 1082.013 which is more than F of table. Therefore, by confidence of 0.95 we can claim that stress removing (relaxation) training could have changed stress signs in groups in post-test stage. The identity could make meaningful effect on level 0.05. The interaction between group and identity is not meaningful in this stage.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

If stress is uncontrollable it needs to be treated. The treatment goal is that the person may more control the stress and its physical and mental effects. One of the most important methods of stress control is to learn behavioral cognitive skills. (Hills as quoted from Khabbavaz 2005).
Information stipulated in the table shows that stress inoculation training could have changed stress signs in experimental group.

The results of researches have shown that the people thoughts can be restructured for checking stress by psychological treatments (Sarason and Sarason 2005 as quoted by Najarian et al 2008).

Since, checking is a cognitive – behavioral attempt for solving problem and meeting requirements and need to skills such as constructive thought, flexibility in behavior, cognition of abilities and situation (Sarason and Sarason 2005; as quoted by Najarian, et al 2008).

People training for stress interaction nature and checking and considering cognitions and emotion in creation and continuity of stress in its control shall be effective.

Therapy with method of relaxation which is complicated mixture of cognitive and behavioral techniques aiming to find solutions for patients, problems, may cause learn and correct methods for effective checking with stress.

Back believes that the therapist may help the people in restructuring thoughts for better checking with stress. (Sarason and Sarason 2005; as quoted by Najarian, et al 2008).

Sharp and Horan (2004) have done research in relation with effect of relaxation on conceived stress and mental satisfaction and the results of mental satisfaction are positive and conceived stress less.

Sheehy and Horan (2005) have done research on therapy with the method of relaxation on anxiety, stress, illogical believes and educational performance of students of the first year in the field of law and the people who have been training during two stages which denotes decrease of anxiety, stress, illogical believe and educational performance of students.

Result of Schiraldi and Brown (2001) for effectiveness of cognitive – behavioral therapy based on model of relaxation training denoted
effectiveness of this method in deduction of anxiety, depression of students and increase of their self – esteem.

As identity styles shown in table 4, the styles could have been effective in change of stress signs.

Haslem (2009) in a research on foreign students studying in USA faculties found that there is a meaningful relationship between people stress and their identity.

Researches have shown that the people having high stress events suffer from disorder in identification process (Coulan, Sadog and Garp translated by Poutafkari).

In opinion of Burde (1980) an identity means that a person attributes to himself / herself as a subject in social situation. (Piri 2005).

According to pattern of Lazaros and Folkman, method of assessment and interpretation of accidents may affect on our excited reactions and checking responses. Indeed, people may react the situations or life conditions based on meaning of situation, the principal dimension of stress is how the person to conceive stress and situations are not naturally tensile.

Finding shows that the identity styles could not have been effective in effectiveness of stress.

SIT is designed for growth of checking skills. This training shall prepare people or groups for defense or many checking skills for confronting high stressful situations in the future (Lehere and Wool folk 2007).

According to Borosnksy we can say that identity due to relative stable structure and influence in depth layers of psychological levels, more process its meanings which relate to person,s social roles, input and conceptions; it means that how a person sees himself / herself in a situation and its components include strategies for arranging these processes and for this reason it will have less role in checking strategies for restructuring probable negative outcomes resulting from events.
Effect of Stress Inoculation Training on Perceived Stress in Different Identity Styles

References


Eleonora Bordon
Ph.D. in Sociology and Social Research, Department of Philosophy, Pedagogy, Sociology and Applied Psychology, University of Padua, Padua, Italy, eleonora.bordon@unipd.it

Mariselda Tessarolo
Full Professor, Department of Philosophy, Pedagogy, Sociology and Applied Psychology, University of Padua, Padua, Italy, mariselda.tessarolo@unipd.it

Abstract
In the current western context, mass communication and news spreading focus on reflections oriented to national and international politics, economy matters, sports, and news of local events. Little is the space dedicated to the accounts of the events from the south of the world, to the narrations inherent to armed conflicts, and to the social plague which involves the restriction of human rights. In the Global System, as defined by Giddens (1997), the citizen of the most ancient democracies little is informed of the critical situation and tensions which involve many nations. Peacekeepers intervene in international conflict scenes to the end of favouring the promotion of a democratic context and the reduction of internal tensions. They intervene in the hosting country bringing their own culture, a knowledge that in part is contaminated and enriched thanks to the intercultural exchange with colleagues coming from other Nations and with the hosting population. The goal of the proposed study is exploring which are the conceptual representations of the peacekeepers. The matter is therefore
delineate the assumptions with which the operators organize their own social interventions. To find these argumentative matrixes we interviewed about twenty peacekeepers operating in the international scenery and of different nationality. These technicians carry out their professional activity inside national defence associations, representatives of the international right and operators of international institutions of diplomacy. Finally emerged data have been elaborated through the statistic software Spad and that way terms to which professionals mostly resort to define the concepts of democracy and social justice, and the clusters of meaning which are delineated thanks to the study of the correspondence analysis.

In virtue of the specificity of their work, peacekeepers constantly interact with individuals of different cultures. Though cooperation is expressed as a customary practice, evolving since early childhood, for mankind, in its working expression it not always benefits by the fruits generated by the reiteration of such a knowledge (Sennett 2012). Often one leans to consider his own culture as the best, structuring thoughts of Orientalism as suggested by Saïd (1978) or Occidentalism (Ian&Avishai, 2004), or to locate in some peculiar aspects of the human being or of his representations (like skin colour, religion, politic system) some assumptions to which homologate all humankind. It deals therefore with finding relational strategies which allow to maintain the balance between the equal and the different through a representation of the Self and of the Other that would not be outlined through a process that would subtend an expression of the Other intended as an extension of the Self or stereotyped in his expressions of positive or negative mythicization. Peacekeepers intervene in complex social contexts and commit themselves to promote freedom and protection of human rights through politics which would support practices of democracy and social justice.
Research
The aim of this study is to analyze the conceptual representations of peace operators. Therefore it is necessary to define how operators organize their social interventions. In order to highlight the argumentative matrices, eleven peace operators from different countries who assist in international situations were interviewed. These people work in national defence associations, as international law delegates and as operators in international diplomatic organizations. Data were then analyzed using Spad: this software identified the words that operators most frequently used to describe their ideas of democracy and social justice and it highlighted the clusters of meaning emerging from correspondence analysis.

Reported data only define the beginning state of the research in which have been interviewed 11 Italian peacekeepers whom normally intervene in war sceneries. To comprehend what the cognitive representations of their work and of their confrontation with other cultures were, we requested the interviewed to outline the main assumptions of their being freedom promoters.

Five thematic areas were investigated, i.e. the concepts of:

- democracy
- social justice and perception of the crucial points to carry out concrete politics of peace and social justice
- support in moments of difficulty
- positive aspects of their work

1. For what concerns the concept of democracy, observing the data emerged from the correspondence analysis, we verify that the interviewed subjects locate in the factor 1, which we will denote as right (intended as rule and protection of freedom), and in the factor 2, which we will denote as State of right, the transversal elements which subtend the entire narration (graph
1). It is therefore a matter of understanding democracy as a duty of the State in its own protection and maintenance, and a right in expressing one’s own freedom as an individual.

Graph 1 – Lexical correspondences analysis to the question: What would you tell a children if you were to explain him the concept of democracy?

From the researches conducted (by Klingemann, 1999; Morlino, 1988) emerges that in the majority of Countries that have a stable form of democratic government the individuals express a low rate of satisfaction regarding democracy in its daily expression, though they keep that it represents the best one among all the forms of government. According to Lefkowitz (2007), liberal democracy is morally connected to the State laws for the citizens of the democratic states whom live their own reality in the post-modernity. Its bond doesn’t reside in the traditional “duty to obey the law”, but finds its new implement boundaries in obeying the law and disobeying it if it is morally unacceptable.

From the researches of Lewin on leadership and its styles (Lewin, Lippitt and White, 1939) we observe that as to the three leadership styles found by the study group (autocratic, laxist and democratic), the democratic style seems to be mostly profitable in the construction
of interpersonal contexts in which a positive climate inside the group is configured. In such a social context it has been ascertained that the cooperation and the motivation favoured the increment of productivity and creativity. These elements, if confronted with the data emerged from the interviewed sample, represent a good base on which to build the interventions of the peacekeepers. Their perception of a democratic context connected to State duties and to the fundamental right for freedom, represent the foundations on which they will intervene inside the social groups that they will encounter in the foreign missions. The promotion of a favourable climate for dialogue and for creativity allows to presume that their own operating is oriented toward prosociality and resilience.

Almond and Verba in 1963 made the first study inherent to the research of the link between the attitudes diffused in a society and the institutional functioning of democracies.

From the data emerged from their investigations is inferred that the political culture of a nation is described by the sharing of similar political orientations among its citizens. Successive cross-cultural studies enhanced again the value of the thesis of the two researchers and confirmed that the attitudes and the individual values are important for the good operating of democracy at institutional level (Putnam, 1993; Klingemann and Fuchs, 1995; Dalton, 2001; Norris, 2002; Mishler and Rose, 2001; Bratton and Mattes, 2001; Diamond 2001).

In respect to the second question, i.e. the representation of the concept of social justice, emerges that the corpus is configured by mean of a fil rouge that could be defined as “Possibility” (graph 2) and defined by factor 1 which explains the combination, a being a transversal element which simultaneously and with the same quality involves both the subject and the groups, whereas factor 2 explains the value of life, a respect for all the individuals, without the necessity of adding elements such as skin colour, religion, sexual orientation, etc.; in synthesis it can be inferred that life is considered as an element that has to be respected apart from everything and from its expressions.
It was Sarason that in 1974 structurized the first definition of sense of community. According to the author the sense of community can be traced in the “perception of similarity with others, an augmented interdependency with others, an availability to maintain this interdependency offering or doing for the others that which is expected from them, the sensation of being part of a structure fully trustable and stable” (Sarason, 1974, pp. 157). Potentially a being all similar and independently from specific factors. It is a matter of declining the concept expressed by Sarason (1974) starting from immaterial constructs and mainly defined on the pillars of modernity, i.e. on the values of equality, brotherhood and freedom.

Analyzing, afterwards, the answers given to define a political project that is an actual and tangible promotion of peace and social justice, from the correspondences analysis (graph 2) emerges that in factor 1 configures an element inherent to the materiality of daily life, we reconnect to historical aspects of conflict and the
economy, the resources intended as prime materials and scientific technological progress, and the religion are taken again as determinant variables. In factor 2 is located as a transversal factor the value attribution, in this case the religion and the resources emerge, abstract elements which assume a value of relevance only following an attribution of relevance and of esteem by social groups; particularly factor 2 recalls the social structure and its negotiation in value attribution.

Graph 3 - Lexical correspondences analysis to the question: According to you, how national and international politics directed to achieve peace and social justice in the world could be concretely increased?

The sample has been asked also with whom confronts itself and what decisive strategies puts in action to resolve professional difficulty situations. Graph 4 reports the spatial projection of the main actors and techniques found by the sample, furthermore in factor 1 is defined a tendency to see the others as knowledge bearers, in particular in the colleagues and in the superiors, where as in factor 2 is defined through dialogue a decision that feeds through comparison.
Graph 4 - Lexical correspondences analysis to the question: When you have difficulties in your work, with whom do you confront and/or what resolutive strategies do you usually put in action?

The sample interviewed declares that its strategies of coping are strongly oriented to create a sustain context. Retaking Lazarus words, the coping consists in the “efforts oriented to action and interpsychic, to handle (i.e. to control, to tolerate, to reduce, to minimize) the environmental and internal requests, and the conflicts among them, that test or go beyond personal resources” (Lazarus,1978). During missions peacekeepers seem to protect themselves from stress by means of a narrative process that recodes one’s own difficulty and makes it manifest in his expressing verbally with the Other. An Other who shares his same values and difficulties, but who in that specific moment seems to be in the same time both free from the specific problem and strongly empathic.

Finally, the subjects interviewed locate among the favourite aspects of their work, elements linked to their being bringers of peace and mediators in conflicts, and the factor 1 could be indicated with the term of interiorized role and factor 2 with the term of relation (graph 5).
Graph 5 - Lexical correspondences analysis to the question: What are the most beautiful aspects of your work?

The dimension of incarnating a role and of expressing a strongly stereotyped and inclined to confrontation personality, represent the core elements for the interviewed subjects. If, as Kelly (1965) claims, “the psychological processes of a person are psychologically channelled by the way in which he/she anticipates the events”, considering oneself oriented to dialogue and relation in addition to a definite role, generates a proactive and yet a little inclined to change and dynamicity action space.

Conclusion
In synthesis the interviewed group acts its professionalism almost exclusively outside its own national boundaries and compares itself not only with the hosting population but also with colleagues of different nationalities; though such internationalization and cultural comparison is so predominant the sample never makes reference to cultural exchange. It seems it deals with defining the field with another professionalism in which the subject in question acts and who doesn’t bound himself emotionally with the new context of reference. The peacekeeper attributes a high value to life and freedom and indicates the responsibility of each organ of national government
in the protection of the population. He considers the Other as a resource and the dialogue as the winning weapon in order to be able to interact, as if maintaining the other’s freedom was a warranty of the protection of his own freedom. The number of missions in which one has participated and the geographic area in which one operated results being an almost indifferent variable in defining the narrative repertoire, orienting the reflection mainly on the organizational and formative structure with which one operates.

References


In spite the fact that environmental education has been part of the obligatory curriculum in Secondary Schools for a few years, it is astonishing that most children have never had any contact with animals different than pets or through television or films. At the same time, the origin of the food we eat or the how-to process after the raw materials is only exceptionally questioned. Generation after generation that feeling of belonging to nature is being lost.

Through this project, at the Environmental Education Centre & Farm School “Hacienda Los Miradores” we want to restore the affective link between children and nature. We try to let them get closer to nature so that they may have a personal contact, enabling boys and girls to spend fantastic moments while learning about nature, arts and history from their native land.

Then our intention is to make easier for the schools and students to implement not only fundamental but cross-curricular contents as well, along with social and interactive experiences.

By letting children explore outside schools, we allow them to learn in a useful and efficient way, and despite facing potential risk, it constrains high educational, didactic and social values, as we have already said. The outings are designed as an activity inside a project, a unit in a school subject or in a school curriculum.

We have verified through experience that both boys and girls learn
faster and better through a playful way by means of which children may acquire school contents and targets in a motivating, attractive and above all meaningful way. Nevertheless, we go further than this. Interaction with the environment, teachers, classmates, extend the process of learning, making it richer and more complete. We are no longer focusing on the contents of the curriculum which are constrained at school (by the curriculum itself, by the student’s book or by the teacher’s experience or some other student’s experience…), on the contrary we are open to other perspectives, new impressions…other experiences that may complete this process. The child is exposed to a new and closer learning situation opening up to other expectations and experiences, breaking boredom and giving a playful point of view to the education process that makes acquiring new contents easier (Cuenca, 2011, p. 122).

Also Was (1992) confirms that by taking boys and girls outside the classroom, we put them in contact with authentic experiences which will be answered in a creative way that may magnify their skills and promote their self-development.

Benejan (2003) adds the social factor, and social knowledge as well, students and teachers together, making the building of a group idea easier, participation and cooperation along with the contact with nature, making up for inequality since not all the children have the same opportunities to experience new things.

As the kid is experiencing an activity, he is doing research, observing, wondering, thinking, establishing a relationship and the professional in charge of the group tries to take out the children’s potential by motivating them, making proposals, cheering them up…letting them discover new things.

“Summing up: School outings are then a source for learning.” (extract from García Carranco, 1989, p.80)

Farm schools are places where both farming and cattle raising activities are programmed, as well as natural, social and cultural environment. Here students interact with nature, promoting their
autonomy this way, being the protagonist of their own learning. As García Carranco (2008) says, the systematic study of living beings allow children to know about their surroundings, to prove the changes produced there and observe the result of its actions. All these factors enable an attitude that mixes up curiosity and strictness. (p.81)

In our case, the farm school can be found on a privileged location, a XVIIth century cottage, renewed in 1830, 20 km away from Sevilla, surrounded by a flowery garden and 39 hectares of olive and orange trees, where you may visit the farm, the vegetable garden, practise horse-riding, enjoy a ride one of the carriages of our museums as well as take up one of our different workshops, adapted to the age of the students.

We work with schools from kindergarten up to secondary, both estate and partially sustained schools, which visit us to enjoy a day of contact with nature, learning and developing empathetic feelings towards the surroundings and environment. The students may come in groups of 50 to 250, aged between 3 to 15.

“Hacienda Los Miradores” offers services which try to work with the sensitivity and education of the school children towards this type of exclusive cottages in Sevillian county, as well as about environmental issues and getting familiar with farming, catling raising and healthy-life habits.

Along the visit, the students are escorted by instructors who are both students and professionals from Psychology, Pedagogy, Biology and Environmental Issues, people who love nature and fall for education.

Location and Schedule of Hacienda Los Miradores Farm School

The visit that can be carried out is to an original XVIIth century “hacienda”, located in open nature and only 20 km away from Sevilla, place where pure Spanish breed horses are raised and also land is laboured. A natural surrounding with interesting educational
elements which may be complementary to the tasks carried out in the School Centre. These olive-tree cottages were born in Seville due to the olive oil trade with the Indies after the discovery of America. They were the centre where this precious good was produced. Being close to Sevilla port, this trade reached a privileged status. The high benefits generated by this activity along with the aesthetics of the Sevillian Baroque, led to these spectacular cottages that started to be known as “Haciendas de Olivar”. Due to the loss of profits of this production system, the “haciendas” turned into a resort for wealthy families and, with time, most of them started worsening until they turned into ruins in many cases. Out of 300 “haciendas” in Sevilla, just 33 of them are currently kept as they were. One of these is “Hacienda Los Miradores” which stands out for its originality and architectural beauty.

The services which “Hacienda Los Miradores” offers try to contribute to the sensitivity and education of the school children towards the knowledge of this type of exclusive constructions in the area of Sevilla, as well as in relation to environmental issues and getting to know agricultural and cattle activities in a healthy-life habits context.

The visit to the cottage is organised splitting the students in groups, where each of them is going to undertake different activities planned to wake them up and develop their interest in customary activities of a traditional olive-producing “hacienda”. The day starts at 10am and it will finish around 4.30pm. During this period of time students will be able to enjoy six activities and both have breakfast and lunch.

The day starts with the arrival of the schoolchildren to the cottage where a presentation dynamics is displayed followed by the workshops and activities corresponding to the ages of the students. At the end of the day, as a farewell, the scholar boys and girls may express their experiences along the day.

Teachers are also asked to complete a simple questionnaire in order to improve our offer so that we may continue to make the best of this
education project that we have been carrying out. We have always had as a priority the all-embracing development of our school boys and girls who come to our “hacienda”, trying to help the different school educators who visit us. Suggestions, ideas and expectations are collected about the work which is carried out in our Environmental Education Centre and “Hacienda Los Miradores” Farm School. That is why teachers’ opinions will help to design the work that is being carried out, so that we make it possible to offer a service that matches their educational needs, because our job is based on being complementary to the tasks carried out in the classroom.

In the following lines, we expose a list of the possible activities that may be carried out in a visit, however any other can be undertaken depending on different needs.

1.- Horse-Riding.
Each one of the scholars along with the instructors will approach one of the horses from the hacienda’s breeding. They will observe the animal. Then, in a very simple way (depending on their age), the schoolboy/girl will be explained about how to ride, next they will mount the animal and go for a ride for a few minutes. There is an instructor per student in this activity, which makes it very attractive and safe.

2.- Visit to the “Hacienda”.
The school children will be able to walk along the different places in the cottage and enjoy its gardens, yards...also having the opportunity to visit the chapel, stables or the mill where the olive oil was made in the XVIIth century.

3.- Olive-oil workshop.
This workshop is very popular for both children and old ones, taking out all their potential at tasting and learning different flavours. They will know that not all olive oils are the same and that each variety has nuances and differences in both taste and characteristics.
4.-Ride on a carriage.
A ride on a carriage from the “hacienda” will be enjoyed. During this ride you can observe a broad view of the extensive cultivated land as well as different areas of the cottage, learning more information about country landscape, horses and carriages. The ride on the carriage is a thrilling, enjoyable and interesting moment where students extremely enjoy and learn at the same time about what a carriage is and how it is assembled.

5.-The farm.
At the cottage farm you can have a look and learn about how to take care and characteristics of a large number of species such as sheep, goats, pigs, turkeys, hens of different breeds, ducks, swans, turtledoves, quails, rabbits, pheasants…their breeding, feeding, cares are some of the aspects you can learn about.

6.-Archery and javelin throw.
Schoolchildren will take their first steps in these enjoyable sports, having fun in open nature and testing their shooting and skills.

7.-The vegetable garden and greenhouse.
They have the opportunity to watch vegetables in the ground, to learn about some characteristics and to get used to some tools you use to cultivate and to be able to grow their own plant in a pot which they commit themselves to take care of. They will be able to take it home. This is a very didactic activity for children who can work with their own hands.

8.-Clay workshop and craftwork.
To make a clay figure under guidance and supervised by the instructors from the “hacienda” is very satisfying for the boys and girls that visit us, trying to pull that little artist out. Another interesting and creative activity is to carry out a piece of art with
elements from nature that they have previously found in the countryside.

**Conclusions**

Our experience since the year 2003 when we started this path is undoubtedly very positive, because it has been highly satisfying for all the people implied: the ones assisting the students as well as the staff who look after the farm and animals, but especially gratifying for the thousands of kids who visit us year after year, delighted with being in contact with nature.

We really believe that the best way to make population conscious about active respect for our environment must be based on getting to know animals and plants so that the importance of working in rural settings may be understood. Only through knowledge can sensitivity and respect for nature be promoted.

It is also fundamental to increase healthy-life habits based on this respect to both the environment and our own bodies.

The development of this care for nature is connected to ethics and promoting respectful attitudes to others and also linked to feelings for social justice.

This early experience of contacting nature has been developed throughout the world and our intention is to be in touch with other farm schools in Europe to exchange different points of view.

**Bibliografía:**


Cuenca, José María, Concepciones del alumnado en Educación Infantil para la comprensión del medio sociocultural. Papel


www.losmiradores.com

www.losmiradores.com/educa
Women in Higher Education: comparisons among countries since 2000

Donna J. Goetz,
Elmhurst College, Elmhurst, Illinois, U.S.A.

This paper summarizes trends in the status of women students, faculty, and administrators in higher education. Although the percentage of women as students has dramatically increased, with women outnumbering male students in many countries and there has been an increase in the number of women at the lower levels of faculty rank, there has been no large increase in many high-ranking job opportunities or equity in pay. Women faculty ranks include lecturers, assistant professors, associate and full professors as well as the many women adjunct instructors and women in educational management. Within the past 14 years, many, but not all, countries have made gender equity in educational enrollment and hiring and promotion a stated priority. Some countries, such as Germany and the U. K., have funded these initiatives. Lastly, this paper gives three examples of successful programs in the U. S. that promote gender equity in higher education.

In many nations there are more women than male students in higher education. This is true for the U. S., Austria, Japan, and many nations in the Middle East and Africa. (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2010). However, even though women students outnumber male students in the European Union, the percentage of graduates who are women is significantly smaller. Women students are 55% of the enrollment but only account for 37% of the graduates of higher education in the EU. (Catalyst, 2012). Women educators with degrees are more likely to be part time workers than men are in all the European countries as well as in the U.S. Numerous studies have found that women are more likely to be in the lower ranks of academia and less likely to be full professors. Studies have found
this to be true, even when the women and men compared have similar numbers of published articles and statistical adjustments have been made for the prestige of the university granting the highest degree. One researcher estimated that a woman needs to publish approximately 2.5 times as many articles as a man to attain the same influence in her field (Morley, 2003, p. 155 as cited by Pritchard, 2005).

Percentages of women undergraduates in higher education
This section will summarize the percentages of women students in geographical groups. The two African countries with higher percentages of students who are women are Algeria with 57% and Kenya with 36%. Two of the lowest are the Democratic Republic of Congo with 26% and Ethiopia with 25%. (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2010). Countries within Africa have a rather large range and some of the lowest rates of women pursuing higher education.

In the Asian-Pacific region, New Zealand is the leader with 59% of higher education students who are women followed by Australia with 55%, Indonesia with 50%, and close behind, China with 48% and Japan with 46%. South Korea has 38% of women in students in higher education, and Bangladesh and Cambodia have only 35%. (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2010).

Europe has a high rate of women pursuing higher education, and also less variance among the countries. Sweden with 59%, Italy at 58%, United Kingdom 57%, France, 55%, Spain 54%, Austria 53%, the Netherlands, 52%, and Greece at 50% (Euro Stats, 2012).

In North and South America, the United States at 57% has the highest percentage of students who are women, followed by Brazil at 56%, El Salvador with 55%, Columbia with 51%, Mexico with 50%, and Chile with 49%. (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2010). The degree of variance among these countries is also small.
The Middle East has the largest range of any region for which I was able to obtain statistics. Qatar is the country with the highest percentage of women students at 63%, in the world. It is followed by Israel with 56%, Saudi Arabia at 52%, Jordan at 51%, Iran at 49%, and Bahrain at 46%. Iraq with 36% and Yemen, with the lowest percentage, 29% of students who are women. (CNN.com, 2012). However, in spite of high levels of education, women are still under-represented in the labor force. In 2012, Iran banned 77 courses from women including computer science, accounting, chemistry, engineering, and counseling psychology (Aljazeera, 2012).

**Women faculty at various academic ranks across countries**

Countries in this section were chosen because relatively recent data were available. Data were accessed comparing the Canada, the U. S., and European countries. Despite being geographical neighbors, there is a sizeable difference between Canada and the U. S. in the percentage of women at the level of full professor. 22% for Canada compared to 9% for the U. S. (Academe, 2012; Catalyst, 2012).

In Europe, Finland has the highest percentage women at the Grade A level, 23% (full-professor). Close behind is France with 19%. Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom each have 18 percent of women at the Grade A level. Austria has 14%, Denmark and Germany each have 12%, and Belgium and the Netherlands each, have only 11%. (Catalyst, 2012).

**Inequities in Salary and Tenure Status of Women in the U. S. compared to Canada**

At every level for which data were available, men earned a higher salary than women did in Canada and the U. S. At the full-professor level, in Canada women earned 95% of men’s salary compared to only 90% in the U. S. There was a 5-6 % gap in salary between the two countries at the assistant professor and the associate professor levels as well. At the rank of instructor, women in the U. S. earned
only 93% of men’s salary. No comparable data were available for the average pay for the level of lecturer in Canada. (Catalyst, 2012).

Data were available to compare gender differences between the U. S. and Canada in tenure status. Women were much more likely to be in a tenure-track position than women in Canada as compared to the U. S. In Canada, 43% of women had tenure-track status compared to only 24% in the U. S. In addition to gender inequities in statistics on rank, tenure status, and salary there are other indicators that support the claim of gender inequality. Many women academics delay or never marry (Pritchard, 2007; Samble, 2008). Women are much less likely to start a family in Germany and the United Kingdom. They also have fewer children than their male colleagues in those countries (Pritchard, 2007).

Women in Higher Education Management

Klawe, Whitney, & Simard (2009) examined both positive and negative trends in women in the fields of computer science and in educational leadership during the years 1995 and 2009. They noted that the number of women in significant academic leadership positions has increased. The proportion of female university presidents in the U. S. rose from 18% in 1995 to 23% in 2007. However, women are only 11% of the full professors in the U. S. in computer science. In 2006, the European Commission noted that there are now more women in senior positions as scientific researcher and noted that is a key to economic stability and growth. At that time, women held 30% of the senior positions (Catalyst, 2012).

Some Australian researchers who reviewed the situation of women in higher education concluded that the status of women has improved little in practical terms (Wilson, Marks, Noone, & Hamilton-Mackenzie, 2010). Carvalho and Santiago (2010) warned of new challenges for women seeking an academic career under the New Public Management framework. They note that “Portuguese higher education has traditionally been subjected to
heavy governmental regulation.” (p. 241). They note that higher education institutions reproduce the same inequalities dominant in other occupations with typical patterns of horizontal and vertical segregation. This claim is made by many other writers on women in education, including Klawe, Whitney, & Simard (2009). However, it seems exacerbated by the use of informal procedures in recruitment and hiring practices that are emerging as an obstacle for women to enter into academic careers.

Pledges to reduce Gender Inequity in Europe
Twenty nine countries in Europe signed The Bologna Agreement in 1999, to strengthen the European Union by setting standards in education, such as educational units for students studying in various countries to be equivalent to one another. This agreement was intended to make it easier for students to study and also to work in other countries within the EU. The Bologna Agreement, importantly, includes a commitment to reduce social and gender inequalities. Since 1999, additional countries have signed the agreement making a total of 47 countries (Bologna Process website, 2001-2012).

Germany has also made a commitment to gender mainstreaming. 30 million Euros were targeted to be spent on equal opportunities in 2001 and 2006. One of the central goals of this commitment is the promotion of female academics. Germany historically has had some of the most stringent requirements for promotion to the full-professor level. The Habilitation thesis requirement has been a major one. Traditionally, the university system required an academic to write a second thesis (during the years of teaching as a low ranking academic). Then, this faculty member had to defend this thesis and be accepted into the faculty by another university (which invariably required moving to a different city), in order to advance in the academic ranks. Recently, universities have agreed to accept a series of published articles as a substitution for a book-length thesis. This particular requirement fell heavily on dual career academics.
The United Kingdom legislated its own Equality Act in 2006. There are three major aspirations: to identify and implement specific gender equality goals; secondly to develop and publish an equal pay policy statement; and to assess the impact of changes in policies and services on men and women, allowing negative effects to be mitigated” (Pritchard, 2001, 661).

**Description of Successful programs to reduce gender inequity in the U. S.**

A new program at the University of Arizona created two new interdisciplinary programs. The university decided to hire faculty and recruit students from diverse ethnic groups by reaching out to barrios and Native American reservations. They appointed more women to chairs of departments and as program directors. They initiated paid family-care leave and built a child care center with private donations (Kolodny, 2001).

In 1999, the president of Massachusetts Institute of Technology (M.I.T.), Charles Vest, admitted in a report that the university had discriminated against female professors in ‘subtle but pervasive’ ways: “I have always believed that contemporary gender discrimination within universities is part reality and part perception...True, but I now understand that reality is by far the greatest part of the balance” (Goldberg, 1999). M.I.T. instituted family–friendly policies such as leave for a term for the birth of a child as well as a year- long pause in the tenure clock.

M.I.T. has daycare on campus and provides subsidies for child-care while employees are traveling on business. The administration of M.I.T. reviewed evidence that letters of recommendation written for male students tended to be focused on intellect and letters written for women students tended to focus on temperament. The administration then provided education to the faculty on writing non-biased letters of education. After these changes, the number of female faculty nearly doubled. M.I.T. chose its first female president and promoted women to deans and department heads.
Within M.I.T., other changes were instituted to make salaries, resources, lab space and teaching loads equitable for female faculty members. M.I.T. was recognized by the National Science Foundation and the National Academies for increasing opportunities for women in science. Private philanthropies gave one million dollars to M.I.T. so they would share their change strategies with other institutions.

M. I. T. accomplished much in improving gender equity in the past 12 years. “Among women on the science and engineering faculties, there are more than two dozen members of the National Academy of Sciences; four winners of the National Medal of Science; the recipient of the top international award in computer science; and the winners of a host of other fellowships and prizes.” (Zernike, K., 2011).

Newer problems have emerged, though, as the university tries to accommodate two-career couples, where in earlier years, most tenured women remained single or childless. Because of the rule that every committee must include a woman, female professors say they are losing up to half of their research time. (Zernike, K., 2011). Yet, M. I. T. is trying to balance the diverse needs of their faculty while retaining a commitment to gender equity.

Stanford University initiated a Gendered Innovations Project in 2009. The term was coined by Londa Schiebinger. The program was based on thirty years of research that revealed that sex and gender bias are both harmful and expensive. A few examples from the 10 drugs were withdrawn from the U. S. market because of life-threatening effects. Eight of these drugs caused more adverse reactions in women than in men. (U. S. GAO, 2001). Current seat belt designs are hazardous for a pregnant woman and her fetus. However, as of 2012, “Pregnant crash test dummies are not yet used in government-mandated auto testing in the U. S. or by the European New Car Assessment Programme.” (Schiebinger, Klinge, Sanchez de Madariaga, Schraudner, & Stefanick, 2011). The Gendered Innovations Project aims to include sex and gender as variables in planning research in ways that will be useful and meaningful to men.
and women. In response to dialogue with Stanford University, the European Commission set up an expert group in 2011 to develop the gender dimension in research and innovation. In 2012, the U. S. National Science Foundation joined in 2012.

This paper outlined some of the problems faced by women in higher education, both as students and as faculty. However, today there is more awareness of the need to seek and promote equity and the paper concluded with descriptions of some successful programs that promote equity.

References


Women Psychologists Pioneers
Facing a Conflictive World in 1941

Dr. Elisa Margaona
Institute of Higher Studies and Research

Summary
The exceptional work started by a small number of women psychologists in the United States, who decided that the society could benefit from the contribution of their science to the world, is recounted. On November 25th, 1941, the National Council of Women Psychologists was founded, changing its name to INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL OF PSYCHOLOGISTS. The Council was committed to advancing the science and practice of psychology, to promoting its role in society, encouraging the use of psychological principles to enhance the development of a healthy society, and to fostering goodwill among psychologists around the world.

We will refer to the exceptional work started by a small number of women psychologists more than seventy years ago in the United States and later projected all over the world, who decided that the society could benefit from the contribution of a science whose main objective is to enhance the development of a healthy society. The career as psychologist was difficult for women in the United States. In 1910 there were only 22 women enlisted as psychologists (Scarborough, Furumuto, 1986/1995) and who were included in the first edition of American Men of Science, (Catell) and appeared as members of the APA. Women who desired to join the career of psychologists faced strange opposition from society and family and were forced to choose between a career and marriage. (Furumoto, 1995). Despite social forces, they pursued their efforts and continued winning their place in the history of psychology.

In 1941 the moment was crucial. The Second World War was on
Facing a conflictive world in 1941

and millions were suffering its consequences. Florence Goodenogh and her students decide to found an organization to contribute to the war effort. Thus, on November 25th, 1941, the NATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN PSYCHOLOGISTS was founded. NCWP was faced with problems from the beginning. However, the group started working and even a research was published on “Different sex roles in planning post-world” (G. Seward, 1944), which at present would be considered to have a feminist approach. There was a strong opposition of the group to be considered feminists, and even Florence Goodenogh declared “I am a psychologist, not a woman psychologist.” (Stevens & Gardner, 1982, p. 195).

In 1946, other psychologists from Canada were interested in belonging to the organization, so the name was changed to ICWP (International Council of Women Psychologists). In 1960, a group of colleagues recognize the important work of the Council and convince the Board of Directors to accept psychologists of both sexes, changing the name to International Council of Psychologists (I.C.P. Inc.).

Five Focus Goals implement the mission of I:CP: Inc.: 1) To foster scientific leadership in issues prevalent on the universal agenda. 2) To enrich professional communication among psychologists. 3) To share psychological knowledge and experience through conferences and workshops. 4) To encourage the use of psychological knowledge for a healthy and supportive global environment. 5) To work with organizations to inform and educate about human rights, well-being and development of potential.

ICP. Inc., has participated at major international conferences offering workshops and lectures and supporting resolutions for presentations at the General Assembly of the UN and at conferences sponsored by the UN Council in New York, Geneva, Vienna, World Summits on Women, Conference on Population, among others. During the 1960s, ICP added a membership category, Professional Affiliates, to be able to include those with academic training in other disciplines who shared ICP’s global perspective and values for the universality of science, human rights and well being.
In 1970, the first meeting outside of the U.S.A. takes place in Tel Aviv, starting an important trend of carrying our message throughout the world. In 1976, the first non-American psychologist Lisette Fanchon was President Elect and the I.C.P. Conference was held at the Sorbonne, in Paris, France.

The Organizational Governance and Structure was established with an Executive and Administrative powers and responsibilities, consisting of a Board of Directors of 12 members and a Secretary General. Standing, non-standing and professional concerns committees were established as well as liaison correspondents and interest groups. The elected officers are: President, President Elect (Since 1975). Secretary and Treasurer were used until 1965.

During its existence, I.C.P., Inc. has been able to reach many countries, universities and colleagues, always finding support. I.C.P. has had AREA CHAIRS in the following countries and regions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUSTRALIA</th>
<th>JORDAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AUSTRIA</td>
<td>JAPAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARGENTINA</td>
<td>MALTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOTSWANA</td>
<td>MEXICO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRAZIL</td>
<td>CENTRAL AMERICA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CANADA</td>
<td>NEW ZEALAND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARIBBEAN</td>
<td>PAKISTAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COLOMBIA</td>
<td>ROMANIA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EGYPT</td>
<td>PHILIPPINES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REAL BRITAIN</td>
<td>RUSSIA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITALY</td>
<td>SINGAPORE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISRAEL</td>
<td>SPAIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDIA</td>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDONESIA</td>
<td>SOUTH WEST CHINA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NORTH EAST CHINA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WESTERN INDIA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The early annual meetings of the International Council of Women Psychologists were held in conjunction with the annual meetings of the American Psychological Association. The first full membership
meeting outside the United States was arranged by Victor Sauna, then President-Elect. It was held in Tel Aviv, Israel, in August 1970.

In 1976 it was decided that the Annual Conventions would be organized outside North America in even numbered years. That pattern has been followed to date (with a few exceptions), and meetings are held near the location and date of one of the quadrennial congresses--either the International Congress of Psychology (held by IUPsyS) or the International Congress of Applied Psychology (held by IAAP). Some of the Conventions and Meetings were in conjunction with APA. In 1984, the Convention took place in Mexico City, prior IUPS, organized by Elisa Margaona, President of ICP, 1986-87.


**Innovative Leadership**
I.C.P. Inc., was the first psychology association founded by women. The first to establish liaison connections with other professional groups to promote professional services, for instance children’s summer villages; sending journals to universities with limited library facilities; the SHARE registry for traveling psychologists to connect with psychologists in the countries they visited. The first to present white-paper statements to the International Union of Psychological Sciences. The first to develop a formal statement of alliance for sharing administrative benefits for members with the International Association of Applied psychology; and more.
ICP’s initial pioneering concern was for women, their role in the profession, their rights and well-being in societies and it was maintained when the membership was opened to all psychologists by establishing a Committee on Special Interests of Women. Today, ICP’s most long standing and prestigious annual award is given for outstanding contributions to feminist / gender research. This award, the Gunwald-Denmark Award, is ICP’s tribute to their courageous women founders who found a way to take steps beyond the social “mold” and restrictions of 1940s and use their knowledge to take part in the fight against violence and genocide.

**Building Community among International Associations and Disciplines**

In the 1970s, under Joe Matarazzo’s leadership, ICP began to support a central office, called a Secretariat, which was managed by a volunteer Secretary General, Frances Mullen, followed by Georgia Adams of New York. Some of the first distinguished ICP Presidents were Florence Goodenough, ICP President, (1942-43); Psi.Chi. (1945-47); Lillian Portenier (Psi Chi, 1949-52; ICP, 1951-52), and Allan G. Barclay (Psi Chi, 1970-74; ICP, 1977-78).

The 1980s were again highlight years in the history of ICP’s risk taking, pioneering spirit. Members completed the time-consuming procedures for admission as a Non-Governmental Organization to the United Nations Economic and Social Council and Department of Public Information, and for offering continuing education workshops with credits from the American Psychological Association. The ICP Board moved to establish a Committee on Human Rights of Psychologists and to coordinate conference sites with the International Union of Psychological Science (IUPsyS) and the International Association of Applied Psychology (IAAP), the only two international associations of psychologists established earlier than ICP.

The years between those alternating congresses, ICP would meet near the APA where annual. Occasional alternative sites were selected to take the ICP program and members into regions where scientific psychology conferences had never been held. The financial deficits
were covered by holding conferences the next years in regions where many universities and psychologists could attend.

**Golden Anniversary: A Festschrift**
During the 1990s, ICP began celebrating its golden anniversary under the guidance of President Florence Denmark with the Council’s first organizational development event, a futuring and strategic planning workshop [O’Roark & Griesinger, IP, 33,1, p. 4-5]. Of the nearly 150 ideas generated, top priority was given to reworking and updating the ICP Mission Statement and operational documents. To commemorate the event, a handbook was published with chapters written by ICP members from every part of the world (Gielen, Adler, & Milgram, Eds., 1992). It declared a victory in achieving its mission while mentioning 92 other international psychological associations, 89 of which were younger than ICP and pointing to psychological research findings that suggest that organizations exist only for 34 years. ICP has doubled that life expectancy. In 2010, the ICP Board once again addressed the future in a strategic planning workshop. The conclusion of the golden anniversary was publication of a handbook: *Psychology in international perspective: 50 years of the International Council of Psychologists* (Gielen, Adler, & Milgram, Eds., 1992, Taylor & Francis).

An Early Career Research Award was established, conceptualized near a light house in Nova Scotia during the Halifax conference by three past presidents [Denmark(USA), Spielberger (USA), & Macnab(Australia)], drafted and submitted to the Board by O’Roark (USA), and, subsequently, named for two well-loved ICP members, Seisoh Sukemune [Japan] and Bruce Bain [Canada]. An international project indicative of the “guanxi” spirit of ICP’s face-to-face international collaboration on an activity of mutual professional interest.

**Some distinguished pioneers.**
Who were the psychologists and enterprising women who started this important contribution to the psychological science? We will
name a few, as homage to the hundreds maybe thousands of them, who with their efforts and even their own means, accomplished so much. Most important of all, I.C.P. Inc. has created a group of friends with ideals and ethics that we hope will project in the future for many more years.

Margaret Ives (1903-2000).
She worked primarily in hospitals and courts, practicing psychotherapy with nurses and forensic patients and building internship and research programs. After working at the Ford Hospital in Detroit and helping children at the school in Elizabeth, New Jersey, she became head of the Psychology Department of St. Elizabeth’s Hospital in Washington D.C. She became the executive officer of the American Board of Professional Psychologists. She administered the American Board of Psychologists from 1977 to 1981. Dr. Ives was a lecturer and adjunct professor of psychology at George Washington University from 1945 to 1970. She also was an advisor to the D.C. Mental Health Association. Her honors included the Superior Service Award of the old Department of Health, Education and Welfare, the Harold Hildreth Memorial Award of the Division of Psychologist[s] in Public Service of the American Psychological Association and the Distinguished Psychologist Award of the American Board of Forensic Psychology. Dr. Ives was a fellow of the American Psychological Association, the American Association for the Advancement of Science. She was a member of the D.C. and Virginia Psychological associations, the American Association of University Women, Common Cause and Mount Vernon Unitarian Church in Alexandria. (THE WASHINGTON POST - 20 July 2000 Page B5, Section: Metro.)

Florence Denmark. PhD.
When students around the world take a course in the psychology of women, they have Florence Denmark to thank. A pioneer in women’s studies, Denmark’s contributions to her profession have made the field of psychology a more informed and just place for new therapists of all varieties to work and thrive.
Florence was a very active President of I.C.P., supported resolutions for presentations at the General Assembly of the UN and at conferences sponsored by the UN Council in New York, Geneva, Vienna and World Summits on Women.

While she was always interested in research on women’s leadership, Denmark credits Virginia Staudt Sexton as being the person who influenced her to become more active in the field (Denmark, 2008). Sexton encouraged her to join many different organizations and through her inspiration, Denmark succeeded in becoming president of the New York State Psychological Association (NYSPA) and the New York Academy of Sciences.

In 1969, she was also one of the founding members of the Association for Women in Psychology (AWP), an organization whose objective at that time was to target unjust employment practices within the American Psychological Association (Denmark, 2008; Tiefer, 1991). Around this same time, students at the City University of New York requested a course on the psychology of women (Denmark, 2008). Although their initial request was rejected, the course was eventually approved and Denmark became the first professor to teach psychology of women at the doctorate level. She also co-wrote several texts that are considered foundational to women’s studies such as Women’s Realities, Women’s Choices (1983). She went on to become the third president of the Division of the Psychology of Women of the APA (PSFT, 2011). She was also the fifth woman, and the first Jewish woman to be president of the APA in the years 1981-1982. (Unger, 2009).

In addition to the APA, she has also been president of the Eastern Psychological Association, NYSPA, and Psi Chi (Social Psychology Network, 2011).

When asked about her effective leadership style, Denmark recalled a friend who described her as an “iron fist in the velvet glove”. She felt she was able to use her femininity and gentleness as strengths (Denmark, 2008). Work with ethnic minorities has also been a lifelong passion for Denmark. While working at Queens College in
the 1960’s, she and colleague Marcia Guttentag conducted a study at a local school where they were able to demonstrate positive effects of integration for both African American and White students. She was also the director of the Search for Education, Elevation, and Knowledge program, a program which was designed to support low income students. As of 2008, she was still a member of the Division of Ethnic Minority Psychology. When asked about the current abundance of women and lack of men in psychology, Denmark remarked it will always be important to maintain a balance and therefore bringing more men and minorities into the field should be a focus in the future. Another interest of Denmark’s is international social issues. (Denmark, 2008).

Florence Denmark has received many awards and honorary degrees for her contributions in every area she has worked, which include the APA’s Distinguished Contributions to Education and Training Award, and the Public Interest and the Advancement of International Psychology Award. In 1986 she received the Association of Women Psychologists Distinguished Creer Award and the Association for Women in Science recognized her as an Outstanding Woman In Science. (Social Psychology Network, 2011).

Ann Marie O’Roark PhD., ABAP.
Ann Marie focused her career on individuals and organizations interested in management and leadership development. In addition to organizational consulting clients, primarily financial, governmental, educational, and healthcare.

She served as President of The International Council of Psychologists, Inc. after completing two terms as Director-at-Large, one-term as Secretary, and five years as Liaison to the International Association of Applied Psychology (IAAP). She was President 2009-2010. President-Elect 2008-2009. Past-President 2010-2011. In the Board of Directors she served as Secretary 1995 1998.

Facing a conflictive world in 1941

Information Committee Co-Chair, Creativity & Personality Interest Group Co-Leader; Awards Committee Chair; Bylaws: Revisions Chair. She currently serves as Editor in Chief for the International Psychologist, Vol 51 & 51, newsletter of the I.C.P. Inc.

A few lines could not describe what Ann O’Roark had done and what she has represented over the years for I.C.P. Inc. She has invested time, brains, experience, personal means and most of all, her love for her profession and for those who considers her peers.

Professional activities. Ann served 15 years as on-call instructional faculty for the American Management Association’s Executive Effectiveness Course, was the consultant who helped establish the Leadership Development Institute at Eckerd College and continues to provide assessment services for the Center for Creative Leadership’s Leadership Development Program offered in Florida. Ann Marie was elected to serve the Society of Consulting Psychology [American Psychological Association (APA), Division 13] as President, Treasurer (2-terms), Fellows Chair, as the first Organizational Renewal/Development Chair, and to represent the division on the APA Council of Representatives. She also served on the Board of The Society for Psychologists in Management. Ann is recognized as a Fellow in Divisions 1, 13, 49, and 52, as well as elected to Fellow status in the Society for Personality Assessment, Inc. She is a Diplomate of the American Board of Assessment Psychology (ABAP) and served on the editorial review board for The Journal of Consulting Psychology: Practice and Research and World Psychology. Her probono professional services included initial Strategic Planning Workshops for Consulting and International Psychology Divisions 13 and 52, and ICP, Inc.; with Paul Lloyd, developing and brokering the Executive Coaching Program offered by Division 13 to APA Presidents and CEO; proposals and implementations for journals for the Society of Personality Association (JPA, Erlbaum), APA Division 13 (APA Educational Publishing Foundation). Updated guidelines
for division Fellows Chairs); and Archives Collections: transfer of Division 13 archives to the new APA Archives.


**Professional Recognitions:** Society of Consulting Psychology: Exemplary Impact Award Division Distinguished Service; International Psychology Division: Distinguished Service Award; Eckerd College Leadership Development Institute: Service Award DOD JTC3A: Service.

**Papers:** NINETY THREE PAPERS (93). Presented from 1982 to 2012 in congresses in the U.S.A., Europe and Mexico.

Facing a conflictive world in 1941

of State Arts Agencies; co-editor of Stress and Emotion, Vol. 15 & 16 (Taylor & Francis); co-editor of The Society of Personality Assessment Fiftieth Anniversary History and Directory (LEA); and co-editor of The International Council of Psychologists 67th, 68th, and 69th Conference Proceedings: International Developments in Scientific Psychology (Shaker Verlag); Psychological Values Around the World (CLEUP, University of Padua); and, Integration of Health and Mental Health in the Context of Culture: Providing Comprehensive Services in Partnership with Allied Professionals (CLEUP, University of Padua).

Elisa Margaona A. PhD.
Career history: 1954 to date: Chairman of the Board and Founder of “Impulsora de Ventas Internacional”, the first company in the world to measure QUALITY OF SERVICE. Chairman of the Board to date: Institute of Higher Studies and Research.


She has trained over 100,000 retailers and executives, participated as a speaker in more than 50 international events in Argentina, Canada, Colombia, Chile, England, Japan, México, Perú, Spain, Uruguay, U.S.A., and Venezuela.


Ana Guil Bozal Ph.D.

Dr. Guil is one of the young pioneers of I.C.P. and she is included in this paper for her work done in Spain in the last ten years. She received her PhD in Social Psychology and since 2002 she has been a full Professor of the University of Sevilla, where she has been a teaching since 1980. She is specialized in Gender, central theme for her research, as well as courses in national and international doctorates.

She is head and responsible for the group of research “Género y Sociedad del Conocimiento” HUM-219, Plan Andaluz I+D. Her contributions are in Gender and Social Psychology (Techos de cristal en la Universidad y en el Sistema de Ciencia y Tecnología; Perspectiva de género en los usos del tiempo; Cambio de estereotipos de género a través de los MCM; Psicólogas pioneras nacionales e internacionales; Prevención de la violencia de género”).

During the last ten years, Ana Guil has being part of the following projects:
Facing a conflictive world in 1941


- Diseño del I Plan Estratégico transversal de formación y empleo para mujeres y hombres del Municipio de La Rinconada. 2013.


- Formación de agentes de igualdad en el oriente cubano. AECID Cuba. 2011-2012.

- Análisis de los procesos de selección, acceso, promoción y desarrollo profesional que se utilizan en la Universidad de Sevilla –PDI y PAS- para detectar factores que favorezcan la discriminación de género indirecta. Unidad para la Igualdad, Universidad de Sevilla. 2010-2011.

- Perspectiva de género en el acceso a titularidades y cátedras en la Universidad de Sevilla. Unidad para la Igualdad, Universidad de Sevilla. 2010-2011.

- Análisis del número de mujeres y hombres de la use –PDI y PAS- que solicitan y disfrutan la baja por maternidad/ paternidad, acogimiento, adopción, lactancia y excedencia después de un nacimiento, así como su repercusión económica. Unidad para la Igualdad, Universidad de Sevilla. 2010-2011.

- Estudio de los elementos que conllevan la discriminación horizontal y vertical de las mujeres -PDI y PAS- en la Universidad de Sevilla. Unidad para la Igualdad, Universidad de Sevilla. 2010-2011.

- Políticas públicas y género. Un programa de acción.

Proyecto conjunto de formación, B/018362/08. Impacto en el sistema de formación del profesorado en materia de géneros. Intercambio entre la Universidad de SEVILLA (España) y la Universidad pedagógica “Enrique J. Varona” (La Habana, Cuba). Agencia española de cooperación para el desarrollo (AECID. PCI 2008-2011.

Convenio de colaboración con el Instituto de Estadística de Andalucía para la realización de estudios sobre la encuesta de empleo del tiempo en Andalucía. Instituto Andaluz de Estadística. 2006-2008.


Publications. Ana Guil’s national and international publications of the last ten years include over forty four papers on in themes such as “The Leadership of Women: A Necessary Change” “Ethics of care: From feminism to the new masculinities” “Experiences in teaching in postgrads” “Gender & Free Time”. “Woman and Science.” “Building networks from mythology to cyberfeminism” “Glass ceiling in the University–cross cultural perspectives” and many other publications on motivation and education. The work of Dr. Guil includes the revision of thesis not only from students of the University of Sevilla but also in cross cultural studies with Mexico.
Facing a conflictive world in 1941

**Professional Recognitions:** She has been a member of I.C.P. Inc. since 1992. Area Chair for Spain and was elected as a Board Member and ICP Leader (2013-2015).

The great contribution of women to psychology and social justice was remembered in the Symposium, chaired by Ana Guil of the University of Seville, Spain, in 2012. Dr. Ana Guil was the organizer of the successful 70th I.C.P. Inc. Conference in Seville.

**Awards and special activities.**

Member of Organizing Committees of numerous national and international congresses.

Member of Expert Group of Women & Science, coordinated by FECYT (2003-04).

Member Y/O President of several Ph.D. thesis courts, in Spanish, Colombian and Cuban Universities.

Member in several committees of scientific reviews and consulting editor.

**Prices for international gender research.**

First price in poster presentation “Exploring gender barriers in the nursing profession” I.C.P. 2006 Congress (Kos, Greece). With Esther Villela.


**FINAL WORDS:** THERE IS A NEED TO CREATE A COMMON DIALOGUE TO TRANSFORM THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE SOCIETY IN POSITIVE BEINGS, WHO RESPECT HUMAN AND CULTURAL RIGHTS. LET US HOPE THAT IN THE FUTURE NEW GENERATIONS OF PSYCHOLOGISTS WITH A FIGHTING AND DEDICATED SPIRIT CONTINUE WITH THE WORK OF I.C.P. INC. FOR MANY YEARS.
References


Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to tackle the educational experiences that originated in the Seminar “Women in the History of Psychology”, which is linked to the course Epistemology and History of Psychology from the first year of the Degree in Psychology at the Rey Juan Carlos University in Madrid. First of all, a description shall be given of the Seminar’s objectives relating to both the nature and competencies of the course, the teaching methodology used, the results, and the learning experiences after evaluating the four academic years in which the seminar has been taught (2009–2013). As a conclusion, there is a reflection on gender equality in education.

Beyond transversal and specific competencies that must be acquired by the students in each of the disciplines, teaching involves both the selection and validation of the practices and processes of knowledge transmission, as well as excluding others. Through socialization, each science establishes and ritualizes a range of knowledge, practices, and conventions as indispensable requirements in order to master a discipline, while ignoring any attempt to question the basis of such culture. On the other hand, teaching any course involves the selection of contents. Such a selection is political and entails a social responsibility as it responds to certain interests (whether they agree with the values of the hegemonic groups or not). As a result, there is a need to
hold a Seminar on the lost history of women pioneers in the field of Psychology, following the critical tradition pertaining to the studies on women in science in its pedagogical version of teaching science from a non-sexist perspective. As for the historiographical version, it is necessary to remember the role of women in science, their names, contributions, forgotten traditions, as well as the exclusion and resistance experiences to which they were subjected as a result of being women living at a certain era. In a discipline that is studied mainly by women, this historical memory is aimed through giving meaning to the past, so as to understand the present and to build a more egalitarian future. Nevertheless, given the nature of the course, the Seminar also fosters an epistemological reflection on both the knowing subject in science in general, and in psychology in particular. The purpose is to make the students question their perception of the scientist-psychologist as a neutral, universal, incorporeal and ahistorical individual. Against the image of “transcendent” masculine minds (knowing subjects) that know feminine natures (objects of knowledge), the aim is to recover the history of women as legitimate knowing subjects (Harding, 1996). This involves reflecting on the connection between the contextual values (among them, the gender values) and the internal cognitive values in science, as well as the link between subjectivity and science (gender identity and scientific identity) (Keller, 1991; Pérez Sedeño, 2005). Finally, against the uncritical indoctrination of future psychologists that only attributes historical authority to a certain knowing subject, the goal is to politicize the history of psychology by making it more inclusive and diverse. This is carried out through partial, contextualized reconstructions with a clear commitment to equality, especially gender equality, but not exclusively (Bohan, 1992; Harris, 1997).

Teaching Goals
This Seminar intends to develop certain transversal competencies listed in the Psychology Degree report concerning the Spanish context: personal competencies related to diversity recognition, critical reasoning, and ethical commitment, and other competencies
such as social commitment or awareness of social injustices (gender inequalities in this specific case). On the other hand, it is an attempt to give an effective response to the necessary transversal incorporation of gender studies in higher education, as stipulated in the national regulations currently in force, such as the Spanish Act for Effective Equality between Women and Men, passed in 2007.

The general goal of the subject Epistemology and History of Psychology is to know the features of scientific knowledge, and how Psychology became a science. To that end, the basic premise is that knowing history is essential to approaching science, since the evolution of ideas and knowledge is closely linked to the individuals (communities) who promote them, and to the times in which they occur. Any knowledge is situated (Haraway, 1995), and both its inception and its meaning depend on the intellectual, epistemological, cultural, and social conditions of the people who carry out these activities, as well as on the historical context in which it is embedded. Therefore, one of the course’s specific objectives is to know both the theoretical and social elements that are part of the scientific creation process. Another objective is to know how historical phenomena and the schools of thought of each period have influenced the development of Psychology as a scientific discipline. This Seminar contextualizes the origins of Psychology’s status as a science in late 19th century, at a time when scientific professionalization and the first initiatives toward the admission of women into the university began. These first steps toward equality triggered considerable social opposition, based on discourses that naturalize sexual differences in mental features, and women’s mental inferiority. It also used to be assumed that women’s admission to the university would be physically, socially, and morally inappropriate (García Dauder, 2005). This way, the students are able to locate the origins of Psychology in a social epistemic context, which allows them to understand the difficulties that women encounter when they intend to get involved in scientific production, and more specifically in Psychology. Moreover, students also understand the relevance of the contribution of pioneering women psychologists so as to
debunk the myths about female nature. This is to develop another specific competence, namely the acquisition and implementation of critical thought, which allows them to examine and assess the concepts, theories, methodologies, and tools used in each period and in each specific field of Psychology. In particular, the objective is to help students approach critically both the disciplines’ teaching and its socialization by means of textbooks that “naturalize” history as a linear and cumulative process through uncritical repetition. The students, therefore, become familiar with other critical and more inclusive contextual histories so that they can reflect on the connection between the external factors and internal contents of Science and Psychology.

To conclude, the Seminar’s specific goals are the following:

1. Make the students aware that women have been ignored as scientific knowing subjects.

2. Make the students aware of their own gender biases when it comes to representing prototypes of professional psychologists.

3. Foster reflection on the reasons behind the fact that women have been forgotten, so that the students can detect gender-biased and discriminatory practices in the historical selection mechanisms of the renowned psychologists.

4. Foster critical reflection on how history is constructed, and make the students aware of other marginal histories.

5. Make the students become familiar with the pioneering women psychologists as well as with their contributions (once they have identified their absence in historical textbooks).

6. Foster reflection on the possible consequences of such absence, with special focus on the epistemological ones.

**Teaching Methodology**

As stated before, the Seminar is made up of five practice-based activities and a presentation of contents. It is taught in a single four-hour session. Assessment is carried out throughout the seminar.
by discussing the different activities and filling out a form with a series of questions.

Fifteen days before the seminar, the course’s professor will ask the students to do the following activity (it is essential that the students do not associate the activity with the seminar itself in order to avoid possible biases):

**Practice No. 1: “The Sign”**

A sign is going to be made in order to advertise a conference on the relationship between several disciplines. It should include a photograph of four people (the photographs can be taken from any source):

1. - A psychologist
2. - A physician
3. - A philosopher
4. - An anonymous person whose job is not known

We need you to send us a picture of each one. On top of that, you must pose a question on behalf of each of those four people, which should be related to the theme of the conference and will be addressed to one of the others. Send us the pictures of each individual (1, 2, 3, and 4) all along with the questions, and specify to whom each question is addressed.

Once the Seminar begins and the presentation has been made, the signs will be collected and put on display. The students will be asked to take a look at all of the signs. As it was pointed out in the “Goals” section, the aim of this practice is to help the students reflect on their prototypes of scientific professionals, and especially of psychology professionals, so that they consider the consequences of portraying the psychology professional homogeneously as a white man, which is the most common case. Using pictures allows the students to perceive more clearly the physical depiction of each professional subject. After discussion, the questionnaire will be handed out, and the students will be asked to answer the first eight questions on their own. Later, the answers will be pooled and discussed.
Practice No. 2: “Survey and Joint Reflection”

1. If you have previously studied Psychology, Philosophy, or any other scientific course, have you ever wondered about the sex of the authors? Yes/No

2. In the case that you have studied Psychology or Philosophy previously, what approximate percentage of men and women authors do you know?
   
   | Men  | %   | Women | %   |

3. Were you surprised by such percentages? Yes/No

4. Have you ever wondered about the reason behind these percentages? Yes/No

5. Write the name of five psychologists you have studied.

6. Do you know if there were any women in the origins of psychology? Yes/No

7. Can you mention any names? Can you describe their contributions to psychology?

8. Do you associate women psychologists with any particular field in psychology? If so, what is that field?

The goal of these questions is to make the students aware that women’s role in science, and especially in psychology, has traditionally been ignored, so that they begin to wonder about the possible reasons for the lack of women in the socialization process of psychology. The third practice is related to the latter. In order to carry it out, the professor will take to the classroom as many textbooks as possible of History of Psychology, and some others of Introduction to Psychology. These textbooks will be borrowed from the university library. The class will be divided into as many groups as the number of available textbooks. Each group will be given a textbook and will be asked to find several women psychologists, and describe their contributions to the discipline cited in that particular book. What is intended with this activity is to raise awareness, as they see it by themselves, of the fact that women are ignored in the textbooks of History of Psychology. Afterwards, a critical reflection will be undertaken on the reasons behind their absence.
The second objective is to identify the few women psychologists mentioned in the textbooks as well as their contributions. When doing the exercise, questions may arise about the impossibility of knowing the authors’ sex just by looking at their surnames or their initials (as a result of the scientific publication normative). The students will be encouraged to reflect on the consequences of such practices, which not only lead to the invisibility of women, but also to the attribution of authorship to men by default. After reviewing the textbooks, the students will be asked to answer the following four questions:

**Practice No. 3: “Textbooks”**

9. - How many women are mentioned in the History of Psychology textbook that you have analyzed? Write the book’s reference and the figure or the approximate percentage.

10. - Do you think that it portrays the historical reality accurately? Yes/No

11. - Write the names and contributions of the women psychologists you have found.

12. - Why do you think there are so few women in the History of Psychology textbooks? Think of several possible reasons.

Once they have taken note of the absence of women in the textbooks, and have answered the question on the possible reasons, the students will have a brief break. Afterwards, the “theoretical presentation” will begin, which deals with the role of women in science in general, and with the pioneering women psychologists in particular. As stated before, the goal is to make the students aware that there were actually women in the origins of Psychology, and help them learn women’s names and contributions to the discipline. The intention is to replace the idea of women being absent in the origins of Psychology with the idea of women being forgotten (Bohan, 1992). Nevertheless, beyond remembering relevant names, dates, and theories, the aim is to explain history in its social context, prompting an epistemological reflection about how the legitimate knowing subject of a discipline is constituted, as well as the effects that it may have in the kind of psychological knowledge that is developed. The history of women in the origins of psychology
is presented on “their own terms”, to which some historians have referred as “her/story” as opposed to history, describing experiences and specific situations which the pioneering women psychologists had to endure due to their status as women (Lerner, 1992). Against the myth of objectivity and meritocracy in science, and also against the argument that women are not mentioned in the textbooks because there were none, and that there were none as they did not deserve it, the Seminar describes the social conditions and gender inequalities that restricted their scientific careers.

The presentation is divided into several blocks: it starts with a “Did you know that…?” section in which a series of remarkable data are given concerning different kinds of discrimination experienced by women pioneers (among others, that they were not allowed to join the most important universities, or were only admitted as “special students”), together with other data about their outstanding achievements, such as the fact that two of them managed to become presidents of the American Psychological Association early in the 20th century. This brief section intends to surprise the students, motivate them, and make them aware that there were indeed renowned women psychologists in the origins of the discipline, women pioneers who were acknowledged by their contemporary men counterparts, and who made significant contributions despite sexual segregation and episodes of discrimination (Scarborough & Furumoto, 1987; García Dauder, 2005). The next section’s goal is to explain the different ways in which exclusion occurs: ideological, institutional, and subjective. It also describes a common view at the time, also defended by their male counterparts, concerning the unsuitability of higher education and professional careers for women. In order to do that, quotes are used from the classic psychologists themselves stating that women cannot or must not study, as well as the arguments they made, and also examples of sexism and misogyny in Psychology. Subsequently, the institutional mechanisms of exclusion are described, among which was the fact that the main universities hampered women from joining the lessons, only admitted them as “special students,” did not grant official recognition to women’s doctorate degrees,
hindered them from working as psychologists in the academia (especially if they were married), and assigned them the applied areas of psychology, which used to be associated with women, and were therefore undervalued, marginalized, and excluded from the history of the discipline. Finally, several subjective mechanisms are presented that hindered the beginning and development of these women pioneers’ career: the dilemma of marriage vs. career, the family imperative demands, and the struggle between their gender identity and their professional identity. The involvement of women in science is seen as a “contradiction in terms” (Rossiter, 1992): being women and meeting the values and standards of womanhood while being scientists and meeting the androcentric values and standards of science (objectivity, control, and domination).

The goal of this section is to make the students aware of how relevant the social context is in the study of the history of science (the context of the beginning of psychology as a science, and also the context of those who write the discipline’s history), so that they learn how social conditions affect scientists and scientific production. The second block of the presentation tries to recover the most important pioneering women psychologists as well as their contributions, but also “feminine” traditions that have been forgotten by the discipline’s history. This is due to the fact that they have been developed from applied fields or interdisciplinary fields far from the academic circles that usually grant official recognition to what is regarded as deserving of being part of the discipline’s history. In this way, this section presents the different individual and collective mechanisms of resistance employed by the pioneering women psychologists to be able to continue with their careers despite the exclusions, and to produce psychological knowledge. Particular emphasis is placed on a pioneer scientific feminism originally started by these women, who used science, and psychology in particular, to debunk the myths existing in the discipline about the mental differences between the sexes and the mental inferiority of women. The Seminar also highlights the unsung role of the pioneering women psychologists in the development of a more accurate approach to the study of sex differences, while they
also emphasized the ignored importance of the social environment when it comes to explaining those differences, and also their commitment to interdisciplinarity (Scarborough & Furumoto, 1987; García Dauder, 2005).

As previously stated, the aim of this presentation is to help the students learn that there were women in the origins of psychology even though they are not mentioned in the textbooks, and that their contributions were acknowledged by their male counterparts. But beyond that, the goal is to make the students aware of how important the social context is in scientific production, to help them learn the social conditions that enabled or restricted the career progression of women psychologists, and finally, to make students reflect on the intersection of gender, knowledge, and recognition policies when it comes to defining the discipline.

Once this presentation has been carried out, the students will be asked to answer the following two questions, and then to subsequently come together and discuss the answers:

**Practice No. 4: “Survey and Joint Reflection”**

13. Do you think that the textbooks’ approach to psychology is affected by the fact that women have been largely ignored in the history of psychology? Yes/No

If so, how is it reflected?

14. As a psychology student, do you think that you are influenced by the fact that there are not women psychologists? Yes/No

If so, how is it reflected?

This time, the objective is to reflect on the possible consequences that may result from the lack of women in the history of psychology. On the one hand, the pedagogical consequences: the importance of models, the attribution of authority, etc.; but also the epistemological consequences: whether the absence of certain groups in science affects its quality, and more specifically, whether and how the knowing subject’s sex/gender is epistemologically relevant, and how. By extension, it is about reflecting on the relationship between
democracy and objectivity in science in general and in psychology in particular.

Finally, after the joint discussion, Practice No. 5 intends to be an assessment of the learning undertaken throughout the Seminar by examining each answer individually, and by doing a brief exercise on the knowledge about women psychologists and their contributions.

Practice No. 5: “Learning Assessment” and “Like Seeks Like”
15. Now that the seminar is over, explain briefly if you would answer differently questions 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14, and add any comment you wish.
16. Practice “like seeks like,” in which the students are presented with two columns: in the first one there is a series of women psychologists’ names, whereas in the second one there are several contributions to the discipline. The students are asked to match each name with the contribution she made.

The Seminar ends with an open question period and final comments. To conclude, the guides that have been used to evaluate the seminar are collected.

Teaching Experiences and Reflections
The Seminar’s main outcome is not so much the learning of content, but rather a heightened awareness, and by generalization, the development of critical thinking. This heightened awareness is the result of an experiential learning process: first, the practice dealing with the sign raises awareness of the professional male psychologist prototype (in the previous years, around 90% of the seminar’s students chose the photograph of a white man around 50 years old and, in many cases, with a beard). Second, the students become aware of the absence of women in the textbooks of History of Psychology. They encountered many difficulties finding a woman in them, and if they did, the women appeared relegated to secondary sections about “diversity in psychology.” Despite the fact that according to the statistics students of psychology
are predominantly women, not only are women ignored in the textbooks, but also the current professional psychologist prototype continues to be a man. The presentation of theoretical content prompts surprise and also raises awareness of the androcentric myth that Psychology is a field with no women in it. Likewise, the presentation shows that women have largely been a “carefully guarded secret” by the discipline, so they ended up being forgotten (Scarborough & Furumoto, 1987). Finally, the students become aware through collective discussion of a socialization process that not only excludes women as historical knowing subjects, but also fails to miss their absence. The collective discussion about the prototypes or current models of professional psychologists allows dealing with an uncritical perception of the discipline’s linear progress in which inequalities belong to the past. This happens, for instance, when the students discuss the egalitarian implications of whether there are models of women in science or not, particularly when they take into consideration their own professional expectations and aspirations, and their acknowledgment of the scientific authority on the basis of gender.

The Seminar also enables an analysis of the epistemological part of the course, especially when the students are asked about how the process of defining psychology can be affected by the absence of women. The students deliver mainly two kinds of answers that make it possible to discuss the different stances on the epistemological relevance of the knowing subject’s sex/gender. On the one hand, the empiricist argument denies the relevance of sex/gender, as the scientific ideal is a neutral and objective subject whose sex should not be relevant, and therefore is not relevant, to scientific production. On the other hand, the essentialist argument maintains that the knowing subject’s sex has an influence, since women and men have “different ways of knowing”. Therefore, the absence of women affects the definition of psychology and, consequently, a greater presence of women would result in a different psychology. The seminar allows the critical discussion of both positions and offers a framework to reflect on the relations between a more objective science and a more democratic and egalitarian science.
According to our teaching experience, the Seminar contributes to developing a more egalitarian education not only because it stresses the need for a more egalitarian history, but also because it is a good way of raising awareness among the students on current gender inequalities in psychology, together with other kinds of inequality related to race, social class, or nationality. Despite the legislation currently in force on gender equality, the Seminar covers a type of training that is generally ignored in the socialization process of scientific disciplines. Furthermore, the Seminar develops a series of transversal competencies related to critical thinking that can also be applied to other fields, which are not only academic, but also social. The Seminar’s structure could be applied to any history course in any other scientific discipline.

To conclude, it is worth commenting on a remark made by a student after finishing the Seminar: he did not understand why women psychologists were not included as part of the history course syllabus, and why their contributions had to be studied in a supplementary activity instead. This question reflects the current paradoxical situation in which it will be necessary to recover women psychologists as legitimate knowing subjects in seminars or in marginal books where they are specifically identified “as women” until their contributions are widely acknowledged.

In conclusion, in a discipline that is studied mostly by women, it is highly discriminatory that women psychologists are ignored in the History of Psychology socializing textbooks, especially as it is a fact that women psychologists have played a major role in the discipline. Likewise, as it was pointed out before, it is not enough to reclaim women psychologists and their contributions, and certainly not in the “diversity” or “did you know that…?” sections of introductory textbooks. The paradox of this Seminar is that the history of women in psychology is still often portrayed as the Other history. The following step must be to centrally reclaim women psychologists and their contributions to de the discipline, while giving them the place they deserve in their historical context. In this way we will all be able to build up a genealogy, understand
the present, and learn from the past in order to construct a more egalitarian psychology.

**Bibliographic references:**


Psychology of Women within the Spanish Academic Environment, History and nowadays

Concepción Fernández Villanueva, Ph\textsuperscript{16} 
Universidad Complutense de Madrid (Spain)

Abstract
The aim of this paper is to describe the contribution of women to Psychology within the academic sphere in Spain, from the beginning of the 20\textsuperscript{th} century until now. These pioneer women got involved in Psychology coming from the Pedagogy and Education fields; helped by male colleagues or partners. Throughout the second half of the 20\textsuperscript{th} century, women got into all areas of Psychology, although more frequently in certain disciplines such as Psycho-diagnosis, Child Psychology and Psycho-pedagogy, Developmental Psychology, and also Education. This engagement was a consequence of the stereotypes and the differentiation of gender roles that facilitates professional dedication on the areas related to the female traditional role. Social invisibilization, lack of recognition, randomness in the factors to be promoted and a high identity costs are common elements in both past and recent history that even nowadays, are still influencing women in Psychology within the academic world.

1.- The pioneers. Contributions prior to the establishment of Psychology as an academic career.
Women’s presence in Psychological Science is extensive among both students and professors/researchers. Psychology is a discipline whose \textit{social imaginary} is related to gender’s stereotypes and it is close to the representation of the feminine archetype. The analysis

\textsuperscript{16} Translated by Laura Romero Delgado.
of specific competencies in Psychology’s Degree Programs and Curricula shows a presence of skills linked more specifically to gender stereotypical features, e.g., the interest in interpersonal relationships, communication skills and the observation ability of interpersonal relationships. There is also a connection with some features stereotypically masculine, such as decision making, but feminine attributes are the most noticeable in a proportion of 75% to 25% . (Rodriguez y Porto, 2012)

Psychology was established as an academic discipline in Spain in the late 70s. Prior to this period, the psychological knowledge was developed and applied in the fields of Education and Pedagogy. Therefore, the presence of the pioneers in the construction of the Psychological Science cannot be understood without the existence of other pioneer women who previously contributed with all their knowledge, initiative and their ability to make Psychology valuable in disciplines of substantial application in which they already had gained recognition.

During the Civil War (the 30s) and also in the post-war time (the 40s), women with background in Education and Pedagogy contributed with all their knowledge to the fields of Psycho-diagnosis, Evolutionary Psychology and treatments. That knowledge came from their academic training in Spain as well as foreign countries. The common features of all these women allow us to know many psychosocial aspects of that time, their professional careers and let us understand the later eras up to now. Concepción Saiz de Otero, Regina Lago, Dolores Gonzalez Blanco, Maria Luisa Navarro and Mercedes Rodrigo are the most relevant ones. All of them worked on the Psychology applied to Education and Professional Courses, with the exception of Concepción Saiz de Otero, who worked on Developmental Psychology and based her work on the Female Culture. Another personality that deserves recognition is Maximina Pilar Diaz-Peñalver, who set up the first bureau of psycho-pedagogical advice for Secondary Education. Over two decades (1955-1970), the objective of this bureau was to measure the academic ability of the female students of the secondary school “Isabel La Católica”; the girls were also provided with tools to help their learning and any other personal demand to the most needed ones. Also, María Soriano should be added to this series. She created an educational project about Psycho-Pedagogy in the Escuela Central de Anormales (Central School for Abnormal people) in Madrid.
All of these women have characteristics in common; they all came from an upper-middle class background and had studied Primary Education. Their connection with the academic world can be explained by certain aspects of their personal lives, such as the fact that some of them were married to well-known professionals in the field of the Education. Males close to psychology related professions were of enormous importance in the development of these women’s careers. The contribution of these women could not be possible without the support and acknowledgement of those husbands, fathers, team directors and other influential person in their lives.

Sprung(1996) identifies different patterns of inclusion into the academic world which allow us to understand better these pioneer women’s avatars. The first one is called Model of “Couple: This group is made up of women who were married to well-known professionals in the field of Education and consequently, have become part of the scientific staff. In this typology, we have three of the most important pioneers: Regina Lago (married to Juan Comas), María Luisa Navarro and Lorenzo Luzuriaga, and Dolores González Blanco and Tomas Samper. The second model is called Model “staff member”, which includes people that have been promoted as they are part of a renowned and relevant team. This is the case of Mercedes Rodrigo and María Soriano. The third model is called “independent”. In this model, the women progressed in their careers by themselves, without any help. They even went abroad on their own; they are not linked to any team work nor related to any relevant person. As an example, Concepción Saiz de Otero and Maximina Pilar Díaz Peñalver. Similar to the Model of “Couple” is the Model “Father-daughter”; in this case the father promotes his own daughter’s academic life. There is no example of this model among the discipline of Psychology in Spain.

The academic training in Europe, facilitated by the role of their companions, was a mechanism of resistance to the existing exclusion in Spanish academic life. Nevertheless, the training scholarships of all these women were announced exclusively in fields traditionally feminine. This fact will define their professional careers later on as they were biased

---

towards the educational sphere, the diagnosis and the application to Pathological Child Psychology.

At that time, the possibility of accessing to the academic psychology depended on the following factors:

1.- The struggle of getting Psychology acknowledged as a science. At this point, it should be emphasised a structural dimension that affects not only women but to all professionals and scientists. Psychological Science made its own way ahead of Pedagogy and Philosophy, at the expense of making an effort to legitimise its situation. That attitude has been upheld throughout the 20th century.

2.- The sexist barriers to access to any scientific discipline and also to the academic world in general.

3.- The strong presence of gender stereotypes that led spontaneously women to the areas of care and interpersonal relationships, and men to the world of material and work productivity.

As a result of those possibility conditions, the significance of female psychologists increases in the areas of Developmental Psychology, Socialisation, Child Psychology, Psycho-diagnosis and Child Therapy. Female Psychologists qualified better for jobs related to the areas they had previous experience on. Due to these conditions, transformed into barriers – both external and internal, since in many cases they had been interiorised through socialisation- it is very likely that women did not feel discriminated with regard to their male colleagues in terms of recognition. Probably, women were so glad with the idea of publishing that appearing as second author was not an issue, even if it was their own work. This was the case of Mercedes Rodrigo, a Psychological Test expert who was educated in France with the authors of the Terman Test and other specialist in Psycho-diagnosis. She appeared as second author in a book written in association with Germain, whose psychological training could not be compared with our female author’s, highly superior by far. Her secondary placement in the record of scientific
activities, push her into the background in what has been called as “grey literature”, which only appears on specialised researches, as in the case of this paper.

2. From the second half of the 20th century to the present.
Reviewing the contributions in scientific conferences, papers in specialised journals and teaching we can confirm that there has been a slow incorporation of female specialists throughout fifty years. The Psychology’s big start in Spain took place during the 70s, parallel to the development and creation of Faculties and academic careers of Psychology at Universities. Until this period, in which also journals used to get specialised in diverse subjects, there was only one renowned journal: “General and Applied Psychology”. Women that appear as big producers on this journal have preferably dedicated themselves to subjects related to Education/Teaching and Child Psychology, as it can be appreciated on the Curriculum Vitae of the seven women who are between the most productive authors (Alcain Portearroyo y Ruiz- Galvez, 1998): Elena García Alcañiz (Educational and Developmental Psychology), Rocío Fernández Ballesteros (Psychological Evaluation and Psychogerontology), Paloma Chorot (Child Diagnosis), Gabriela Gribz (Motivation, General Psychology and Methodology), Pilar Ferrandis López (Learning and Pedagogy), Soledad Ballesteros (Basic Psychological Processes) and Isabel Barbero García (Methodology, Factorial Analysis and Psychometrics).

In the 80s the male predominance in Psychological Science’s production is confirmed, (around 80 per cent in scientific meetings, like the I National Congress of Social Psychology, Granada 1985). It should be emphasised that it is a low visibility presence, which relegates the production to second or third authors. According to its Minutes Book, 5 out of the 14 women that talked in the congress were second authors. On the contrary, there is only one case in which a man is the second author whereas a woman is the first author in a paper. In the congresses of Social Psychology organised the following years (Iñiguez, Muñoz, Peñaranda & Martínez 2006),
the presence is slightly equal although there is a high percentage of authors whose gender is not identified. From the 90s onwards a new journal is published: *Psicotema*. It will gain reputation nationally as well as internationally due to the impact caused. The research about female participation in this journal from 1989 to 2008 reveals that lately there has been an important increase in the number of women, however there is still an imbalance in relation to the productivity and the authorship order. Over this period, female authorship has been increased from 35% to 46% but the number of women decreases as the productivity threshold increases. The number of papers with only one signature published by males is three times higher than the ones published by females. If we refer to the work with two authors, males are still more represented; in papers with three or more authors the difference in gender is quite small. Among the big papers, there is only a 28% of female presence. Finally, in relation to the signatures order, it should be highlighted the fact that the highest percentage of female authors have intermediate category jobs. A research carried out the same year, shows that male’s production is higher than females’ in terms of papers and academic journals, included in the *Journal Citation Reports*, as well as in quotes on those papers. The research analyses the differences between investigation output of academic civil servants and research staff from Psychology departments in Spain. The study includes the six areas in which Psychology is divided: Basic, Educational, Methodology, Personality, Evaluation and Psychological Treatment, Psychobiology and Social Psychology (Olivas et al 2012). Women’s lower production, in comparison to males’, occurs in Basic Psychology and Social Psychology. The smallest difference between male and female production happens in Psychobiology, Educational Psychology and Personality Psychology, in that order. In general, across all areas in Psychology, women publish less than men and appear less in quotes on national and international papers. Their research shows that the representation by gender in the channels of visibility and the consumption of most valuable scientific products is clearly different, 37,9 women and 62.1 men (Torres Salinas et
al ,2011). The female representation within the academic careers exposes the factors of inequality that are still operating within the Spanish university environment (Guil, Solano y Alvarez, 2005 ). The production and the recognition of teaching are higher among males, especially in the areas of Basic Psychology, Methodology in Behavioural Science and Social Psychology, in a proportion of 70:30 per cent. So far, women have been judged by tribunals already biased by the disproportionate masculine power, not egalitarian, with evaluation and interpersonal control systems, they have also been mediated by subjectivity and political factors. Up to five years ago, the capability assessments for university lecturers were decided by an election system without evaluation or previous impartial accreditation. This system reflected the personal and group power networks that the candidates might have. The majority of the University tribunals to access to Professor vacancies in Social Psychology had no women among their members. With this system few women accessed to Professor vacancies, a significant comparison with the other gender; retributive justice is about acknowledging properly the merits whereas distributive justice appeals to the idea that people deserve to have an equal situation in terms of benefits and resources in order to obtain the merits.

The Psychology current panorama, offers a completely different image compared to the one from the second half of the 20th century. Female psychologists are now integrated in scientific communities with hierarchies and multiple connections within the power networks linked to editorials and publishers, as well as academic networks of quality productivity. These are mentoring and power networks. The female Spanish researchers in Social Sciences, particularly in Psychology, are still at the bottom of the scientific pyramid. For example, the percentage of female researchers is not at the same level as the percentage of females included in the scientific rankings of academic journals, nor as the percentage of females shown on the first third of those rankings. In INRECS (Índice de impacto de las Revistas Españolas de Ciencias Sociales ) and in INRECJ (Índice de impacto de las Revistas Españolas de Ciencias Jurídicas) they are represented by a small percentage. It is
also small the percentage of women (20%) who have three or more six-year periods of research (sexenio) recognised by the Ministry of Education, in comparison to the percentage of men who have a much higher number of them.

3.- Characteristics common to history and present time of female Psychologists.

A) Invisibilization

Tracking the female legacy in scientific Psychology has been a difficult task, carried out through specialised research by, mainly, women (Furumoto, 1987). Johnston and some others have brought to light the experiences of female scholars in terms of exclusion, discrimination and lack of recognition during the first half of the 20th century. However, the invisibilization of these women remains in Spain throughout the second half of that century. On specialised studies, carried out in the last quarter of century, female representation continues to be very low. As stated in Mestre Escrivá et al. (1996) work about the female presence in the publications of the journal “Psicología General y Aplicada” (“General and Applied Psychology”) from 1977 to 1995, the identification of the gender was a laborious job. Many female authors could not be identified due to the way the names appear on the data base. Normally, authors are listed using the initials of their names as they sign on the articles of journals. Nevertheless, the information indicates the number of males as first signatory is three times higher than females’. The invisibilization issue remains in 2011 due to the lack of normalisation of the names on the list of the international data bases, e.g Web of Science or Medline; the issue is aggravated in the case of Spanish names. These international data bases use indexing techniques adapted to English names, therefore a Spanish author may appear indexed under multiple names (Ruiz-Pérez et al, 2003). Secondly, linked to the previous point, there is a difficulty when it comes to identify the gender of the author (Russell, 2003). Since only the first initial of the name is used to index, instead of the full name, it is difficult to know if the work has been signed by a man or a woman. Therefore, the majority of the bibliometric
analyses of gender are circumscribed to institutional environments where the administrative data of the researchers and their scientific production are systematised. This is one of the main reasons why, at a national level, there is no bibliometric research from a gender perspective.

B) Lack of Recognition
The lack of recognition is due to the lack of visibility, not only in the journals but also in congresses and scientific meetings, with their media and symbolic representation. In the I Congress of Social Psychology held in Granada, 1985, there is a high male predominance in Communications (compared to 10% of women) and also in panels, workshop and work symposiums. In addition, there is a shortage of communications signed by one woman only, in comparison to the predominant presence of secondary and tertiary female authors. In the congresses of Social Psychology held in Spain until 2000 there is no gender analysis of first and second authors, although there is an analysis of the data of the submitted proposals and conferences. 5 out of the 14 women invited to give a presentation were second authors. While there is only one case in which a man is the second author whereas a woman is the first author on the same paper.

C) Randomness in Promotion.
The progression of scientific careers has been defined by random factors, being women the ones that have suffered the negative consequences in favour of their male colleagues. These factors are relatively independent of the scientific quality of the person. Their main characteristic is they are not controlled by the researchers themselves. An extremely relevant factor in getting the research promoted was being linked or close to influential people or powerful movements when the work was carried out. Concepción Saiz was known thanks to her studies with Giner de los Ríos, a famous leader against the gender stereotypes at that time. Regina Lago was associated with progressive environments that would
force her into exile years later. Maria Soriano was able to spread her thinking and create its institution, thanks to the progressive and freedom context that she could enjoy at that time.

The situation was quite similar in other European and North American Universities. The female presence in university institutions that teach Psychology depends on the hostility or affinity of those institutions towards Gender Equality. Although some institutions showed certain degree of hostility towards the presence of women, like Harvard, other universities and departments embraced not only the female presence but also the promotion of gender equality, greatly supporting the entry and the development of women’s researches in their investigation projects. Kendler Tracy (1936-2001) was promoted by Solomon Asch in the United States, similarly, the Kurt Lewin’s group in Berlin integrated numerous female researchers. On both cases, the stimulating factor was the liberal democratic and progressive character of the lab directors.

The same random, no scientific nor academic effect to select or exclude researchers used to happen, and it may still happen, in the departments of Psychology in Spain. There is no defined criterion to determine the entry, promotion or even ending of the women’s careers. They are dependent on the scientific hierarchy, the directors of the departments. Over the 60s and 70s, it was frequent to see diverse percentages of female participation. In the Spanish departments, the structure was autarkical, authoritarian and extremely hierarchical; as a result the assignation had no control and no application of gender equality policies and practices.

A perfect example of that is the department of Social Psychology of the Complutense University. This department has two similar sections, one in the faculty of Psychology and another in the faculty of Sociology. Over more than a decade, the section in Sociology had 40% of women, whereas the section in Psychology had none. Subsequently, the compensation for this deficiency would be difficult and remain for many years. Therefore, the situation would
require the creation of more equal opportunities within such a masculinised department, which (obviously) applies its own rules and controls to the entry of young professionals and their academic careers.

**D) Identity Costs:**
Female Scientists, particularly in our case female psychologists, face the necessity of having to integrate their academic activity in their traditional female identity, which means an extra cost in the construction of their academic and researcher identity. Being part of a scientific tradition biased by gender stereotypes, female psychologists need to rebuild their identity as women and their recognition as creators of science. However, what are the alternatives to achieve that? The three alternatives presented next have unwanted consequences in their academic careers, which have been rebuilt and defended in front of their male colleagues:

A) The fact of choosing investigations more stereotyped by gender, devalues the scientific identity of the women because in the scientific world subjects related to female role have little value; for example, the studies about Developmental Psychology, Child Pedagogy or upbringing are considered natural female knowledge and therefore, less valuable; B) Choosing the critique of gender stereotypes (Feminist Psychology) can be considered as biased and partial. C) Selecting an area of investigation dominated by men means more competitors and to submit herself to deceiving elements of power and resistant.

**Conclusions**
1.- Female psychologists are now integrated in scientific communities with hierarchies. These communities have multiple connections within the power networks linked to editorials and publishers as well as academic mentoring networks. They are not egalitarian but biased by the disproportionate masculine power, with their own evaluation and interpersonal control systems; they have also been associated with subjectivity and political factors.
2.- The number of women that have published has been increased in the last few years, however, there is still an imbalance in relation to the productivity and the authorship order. Female Spanish scholars in Social Sciences, particularly in Psychology, are still at the bottom of the scientific pyramid. For example, the percentage of female researchers is not at the same level as the percentage of females included in the scientific rankings of journal, not even with the percentage of females shown on the first third of those rankings. It is confirmed the lack of leadership among the scientific production as well as very little recognition and academic power. Remain the imbalances on the progression of the academic career, on the recognition of the six-year research period (sexenio) and the impact on the media; also in a more subtle way, there is still certain pressure to select fields of research associated with the traditional female role.

3.-The situation is partly due to the late incorporation of women to the scientific careers. But this is only one of the reasons. The other reasons are the informal and structural barriers existing in scientific communities. Also, there are certain attitudes and institutional barriers that have made more difficult for women to gain access to high level educational jobs. Despite the mechanisms to prevent discrimination, interviewed women complain about the obstacles, even at the most informal stages of their jobs. Finally, it is confirmed the devaluation of the academic positions once a women get it.

4.- The persistence of the unequal stereotypes is tenacious. There is an insistent relegation over women towards the “female niches” of Developmental and Learning Psychology and Clinic Psychology. Some of those niche have gained importance and predominance, for instance, the majority of the forensic doctors working on Child Psychology in jurisprudence are female psychologists.

Summarising, it cannot concluded that the progress of the academic career of women in Psychology will be spontaneously continuous and driven towards equality. It is necessary to constantly watch out the journey to keep progressing in terms of equality, and
eventually achieve it, even to maintain the current levels. Similarly to the other areas of social participation, women’s equality is not related to economic or scientific development, but it goes along with the distribution of power within the scholar groups and scientific communities. Describing the diverse contributions of women to the scientific production from the frame of Psychology of Gender Differences is not completed without the Gender Studies approach. It is essential to review, over and over again, the epistemology and the connection between politics and the educational world, which means a female Psychology orientation. It is required to be aware of the fact that Equality, either on this or any other field, might not progress, and instead going backwards. On the monitoring process is substantial to keep the attitude of gender contrast in every single situation. The level of equality between genders cannot be measured comparing to different periods but with a systematic synchronic comparison, in the same period. Besides, the activist or supporter attitude of the female scholars to achieve gender justice is not sufficient. There is a need of preserving the current social demand supported by laws and regulations. In this sense, some recent regulations might make things easier, but the pressure towards the lack of information and social invisibilization is constant, and it comes from the apathy of system and the resistance to any change of it. Law 3/2007, from March 22nd, for the effective gender equality between men and women, and more specifically the University Law 4/2007, from April 12th, to amend the Law 6/2001, from December 21st. The main purpose of both laws was to achieve the equality in the Committees through an increase of female participation in researching groups. Nevertheless, it is known that the main barriers at the moment are interpersonal and the ones that come from the structure of the scientific communities. In many cases, these barriers have been unconsciously internalised by the women themselves and, consequently, turned into internal obstructions to get professionally promoted and to equal recognition.
References


García Colmenares Carmen(2007) autoridad femenina y reconstrucción biográfica el caso de las primeras psicólogas españolas Investigación en Educación 3, p.51-70


Olivas Ávila, J.,Musí Lechuga, B., Guillén Riquelme, A.y Castro, A. Diferencias en la producción investigadora en tesis y artículos de los profesores funcionarios de Psicología en España
en función del sexo. *Anales de psicología* 2012 volumen 28 nº 2 pp. 597 a 403

Parajon, I; Del barrio, V. y Herrero, f. La aportación de María Soriano a la educación en España. *Revista de Historia de la Psicología* 1996, 17 (1-2) pp. 203-212


The Voice of Women Psychologists

Ana Guil, PhD
Universidad de Sevilla, Spain

Introduction
Women have always been present in the History of Psychology, but in most textbooks, few women psychologists are named. This lack is reflected in androcentric visions that historically undervalue and objectified female. This perspective, in some way, is still present in our collective unconscious.

In this sense, my objective is to give voice to some of the pioneering women, who addressed the issue of identity of women, removing the negative view that traditional psychology provided, with the ultimate objective of understanding the origin and to change the negative gender stereotypes that still persist.

The information is poor, but I have been able to find some pioneers in America and Europe from diverse original areas: Education, Medicine, Social Work, Sociology, Logic, Mathematical, Philology…

At the end of the XIX century, women had many problems to access University. They studied in the first feminine colleges, considered of second category, in order to be able to go to University, normally like listeners or under special conditions.

Many remained single women, other lived with feminine couples, marriage was complicated for them, others committed suicide, others were assassinated, and the majority is only known in the shade of their teachers, parents, husbands…
The Voice of Women Psychologists

Misogynia in the origin of psychologist
The negative view of women for centuries was so ingrained in popular knowledge, that science could not even escape the misogyny, being built from the male view, in the best case, because when addressed the issue of women, great masters said real atrocities. Eg:

The reason for having the first woman not so much wit, was born of God have made her cold and wet which is the temperament to be fertile and to giving birth and that contradicts the know, as if she was warm as Adam, was most wise, but she could not giving birth.

(Huarte de San Juan, 1575 Precursor of Psychology in Spain)

Women show a noticeable deficiency in two faculties, intellectual and emotional, which are the end result of human evolution, abstract reasoning ability and that is the most abstract of the emotions, the feeling of justice [...] Procreation and intellect are incompatible, so women should not study, because in addition to giving birth her mind gradually degrades.

(Herbert Spencer, 1820-1903)

The greater tendency of women to the neuroses and especially of hysteria, are determinants closely linked to the essence of femininity [...] modesty is a quality of female excellence, whose primary intention is to cover the defect of their genitals [...] the girl, because of its inability to sublimate their instincts and the predominance of envy in their mental life psychic, has little sense of justice and weak social interests.

(Sigmund Freud, 1856-1939)
Nobody can ignore the fact that by following a male vocation, studying and working as a man, women are doing something that does not correspond at all with her feminine nature, but it is directly harmful [...] The female psychology based on the principle of Eros, while an ancient wisdom has assigned the Logos to man.

Carl Jung (1875-1961)

The voice of women in the history of psychology
Along history -though hardly appear in textbooks on the History of Psychology- many women psychologists, raised their voices to complain to the negative characterizations which made his teachers about women. In a previous publication over the ethics of care (Guil & Villela, 2011), we talked about six great women in the origin of Psychology: Christine Ladd Franklin (USA, 1847-1930), Jane Adams (USA, 1860-1935), Mary Whiton Calkins (USA, 1863-1930), Julia Jessie Taft (USA, 1882-1960), Karen Horney (Germany 1885-USA 1952) and Carol Gilligan (USA, 1936 and still working on Gender issues). We have talked about them in numerous conferences and also written about women’s pioneers psychologists in Spain and Latin-America (Guil and Vera, 2011; Guil 2011): Concepción Saiz de Otero (Spain, 1851-1930), Amanda Labarca (Chile, 1886-1975), Arminda Aberasturi (Buenos Aires 1910-1972), Marie Langer (Vienna 1910-Buenos Aires 1987), Mercedes Rodrigo, (Spain 1891-Puerto Rico 1982).

This time we want to continue with the task of making visible women pioneers psychologists. So, let’s add six women to the list of those already mentioned:

- Lou Andreas Salomé (Russia 1861- Germany 1937)
- Hermine Von Hug-Hellmuth (Viena 1871-1924)
- Margaret Floy Washburn ( USA 1871-1939)
- Helen Bradford Thompson Wooley (USA 1874-1947)
- Helene Deutsch (Polonia 1884-USA 1982)
- Leta Stetter Hollingworth (USA 1886-1939)
Lou Andreas Salomé (Russia 1861- Germany 1937)

She was very cultured woman, writer and analyst, went to Vienna to participate in scientific meetings with Freud and Adler, was made member of the Society of Psychoanalysis of Vienna. Since 1913 she was psychoanalyst in Gottingen. In 1921 she published *Narcissism of double direction*, where she saw the positive side of the mutual enchantment.

Despite having been a woman of great intellectual prowess, the reason is known more than other pioneers are another kind. She was intellectual and sentimental friend of the most famous men of the time, for example, Nietzsche, Rilke or Freud, who tell of her: *She was modest and discreet.*

She in truth knew where to find the best values of the life. Know who her, had an immense impression of authenticity and harmony, because she really was over all human weaknesses.

Hermine von Hug-Hellmuth (Viena 1871-1924)

Hermine began working as a governess, later studied Medicine -only as listener- and soon after, Philosophy –already registered- making her PhD on Physics.

She is really the first woman who worked child psychoanalys, being member of the Psychoanalys Association of Vienna since 1913. She only analized children older than 7 years old, without diván, flexible, with plays, less sessions, and with collaboration of the family, considering inadequate to analyze one`s own children.

She published many articles, for example, *Diary of a young woman adolescent*, described by Freud like “small jewel”. Her live was a tragic final when she died strangled by her stepsister’s son.
Margaret Floy Washburn (USA 1871-1939)

She has pupils in the Vassar College, after studied Psychology in Columbia. As Columbia had not yet admitted a woman graduate student, she was admitted only as an "auditor." In 1892 went to Cornell University where she was an excellent student.

In 1894 she did her doctor’s thesis on the influence of visual imagery on judgments of tactual distance and direction, been the first woman official PhD in Psychology. This work was sent by her professor E.B. Titchener to Wilhelm Wundt and published in Philosophische Studien in 1895. After this fact, she was an important influence on Psychology in central-europe.

She then took teaching posts, in turn, at Wells College, Cornell’s Sage College, and University of Cincinnati, where she was the only woman on the Faculty. In 1903, she returned to Vassar College as Associate Professor of Philosophy, where she remained during 34 years until 1937 when a stroke necessitated her retirement (as Emeritus Professor of Psychology).

At the end, been emeritus professor, she retired for the reason that she was ill.

Washburn’s published writings span thirty-five years and include some 127 articles on many topics including spatial perception, memory, experimental aesthetics, individual differences, animal psychology, emotion and affective consciousness. She wrote two books titled “The Animal Mind” (1908) and “Movement and Mental Imagery” (1917). In the first, she defended that Psychology must to be a science about mint, not only about the behavior.

She never married, choosing instead to devote herself to her career and the care of her parents (she was an only child).

Washburn was a major figure in Psychology in the United States in the first decades of the 20th century, because she contibuyed
not only to scientific construction, but also to the academic development. At various times in her career, she was an editor for the American Journal of Psychology, Psychological Bulletin, Journal of Animal Behavior, Psychological Review, and Journal of Comparative Psychology. In 1921 she was President of the American Psychological Association (she was a member since 1984) and, in 1932, members of the National Academy of Sciences.

**Helen Bradford Thompson Wooley (USA 1874-1947)**

She studied in Chicago University and looking for woman right, was a suffragist.

Her doctoral thesis was an experimental work about the psychological differences between men and women, and the conclusion was: the differences are only in education and in the society.

She was married and traveled with her husband, been this negative for her professional development, because she lost her work and, during years, was very hard looking for another.

Helped from her woman friends, she studied new professional issues and finally, she can to be able the conciliation between her family -she was mother of two girls- and her work, been professor in Columbia University.

**Helene Deutsch (Polonia 1884 – USA 1982)**

Helene studied in the Faculty of Medicine and specialized in Psychiatry. After she was psychoanalized with Freud, and was member of Psychoanalys Association of Vienna, working as professor and as director.
Travel to Boston -for immigration reason- and obtained a work in the Massachusetts General Hospital, where she was associated in Psychiatry.

In her book, Women’s Psychology, she analized the role of mother far to the falocentric Freud’s theory, looking the supposed about “penus envy”, is only envy because in our cultural society, the men are in superior position than women.

**Leta Stetter Hollingworth (Usa 1886-1939)**

In a firts time, Leta studied Literature in Nebraska and after, Filosophy in Columbia, but finally her specilized in Educative Psychology.

She work inicially in mental test and -when she obtained an official employ-, she be able laboratory head of Psychology in the Bellevue Hospital.

In her doctoral thesis, she made a comparation between mental and motor activities of men and women, during menstrual period of women. The result show the false of traditional ideas -current in her society- about the debility of women in this specifics days.

**Conclusions**

The voice of women psychologist was always present from the beginnings of Psychology, but they are under valored and her work was invisibility, when her own colleges writing misogyn ideas about the femenine esencia. In spite of, the women psychologist was made very important contribution to development of Psychology, writing and investigating about the false of supposed differenciation.

The ancient tradiction are not easy to erradicate and the misogyn ideas are present in many barriers to her professional development, specially in the glass ceiling which made really hard the top possition for woman, in spite of her excellent formation.
For this reasons, the woman’s point of view -specially from woman psychologist perspective, since pioneers to nowadays- is important for erradicate predjuice and stereotipes about woman, because this false appreciations are the support of gender discriminations, present today in our society.

References.-


Campos, Patricia; Arrieta, Natalie; Mata, Luis; Salas, Maylin; Abarca, Carlos (2004). “Las Mujeres Ignoradas de la Psicología”. Medicina Legal de Costa Rica, v.21 n.2.

Furumoto, Laurel y Scarborough, Elizabeth (1987). “Meritocracy in Science: Margaret Floud Washburn’s use of the mith”


de la Educación Latinoamericana, vol.13, nº17, pp.71-92. Tunja, Universidad Pedagógica y Tecnológica de Colombia, Rudecolombia, SHELA-HISULA.


Inmigration
Annual meetings of the International Council of Psychologists, Inc., began with the 1942 meeting of the National Council of Women Psychologists (NCWP), established within the American Psychological association to provide women opportunities to apply feminist perspectives, scientific knowledge and competencies during World War II after the establishment by APA of an all-male Emergency Committee in Psychology. The intent was to be a temporary group and to dissolve when war and holocausts ended. Instead, NCWP decided to become ever more inclusive, first inviting women psychologists from Canada and establishing liaison relationships with several northern European countries; next the group opened membership to men and changed the name to ICP. Soon, ICP incorporated independent of APA and established UN NGO status. Most recently, in 2011, ICP, Inc. membership was opened to allied discipline members.

ICP, Inc. began crossing borders in 1970, holding its annual meeting in Tel Aviv. While maintaining headquarters in the USA, ICP, Inc. served as an educational non-profit incorporation, transporting ideas and information about scientific psychology, concepts about well being, peace, clinical therapies, and professional ethics. This purpose distinguished the group from the activist-feminist movement.

One of the two themes for the 70th ICP, Inc. annual meeting is “Immigrants.” The traditional image of immigrants is one of adventurous, courageous individuals, or of starving families whose
homes and livelihood had been overtaken by invading foreigners, or, of undesirables like criminals and prisoners, or, of religious pilgrims and missionaries. However, seldom considered as “immigrants” per se, commercial tradesmen were crossing borders and establishing businesses for centuries.

The far eastern Silk Road may be the earliest recorded passageway across borders for entrepreneurs. And the Dutch East India Company established in the 1500s in Amsterdam may have been the first modern day trading market for commodities, futures and stocks. The Olympics may be the earliest sporting exchanges. The middle ages’ Knights Templar may have been first to guard the trade routes and become a powerful international militia and financial management influence. These are ancestors of today’s immigrant corporations that impact national cultures and social well being.

In our 21st century era, the power of economic needs and speed of technological communications multiplies border crossers with trading transforming into North American style franchises. Corporations, the hospitality and food service industries, as well as travel and government agencies have become visible, identifiable and influential immigrants. In this Sevilla symposium, presenters offered psychologists’ perspective on issues pertinent to understanding the issues and advising the people who manage immigrant organizations as well as the people living in host countries.

Dr. Consuelo Barreda-Hanson presented a case study about her therapeutic services for an individual immigrant who was unsuccessful in starting up his family business in Australia. Dr. Elisa Margaona addressed the influence of the key executive’s personality on corporation operations in immigrant contexts: illustrating different effects in different countries of Latin and South America. Dr. Anna Laura Comunian wrote about the resilience factor as a necessary competency for leaders in organizations that move into another culture. Dr. Gerald Gamache spoke about issues related to government and agency decision making when
responding to national disasters that have global impact. I addressed the need for information bases that compare and contrast the effectiveness of organizational management in different cultures and a need for ethical guidelines and impact responsibility policies. The presentations can be found in the International Psychologist, Volume 53.2 and Volume 53.3 and are available digitally through PsychEXTRA, American Psychological Association Publications.

**Immigrant Organizations: pioneering to franchizing**

ICP, Inc. members were fortunate to hear an outstanding keynote address at the Tokyo Japan annual meeting on the history of the Silk Road of ancient Orient fame. This was likely an initial pipeline-route that pioneered immigrant business activities. Caravans traveling from east to west traded goods such as spices, silks, and artifacts. As Transportation modes advanced from sandal foot, horses, camels, and elephants to carriages ships, trains and planes likewise business commodity exchanges shifted from rare spices and metals, cultural arts, crafts and proclivities, from slaves to manufactured products and intellectual properties. As academic and religious concepts migrated, their impacts are at times overshadowed by those of mega-corporations like tobacco, oil and soft drink companies. Unfortunately, illegal businesses such as those dealing with precious gems and metals, addictive-drugs and sex-slavery manage to continue to flourish.

Fortunately, strong interest in global wellbeing is included in psychological thinking surrounding recent revisions for the diagnostic and statistical manual, DSM 5, and the Classification of Mental and Behavioral Disorders of the World Health Organization’s ICD-11. Concurrently, the World Health Organization and Health Psychology are heightening awareness of border crossing illnesses and diseases, some of which proliferate through travel and food service organizations operating in international markets.

Recent research data forecast a challenging scenario of fall-outs from the increased immigrations of businesses and industries. In
2012, the American Psychological Association gave its highest award to Kelly D. Brownell and Rena Wing for outstanding lifetime contributions in recognition of work related to obesity and health. Dr. Brownell emphasizes the effects of the globalization of eating and dietary habits and directly connects obesity and diabetes increases with the expansion of fast food chains. No surprise, that MacDonalds leads the pack with more than double the number of “expat” operations than the closest competitors. Dr. Brownell champions the need for development of public policy through the Yale nutrition institute that he directs. He predicts significant increases in diabetes between 2000-2030, especially in India and China, if strong regulatory policies are not adopted regarding the immigrant fast food businesses.

Organizational Management: variances across borders
The GLOBE studies of similarities and differences in management practices [actual and preferred] is a direct result of collaborative data collection by members of the International Association of Applied Psychology (IAAP). They reported findings from 25 of the 65 cultures under study and showed that the most highly valued characteristic in leaders by cultures around the world is charismatic / value based leadership. Second in terms of similarity across borders is assertiveness by leaders and managers. Because ICP held meetings in 2012 in Spain, South Africa, and the USA, an example of the GLOBE data is used here: South Africa reports perceiving the strongest levels of organizational management in assertiveness, followed by USA, then Spain. All three fall in mid-range in terms of the total 26 nations/cultures. The South Africans report believing the present expression of assertive behavior should be below the medium range. The USA has the least discrepancy between is-and-should be, with both also valuing a somewhat lesser assertive climate.

Leadership in organizations has intrigued psychologists as much as it has politicians and entrepreneurs, therefore we are working from a stream of insight and evidence. Scientific studies of Lewin, Lippit,
and White [1933] showed that forms of democratic leadership result in more productive and healthy workers. Today, Ed Hollander calls this Inclusive leadership, and my model calls it Invitational Leadership. I like using both words for a stronger impact: Inclusive, Invitational – a realistic, scientific model incorporating the streams of psychological research on organizational effectiveness.

Leadership research owes much to literature developed by Peter Drucker who had multi-discipline and multi-national educational training and from work psychologists who were European immigrants to the USA. US time motion efficiency research of Frederick Taylor soon gave way to broader theoretical and empirical study influenced first by wartime urgencies and later by economic-commercial pressures.

No new academic models have emerged since the transformational-transactional work of Burns and Bass. Bernard Bass extended Burn’s theory with evidence that good leaders have characteristics of both transformational and transactional leaders. His research indicated that leaders use their influence and charisma to provide followers with inspiration through a vision or mission which results in a strong sense of identity. Bass carried the research across borders as one of the organizers of the IAAP research project known as the GLOBE studies which produced Culture and leadership across the world: The GLOBE book of in-depth studies of 25 societies (2008).

Across the more than 40 years of my practice, it became ever more clear that trust is pivotal factor and that immigrant organizations require responsible leaders who seek wisdom about what kinds of leadership activities work where and when.
Our small association, ICP, Inc., begun by women who refused to be excluded from doing hard duty psychological science work carried a message of inclusion and invitation to cross borders, to hear from and associate with others interested in in healthy people, healthy organizations, healthy immigration and information leading to wellbeing and peace.

**References**


Human Trafficking and Human Consequences

Maria Consuelo Barreda-Hanson
Director/Manager
Department of Psychology
ACT Health

Definition of Human Trafficking: Trafficking in persons shall mean “the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power, of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation.”

Exploitation “shall include prostitution or other forms of sexual exploitation, domestic servitude, street begging, removal or organs, etc.”

Child Trafficking is “the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a child, for the purpose of exploitation.”

Differentiation between who are migrant workers and who are trafficked victims. In a way, they are all victims, though the differentiation can be blurred, like in case of those with working visa, but brought under false pretences and exploited. Research indicates that those in forced labour are more likely to have been trafficked.

The international, legal definition of trafficking is complex and there are still a number of concepts that need to be clearly defined, such as those holding a legitimate visa and the clarification between willing work and criminal exploitation. Trafficking cases are complex and mainly involve:
Human Trafficking and Human Consequences

- Sex industry – prostitution and production of pornographic materials (young girls and boys and women)
- Labour – domestic servitude, various industries, factories, agriculture, restaurants, mines and farm labour (young girls and boys to mid adulthood)
- Begging and hawking (young girls and boys)
- Drug pushing and peddling (young girls and boys to mid adulthood)
- Early forced marriages (young girls)
- Organ (healthy infants to middle adulthood)
- Adoption (mostly infants, but also very young children)

In most cases victims are either bought at a young age or abducted. Most of them are controlled through:

- Violence
- Threat of harm to themselves or loved ones
- Threats to be turned over to authorities and imprisonment and or deportation
- Threats in relation to debts incurred in their transport to Australia
- Isolation (creates dependency)
- Severe punishment followed by affection

Most vulnerable groups for trafficking:
- Children and young adults (mostly orphans, school drop outs, neglected, abandoned, in domestic work and destitutes, under the age of 18). This group is also more vulnerable for re-trafficking, particularly if there is lack of family support or difficulties at home that remain unresolved upon their return from a trafficking situation.
- Children from rural and urban areas and the streets.
- Children sexually abused.
- Children to adults in search of jobs.
- Women
- Victims of previous trafficking (usually are re-trafficked within two years or less of having exited a trafficking situation – usually to a different destination of for a different purpose of exploitation. This is more common when there has been reintegration failure in their place of origin, family and social support fail on returning home, if they have drug or/and alcohol dependency or if they have psychological difficulties). Re-trafficking is also more common if person remains working in a region and/or in an industry where their trafficker(s) can easily locate them.
- From countries with economic and social difficulties.
- Where debts are owed to family members and/or local community members due to costs incurred in the migration or trafficking experience.
- From ethnic minority groups subjected to discrimination in the country of origin.
- From countries having significant gender inequalities.
- From countries where conflicts are ongoing or recent/armed conflict areas.
- Displacement of families as a result of ethnic clashes within their country.
- Disempowered background
- Environmental degradation
- Abuse of office and power
- From areas when the authorities, especially law enforcement officials, are involved in the trafficking of the person, as this physically prevents long-term exit from trafficking situation.
Human Trafficking and Human Consequences

- From countries/areas where there exists corruption among highly placed individuals in the society.
- Refugees or displaces persons.
- Few safe and legal avenues for migration, leaving the person little option but to seek out the help of irregular networks.
- Lack of skills and training.
- Lack of appropriate employment opportunities in countries of origin and a lack of regular (and safe) migration routes to take advantage of potentially more lucrative employment opportunities aboard.

Exploitation and Abuse of People

Child Labour
- Work for long hours in degrading and hazardous environments, with very little or no pay
- Are denied the opportunity for an education and medical care

Domestic Workers
- Girls are exposed to sexual violence from their employers or relatives of their employers
- Work for long hours irrespective of their age
- Are physically abused (bitten, slapped, kicked, etc.), mistreated and underfed
- Do not have leave time
- Do not have medical cover

Early Marriages
- Girl is forced into marriage once she has been initiated into womanhood
- Education is denied as it is felt she will be going to join another family once married
- Some are abused sexually through female genitalia mutilation
**Child Pornography**
- Mostly children of sex workers
- Forced into child prostitution by men who come to see their mothers
- Some parents are tricked into believing that photographs of their children are needed for sponsorship purposes
- Paedophiles also take advantage of these vulnerabilities.

**Commercial Sexual Exploitation**
- Poor children are lured by their peers or relatives to leave their rural homes for financial gains
- Lied that they will be enrolled into formal schools or skills training in order to improve their family’s income
- Once they reach their destination they are not allowed to go back home or communicate with their parents or relatives
- They are put in brothels where men exploit them sexually and their employer is paid

**Women Particularly Affected**
- Labour intensive production with long working hours, low or no wages and hazardous working conditions
- Growing demand for foreign women, including domestic and care-giving work. Some may come with an independent visa status but are still very vulnerable to exploitation and abuse as domestic work can be isolated within the private home, hidden from the outside world and from the oversight of regulatory bodies. Furthermore, these workers may not speak English, are reliant on one employer for their work, the money they send home, for their accommodation and food, as well as for their immigration status. Though may have an independent visa they must prove they are working. They are made to believe that if they flee they will be arrested or deported and their families denunciated to authorities.
- Demand for foreign brides
• Demand for women in growing multi-billion sex and entertainment industry

Refugee Children (Migrant children and unaccompanied minors)
• Child protection in refugee camps is very week as they live in deplorable conditions
• Women and girls exchange sex for food
• Unaccompanied minors are sexually exploited and exposed to various ailments such as HIV/AIDS and urinary tract infections
• Some of these children are sold by people who pose as their guardians
• Others are married off to suitors they have never seen in other countries where they end up as slaves
• Medical care, sanitation and education is poor

Trafficked Persons are Particularly Vulnerable to Health Risks:
• Initially from a disempowered background
• Coercive and stressful nature of their mobility (violence, deception, coercion, abuse, etc.)
• Nature of the activities for which they are exploited (e.g. forced labour, sexual exploitation)
• Stigma and isolation upon return
• Physical, psychological and sexual violation
• Abusive living/working conditions
• Limited/no access to health services
• Exposure to disease. Women are particularly vulnerable to reproductive and other gender-specific health problems (e.g. such as birth control, forced abortions, lack of regular mammograms and Pap smears, sexually transmitted diseases and injuries due to rape) as they have little to no access to reproductive health care.
• Extreme cases similar to victims of torture and interpersonal violence
• Psychological problems, particularly depression and PTSD
Most trafficked people will not willingly go to the authorities for protection or be willing to respond in an interview because of:

- Fears of identification by foreign authorities and possible deportation or incarceration by legal authorities.
- Fears of reprisal/retribution from traffickers, employers, agents, pimps, law enforcement officials and possibly ongoing control by them.
- Fears of being returned to family of origin, who may have been involved in the trafficking.
- Feelings of shame and fear of reprisal or punishment by family members or their community (loss of face/rejection/ostracisms from family and community if returned, particularly in cases where sexual exploitation has been the purpose of trafficking).
- Fears of legal authority working in collusion with traffickers (past experience has proven authorities in other countries have worked supporting trafficking or believed the trafficker’s account). Some are members of a minority community that doesn’t trust legal officers.
- Fears of reprisal by home country authorities (in cases were corrupt officials had a role in the trafficking).
- Fears that it is their fault and have committed a crime.
- Fears that they will put their family, particularly younger siblings in danger as there may be continuous threats to victim and family members, by traffickers, to pay “debts” owed by the victim.
- Pressure to support their families.
- Do not identify themselves as victims but as having had bad luck.
- Identification with the trafficker.
- Fears of returning to past continuing economic difficulties and lack of supports and/or employment opportunities at home.
- Are vulnerable to extreme stress reactions once out of the situation and have relinquished previous psychological survival mechanisms.
• Find that talking about the experience is to relive it.
• Believe that the services (or immigration status) depend on their compliance, and therefore agree to participate in an interview which they would otherwise decline, saying what they think might help them, which may not be the real or whole experience.
• Sometimes, it is difficult for them, particularly for women to quantify and rate frequency of occurrences of violence.
• Failure to recognize or name certain types of episodes as violence - (they may have become used to it or dissociated from it, but may remember if, for example, a bruise or injury is questioned).
• Have normalised or minimised the violence in their lives.
• Have become accustomed to low levels of violence or certain forms of repeated abuse on a daily basis.
• Shame in talking about what they were subjected to.
• Are under the effects of trauma – PTSD.

Trauma can affect a person’s whole being – psychologically, physically/medically, behavioural and socially. It can also impair memory and the perceptions of the event. It is normal to have strong emotional and/or physical reactions following a distressing event. In fact, these feelings are part of the healing process. Because victims are not familiar with the trauma effects they may also fear they are going crazy or that there is something wrong with them. Reactions may last for days, weeks or even longer. Most people recover from trauma within months following the event. Recurrent trauma, however will affect recovery and this will be delayed till after the traumatic experiences have ended. And, if no adequate professional interventions/supports are given, may continue to last and have a life long effect, making rebuilding of emotional lives extremely difficult. Sometimes just knowing what to expect can help ease the transition back to normal life.

Though most people recover without professional assistance, by themselves or with the support of family and friends, some will proceed to develop Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) and need
help. Trauma symptoms are a set of reactions that can develop in people who have experienced or witnessed an event that threatens their life or safety (or that of others around them) and leads to feelings of intense fear, helplessness or horror. This could be a car or plane accidents or other serious accident, industrial accidents, traumatic stay in hospital/surgery or the like, violent personal assaults, such as rape or mugging, war or torture, being trafficked, forced migration, voluntary migration with traumatic consequences (e.g. long-term detention in abusive conditions) or natural disaster such as bushfire or flood.

Trauma reactions can change over time. Some are energised initially by the event to help them with the challenge of coping but later become discouraged or depressed. There are a number of factors that tend to affect the length of time required for recovery, including the degree and intensity of the loss, innate abilities to cope, self efficacy, existing supports and previous traumas.

Anyone can develop PTSD following a traumatic event but people are at greater risk if the following factors are present:

- The event involved physical or sexual assault
- They have had repeated traumatic experiences such as sexual abuse or living in a war zone
- Trafficked or forced migration
- Have prior vulnerability factors such as genetics, early age of onset and longer-lasting childhood traumas, lack of functional social support and concurrent stressful life events
- From a social environment that produces shame, guilt, stigmatisation or self-hatred
- Those who report greater perceived threat or danger, suffering, upset, terror and horror or fear
• More affected are girls, women and parents, especially mothers for events involving uncertain threats

• Having a neurotic personality, as opposed to a stable and calm one, increases the likelihood of PTSD (hardiness decreases the likelihood)

• They have suffered from PTSD in the past.

PTSD can affect a person’s ability to study, work, perform day-to-day activities or relate to their family and friends. They can often seem disinterested or distant as they try not to think or feel in order to block out painful memories. They may stop participating in family and social life, ignore offers of help or become irritable. This can lead to loved ones and friends feeling shut out.

**Signs and symptoms of PTSD**

People with PTSD often experience feelings of panic or extreme fear, which may resemble what was felt during the traumatic event/s. A person with PTSD has three main types of difficulties that leads to significant distress and may impact on the person’s ability to work and study, their relationships and day-to-day life:

• **Reliving the traumatic event.** This is the disorder’s main characteristic. Most often, the person has powerful, recurrent memories of the stressor. It can happen in the form of flashbacks (unwanted recurrent memories where the victims may feel that the abuse is actually happening to them all over again). Flashbacks often occur as a result of the inability of the victim to talk about the experience. These high emotional reactions can be triggered by single elements such as a particular smell, a specific noise or sound, a particular feel or tactile sensation or pictures. The victim can also relive the traumatic event through vivid nightmares. They may become distressed, sweat excessively, their heart rate increases or feel panic.
• **Being overly alert or ‘wound up’.** The person has sleeping difficulties, irritability, lack of concentration, becoming easily startled and constantly being on the lookout for signs of danger.

• **Avoiding reminders of the event and feeling emotionally numb.** The person may deliberately avoid/withdraw from friends and family, activities, places, people, thoughts or feelings associated with the event. They avoid situations that remind them of their trauma. They may also lose interest in day-to-day activities, feel cut off and detached from friends and family, or feel flat and numb. They don’t enjoy life as usual, and have a hard time feeling emotions or maintaining intimacy. They often feel extreme guilt. In rare cases, they can go through dissociative states where they believe they are reliving the episode, and act as if it is happening again. These can last anywhere from five minutes to several days.

People with PTSD can also experience what is termed as “**depersonalisation**”, which makes them see the experience as happening to someone else, some see it as being out of body, looking at it as a film. Others experience ‘dissociation”, which is characterised by statements such as:

• ‘It was as though I wasn’t even there.’
• ‘Time was standing still.’
• ‘I felt like I was watching things happen from above.’
• ‘I can’t remember most of what happened.’

In some extreme cases of ongoing traumatic abuse some children will cope with it by developing Identity Personality Disorder, which helps them dissociate from the traumatic experience and feel as if they are not there. These memories are forgotten by the child but kept in memory, to be acted on at certain times, when
cues bring them forth. This condition is a defence mechanism and is developed before the age of seven, though once developed, can continue post childhood, into early adolescence.

Up to 80 per cent of people who have long-standing PTSD develop additional problems, most commonly depression and anxiety. Many also start misusing alcohol or drugs as a way of coping.

Because of the reactions to trauma people may not remember events or key factors and some will deny it even occurred or keep changing their stories (this latter may be due to increase recall of the events once they feel safe, yet it is usually considered as fabrications and person looses credibility as a witness). Trying to interrogate or provide counselling may bring forth apathy, hostility or avoidance. These behaviours create difficulties for legal officers investigating the case and for health professionals trying to assist with the trauma. In some cases, because of the lack of symptoms or behaviours victims give the appearance that either nothing happened or that they gave consent to the situation and may also be seen as reluctant to cooperate.

**Common Reactions to Trauma**

**Fear and anxiety**

Anxiety is a common and natural response to a dangerous situation. For many it lasts long after the trauma ended. This happens when views of the world and a sense of safety have changed. The person may become anxious when remembering the trauma, being around situations, places or people that remind of the trauma. But sometimes anxiety may come from out of the blue.

**Triggers or cues** that can cause anxiety may include places, times of day, certain smells or noises, or any situation that reminds of the trauma. As the person begins to pay more attention to the times she/he feels afraid they can discover the triggers for the anxiety. In this way, one may learn that some of the out-of-the-blue anxiety is really triggered by things that remind of the trauma.
Re-experiencing of the trauma
People who have been traumatized often re-experience the traumatic event. For example, they may have unwanted thoughts of the trauma, and find themselves unable to get rid of them. Some people have flashbacks, or very vivid images, as if the trauma is occurring again.

Changes in sleeping patterns and alertness
Insomnia is common, and people with PTSD may have a hard time concentrating and finishing tasks. This can also lead to more aggression.

Nightmares are also common. These symptoms occur because a traumatic experience is so shocking and so different from everyday experiences that one can’t fit it into what they know about the world. So in order to understand what happened, the mind keeps bringing the memory back, as if to better digest it and fit it in.

Increased arousal
Increased arousal is also a common response to trauma. This includes feeling jumpy, jittery, shaky, being easily startled, and having trouble concentrating or sleeping. Continuous arousal can lead to impatience and irritability, especially if the person is not getting enough sleep. The arousal reactions are due to the fight or flight response in the body. The fight or flight response is the way we protect ourselves against danger, and it occurs also in animals. When we protect ourselves from danger by fighting or running away, we need a lot more energy than usual, so our bodies pump out extra adrenaline to help us get the extra energy we need to survive. People who have been traumatized often see the world as filled with danger, so their bodies are on constant alert, always ready to respond immediately to any attack. The problem is that increased arousal is useful in truly dangerous situations, such as if we find ourselves facing a tiger. But alertness becomes very uncomfortable
when it continues for a long time even in safe situations. Another reaction to danger is to freeze, like the kangaroo in the headlights, and this reaction can also occur during a trauma.

**Avoidance**

Avoidance is a common way of managing trauma-related pain. The most common is avoiding situations that remind of the trauma, such as the place where it happened. Often situations that are less directly related to the trauma are also avoided, such as going out in the evening if the trauma occurred at night. Another way to reduce discomfort is trying to push away painful thoughts and feelings. This can lead to feelings of numbness, where they find it difficult to have both fearful and pleasant or loving feelings. Sometimes the painful thoughts or feelings may be so intense that the mind just blocks them out altogether, and they may not remember parts of the trauma.

**Anger**

Many people who have been traumatized feel angry and irritable. If they had not been used to feeling angry this may seem scary as well. It may be especially confusing to feel angry at those they are close to or attempt to help them. Sometimes people feel angry because of feeling irritable so often. Anger can also arise from a feeling that the world is not fair.

**Guilt**

Trauma often leads to feelings of guilt and shame. Many people blame themselves for things they did or didn’t do to survive. For example, some assault survivors believe that they should have fought off an assailant, and blame themselves for the attack. Others feel that if they had not fought back they or another person wouldn’t have gotten hurt. They may feel ashamed because during the trauma they acted in ways that they would not otherwise have done. Sometimes, other people may blame them for the trauma.
Feeling guilty about the trauma means that they are taking responsibility for what occurred. While this may make them feel somewhat more in control, it can also lead to feelings of helplessness and depression.

**Grief and depression**

Grief and depression are also common reactions to trauma. This can include feeling down, sad, hopeless or despairing. They may cry more often. They may lose interest in people and activities they used to enjoy. They may also feel that plans they had for the future don’t seem to matter anymore, or that life isn’t worth living. These feelings can lead to thoughts of wishing they were dead, or doing something to hurt or kill themselves. Because the trauma has changed so much of how they see the world and themselves, it makes sense to feel sad and to grieve for what they lost because of the trauma.

**Negative self-concept**

Self-image and views of the world often become more negative after a trauma. They may tell themselves, “If I hadn’t been so weak or stupid this wouldn’t have happened to me.” Many people see themselves as more negative overall after the trauma (“I am a bad person and deserved this.”).

**Impaired Sexual Relationships**

Many people suffering PTSD find it difficult to feel sexual or have sexual relationships. This is particularly true of those that have been sexually assaulted as not only they are lacking in trust, but sex is a reminder of the assault.

**Use of Alcohol or Other Substances**

After a trauma some people increase the use of alcohol and other substances or start drinking and taking social drugs to make themselves feel better. This slows down their recovery.
Many reactions to trauma are connected to each other. For example, a flashback may make the person feel out of control, as if the trauma was happening all over again. This will produce fear and arousal and this may lead to compensatory behaviours, such as drinking alcohol or using a drug. Some feel as if they are going “crazy” and these feelings make them even more stressed and fearful.

PTSD can also lead to other illnesses, such as depression or dependence on drugs or alcohol. Some physical symptoms, such as dizziness, chest pain, gastrointestinal and immune-system problems can also be linked to the disorder.

Understanding Common Reactions
There is no one “standard” of reaction to trauma. The way a person reacts to trauma will depend on many things, such as the type and severity of the event, the support the person has, other stresses in their lives, their personality and their ability to cope. Some will react immediately while others will have delayed reactions – sometimes months or years later. Common reactions include a range of physical, cognitive (thinking), emotional and behavioural factors. These reactions are normal and show how the event has affected the person:

**Physical reactions:**
- Fatigue or exhaustion – can lead to work disruptions
- Disturbed sleep
- Nausea
- Severe sleeping difficulties
- Nightmares
- Flashbacks
- Restlessness
- Feeling agitated and constantly looking out for danger
- Headaches
• Gastrointestinal complaints
• Immune system problems
• Dizziness
• Chest pain
• Discomfort to various parts of the body
• Feeling shaky and sweaty
• Having the heart pound or having trouble breathing
• Excessive alertness and being easily startled.

Thinking reactions:
• Poor concentration
• Poor attention and memory
• Visual images of the event
• Intrusive thoughts
• Disorientation
• Confusion.
• Trouble concentrating or thinking
• Cognitive impairment - several research studies, with individuals with PTSD, particularly veterans, have found signs of cognitive impairment when tested with neuropsychological instruments, more so than individuals exposed to trauma who do not have PTSD.

Trauma also shapes basic beliefs about identity, world view and spirituality.

Emotional reactions:
• Fear
• Feelings of emptiness, numbness and detachment
• Avoidance
• Getting upset when reminded about the trauma (by what
they see, hear, feel, smell or taste)

- Depression
- Guilt
- Oversensitivity
- Constantly on edge or irritable
- Anxiety and panic – feeling in danger again
- Anger or aggressive feelings and feeling the need to defend oneself
- Feeling mentally drained
- Withdrawal and tearfulness.

**Behavioural reactions:**
- Avoiding reminders of the event
- Inability to stop focusing on it
- Getting immersed in working for recovery
- Losing touch with normal routines
- Losing time – the person doesn’t know where the time went
- Difficulty doing anything except familiar routines
- Alcohol and drug abuse
- Gambling
- Infringement of the law.

Anniversaries of the traumatic event, particularly the 1-year anniversary, reminds victims of their losses and this may trigger flashbacks.

Because trauma victims have these upsetting feelings when stressed or reminded of the trauma they often act as if they are in danger again. They may get overly concerned about staying safe in situations that are not truly dangerous. Re-experiencing the
symptoms of the trauma is a sign that the body and mind are actively struggling to cope with the experience. These are automatic learned responses and the trauma has become associated with many things so that when the person experiences them, she/he is reminded of the trauma and feels as if is in danger again. These ongoing negative thoughts and perceptions strengthens the right side of the brain, particularly the frontal lobe, that deals with negative emotions. Because of this, perceiving experiences/situations and messages in a more negative way increases.

There are secondary and associated posttraumatic symptoms. Secondary ones arise because of the re-experiencing and avoidance, such as cutting off from friends to avoid talking, causing isolation, loneliness and depression. Secondary symptoms, with time, can become more troubling that the original symptoms. Associated symptoms don’t come directly from being overwhelmed with fear, but are due to things going on at the time of trauma. An example are physical injuries caused by a car accident and depression because they can’t leave their home or go to work.

**When Professional Help Should be Given**

It is important that help be given if victims of trauma do not return to normal after three or four weeks after trauma has discontinued. Traumatic stress may not subside on their own and it can lead to other conditions such as PTSD. Help should be sought/offered if the person:

- Is unable to handle the intense feelings or physical sensations
- Doesn’t have normal feelings but continues to feel numb and empty
- Continues to have physical stress symptoms
- Continues to have disturbed sleep or nightmares
- Lacks adequate social/familial support
- Stress and anxiety continues/escalates
Human Trafficking and Human Consequences

• Are thinking of hurting themselves, hurting others or ending their lives
• Stress is impacting on their ability to work or study
• Stress is impacting their relationships and day-to-day life.

Coping/Survival Strategies of Trafficked/Long Term Victims

Victims of long-term abuse/exploitation/systematic violence over a period of time may believe that they may not survive the abuse and thus may use a variety of coping mechanisms to survive. Because of the ongoing, consistent patterns of abuse, in a coercive relationship, the victim slowly adapts to the situation. Their behaviours change according to what they believe may reduce abusive situations. Some strategies are:

• Identifying with the aggressor: believes that he/she is the cause of some of the behaviours demonstrated by the abuser and will behave in ways that will ensure the approval of the abuser. The victim puts him/herself in the position of the abuser and adopts the views and behaviours of him/her. Because of this the victims do not seek help and may even decline help and deny abuse if attempts are made to be rescued. This identification is made stronger if the abuser, at any time shows some care for the victim, which may make the victim believe they may have some control over the abuser if they behave in a certain way.

It is not uncommon for women to have an intimate relationship with someone in the trafficking network, or related to the network or to feel loyalty, gratitude or at least dependence on an individual related to the “captive” situation.
• **Avoidance of the abusive experience**: the victims do anything to avoid the abuse and please the abuser, such as doing what they are asked to do without questioning. They may even show enthusiasm/liking what they are asked to do.

• **Avoidance of the memory**: some individuals with PTSD become adept at minimizing the emotional impact of the memory by recalling it from an observer perspective; that is, as if they were a spectator watching the event. There is research evidence that observer-vantage memories are associated with less distress, suggesting that remembering traumatic events from an observer vantage point may act as a form of emotional avoidance. Though avoiding the memory, the observer vantage point contributes to PTSD reactions because it may limit emotional processing of trauma memories. This may be the reason why, despite the role of avoidance, individuals with PTSD are characterised by frequent recollections of their trauma.

• **Numbing**: the victim cuts off his/her emotions and thoughts. In a way, they loose their sense of self/identity and just “exist”. They have a high level of apathy or indifference to their own suffering.

• **Apathy**: the victim may react to the abuse in an astonishingly indifferent or apathetic manner that reflects the fact that they may not be able to realise that the abuse was inflicted upon them.

• **Dissociation**: the victim dissociates the pain, the experience or the total memory. With children below the age of seven (very rarely diagnosed before adolescence), they may develop Dissociative Identity
Disorder (once called “Multiple Personality Disorder”). This is a coping mechanism where the person contends that totally different personalities inhabit their minds and can take over their bodies from time to time. These personalities (identities) might be of a different sex, age, skill, hand preference, motivation and emotional style from the usual persona. The identities are dissociated parts/memories that the patient experiences as separate from each other. After a switch back to the base or core identity, the patient cannot remember the period during which the other identities were in control. This is difficult to diagnose due to the fact that some of these children do not display symptoms that draw the attention to this disorder. Many of the behavioural presentations of these children are misdiagnosed or misinterpreted and in many cases the doctors and the professionals do not ask the right questions. In some cases, doctors/psychiatrists will say the children are have an “imaginary friend”.

- Taking responsibility for their situation: some do not perceive themselves as having been "trafficked" (according to the UN or other definitions) and do not want to be treated as victims. They may regard their experience as the consequence of a poor decision for which they are/were obliged to fulfil the terms of their contract. Some may see it as only a temporary situation during which time they intend to earn enough money to pay off a debt, and support themselves or a family at home.

Recovering From Trauma

Recuperating from the trauma of trafficking is a complex, long term process that will require the intervention of highly specialised professionals. Trafficked people will always have some of the
effects of the consequences of trauma (e.g. inability for desired career because of lack of education from childhood/illiteracy), but with specialised help can attain a meaningful and productive life. Not receiving professional treatment will incur in permanent and severe psychological and possibly medical damage.

The following guiding principles are considered good practice:

1. Adhere to WHO ethical recommendations
2. Treat all contact with trafficked persons as a potential step towards improving their health.
3. Prioritize the safety of trafficked persons, self and staff by assessing risks and making consultative and well-informed decisions, considering dangers to their family members.
4. Provide respectful, equitable care that does not discriminate but respects the rights and dignity of the person.
5. Be prepared with referral information and contact details for trusted support persons for a range of assistance, including shelter, social services, counselling, legal advocacy and law enforcement. Be discrete if person is thought to still be in contact with traffickers.
6. Collaborate with other support services to implement prevention activities and response strategies that are cooperative and appropriate for person’s different needs.
7. Ensure the confidentiality and privacy of trafficked persons and their families.
8. Provide information in a way that each trafficked person can understand.
9. Obtain voluntary, informed consent.
10. Respect the rights, choices and dignity of each individual by:
   a. Conducting interviews in private settings
   b. Offering the option of interacting with male or female staff or interpreters.
c. Maintaining a non-judgmental and sympathetic manner and showing respect for and acceptance of each individual and their culture and situation.

d. Showing patience

e. Asking only relevant questions that are necessary for the assistance being provided and not out of curiosity.

f. Avoiding repeated requests for the same information through multiple interviews. When possible, ask for the person’s consent to transfer necessary information to other key service providers.

g. Don not offer access to media, journalists or others seeking interviews with person without their express permission. Do not coerce.

11. Avoid calling authorities such as police or immigration services, unless given the consent of the trafficked person.

12. Maintain all information about trafficked person in secure facilities.

Care for children require special attention. Apply same principles as above, including the right to participate in decisions that will affect them. If decision is made on behalf of a child, the best interests of the child should be the overriding consideration and appropriate procedures should be followed. Follow the UNICEF’s Reference guide on Protecting the Rights of Child victims of Trafficking.

The following general tips may help recovery from trauma:

- Recognise and accept that they have been through a distressing experience.
- Accept that they will feel bad for a time but that it will also eventually pass.
• Remind themselves daily that they are coping – don’t be angry when they get upset.
• Avoid making major decisions or big life changes until they feel better.
• Don’t bottle up feelings – talk to someone who can support and understand them.
• Try to keep a normal routine and stay busy.
• When they feel exhausted, make sure they set aside time to rest.
• Make time for regular exercise; it helps cleanse body and mind of tension.
• Relax – use relaxation techniques such as diaphragmatic breathing, yoga, deep muscle relaxation exercise or do things they enjoy like listening to music.
• When the trauma brings up memories or feelings, try to confront them and refocus in the present safety and future positive plans.
• Help the acquire skills in gaining self efficacy and mastery of situations.
• Seek professional help if symptoms do not go away after a few weeks.
• Renew a good supporting social system.

In the process of recovery, four stages can be identified that the victim goes through:

• Hostility towards those that care for them, particularly law enforcers
• Loss of orientation
• Reconstruction and remembering
• Social re-integration
Implications for Interviewers and Investigators when dealing with victims of trauma suffering from PTSD:

As per above there are various effects/symptoms experienced by victims of trauma that will make it difficult for professionals to assist or interview them, even when they agree to be witnesses. Some of these may be:

- Altered sense of time and lack of memory of the event, due to loss of memory or dissociation. This will cause:
  - Inability to tell their story
  - Gaps in their story
  - Changes in the story, with time, as memory is recovered

- Denial of the trafficking, even with evidence of its occurrence because of:
  - Identification with the aggressor
  - Dissociation
  - Fear of retribution from the abuser (to self or loved ones)
  - Feelings of guilt
  - Not seeing self as a victim

- Inconsistent and contradictory statements, due to:
  - Impaired memory and need to fill in gaps
  - Changes in the story, with time, as memory is recovered

- Inaccurate accounts based on:
  - believe that the interview/services offered (or immigration status) depend on their compliance, and therefore agree to participate in an interview which they would otherwise decline and say what they feel might be in their favour.

- Do not perceive themselves as being trafficked:
  - Some may not perceive their work setting as abusive or slavery-like, and may not take exception to the work but rather object to the relationships that are exploitative.
These complexities, added to the trauma reactions mentioned earlier, can make it hard to approach victims of trafficking (particularly women trafficked for the sex industry), to establish trust, get their cooperation, acquire truthful responses, and to fully comprehend their decisions and reactions. These factors will also make it difficult to firstly, identify the victim and secondly, decide if the person has the capacity for and is able to give informed consent, make well informed decisions and cooperate with the legal system or the health professional.

The Guiding Principles for Ethical and Safe Interview:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Do no harm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Know your subject and assess the risks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Prepare referral information – do not make promises that you cannot fulfil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Adequately select and prepare interpreters and co-workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ensure anonymity and confidentiality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Get informed consent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Listen to and respect each person’s assessment of their situation and risks to their safety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Do not re-traumatize individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Be prepared for emergency intervention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Put information collected to good use</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Procedures and Approaches When Relating With Victims of Trafficking:

Firstly, it is important to adopt an appropriate, safe and ethical procedure. The interviewer/professional should know what to do - be well informed/aware of the impact that trauma of trafficking has on victims, which may include suicide attempts or absconding. Remember that they have not only suffered the trauma of being victims of trafficking, but they may have been unwillingly separated from loved ones and support groups. They are in an unfamiliar country, with unfamiliar customs/culture/food/weather/other and
may not speak or understand English. They may have contracted a medical condition and not received help and been betrayed by all those they consider to have authority and power. And an even greater consideration is that they may still be at risk or feel to be at risk and may feel constantly watched/under surveillance by the trafficker. Mostly they feel trapped with no safe way out. They have suffered physically and medically and may be trapped in a debt, bondage. They may realise the implications of having been working illegally with no visa and have little, if any knowledge of their rights and legal options.

The safest way to make contact with a trafficked victim is to first ensure the person is clearly out of the trafficking situation. Often, the most effective and secure means of communication is through a local organisation known to the victim, that is trusted, such as social service groups, a trusted local group, a shelter, refuges or religious organisations. This is particularly important if the person still has clear attachments to agents or employers.

The need/request for help of the victim should take immediate precedence over the interview. Offering assistance in the wrong way can backfire. The interviewer should ask questions that elicit the victim’s understanding of danger faced, the perceived options and their hopes and expectations for help/assistance.

The timing of the interview is also important. The longer the time between the trafficked person’s contact with the traffickers and the interview, the more likely the person will feel safe enough to disclose details of the experience. There are several planning stages:

Stage 1: Deciding to conduct the interview and when to conduct it. Given the extreme risks associated with trafficking it is important the safety of the victim be considered. People in the process of leaving or having recently escaped from trafficking are vulnerable to harm, as may be their family or friends. These risks, as well as the psychological trauma they experience may not be always evident, so a proper risk assessment is crucial before a decision to interview...
is made. If a possible risk is considered, the interview should be delayed till the person feels safer and feels can have some control over the interview situation. Once decision to interview is made, the victim’s fears need to be discussed/dealt with immediately.

Stage 2: Selecting the interviewer. It is also important that the interviewer pose no fear or threat to the victim. Issues such as cultural and religious differences that may be perceived as threatening/unsafe should be considered, also any similarities between the abuser and the interviewer.

Stage 3: Identifying a time and a place for the interview. The possibilities of the victim being watched, followed or overheard should be considered, particularly if the interview is carried out were the victim is living/working as even co-workers may be a threat to speak out. Interviews should be conducted in a secure and completely private setting, and carried out in total privacy. Non-governmental organisations, a social support services or a religious organisation are often among the safest options. The person should be free to reschedule or relocate the interview to a time or place that may be safer or more convenient. The interview should be person-centred - flexible with scheduling and duration. Pushing for a particular time, duration or place could be risky. Interviews should not be long and emotionally draining and the person should feel at ease. Check their time availability and time they must leave.

Stage 4: Conducting the interview. The interviewer should come well prepared to listen without judging and having acquired a good history of the victim (see below for interview guidelines). Though it is helpful to come well prepared with questions, interviews that yield the most accurate portrayal of the victim’s experience are those that are unstructured but are responsive and follows the story of the victim and their feelings, as they evolve. This depends on an open mind and the listening and interpreting skills of the interviewer. For example, while
Interviewers should demonstrate understanding and concern, expressions of pity or sympathy may be inappropriate and unwelcome as some may not wish to be treated as victims.

**Stage 5:** **Ongoing observations of safety.** Even if the victim agreed on terms and conditions of the interview person may begin to feel unsafe or ill at any time. It is important to notice the clues that indicate discomfort as this may mean willingness to continue may have changed and be ready to change the subject or discontinue the interview. Changes could be brought up by the topic being discussed, questions being asked, perceiving someone in the area that could bring unsafe feelings (e.g. interruptions by other staff).

**Stage 6:** **Closing the interview.** Always close the interview in a positive way. Trafficking can cause a range of strong emotional and psychological reactions. After discussing their experience, some will feel relieved to have talked about it, while others will feel worse about themselves, their situation, and their future. It is important not to leave the person feeling bad about themselves or the situation. For example, the interviewer can reflect on how well the person coped in such difficult circumstances, perhaps using specific examples from her narrative, and how the information provided will be used to help others. This is also the time to offer referrals to needed services/supports.

**An example of a closing statement:** “Thank you for making time to see me and having the courage to talk about your experiences. There is no excuse for what has happened to you and how you have been treated. Nobody deserves that. I am impressed as to how strong and courageous you have been in order to survive the abusive experiences. I hope that the services I have recommended are helpful to you. Do call if when you go home you realise you have any questions or remembered something you wanted to tell me. Remember we are here to try and help you the best we can.”
Interview Approaches
The victim should be approached in a sensitive, nonjudgmental manner, showing respect and making them realise that you consider their welfare as a priority. Some guidelines to consider:

1. Be well informed about the person you are interviewing and be aware of the symptoms - symptoms may range from deep apathy to extreme levels of anger and hostility, lack of cooperation, inconsistency and/or changes in statements given. Deal with it and support the needs (psychological, medical and social), fears and the rights of the victim. Know who you are interviewing, what is the history (if any available) of the person, the cultural and trafficking background. Know what are the risks associated with the trafficking of the particular person you are interviewing before the interview.

2. Gather information to determine their immediate needs and concerns. Provide practical assistance in accordance to needs caused by trauma (e.g. loss of a place to live, dislocation from support systems they may have attained through their experience, etc.)

3. Begin simply, with an introduction saying you are there to help and listen. Do not start with a discussion of the trauma, but with a focus on making the person comfortable and feel safe. Ask about what they are presently doing and whether she/he would like help, what and how.

4. Establish their trust before expecting them to trust you and tell you their story (in most cases, because of victim’s bad experience with legal officers, gaining the assistance of a neutral professional is beneficial).

5. Let the person lead – trust their process – follow their timing and let them know they can talk about whatever they want.
6. Ask questions that follow the person’s narrative, to make them aware you are listening and to help guide the process.

7. Always work with permission – never force or pressure the person to remember or to feel. Ask if they would like to discuss something before leading further.

8. Create space for the person to move into discussing more emotionally difficult material, as long as he/she is not overwhelmed and is willing. The goal is to help the person integrate what has happened and give a true and credible story.

9. Do no harm - Ensure the victim is safe and protected from the trafficker/abuser/s before approaching an interview. If necessary, offer police protection (range of measures, e.g. a mobile to call if help needed) before any attempt to interview. Be sure that any material you give them will not put them at risk of the trafficker/abuser (a small card with phone numbers/addresses, that they can hide is better). Treat each person and the situation as if the potential for harm is extreme until there is evidence to the contrary. Be aware of possible “unsafe situations”, e.g. picking or dropping victim off at place of dwelling. Do not undertake any interview that will make the person’s situation worse in the short term or longer term. Some helpful questions:

“Do you know why you are here and what is this interview about?”
“How do you feel about it?”

Have you ever had an interview before? What was it about? How did you feel doing it? What happened as a consequence of the interview?
“Do you have any concerns about talking with me? if yes: “What are they?”

“Do you think that talking to me could bring any problems for you, your family, those who assisted in your trafficking or someone you care for or know?

“Do you feel this is a good time and place to discuss your experience?” If client says “no”: “Can you tell me why? When and where would it be better for you?”

10. Be prepared for an emergency intervention if the person says to be in imminent danger. If an emergency arises during the interview (e.g. person becomes extremely upset/afraid of a perceived threat), be prepared to change the subject of the conversation, to take a break or finish/re-schedule the interview.

11. Be culturally sensitive – and use an interpreter if needed. Check if the person is comfortable with that particular interpreter and interviewer. Be aware of religion/sex/political/cultural differences that may be considered as threatening/risk issues that might affect the trust and feelings of safety. Interpreters should be carefully assessed to ensure they have no involvement with trafficking agents or abusers. Select and prepare the interpreter well. Speaking the same language may build trust but may also bring fear or shame of speaking about their experience with someone of their own background, particularly if it is a woman in the sex industry from a culture were sex out of marriage is forbidden and severely punished. Weigh the risks and benefits associated with employing interpreters, co-workers or others, and develop adequate methods for screening and training. Sometimes the victim has a trusted person they would rather have interpret. If so, ensure person is well (a police check might be essential) checked and clear as to the purpose and
confidentiality of the interview and agrees to serve as an interpreter.

12. Ensure anonymity and confidentiality as much as possible. Protect the person’s identity and confidentiality throughout the entire interview process – from the moment the person is contacted through the time that details of the case are made public. Explain to person the precautions that have been take to protect them and that all details of the interview will be strictly confidential and if any revelation needs to take place, tis will be discussed with them. They need to know they have the right to not give their name or any information as to where they come from (particularly if interview is recorded). However, if legally required, better to use codes and not written directly in report notes, giving the person proper advise and explanation. Contents should be discussed only with those bound by same duty of care and any information from another victim should not be divulged to any other.

13. Get informed consent and advice of “rights” before attempting the interview. Make certain that the person clearly understands the reason, content (including any potential upsetting questions that may be asked), intent of the interview, possible risks and how the information will be used and what safety precautions are in place. The person should also be informed of their rights to not answer, to terminate the interview at any time and to put restrictions on how the information will be used. It is more helpful if the initial request for the interview comes from someone they trust.

14. Initiate contact and engage in a non-intrusive, compassionate and helpful manner – listen to and respect each person’s account and view of their situation and fears for their safety. Each person will have different concerns, and these may be different to those you have.
15. **Listen to their story and believe them.** People need to tell their story but not be pushed to do so. They need to know you are willing to listen. Trauma, by definition, is outside the ordinary experience and we should not let our beliefs about what can or can not be true get in the way of believing their stories.

16. **Pay attention to their feelings and allow their expression.** When people have been badly hurt they may freeze up their feelings in order to survive. However, as they enter the path to recovery they need to get their feelings back, so they can function again. Do not push them but let nature take its course, but do ask them how they are feeling.

17. **Lead away from emotionally painful material if the client seems overwhelmed.** Monitor the client’s reactions to make sure that the feelings and experiences that are arising are not overwhelming in the present and enhance the feelings of safety (e.g. professionals can help them create a safe place in their minds). Signs of feeling overwhelmed/unable to take in the experience now are:
   a. Experiences leaving her/his body
   b. Loses ability to communicate
   c. Seems “spacey” – eyes glazed and seem “not there” or far away
   d. Experiences perceptual distortions (e.g. cold, numb, visual field narrows, feel like cotton, unable to move parts of body).

18. **Make them feel accepted – be non-judgmental in your approach.** People that have been violated experience feelings about themselves that they cannot stand. They judge themselves harshly and sometimes cannot even stand the fact that they are alive. They need to feel accepted and valued and not as having been “spoiled” or “ruined” by what they have been through, even if that is how they feel themselves.

19. **Be neutral/detached.** Victims need our neutrality. Many of the
events they tell may illicit strong feelings. Accepting them and reflecting them so they realise it is appropriate to feel that way can be helpful. Part of our job is to help them find their own feelings, so they need us to be calm, grounded and not have emotional reactions. It is their feelings and not ours that should occupy the intervention time/space.

20. **Reflect what you hear and see.** Telling the client how she/he comes across to you (e.g. “I notice you look a little frightened?”) can sometimes help client focus on how they feel and be more able to tell their story.

21. **Do not re-traumatise the person** - do not ask questions that may provoke an emotionally charged response, cause distress, put blame on the victim or force a traumatic revelation they are not yet ready to deal with. Be prepared to respond to the person’s distress and highlight their strengths. Check their reactions/changes in facial expressions, body postures, tension, skin colour, etc. and ask how they are and if they would like to continue, change the subject or terminate/re-schedule the session. Interview questions and responses should be:
   a. Questions should be given in a supportive, non-judgmental manner and responses affirmed supportively.
   b. The victim should be allowed to direct the pace and the direction of the interview.
   c. Visual and oral responses should be empathetic, non-judgemental, and supportive.
   d. The interviewer should react to distress by offering to pause, take a break or terminate/re-schedule interview. If it is decided to terminate, the comfort and safety of person should be assured before leaving the room.
   e. It should be up to the person whether or not to proceed. Never push a distressed person to continue.
   f. The interviewer should show concern and remind the person of their strength and intelligence for having survived such difficult events.
g. Do not set interview time/length of time but leave it up to the person. Some may want to continue talking after the questions have been answered. This should be respected.

22. Do not make promises that you cannot keep - do provide information in the person’s native language and the local language (if different) about the services that can be made available for them (legal, health, shelter, social support and security services) and help with the referral, if requested. Do not push them to accept services but let them decide when ready. Be sure the services you are providing information about are willing and able to provide those services to trafficked victims.

23. Ensure they are provided with stability and ongoing safety (physically, medically, socially and psychologically and if necessary, financial) before any attempt to interview. Provide practical assistance (or arrange for it to be provided by an impartial/non legal officer) in helping them address immediate needs and concerns.

24. Provide them with information on the effects and symptoms of trauma (give them written handouts or arrange for a neutral/non-legal officer to do so and discuss with them) and what to expect and where to gain assistance.

25. Empathise with the victim and give options for recovery/specialist supports.

26. Keep constant vigilance, ensuring the safety of the victim.

27 Respect their boundaries. Trauma breaches people’s normal boundaries so they need to know that their wishes matter, that you will not force them to respond in anyway other than what they choose, and that you will not invade them. Sometimes they need to be left alone and be there with help only when they are ready and want the help. People heal in different ways and their own time
– ask them. They will cooperate only when their basic needs have been met and they are ready to talk and can start to trust.

28. Make it known to them that they can leave if they want. People that have experienced situations of being “trapped”, e.g. sequestered, imprisoned and/or tortured need to know they can get out if they want.

29. Do not touch them if they do not want to be. People who have learned to associate touch with violation often cannot bear to be touched, even in kindness. This is especially true if the trauma was sexual violation.

30. Focus on body sensations. Sometimes it helps the nervous system to unwind with trauma, particularly when they get stuck in the past. This may make it difficult for them to cooperate with interrogations. They need to move carefully out of being stuck and to do so may need professional assistance.

31. Help them recognize and develop their resources. Help them realise that their lives is more than the trauma and that their spirit is greater – that they have opportunities to grow beyond the obstacles.

32. Face complex situations in providing safe, appropriate care. Before any legal action, ensure the victim has human needs met (safety, food, shelter, clothes, medical, psychiatric/psychological attention and legal protection). They may need time (sometime months) before mental health symptoms start to reduce. Putting pressure or pushing a victim before they are ready can not only re-traumatise the victim, fail to bring accurate memories, but will result in lack of cooperation.

33. Do not enhance trauma or re-traumatise the victim by seeking criminal action when too early in the process and before they are ready.
34. Keep them informed of what is occurring and at all times conduct interventions with due regard for their rights and safety.

35. Have an impartial organisation/professional do a risk assessment and help facilitate their safe return, particularly assessing vulnerabilities for being re-trafficked. Forced return may fail to correctly identify trafficking status in the destination country, result in missed opportunities to access assistance, including temporary residency options, in the destination country.

36. Put the information collected to good use - in a way that benefits the person or advances the development of good policies and interventions for trafficked people in general.

The Well Being of the Interviewer/Worker

Conducting an interview and working with victims of trafficking can not only be emotionally stressful for the professionals but may also put them in danger from those involved in the trafficking. They may experience some trauma symptoms, such as anxiety, distress, helplessness and other symptoms, such as physical ones. These symptoms could be aggravated if the professional has had personal traumatic experiences that are revived by the victim’s stories, even if they think they may have dealt successfully with them in the past. This may cause failure to be sensitive to and respond to the victim’s needs. In some situations it may bring feelings of wanting to be the victim’s saviour and make unrealistic promises. It is important that they are supported and supervised through these experiences.

Interviewers should feel:
- They have received appropriate training and information.
- They are aware of their capabilities and limitations and are free to bring them out and seek help as needed.
- The location is safe.
• If location not considered safe, ensure there is outside support contact that is aware of the time, etc. of the interview or have someone standing nearby. Contact with the support person should be arranged immediately after the interview.

• If victim has information that may put the interviewer in danger (e.g. about corrupt officials), tactfully dissuade person from telling their story until the appropriate officer is present.

• Have access to regular supervision and ongoing support as needed.

Treatments for PTSD
The cornerstone of treatment for PTSD involves accepting the traumatic memory and working through thoughts and beliefs associated with the experience. Trauma-focussed treatments can:

• Reduce PTSD symptoms
• Lessen anxiety and depression
• Improve a person’s quality of life.
• They are also effective for people who have experienced prolonged or repeated traumatic events, but more time may be needed.

Available Interventions or PTSD:
• Cognitive models of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD). These propose that avoidance plays an important role in both the development and maintenance of the disorder. These models suggest that avoidance of trauma memories limits the processing of trauma memories and associated emotional reactions, which in turn maintains PTSD.

• Cognitive-behavioural therapy (CBT), which focuses on the way a person interprets and reacts to experience. CBT identifies and addresses maladaptive thoughts and beliefs about the event that may be interfering with recovery.
• **Eye-movement desensitization and reprocessing (EMDR).** This is a complex, integrative method of individual psychotherapy in which the therapist guides the client through a procedure to access and resolve troubling experiences and emotions. It brings together elements of many psychological orientations, including psychodynamic, cognitive-behavioural, client-centred, gestalt, and bio-energetic approaches to psychotherapy.

• **Group therapy.**

• **Exposure therapy,** in which the person works through the trauma by reliving the experience under controlled conditions. This therapy is now proving to be dangerous in most cases as it may re-traumatize the victim and if used, should be very carefully done.

• **Joint EMDR-Solution focused** to change negative perceptions to workable ones, developed by Dr M C Barreda-Hanson. This is a technique using variations of two others that focuses on positive future experience/s through the use of visualisation activation of left hemisphere in the brain from prompt changes.

• **Pharmacotherapy:** sertraline and fluoxetine are the only FDA-approved treatments for PTSD, though some studies have not found any difference between these and a placebo. Studies carried out with Veterans having chronic PTSD, using prazosin appears to show particular promise for treatment of disabling nightmares and sleep disturbances. Interestingly, patients also reported a normalizing of their dreams—moving from experiences of traumatic nightmares to less troubling dreams. However, it did not improve PTSD symptoms.

• **Other Medications** can also be used for depression and anxiety.
• Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) is a technique for noninvasive stimulation of the adult brain. Stimulation is produced by generating a brief, high-intensity magnetic field by passing a brief electric current through a magnetic coil in contact with the scalp. rTMS is a new technology similar to ECT, without the impact on memory that ECT has and is showing promise as a treatment for depression.

Past Interventions for PTSD no Longer Found Useful:
• Non-trauma-focused therapies were found by research to be ineffective

• Psychotherapy – if not exposure based has not been found to be effective

• Psychological debriefing, including the often-used Critical Incident Stress Debriefing found that this single-session not only did not work but that could actually be harmful. Studies have shown that this method may actually increase the risk of PTSD or at least impair the natural healing process, as the single-session exposure seems more likely to cause sensitization instead of desensitization.

• In vivo exposure – has been found to have mixed results and could re-traumatise person if not done appropriately.

• Medication not useful for all. For example, it has been found that medication is not as effective for combat veterans as they are for civilians. Studies are being carried out as to the effects of medication on different forms of PTSD (e.g. long term PTSD as opposed to recent victims).

• Antidepressants may assist with the reduction of depression but not the symptoms of PTSD.
Immediate psychological interventions, such as debriefing where a common practice for all type of traumas. Now, research has shown that in some situations, such as environmental traumas, it is better to delay psychological interventions until the main human needs have been take care off. Psychological First Aid addresses this and is the preferred model.

Who can help:

- A General Practitioner with trauma experience
- A mental health specialist, such as a psychiatrist, psychologist or social worker, with experience in PTSD
- The local community health centre

The difference between post-traumatic stress and PTSD:
The difference between post-traumatic stress and PTSD is in the symptoms. Post-traumatic stress may include some PTSD symptoms such as nightmares and flashbacks, but it can also include depression, eating disorders, heavy drinking, and gambling. These are not normally symptoms of PTSD.

Post-traumatic stress symptoms are usually short-lived – but if you don’t deal with them, the symptoms could progress to PTSD.

Summary
Many trafficked individuals are deceived with promises of good jobs, marriage or education opportunities with a small percentage reporting forced recruitment. Trafficking as well as re-trafficking occurs within a complex array of interacting economic, social, cultural and psychological factors. The ramifications of a trafficking experience are far-reaching and the effects of having been trafficked often continue after exit and/or upon return to the country of origin. Physically exiting a trafficking situation does not always equate to escaping the ramifications of having been exploited. The control mechanisms involved in trafficking do not
necessarily end at exit and/or escape from a trafficking situation, as trafficker(s) may still exert control over the victim through threats and/or “debts” owed. Moreover, when trafficked persons return to the same socio-economic situation that contributed to their trafficking in the first instance, they are potentially vulnerable to further trafficking harm. Other difficulties on return, such as “debts owed”, stigma of having been trafficked, ongoing threats to family, poverty and inability to find jobs in the country of destination may cause re-trafficking. Re-trafficking may also occur because a trafficked person is not able to access the necessary help and assistance in the country of destination, or before he/she is able to get such help. The same circumstances that rendered the person vulnerable to trafficking in the first instance may remain, making them vulnerable to re-trafficking. Without medical, psychological or psychiatric support the trauma of being trafficked will continue to have permanent effects and debilitating outcomes in all areas of life

Some Stories:

1.- One trafficked person, when interviewed specifically requested for the local police not to be involved in her assistance, as she believed that the local police had a hand in her trafficking. She recalled escaping and seeking assistance from the police on at least two separate occasions, but she was subsequently sent pack to her trafficker(s) on each instance.

2.- A woman recounted how law-enforcement officials intercepted her, took her to the police station and stamped her passport to indicate that she was to be deported. However, instead of deporting her, these law-enforcement officials handed her back to her trafficker.

3.- One woman described how she was afraid to approach the police in the country to which she was re-trafficked due
to her previous experience with the police when she was initially trafficked. When this woman was first trafficked to the Russian Federation, she escaped her exploiter and then approached the police for help. In this encounter, she said that the policeman “just laughed at her” and send her back to the trafficker. This experience contributed to her distrust of the law-enforcement authorities she later encountered in the country to which she was trafficked on a second occasion.

4.- A woman who was detained by the police on two separate occasions and her whereabouts were disclosed by the police to her trafficker(s) on both occasions. The trafficker eventually came to the police station to take the woman back to her place of exploitation. A “client” later assisted this woman in exiting the trafficking situation.

5.- One young trafficked minor was initially housed by a children’s NGO upon her return to her country of origin but was later returned to her family, where she had been subjected to abuse before her first trafficking experience. As a result, she again tried to escape her difficult family situation by migrating abroad irregularly and was subsequently trafficked for sexual exploitation for a second time.

Examples of victims with a visa:

1.- Though labour exploitations do not usually fulfil the criteria for trafficking, there are reports of “debt bondage”. A well publicised case is that of Chinese worker who started working in Melbourne with a $10,000 debt to his employer. After the employer made deductions for the debt owed, rent, taxes and health benefits, the gentleman ended earning only $280 a week even though he worked 60 hours a week. After the employer was made to pay back
the $10,000 the gentleman was told his work was not up to standard and had his contract terminated, so he would be deported.

2. - A young lady brought from India in an arranged marriage was made to act as a servant and have sex with the single brothers of her husband. She had to take care of her mother-in-law and not allowed to leave the house unsupervised or would be severely punished/beaten. She was eventually able to escape and with police help enter a woman’s refuge. As she did not have a visa and her husband declared the marriage null, she was to be deported. With the help of the Migrant Resource Centre and a psychologist she was able to put a good case forth and remain in Australia.

3. - A young lady was brought as a domestic servant through an Embassy. She was not paid, not allowed to leave the house and her work entailed all house duties, including overnight caring of the children. Her visa was limited to her work and her employer kept her passport. She eventually escaped, going to a person she had met through her work in the Embassy but was very afraid of telling the authorities out of fear of reprisal, incarceration or deportation.

4. - Young girl sold into marriage was forced to traffic illegal drugs to her country of origin and then incarcerated (out of fear that she would go to the police) at home when she found out what it was and forced into prostitution. She was told she had to repay in this way the money her husband had had to pay for her. If she resisted she would be severely beaten up. One day she managed to escape when the door was left unlocked and a sympathetic neighbour sheltered her, initiating a successful protection order.
Bibliography and Relevant Articles:


Amherst, MA: Coalition Against Trafficking in Women.


Australian Centre for Post Traumatic Mental Health (2007). *Australian Guidelines for the Treatment of Adults with Acute Stress Disorder and Posttraumatic Stress*. Melbourne


Effects of Initial Trauma Exposure on the Symptomatic Response to a Subsequent Trauma. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*. Vo. 33, No. 2, 97-102


International Ethical Guidelines for Biomedical Research Involving Human Subjects. Geneva: CIOMS.


of Organized Violence. San Jose, Costa Rica.


Human Trafficking and Human Consequences


Schmookler, Ed (2001) TRAUMA TREATMENT MANUAL ; Albany, CA


Gender Differences on Lifestyles and Health in Spanish and Immigrant Adolescents

Manuela A. Fernández-Borrero,
Universidad de Huelva
Pilar Ramos-Valverde
Carmen Moreno-Rodríguez
Antonia Jiménez-Iglesias
I García-Moya
Universidad de Sevilla

Abstract
This work has been carried out within international survey Health Behavior in School Aged Children (HBSC) and it shows the gender differences in lifestyles and health in Spanish and immigrant adolescents. The main results show interesting differences in body image satisfaction and other variables.

Introduction
This work has been carried out within international survey Health Behavior in School Aged Children (HBSC) and it shows the gender differences in lifestyles and health in Spanish and immigrant adolescents.

The HBSC is a study supported by the World Health Organization that is made every four years in western countries, with a common interest in obtaining a global view of adolescents’ lifestyles and health-related behaviours. This knowledge can be used as a tool in the design of strategies and intervention plans. The main objectives in the HBSC study are:

- To initiate and to support the national and international surveys on the study of school-age children’s health and well-being, as well as the developmental contexts.
- To contribute to the theoretical and methodological development in the research areas.

- To share conclusions with the relevant audiences: researchers, policy-makers and intervention designers, health promotion professionals and to the main society agents.

- To collaborate with organisms and external associations with the purpose of activating health promotion initiatives within school children population.

- To support the network of experts in health-related behaviours.

Adolescence is a crucial stage in the development of human beings and it must be studied from multilevel approaches that make it possible to develop practices and suitable programs that harness adolescents’ growth, while preventing adversities and difficulties. The adolescence is not a merely biological process. Instead, it includes psychological and social aspects. Adolescence is an important stage for the acquisition and maintenance of lifestyles (Heaven, 1996). The adolescents’ self-concept emerges both as a reflexive adaptation of social demands and as a result of psychological and physiological development (Bergman & Scott, 2001).

The term lifestyle was defined by the WHO as a general way of living based on the “interaction between the conditions of life in an ample sense and the individual patterns of conduct determined by sociocultural factors and personal characteristics” (O.M.S., 1989). According to Rodrigo et al. (2004), the healthy lifestyle is a set of patterns of behaviour and habits closely related to health in an ample sense, that provides well-being and biopsychosocial development.

Health is another important term for this work. The HBSC study understands health as defined by the comprehensive biopsychosocial model. Finally, it’s necessary to explain the differences between the terms sex and gender. The Journal of the American Medical Association (JAMA), defines sex as “the classification of living
things, generally as male or female according to their reproductive organs and functions assigned by chromosomal complement” and gender as “a person’s self-representation as male or female, or how that person is responded to by social institutions based on the individual’s gender presentation. Gender is rooted in biology and shaped by environment and experience” (Wizemann & Pardue, 2001: p.17).

This paper has the following two objectives: 1) to explore gender inequalities in lifestyles in Spanish and immigrant population; 2) to analyse the relationships between lifestyles and health in Spanish male and female adolescents.

**Method**

**Participants**

The sample of this study consisted of 21,811 Spanish adolescents between the ages of 11 and 18 years, being 50.6% girls and 19.4% boys (table 1).

A random multi-stage sampling that taken into account age, habitat of residence, type of educational centre and region was used. This way the national represenattiveness was ensured (±1.1% precision error).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
<th>BOYS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11 a 12 years</td>
<td>3072</td>
<td>2797</td>
<td>5869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 a 14 years</td>
<td>2719</td>
<td>2780</td>
<td>5499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 a 16 years</td>
<td>3009</td>
<td>2724</td>
<td>5733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 a 18 years</td>
<td>2776</td>
<td>1934</td>
<td>4710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>11577</td>
<td>10234</td>
<td>21811</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Instrument**

The HBSC questionnaire includes a wide range of content. In this work, the variables analysed were: sociodemographic variables,
eating habits, oral hygiene, physical activity and sedentarism, substance use, sexual health, violence and injuries. Besides, it includes questions about positive and global health, as measured by the Global Health Score (Ramos, Moreno, Rivera, & Perez, 2010).

**Procedure**

The information collection procedure complied with the criteria dictated by the international coordination of the HBSC study. Firstly, it must be the students themselves who respond to the questionnaire. Secondly, the anonymity of the participant must be guaranteed. Lastly, the administration of the questionnaires must be carried out within the school context and by trained staff.

The statistical analyses included descriptive analysis and for the complex results, stepwise multiple linear regression analysis, answer tree analysis and structural equation modeling.

**Results**

Gender differences. General approach.

The results of the HBSC study in Spain show the existence of gender and age inequalities in different variables. Overall, positive health and life satisfaction are lower among girls, while risk behaviors occur more frequently in boys.

The results on gender differences are presented bellow. On lifestyles, healthier patterns of fruit and vegetables intake are found in girls. In contrast, boys report better physical activity habits. Other gender differences appear in eating habits. Firstly, among 13 to 16 year-old adolescents, regularity in breakfast is more frequent in boys than in girls. In addition, breakfast frequency decreases as age increases, especially in girls. Secondly, optimal patterns of fruit and vegetable consumption are more frequent in girls (20.2% and 24%, respectively), than in boys (15.9% and 17.1%, respectively). Finally, sweet consumption is higher in girls (21.8% in girls and 15.5% in boys), whereas in the case of
soft drinks consumption boys outnumber girls (23.2% in girls, 28.2% in boys).

Regarding overweight boys show higher percentages than girls (20.3% and 11.8% respectively). However, girls’ reports of being on a diet or using other weight control behaviour are more frequent than boys’ (15.6% and 10.2%, respectively). The aforementioned differences are more noticeable at the ages of 15 and 16 years. In addition, changes associated to age also differs between boys and girls. In boys the percentage that report being on a diet decreases with age. In contrast, in females weight control behaviours increase with age. Besides, girls show a lower satisfaction with their body image at all ages. This paradox regarding weight and body image will be discussed more deeply in the next section.

Moreover, the percentage of adolescents who are physically active seven days a week during at least 60 minutes a day (not necessarily at the same time) is markedly lower in girls (13.7%) than boys (28.6%). Despite the higher percentage of boys reporting that they are physically active, males also show higher levels in sedentarism i.e. watching television (2.17 hours a day in boys and 1.82 for girls).

Another important lifestyle variable is dental hygiene, that increases with age significantly in girls, with 65.5% of girls compared to 46.9% of the boys reporting that they brush their teeth more than once a day.

With respect to substance use boys usually outnumber girls, except for daily tobacco consumption which is more common in girls (10.8% for girls and 7.1% for boys). Weekly alcohol consumption, nevertheless, is more common in boys; those gender differences are greater in the 17-18 years old group (47.3% in boys and 38.9% in girls). There are no gender differences in frequency of drunkenness. Finally, the use of other illegal drugs is also more frequently in boys.

In sexual health (only for those 15 or older), the results show that the percentage of adolescents that have coital sexual intercourse
is similar of boys and girls (35.2% in girls and 34.3% in boys). However, girls reported a lower number of sexual partners. With regard to contraception (when asked about the method they used the last time you had sexual intercourse) condom use, withdrawal and use of the pill as a contraception method is similar in both sexes.

Finally, regarding injuries, most participants have suffered injuries that required medical treatment at least once in the last year, boys report more frequently have injuries than girls.

The last section analysed in this study is devoted to health and psychological adjustment. Overall, girls’ scores indicate poorer health or adjustment than boys’. For instance, 40.8% of boys rate their health as “excellent” compared to 26.1% of girls. In addition, 73.6% of girls report experiencing psychosomatic complaints (headache, stomachache, backache, dizziness, low mood, irritability, nervousness and difficulty sleeping) at least almost every week, compared with 57.5% of boys.

**Multivariate analyses and gender paradoxes**

This section summarizes the results from different techniques on multivariate analyses, such as regression models, factor analysis, structural equation modeling and AnswerTree.

First, we conducted univariate mean comparison analyses and stepwise multiple linear regression performed for different dependent variables (body image perception, satisfaction with body image and dieting status) and differentially for boys and girls. The values of BMI depending on sex showed statistically significant differences ($t (15.7) = 13.680, p <.001$); moderate underweight and standard weight are more common in girls (13.06% and 56.8%, respectively) than in boys (10.27% and 49.3%, respectively). With respect to obesity and overweight, boys stand out (12.28% boys compared to 6.44% in girls). Regarding body image perception ($\chi^2 (4) = 328, p <.001$), boys perceive themselves as a little or too thin, compared to girls. On the other
hand, girls report lower levels of body image satisfaction ($t (11.6) = -25.569, p < .001$).

Finally, there are statistically significant differences in dieting behavior ($\chi^2 (2) = 363.353, p < .001$). More boys than girls (14.88 percentage points more) report not being on a diet to lose weight. In contrast, girls are more likely to believe that they should lose weight and to be on a diet.

With respect with regression analysis on body image perception, show that the adolescents’ body satisfaction with their body image has a significant effect on the body image perception for girls, but is non-significant in boys. In boys, the significant predictors explains 49% of the variability on body image perception and are in order of importance: BMI and dieting status; this results have to do with the fact that those that perceive themselves as being fat tend to have higher BMI and, consequently, to be on a diet. In girls, the total percentage of explained variability is 51.3%, and body image satisfaction appear as a new significant predictor in the model. The effects of BMI and dieting status are similar to those described in boys. Satisfaction with their body image acts differently, girls that perceive themselves as being thin tend to be more satisfied with their body image.

In the regression analysis on satisfaction with body image, the results indicate a low level of explained variability in boys (11.7%), and the significant predictors are dieting status and body image perception. In girls, the level of explanation is higher (30.6%), and the significant variables were the same, although the perception of body image was most influential than dieting status.

Dieting status as a dependent variable is also analyzed by means of structural equation modeling. The model obtained for boys (total level of explanation of 39%), included the following predictors: body perception (those that perceive themselves as being fat are more likely to be on a diet), satisfaction with body image (the more dissatisfied they are the more likely to be on a diet) and BMI (those with higher BMI do tend to be on a diet more frequently). In the
case of girls, the level of explanation is 43%, and the significant predictors are the same, although the most influential variable is satisfaction with body image.

In addition, structural equation models build separately for boys and girls have been analyzed including the previous variables (BMI, body perception, satisfaction with body image and dieting status) as well as other relevant variables such as skipping breakfast (another variable related to the behavioral component, along with dieting status) and the Global Health Score, GHS (Ramos, Rivera and Moreno, 2012), a factorial score consisting of the four following variables: 1) Satisfaction life, measured by Cantril ladder (1965); 2) Health-related quality of life, as measured by the Kidscreen-10 (KIDSCREEN group Europe, 2006); 3) Self-rated health (Idler & Benyamini, 1997); 4) Psychosomatic complaints (Haugland & Wold, 2001).

Overall, the results of this GHS show that boys have statistically significant better scores than girls (F (1.1895 = 453.05, p <.001). Moreover, a decrease in GHS is found when age increases, with a higher magnitude in girls compared to boys.

The results from structural equation modeling (see Figure 1) show that the influence of body satisfaction in dieting is higher in girls. Specifically, the influence of BMI influence control weight behaviours through the perception of body image. The central variable in both models (for boys and girls) is the satisfaction with body image. Nevertheless, there are some interesting gender differences. Specifically, the association between the perception of being fat and worse satisfaction with body image is stronger in girls than in boys. Furthermore, the influence of satisfaction with body image on dieting is higher in girls.
The results show that the four components related to eating disorders (*physiological*: BMI, *cognitive*: perception of one’s body as obese, *emotional*: satisfaction with one’s body image and *behavioral*: dieting and skipping breakfast) entail a decrease in the GHS for adolescents (Figure 1). You can find more detailed information on these results in the open-access chapter published in the book *Relevants Topics in Eating Disorders* (Ramos, Rivera & Moreno, 2012). Other results by means of AnswerTree analysis (classification of adolescents according to their health, segmenting the sample depending on the values of the independent lifestyle variables) show that gender differences increase with age on the prediction of health alongside with lifestyles.

Therefore, it is important to learn the patterns or lifestyle constellations and socio-demographical and socioeconomic variables in those adolescents with the best and worst scores for physical, psychological and social wellbeing, according to the
most positive and holistic definition of health. Moreover, the hypothesis is suggested that these lifestyle constellations and sociodemographical and socioeconomic variables, in the prediction of health, vary throughout adolescence; therefore this research also suggests learning about these constellations, independently, for each age groups analyzed (11-12, 13-14, 15-16 and 17-18 year olds). The objective of this data analysis is to select the relevant variables in the prediction of high and low health scores. The algorithm used in this test was the thorough CHAID (Chi-squared Automatic Interaction Detection) and the chi-square test, at the 0.05 level was used as the statistical significance test used to limit the number of variables. Following are the principal results related with the gender differences. The full results of this study can be found on the PhD thesis entitled Lifestyle and health in adolescence (Ramos, 2010).

Firstly, we find that the sex variable is not significant in explaining high and low Global Health Score in 11-12 year-old adolescents. Secondly, about the 13-14 year-old adolescents, eating, physical activity and dental hygiene are contents of the basic lifestyles in the prediction of good health. However, under the same conditions, the proportion of boys with high health score is greater than that of girls. On the other hand, and on the other side of the coin, there are two lifestyle constellations that provide the best prediction for a low health score in the 13-14 year-old adolescents. The second constellation is high consumption of unhealthy food (sweets and soft drinks) and low consumption of healthy food (fruit and vegetables), females and high index of sedentary activities with low frequency of physical activity. Therefore, despite the fact that some of these adolescents have good eating habits, in the case of girls, the low frequency of physical activity and the high index of sedentary activities predict high indexes of a low health score.

Thirdly, the basic variable in the prediction of health produced by the AnswerTree created for the 15-16 year-old adolescent sample is sex, and in a secondary plane, substance use, sexual behavior, injuries, free time and family income.
Among 15-16 year-old adolescents, there are three constellations of variables that predict a large proportion of the high health scores. Firstly, being a boy, having a low substance use (tobacco, alcohol and illegal drugs) and belonging to a family with medium-high income. Secondly, being a boy, having a medium substance use and having a low frequency of free time activities that take place within the context of associations. Thirdly, being a girl, no use of substances, not having had sexual relationships, coming from a family with a medium/high income and carrying out free time activities in associations (independent of the frequency).

Therefore, the variables that best contribute to health in 15-16 year-old adolescents are the male sex and a low or medium level of substance use, above all when this is accompanied by a medium-high family income or when free time activities take place within associations with a low frequency. On the other hand, for girls to have a high health score, they need a larger number of requirements, such as: having low substance use, not having had sexual relationships, belonging to families with a medium or high income and attending some type of association to carry out their free time activities.

On the other hand, there are two other lifestyle constellations that, in this case, predict low health scores of the 15-16 year-old adolescents. Firstly, being a girl and having a high or very high degree of substance use. Secondly, being a girl, having a medium degree of substance use and having had several injuries requiring medical attention in the last 12 months. Therefore, in all the nodes, girls stand out for their poor health scores, especially when there is a high degree of substances use or when the degree of consumption decreases, but when they have suffered injuries on several occasions.

Fourthly, in the case of the 17-18 year-old adolescents, the AnswerTree again shows that the basic variable in the prediction of health is the sex of the adolescent, but on a secondary plane, eating habits, dental hygiene, physical activity, substance use, sexual behavior, injuries, free time and Family Affluence Scale.
There are two constellations of variables in the 17-18 year-old adolescents, which predict a large proportion of the high health scores. Firstly, being a boy, having a high frequency of physical activity with a low index of sedentary activities and having had sexual relationships. Secondly, being a boy, having a high frequency of physical activity and having a low index of sedentary activities, not having had sexual relationships nor having suffered multiple injuries. That is to say, in general, what best predicts the high health scores in 17-18 year olds is, once again, being male, and being physically and sexually active. However, if boys are not sexually active, they also obtain high health scores if they have not suffered multiple injuries.

On the other hand, there are three lifestyle constellations that provide the best prediction for low health score in 17-18 year-old.

Firstly, there are girls with medium family income who brush their teeth once a day or less and who use drugs to a medium, high or very high degree. Secondly, there are girls with high family income but who have suffered from multiple injuries that have required medical attention several times. Lastly is the group of girls with low family income. Therefore, with the 17-18 year olds, in addition to the inequalities in health which arise due to sex, those caused by economic reasons are also important, and even more so in girls.

It appears that in girls, coming from families with low income has a negative influence; although those from families with medium income also have a low health score when they have poor dental hygiene habits and when they suffer substance use (at least to a medium degree).

Gender differences and immigrations
The last section of the results is about gender differences in immigrant adolescents\textsuperscript{18} compared to the gender differences in native adolescents. The first-generation of immigrants were the

\textsuperscript{18} HBSC-2006 data.
6.8% of the total participants (1045 adolescents), and the second-generation of immigrants were the 0.8% (122).

In lifestyles variables, immigrant were very similar to native adolescents (table 1). Immigrant girls, compared to immigrant boys, take the breakfast less frequently and have higher daily consumption of vegetables and fruits (with the exception of the second-generation of immigrants). Boys have more frequently overweignt and obesity than girls. Immigrant girls, like native girls, are on diet more frequently than immigrant boys. Immigrant boys have higher scores in physical activity and sedentary behaviours than girls. The same results were obtained in native adolescente.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tabla2. Lifestyle variables in native and immigrant adolescents.</th>
<th>NATIVE</th>
<th>IMMIGRANTS (1ª gen)</th>
<th>IMMIGRANTS (2ª gen)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dairy fruit consumption</td>
<td>20,20%</td>
<td>15,90%</td>
<td>36,40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dairy vegetables</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>17,10%</td>
<td>34,60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweets</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>15,50%</td>
<td>24,70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soft drinks</td>
<td>23,30%</td>
<td>28,20%</td>
<td>39,60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overweight</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>20,30%</td>
<td>12,90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diets</td>
<td>15,60%</td>
<td>10,20%</td>
<td>19,90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Activity</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8,3</td>
<td>8,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV (hours/day)</td>
<td>2,17</td>
<td>1,82</td>
<td>2,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buco-dental</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dental hygiene</td>
<td>65,50%</td>
<td>46,90%</td>
<td>80,40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobbaco (Dairy consumption)</td>
<td>10,80%</td>
<td>7,10%</td>
<td>5,70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never alcohol</td>
<td>48,30%</td>
<td>49,90%</td>
<td>55,20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never drunkenness</td>
<td>68,10%</td>
<td>71,10%</td>
<td>79,50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other drugs</td>
<td>7,30%</td>
<td>9,30%</td>
<td>7,10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual Health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercourse</td>
<td>35,20%</td>
<td>34,30%</td>
<td>33,80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injuries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At least one</td>
<td>49,10%</td>
<td>62,50%</td>
<td>25,60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and adjustment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent health</td>
<td>26,10%</td>
<td>40,80%</td>
<td>24,70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychosomatic complaints</td>
<td>73,60%</td>
<td>57,50%</td>
<td>85,80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life satisfaction</td>
<td>7,8</td>
<td>7,95</td>
<td>7,5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Daily consumption of tobacco is higher in immigrant girls of first-generation than in boys (5.7% in girls and 2.4% in boys), such as the tendency of native adolescents. For the contrary, immigrant boys of second-generation smoke more frequently than girls (6.8% in boys and 2.9% in girls). In alcohol consumption, gender differences are small. The results about sexual health (aged 15 or older) show that immigrant boys of first-generation report higher percentages of coital sexual intercourse than girls. Regarding injuries, girls have suffered injuries less frequently than boys. These differences are higher in immigrants of first-generation than in immigrants of second-generation. Finally, in health and adjustment variables, immigrant girls indicate poorer health and psychological adjustment than immigrant boys (such as native adolescents). Nevertheless, the native percentages are lower than the immigrant percentages.

Conclusions
The results of this work show gender differences in lifestyles and health. Native girls and immigrants girls score higher in daily consumption of fruits and vegetables, but also in daily consumption of sweets. Boys are more physically active and engage more hours in sedentary behaviours than girls, above all in immigrant adolescents. These results do not support the displacement hypothesis that states that physically active activities tend to disappear as a consequence of the time spent in sedentary behaviours (e.g., Andersen, Crespo, Bartlett, Cheskin, & Pratt, 1998). Given that among male adolescents both kinds of behaviours (physical activity and sedentarism) are frequent, these results seem to support previous findings that are not consistent with the displacement hypothesis (Borraccino et al., 2009; Iannotti, Kogan, Janssen, & Boyce, 2009).

Besides, native and immigrant boys take more alcohol and illegal drugs, while girls smoke more frequently, with the exception of boys and girls immigrants of the second-generation, who are not different in tobacco use. Regarding sexual health, native girls
have more often sexual intercourse than boys. For the contrary, in immigrant adolescents, boys have more frequently sexual intercourse than girls.

Concerning to body mass index, body image, corporal satisfaction and to be diet, the results of multivariate analysis indicate that boys and especially girls decide to be diet because of their body image and particularly their corporal satisfaction, and not caused by their current weight. In both, boys and girls, the BMI is not significant for corporal satisfaction and is the less important for to be diet. It could be that boys are worried about to achieve a muscular body image, and the archetype of beauty in girls are associated with thinness (de Gracia, Marco, & Trujano, 2007).

In addition, for girls, their body image has a big importance in corporal satisfaction, higher than for boys. Also, Satisfaction with body image, BMI and to be on diet predict body image perception in girls, but satisfaction Satisfaction with body image does not predict boys’ perception.

On another hand, health perception and psychosomatic complaints is poorer in girls than in boys, in both native and immigrants adolescents, although immigrants girls score higher in symptoms than native girls. These results are found in other studies with adolescents, as the research of Bergman and Scott (2001), who stated that boys report higher positive self esteem, lower negative self-efficacy, less unhappiness, compared to girls. The authors believe that these gender differences can be explained through socialization and gender identity construction.

Moreover, gender differences in health analysed with answers tree show that being female is an important variable in those constellations, which is the best predictor of a low health score, over all in the older age groups.

The worse results in the health of the girls could have diverse causes. Girls are more willing to express their feelings and unpleasant emotions (Maccoby, 1998). Also, they show greater
dissatisfaction with their body image, which specifically affects their self-esteem, life satisfaction and mental health in general (Marcotte, Fortin, Potvin, & Papillon, 2002). Also Bisegger et al. (2005) say that another attempt to explain gender differences involves the argument that the social demands placed on girls are more contradictory and more difficult to achieve and puberty is physically more drastic for girls than for boys.

The data of this research suggest the need to take into consideration two fundamental aspects: first, the prevention of unhealthy lifestyles, bearing in mind the unequal influence according to gender, and secondly, the design of programs aimed at promoting healthy development during adolescence, which are centred on the gender inequalities that become crystallized towards the end of adolescence. These interventions must promote and maintain adolescents’ health and healthy lifestyles, taking into account physical, psychological and social factors. The programs could deal with the prevention of corporal dissatisfaction and unnecessary weight loss diets, mainly in adolescents girls, and with the promotion of healthy habits related to eating and physical activity, which avoid excess weight, especially in adolescents boys.

Finally, for future researches would be interesting to carry out an in-depth study about the differences between native adolescents and immigrant adolescents, a study to analyse the influence of the developmental contexts on adolescents’ health and lifestyles, and also a cross-country study to analyse the importance of national contexts on adolescents’ health and well-being.

Acknowledgements

This research has been funded by an agreement signed between the Spanish Ministry of Health, Social Policy and Equality, and the University of Seville (Spain).
References


Strategies of Acculturation versus Interethnic In-groups Bias and Socio-school Adjustment in Multicultural Contexts

Rocío Guil Bozal
José Miguel Mestre Navas
Paloma Gil-Olarte Márquez
Universidad de Cádiz

Abstract
This paper is placed in the study of the relations between attitudes of acculturation and socio-school adjustment. It has a double aim: 1. To verify if two of the most used criteria in psychosocial literature for evaluating such attitudes are equivalent or not, it means, if they measure the same thing. 2. To verify its differential efficiency at the moment of discriminating what criteria of social and individual adjustment are related with such attitudes. The criteria used to evaluate the attitudes of acculturation of the autochthonous ones are the strategies of acculturation obtained from Berry’s ideas (2006) (multiculturalism, melting pot, segregation and exclusion), and the measures that there contributes the Interethnic In-group Bias Test (Rojas, García & Navas, 2003) (In-group bias, perception of In-group and Out-group). The results allow to conclude that both criteria evaluate very related but different concepts. The measures obtained from the Interethnic In-group Bias Test overcomes to the strategies of acculturation on having contributed complementary key very relevant information about what aspects and with what intensity we have to be employed the groups perceptions at the educational multicultural centers to create better environments to learning, and personal and social improvement of the students.

1.-Introduction
Schools represent scenarios of particular relevance to cultural contact and acculturation processes of new generations. Classrooms
Strategies of Acculturation versus Interethnic In-groups Bias and Socio-school Adjustment in Multicultural Contexts

become multicultural contexts where students with different cultural backgrounds to get in contact.

Traditionally, research on acculturation has focused on the study of the attitudes of immigrants, although, as Berry (1997) note, when changing culture, social and psychological adaptation occurs in the host culture. This adaptation depends largely on the attitudes and reactions of the host population (see figure 1).

Reviewing the psychosocial literature, there are two criteria that are often used in studies of acculturation to predict whether intercultural relations will be more or less fluid. These criteria are Acculturation Strategies and Interethnic In-Groups Bias.

2. Acculturation strategies

Berry (2006) states that when people from different cultures enter into continuous contact with other culture, they adopt different views on how they will like to maintain intercultural relationships. He defines different types of acculturation strategies (see figure 1.). Depending on which group we are considering (dominant or non dominant) he uses different nomenclature (Berry 2006).

According to Berry (2006), from the point of view of non-dominant ethnic groups, when individuals do not wish to maintain their cultural identity and seek daily interaction with other cultures, the assimilation strategy is defined. In contrast, when individuals

Fig. 1. Acculturation strategies in ethnocultural groups and the larger society (Berry, 2006)
look for a value on holding their original culture, and at the same time wishes to avoid interaction with others, then the separation alternative is defined. When there is interest in both maintaining one’s original culture and having daily interactions with other groups, integration is the option; here, there is some degree of cultural integrity maintained, while at the same time the individuals seek, as a member of a cultural ethnic group, to participate as an integral part of the large social network. Finally, when there is little possibility of, or interest in, cultural maintenance (often for reasons of enforced cultural loss), and little interest in having relations with others (often for reasons of exclusion or discrimination) then marginalization is defined.

Regarding the dominant cultural group, Berry (2006) uses the terms: Melting pot, if they want to be a part of foreign assimilation; segregation, when they desire and demand their separation; exclusion, imposing their marginalization and multiculturalism, when they want a cultural diversity and mutual adjustment.

3. Interethnic ingroup bias
Ingroup bias or ingroup favoritism can be defined as the tendency by members of a group, in favoring, benefiting the group (ingroup) versus other groups that they do not belong to (outgroup), regarding behavior, attitudes, preferences or perceptions (Rojas, Garcia & Navas, 2003; Turner, Brown & Tajfel, 1979).

4. Research questions
The goal of this paper is to get the answers to the following research questions:

- Are the criteria provided by the Interethnic In-group Bias Test and acculturation strategies evaluated the same or not? Her measurements are equal or equivalent?
- Check their differential effectiveness in discriminating criteria which individual and social adaptation shows relation to such attitudes.
Strategies of Acculturation versus Interethnic In-groups Bias and Socio-school Adjustment in Multicultural Contexts

5. Method

5.1. Participants and Procedure

218 native enrolled in 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year of Spanish High School (104 men and 114 women, $M_{\text{age}} = 14.5$, $SD = 1.18$) participated in the study. The students were from five schools in the province of Cadiz randomly selected from schools with enrolled immigrant children.

The data was collected in two sessions of 120 minutes each. Students, in groups of 25 to 50 completed the selected questionnaires in the following order: self-esteem, general life satisfaction, state anxiety and trait, attitudes toward violence, classroom climate, SEI, acculturation strategies and demographic data.

Academic performance was provided by the teacher after the data collection sessions.

5.2. Variables and Instruments

5.3.1. Ingroup perceptions, outgroup perceptions and interethnic ingroup bias

To assess ingroup, outgroup perceptions and interethnic ingroup bias on the native Spanish students, we used the Interethnic ingroup bias test (SEI, Rojas et al, 2003). This test consists on 14 items divided into two subscales. In the first subscale, the first seven items (1 to 7) refer to outgroup perception. The second subscale contains the same seven items (8 to 14) but they refer to the ingroup perception. Each item makes reference to behaviors, attitudes, habits and beliefs about members belonging to their own cultural group (ingroup) or others (outgroup). Participants responded to each item (ways of being and seeing life) in a five-point scale ranging from very bad (1), to very good (5). The measures of interethnic ingroup bias were obtained by the difference between a person’s score on the subscale scores on ingroup and outgroup subscales. Bias scores ranged from a low of -28 (outgroup bias indicator) and a maximum value of 28 (ingroup bias indicator).
The perception of ingroup measures were obtained by averaging the ratings referred to the group belonged to the natives (items 8 to 14).

The outgroup perception measures were obtained by calculating the average values of outgroup (items 1 to 7). The estimates of the reliability coefficients obtained using the Crombach’s Alpha (.86) for the ingroup bias, (.79) for the ingroup perception, and (.84) for the outgroup perception.

5.3.2. Acculturation strategies
To evaluate acculturation strategies two questions based on the acculturation model of Berry (1990) were used and adapted for our study. Participants were asked to indicate “Do you consider that kids that come from other countries maintain their customs here positive?” and “Do you think kids from other countries that adapt to Spanish customs positive?” By combining the answers to both questions we could place each person in a different acculturation attitude – multiculturalism (when the responses were yes – yes), melting pot (when the answers were no – yes), segregation (when the responses were yes – no) and exclusion (when the answers were no – no).

5.3.3. Self-esteem
To evaluate self-esteem, Global Self-Esteem Scale of Rosenberg (Rosenberg, 1965) was administered. This questionnaire indicates the level of self-esteem of the person at the moment of response. The scale was composed of ten questions expressing the value the person attributes him/herself. Sample items were “On the whole I am satisfied with myself”, and “I have a positive attitude toward myself. Responses were given on a five-point scale rating from “Disagree completely” to “Completely agree”. In this study the internal consistency was estimates using Cronbach’s alpha (a=.77).
5.3.4. Satisfaction with life
A global level of satisfaction with him/herself life was assessed through a single item “are you satisfied with your life?“. The possible answers were graduated from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (totally satisfied).

5.3.5. Anxiety
Anxiety was assessed using the Spanish adaptation of State Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children (Seisdedos, 1990). This questionnaire consists of two separate scales. The first 20 items assess the level of anxiety of the young at the time to answer them (state anxiety).

The next 20 evaluate the level of anxiety of the children in general (anxiety trait). The scale of the level of anxiety had 10 inverted items (1, 4, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 16 and 18). The values of the state of anxiety and trait were obtained by averaging the scores of the items that composed it. The estimate of the coefficient reliability was obtained by applying Cronbach’s Alpha, which was 0.70 for the state of anxiety and 0.87 for the anxiety trait).

5.3.6. Classroom climate
To evaluate the classroom climate scale the Social School Climate Center (CES, Moos, Moos and Trickett, 2000) was applied. This scale evaluates the social climate in classrooms that teach middle and high school of any kind. It focuses especially on the measure and description of the relationships of student – teacher, teacher – student and the organizational structure of the class. It contemplates aspects that are important for teacher’s dual responsibility: to maintain the conditions for students to learn and provide an effective support for learning. The scale consists of 90 items grouped into four dimensions that evaluate the relationship among students.
a. Relationships. To what extent the students are integrated in the classroom, support and help each other. It includes the implications, affiliation and support subscales.

b. Self-realization. The relevance of work given in the classroom, the completion of tasks and topics of the subjects. It includes the competitiveness and tasks subscales.

c. Stability. The achievement of objectives, the proper function of the class and organization, clarity and consistency. It includes the organization, clarity and control subscales.

d. Change. The level of diversity, novelty and reasonable variation of classroom activities.

The Spanish version of the test showed good consistency, reliability and validity in normal samples (test-retest reliability between .72 and .90, Ballesteros and Sierra, 1982).

In this study we only used four principle dimensions. Its measure was obtained by averaging the scores on each of the subscales that were made.

5.3.7. Attitudes toward violence

For the assessment of attitudes toward violence the questionnaire CAHV-8 (Gómez, Navarro and Ruiz, 2005) was applied. It is a likert-type scale of a single dimension that evaluates attitudes toward violence in the educational context. It consists of 8 items such as “there are things that can only be solved by force”. The response options ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The estimate of the coefficient reliability was obtained by applying Cronbach’s Alpha, which was 0.85.

6. Analysis and Results

Objective 1. Despite the differences, we found that not all groups are different from each other, and there is not differences respect to all elements evaluated by the Interethnic In-group Bias Test. This would imply that these factors and assess acculturation strategies interrelated but different aspects (Tables 1, 2 and 3).
Strategies of Acculturation versus Interethnic In-groups Bias and Socio-school Adjustment in Multicultural Contexts

Table 1
ANOVA: Interethnic In-group bias test criteria for Acculturation strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interethnic In-group bias</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>136,230</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>67,615</td>
<td>3,223</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>449,277</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>20,976</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4624,507</td>
<td>216</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of In-group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>87,226</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>43,613</td>
<td>2,409</td>
<td>.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>3874,129</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>18,103</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3961,355</td>
<td>216</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of Out-group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>360,757</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>195,379</td>
<td>9,707</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>4307,298</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>20,126</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4698,055</td>
<td>216</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of multiple comparisons between Acculturation strategies and Interethnic In-group bias and Perception of outgroup

Tukey HSD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>(i) Acculturation strategies</th>
<th>(j) Acculturation strategies</th>
<th>Mean Difference (i-j)</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interethnic In-group bias</td>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>-2.20118*</td>
<td>.89490</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>.8705</td>
<td>1.10539</td>
<td>.941</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>2.20118*</td>
<td>.89490</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>2.56824</td>
<td>1.36228</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>-3.28408*</td>
<td>1.7957</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of Out-group</td>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>-2.11730*</td>
<td>1.14152</td>
<td>.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>-3.28408*</td>
<td>1.7957</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>-5.40028*</td>
<td>1.35398</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>-2.11730*</td>
<td>1.14152</td>
<td>.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>-5.40028*</td>
<td>1.35398</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>5.40028*</td>
<td>1.35398</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at p<.05

Table 3
Descriptive statistics of Interethnic In-group bias and Perception of outgroup by Acculturation strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interethnic In-group bias</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>1,7988</td>
<td>4,67590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4,0000</td>
<td>4,71169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1,4118</td>
<td>3,06306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>2,0829</td>
<td>4,62707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of Out-group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>25,0592</td>
<td>4,41952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>21,7742</td>
<td>4,80770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27,1765</td>
<td>4,55844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>24,7558</td>
<td>4,66372</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Objective 2: The information provided varies considerably (Table 4, 5, 6 and 7).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Table 4 ANOVA: criteria for social and school adjustment by Acculturation strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>Sum of Squares: 1,375, df: 2, Mean Square: 668, F: 3.452, Sig: .034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life satisfaction</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>Sum of Squares: 1,473, df: 2, Mean Square: 737, F: 1.326, Sig: .288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Anxiety</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>Sum of Squares: 0.001, df: 2, Mean Square: 0.001, F: 0.008, Sig: .992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait Anxiety</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>Sum of Squares: 254, df: 2, Mean Square: 127, F: 0.979, Sig: .377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change (Classroom climate)</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>Sum of Squares: 7,281, df: 2, Mean Square: 3.641, F: 1.425, Sig: .243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations (Classroom climate)</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>Sum of Squares: 6,696, df: 2, Mean Square: 3.349, F: 1.353, Sig: .261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-fulfilment (Classroom climate)</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>Sum of Squares: 2,162, df: 2, Mean Square: 1.081, F: 0.657, Sig: .519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stability (Classroom climate)</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>Sum of Squares: 4,998, df: 2, Mean Square: 2.498, F: 1.327, Sig: .288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic achievement</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>Sum of Squares: 29,276, df: 2, Mean Square: 14.838, F: 4.866, Sig: .010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes toward violence</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>Sum of Squares: 10,185, df: 2, Mean Square: 5.097, F: 4.646, Sig: .011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| Table 5 Analysis of multiple comparisons between acculturation strategies and self-esteem, academic achievement and violent behavior |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>-.15047</td>
<td>.00054</td>
<td>.707</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>-.29592*</td>
<td>.11366</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>-.27436</td>
<td>.13549</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>-.29596*</td>
<td>.11366</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>.25745</td>
<td>.15649</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>-.48442</td>
<td>.49305</td>
<td>.531</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>-.56357*</td>
<td>.46260</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>-.142288*</td>
<td>.53462</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>.142280*</td>
<td>.53462</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>-.48021</td>
<td>.20769</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>.48287</td>
<td>.26894</td>
<td>.208</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>-.48021</td>
<td>.20769</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Multiculturalism</td>
<td>.93339*</td>
<td>.31796</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>-.45827</td>
<td>.26994</td>
<td>.208</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Melting pot</td>
<td>-.93339*</td>
<td>.31796</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at p. 0.05.
Strategies of Acculturation versus Interethnic In-groups Bias and Socio-school Adjustment in Multicultural Contexts

- Regarding self-esteem, a statistically significant difference between group multiculturalism (with significantly lower mean values) and segregation.

- With respect to academic achievement, we found statistically significant differences between multiculturalism and melting pot, and between melting pot and segregation. The multiculturalism group has a significantly higher melting pot than academic performance. The segregation group has a significantly higher melting pot of academic performance.

- Finally, in relation to violent attitudes mean values of segregation group are statistically significantly, lower than the melting pot.

- The ingroup bias correlates positively and significantly with self-esteem and violent behavior variables, and negatively and significantly with trait anxiety.

- The perception of ingroup positively and significantly correlated with self-esteem variables, satisfaction,
innovation, relationships, self-realization and stability. Also significantly negatively correlated with state anxiety and trait anxiety variables.

- Finally, the perception of outgroup positively and significantly correlated with innovation variables, relationships, self-fulfillment, stability and academic performance. Also significantly negatively correlated with violent behavior variable.

7. Conclusions

- Interethnic In-group Bias Test and acculturation strategies evaluate interrelated concepts, but different.

- The information provided by the criteria of perception of ingroup, and outgroup and of ingroup bias is what allows us to better discrimination on the relationship between social and scholar adaptation and acculturation attitudes.

- The ethnic ingroup bias criteria and acculturation strategies are not sufficient to study the relationship between acculturation and social and scholar adaptation because it does not provide information about social climate of the classroom, life satisfaction and anxiety state.

- The measurements obtained from Interethnic In-group Bias Test gives us very important information about what key complementary aspects and how hard we have to work the group perceptions in multicultural schools to create better environments to the learning and improve personal and social adjustment of our students.

References
Strategies of Acculturation versus Interethnic In-groups Bias and Socio-school Adjustment in Multicultural Contexts


This page is intentionally left blank
ICP PUBLICATIONS


Note. Contains papers from the 2000 ICP Conference in Padua, Italy, and from the University of Padua, Department of Psychology, and the Institute for International Cross Cultural Psychology at St. Francis University, NYC.


INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL OF PSYCHOLOGISTS, INC. PROCEEDINGS PUBLICATIONS. MANAGED BY ROSWITH ROTH, PhD., Graz, AUSTRIA

► Milgram, N., Roth, R., & O’Roark, A.M. (Eds.) (2010). 67th Conference


Strategies of Acculturation versus Interethnic In-groups Bias and Socio-school Adjustment in Multicultural Contexts


ICP, Inc. Publications are Digitized for Electronic Access by PsychEXTRA

PsychEXTRA is a companion database to the American Psychological Association’s PsychINFO which links clinicians, librarians, consumers, policy-makers and researchers to a variety of credible information sources. Their database covers psychology, behavioral science, and health.
During the agreement negotiated between ICP, Inc. and PsychEXTRA by Past President Ann Marie O’Roark, ICP, Inc agrees to allow PsychEXTRA staff to retrieve certain data from the website to be included in the PsychEXTRA database at http://psycextra.apa.org Articles published in the Conference Proceedings Books, the newsletter, and the conference program that are not prohibited by copyright by an agent other than ICP, Inc. will be made available to researchers and colleagues in several languages and around the world. The contract is for three years and is renewable.