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TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN ROMANIA'S EDUCATION SYSTEM: PRELIMINARY RESULTS

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Abstract

The present study focuses on a sample of 118 leaders from over 70 Romanian pre-university and higher education institutions. Based on a non-probabilistic sample, the survey is not representative for the entire Romanian field of education, but it still emphasizes interesting results on leadership culture in a country where education leaders are facing multiple challenges such as frequent legislative and curriculum changes. We investigate the correlations among several socio-demographic variables (i.e. gender, age, type of education institution and length of service in leadership positions) and the leaders' favourite practices. Our results suggest a preference of the education leaders towards full-range leadership practices, which is to be confirmed by further research.

Keywords: *transformational leadership, education, gender, age, length of service in leadership positions*

1. INTRODUCTION

Of all leadership styles, transformational leadership may have remarkable effects in the field of education (Leithwood & Hallinger, 2012). Different from the transactional leadership, where the dynamics of the leader-subordinate relationships are defined by exchanges such as cost-benefit or performance-reward, the transformational leadership determines the subordinates to go beyond their immediate interests; it increases maturity, concern for results, self-actualization and the welfare of others, of the organisation and the society (Northouse, 2018; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The current research directions in the field of transformational leadership fall under a new paradigm, "full range leadership theory" (Antonakis & House, 2013). According to it, the transformational leadership actions may not entirely replace the

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transactional leadership actions. Nevertheless, when the transformational leadership manifestations are active, they determine higher performance levels. Therefore, the two forms of leadership do not replace, but complete each other, on a continuum basis; the extent to which the manifestations of these two forms of leadership emerge is important (Avolio, 2011), as well as the versatility of the leader, his/her capacity to adopt multiple roles in various situations.

These attributes are remarkably significant in the field of education where, unlike other fields, the values and the vision fostered in leadership have to be correlated with the official education policy of the government institutions, as the centralised nature of the objectives and the curriculum may represent limitations in building some "individualised" strategies characteristic of schools. The educational leaders' personal characteristics are shaping their leadership style, with further consequences at micro-level (e.g. staff's wellbeing and organizational culture), as well as at macro-level (e.g. implementation of educational policies). The paper focuses on the influence of some socio-demographic variables (i.e. gender, age, length of service in leadership positions, type of education institution) on leadership practices in education.

Research conducted to date have highlighted that academic leadership involves different challenges than educational leadership in pre-university institutions (Van Niekerk, 2005). Unlike the pre-university leaders, who, upon their appointment, take control of all administrative activities within the institution, the administrative tasks of the leaders in higher education become more diversified and intense as they climb the hierarchy ladder. For academic leaders with lower-level management positions (e.g. chairs of departments), camaraderie may be an impediment in the firm communication of the discontents or the verbal sanctioning of transgressions (Rowley & Sherman, 2003). Thus, they may prefer transformational leadership practices in a higher extent that educational leaders from pre-university institution.

The differences between female and male leaders in terms of interpersonal relationships were pinpointed in previous researches (Carli & Eagly, 2011). Still, there is no literature consensus on this topic and the subject of gender differences in relation to leadership continues to be controversial as some authors state that there are no such differences, or they are insignificant, and that the gender stereotypes have no place in leadership (Powell, 2012).

The results of the studies on the correlation between age and leadership style have been also contradictory. Some authors have identified negative or insignificant correlations (Zacher, Rosing, Henning & Frese, 2011), whereas other studies (Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin & Marx, 2007) have indicated, for leaders of over 46, higher scores for the transformational leadership, compared to younger leaders. The age is positively correlated with transformational and transactional leadership styles (Zacher, Rosing & Frese, 2011) when leaders have an interest in leaving a professional legacy after retiring. Still, on the whole, the negative or insignificant

correlations between age and leadership style were reported more frequently than positive correlations (Walter & Scheibe, 2013).

The number of years served as leaders and the stage of the leader's career represent important variables even though they are less considered by studies on leadership styles (Oplatka, 2010). According to some authors (Giri & Santra, 2010), a vast experience is correlated with higher values for the passive leadership style. The stage of career interacts with the position in the organisational hierarchy and the age of the leader, so that the correlation between years served and leadership style should be investigated in this context.

2. OBJECTIVE AND HYPOTHESES

2.1. OBJECTIVE

The study emphasizes the results of a preliminary research which is to be extended at national scale. In this stage, the research approach takes account of two objectives, respectively:

- Identifying the leadership forms favoured by the persons holding leadership positions in the field of education;
- Highlighting correlations between certain socio-demographical variables (gender, age, length of service in leadership positions, type of education institution) and the forms of leadership favoured by the educational leaders.

2.2. HYPOTHESES

This research is intended to test the following hypotheses:

1. If the subjects carry out their activity in higher education institutions, they will mainly use transformational leadership practices and manifestations.
2. Provided that the subjects are female leaders, they will adopt transformational leadership attitudes.
3. The older the subjects are, the stronger their option for transactional leadership will be.
4. The longer the service in leadership positions is, the better expressed the preference for a certain form of leadership will be.

3. METHOD

3.1. RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

The research participants are holding leadership positions in pre-university and higher education institutions. The sample is non-probabilistic and it includes 118 subjects (table 1), selected on a voluntary basis. The majority of the subjects (72%) was represented by persons holding leadership positions in pre-university education (headmasters/headmistresses). Geographically, the pre-university leaders

came from schools and high schools located in the South-Muntenia development region.

Table 1 – Characteristics of total sample (N=118)

Variable		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	34	28.8
	Female	84	71.2
Age	25 to 30 years	-	-
	31 to 40 years	23	19.5
	41 to 50 years	67	56.8
	51 to 60 years	25	21.2
	Over 60 years	3	2.5
Length of service in leadership positions	Below 1 year	4	3.4
	1 to 5 years	54	45.8
	6 to 10 years	29	24.6
	Over 10 years	31	26.3
Type of education institution where they hold leadership positions	Pre-university education	85	72
	Higher education	33	28

In the total sample, 33 persons held different leadership positions in high education institutions, i.e. ”Valahia” University of Târgoviște, the University of Bucharest, ”Ștefan cel Mare” University of Suceava, ”Spiru Haret” University (Bucharest), the University of Craiova and ”Alexandru Ioan Cuza” University (Iași). The subjects were holding the positions of chair of departments (13), vice dean (8), dean (9), manager of a research centre (2) and member of the department council (1).

3.2. RESEARCH METHODS AND INSTRUMENTS

In order to meet the objectives and to test the research hypotheses, we used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 6S (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Vinger, Cilliers, 2006). The subjects filled in the questionnaire using the Google Forms platform, between April and June 2018.

MLQ 6S is a free, self-assessment scale of leadership styles. Following the scale translation, a pre-testing was conducted for a number of 34 respondents (April 2018); their feedback concerned the comprehensibility of some questions and was incorporated in the final version of the questionnaire.

The MLQ 6S items were designed to highlight 7 factors of the leadership styles (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Bass & Avolio, 2004): *Idealised influence, Inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation, Individual consideration* (sub-scales of transformational leadership), *Contingent reward, Management-by-exception* (sub-scales of transactional leadership) and *Laissez-*

faire leadership (a form of non-leadership, when the leader abandons his/her responsibilities and avoids making decisions).

The internal consistency of the scale is good (the Cronbach's Alpha value was of 0.845). The collected data were analysed using SPSS 20.

4. RESULTS

In order to validate the research hypotheses, we analysed the influence of gender, age, length of service in leadership positions and type of education institution on:

- Total scores for the seven factors of leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire).
- Average scores resulting from each leadership style.

4.1. TOTAL SCORES FOR THE MLQ 6S FACTORS

Excepting the score for the *Laissez-faire* factor, one may see high values (above 9) for the other factors (table 2), which means, at this stage, that there is no preferential orientation of the leaders toward certain leadership styles, manifestations of both types of leadership (transformational and transactional) being therefore used. This result corresponds to the theory on the full-range leadership manifestations.

Table 2 – Total scores of the MLQ 6S factors

	Mean	**Median**	**Mode**	**Standard deviation**
Idealised influence	9.92	10	10	1.32
Inspirational motivation	9.98	10	10	1.47
Intellectual stimulation	9.90	10	10	1.52
Individual consideration	10.79	11	12	1.35
Contingent reward	9.96	10	11	1.62
Management-by-exception	10.60	11	11	1.32
Laissez-faire	7.31	8	8	2.33

In terms of **type of education institution**, the average values of the total scores were slightly higher for the sample in the pre-university education, except for the *Laissez-faire* leadership, where the value was higher for the sample of higher education leaders. The independent samples t-test shows significant statistical differences between the pre-university leaders and the high education leaders for two of the MLQ 6S factors: *Individual consideration* and *Contingent reward*.

The scores for the *Individual consideration* in the sample of pre-university leaders (M= 11.01, SD= 1.258) were significantly higher (t= 2.980, df= 116, p= 0.004) than the scores reported by the higher education leaders (M= 10.21, SD= 1.431). For the factor *Contingent reward*, the scores for pre-university leaders (M=

10.21, SD= 1.544) were also significantly higher (*t*= 2.816, df= 116, p= 0.006) than the ones registered for the leaders in higher education (M= 9.30, SD= 1.649)

The factors for which significant differences in scores were registered do not fall under the same type of leadership. Therefore, one may not conclude on different attitudes of pre-university and academic leaders in relation to their leadership style. We consider that the results are rather related to a higher degree of autonomy of teaching staff in higher education, in relation to hierarchical superiors.

For the **gender** variable, the analysis of the results highlights higher scores for all MLQ 6S factors, within the female sample.

The independent samples t-test showed statistically significant differences between the groups of female and male leaders, in reference to scores registered for three factors: two transformational leadership factors (*Inspirational motivation* and *Individual consideration*) and one transactional leadership factor (*Contingent reward*). Therefore, the scores of *Inspirational motivation* registered for women (M= 10.23, SD= 1.383) were significantly higher (*t*= 2.906, df= 116, p= 0.004) than the ones registered for men (M= 9.38, SD= 1.538). Moreover, the women's scores for the *Individual consideration* factor (M= 10.98, SD= 1.299) were significantly higher (*t*= 2.425, df= 116, p= 0.017) than the ones reported by the male subjects (M= 10.32, SD= 1.387). Also, for the *Contingent reward* factor, the scores of the female sample (M= 10.21, SD= 1.606) were significantly higher (*t*= 2.783, df= 116, p = 0.006) compared to the ones for the male sample (M= 9.32, SD= 1.492).

Within the sample, the women leaders tend to assume more often than men attitudes oriented on encouragement, motivation and guidance of the team members throughout their professional route and through the fulfilling of work tasks.

With regards to **age** variable, results were analysed after recodification of the variable and formation of three groups: 31 to 40 years (N1= 23), 41 to 50 years (N2= 67) and over 50 years (N3= 28). The only statistically significant difference among the three groups was registered for the scores of the *Laissez-faire* factor, highlighted by One-way ANOVA, F (2.115) = 5.636, $p<0.05$. The scores of the *Laissez-faire* factor were significantly higher (Hochberg = 1.651, $p<0.05$) for the group of leaders who were between the age of 41 and 50 (M= 7.87, SD= 2.088) than for the age group over 50 (M=6.21, SD= 2.672).

For the **length of service in leadership positions** variable, the differences for the MLQ 6S scores were analysed after recodification and formation of three sub-samples of respondents: 0 to 5 years of service in leadership positions (N1= 58 subjects), 6 to 10 years (N2= 29) and over 10 years (N3= 31). The Kruskal-Wallis test showed statistically significant differences among groups only for the scores of the *Individual consideration* factor ($\chi 2$= 8.597, df= 2, p= 0.014), with a mean rank of 63.67 for N1 (0 to 5 years), 66.74 for N2 (6 to 10 years) and 44.92 for N3 (over 10 years of service). Therefore, for the leaders who served for more than 10 years

the scores were significantly lower ($p<0.05$) than the ones for the groups with 0 to 5, respectively 6 to 10 years of service.

4.2. AVERAGE SCORES FOR LEADERSHIP STYLES

At the level of the entire sample, the mean scores registered for the three leadership styles indicate close values for the transformational and transactional leadership styles and lower values for the passive (Laissez-faire) leadership (table 3). In addition, one may see that the mean values for the transformational and transactional leadership styles are higher in the pre-university sample.

Table 3 – Mean and standard deviation of the scores for different leadership styles

	Total sample		Leaders in the pre-university education		Leaders in higher education	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Transformational leadership	3.38	.383	3.43	.364	3.25	.405
Transactional leadership	3.43	.408	3.48	.411	3.28	.365
Laissez-faire	2.44	.775	2.43	.749	2.44	.853

The independent samples t-test showed that the score of transformational leadership for the pre-university leaders (M= 3.43, SD=0.364) were significantly higher (t= 2.346, df= 116, p= 0.021) than the score for the leaders serving in higher education (M= 3.25, SD= 0.405). The transactional leadership score for the leaders in pre-university education (M= 3.48, SD= 0.411) were also significantly higher (t= 2.523, df= 116, p= 0.013) than the one for the respondents in higher education (M= 3.28, SD= 0.365). There were no statistically significant differences between the two groups for the passive (Laissez-faire) leadership style.

The results confirm the theory on the integration of the practices characteristic of both leadership styles, as these two styles complete and not exclude each other (full-range leadership). The first research hypothesis according to which the leaders in higher education will have higher scores in transformational leadership was not validated by these results.

In terms of **gender**, the scores indicate higher values for the group of female leaders, for all leadership styles. The independent samples t-test showed statistically significant differences for the transactional leadership style alone, in which case the scores reported by the female leaders (M= 3.48, SD= 0.411) were significantly higher (t= 2.372, df= 116, p= 0.019) than the ones reported by the male leaders (M= 3.29, SD= 0.372). As a result, the second research hypothesis, according to which the female leaders will mainly adopt transformational leadership attitudes, was rejected.

The scores for the leadership styles according to the **age** variable were analysed after reclassification of the sample in three categories: 31 to 40 years old (N1= 23), 41 to 50 (N2= 67) and over 50 (N3= 28). One-way ANOVA determined statistically significant differences for the scores of *Laissez-faire* leadership style: F(2.115)= 5.636, p= 0.005. A post-hoc Hochberg GT2 test indicated significantly higher scores for the Laissez-faire leadership style (Hochberg= 0.550, p= 0.004) for leaders who were between 41 and 50 years old (M= 2.62, Sd= 0.696) than for the leaders of over 50 (M= 2.07, SD= 0.891).

For the other leadership styles, the tests used did not show statistically significant differences among the groups. The results invalidated the third research hypothesis according to which the older leaders prefer the transactional leadership style.

The One-way ANOVA analysis did not show statistically significant differences between the scores collected for the leadership styles for the groups of leaders who served in leadership positions for different timeframes (0 to 5 years, N1= 58 subjects; 6 to 10 years, N2= 29; over 10 years, N3= 31); the fourth hypothesis of the research was therefore invalidated.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The invalidation of the research hypotheses may imply, to a certain extent, the orientation of the leaders in the field of education toward attitudes and practices from the full-range leadership scope, and also the blending of both transformational and transactional leadership styles in order to adapt to various professional contexts. Furthermore, the invalidation of the hypotheses suggests, for the next stage of the study, the need to expand the sample and to diversify the research instruments.

These steps will allow a deeper investigation of the differences associated to the type of education institution, by including in the higher education sample a larger number of leaders from the higher hierarchy levels; we also consider that the results should be further clarified by conducting a qualitative research based on semi-structured interviews.

The results for the gender variable and the significantly higher scores obtained by the female leaders for the transactional leadership are intriguing, because they are not consistent with some of the previous research. But, since there is no literature consensus with regards to women's preference for transformational leadership practices, we intent to further explore this issue. The next stage of our research will consider the influence of the interaction between gender, organizational climate and internalization of gender roles, on the one hand, and the leadership style of the female leaders, on the other hand.

Regarding the correlation between age of the leaders and their leadership style, the following stage of the research will take into consideration both the

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and instruments which may highlight the leaders' values and their outlook on the conveyance of a professional legacy. Moreover, the psychological changes associated with different life stages and the inter-individual variations of emotional intelligence are aspects which may offer a whole new light on the relation between the age of the leaders in the education field and their leadership style.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL PROFILE OF THE NEW GENERATION OF STUDENTS IN PSYCHOLOGY

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Abstract

The aim of this research is to outline a psychological profile of the new generation of students in psychology by determining some defining aspects of the psychologist's personality, generally, such as the level of empathy, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and locus of control. The study focused on 108 undergraduate students of the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Hyperion University of Bucharest, both male and female, aged between 19 and 52 years old. Participants were asked to complete a test battery consisting of Questionnaire Measure of Emotional Empathy – QMEE, Goleman Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, Self-Efficacy Scale – SES and Rotter Locus of Control Scale. The findings showed that the general profile of the psychological students participating in the study is outlined by a higher proportion of females, an average age of 28.1 years, a low level of empathy, a medium level of emotional intelligence, a medium level of self-efficacy and the presence of an external locus of control.

Keywords: *psychologist, empathy, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, locus of control*

1. INTRODUCTION

In the Romanian academical space, research on psychologists has grown. Whether it is the implementation of some methods of developing the qualities of psychologists (Biceva, 2015; Pascaru-Goncear, 2017; Vancea, 2015) or simply about shaping some general aspects of them (Bogluţ, Rizeanu, Burtăverde, 2015; Losii, 2014; Manzat &Tanase Manzat, 2000; Triboi, 2013), the number of studies is steadily increasing.

There is a popular conception of how a psychologist should be. Empathic, first

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of all, with a high emotional intelligence, good speaking, calm, self-confident, without too many unresolved problems, capable etc.

We have proposed that this study should complete the construction of the psychologist's image in general and answer the question: How is the next generation of future psychologists? Thus, we chose to evaluate the level of empathy, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and the locus of control in psychologist students.

Regarding the empathy of the psychologist, Goleman (1995) states that an effective psychologist is an empathic psychologist. Through empathy, the psychologist approaches the client's feelings and emotions, and empathizing generally leads to the elimination of defense mechanisms.

It is difficult to admit that a person with low emotional intelligence may be able to be empathic with another person. To be able to understand the emotions of the other, it is necessary to be able to properly express one's own emotions to perceive each other's (Goleman, 1995).

Emotional intelligence is one of the most important defining parameters for professional success. It defines a set of abilities that are different but complementary to the logical and cognitive abilities measured by the intelligent coefficient. It is important to note that the abilities of emotional intelligence can be taught and developed throughout life. They are an integrated system that can be found at individual, group and organization level and have an immediate effect of optimizing communication, cooperation and efficiency at all these levels. The development of emotional intelligence allows us to highlight our intellectual skills, creativity, ensure success, both personally and professionally (Losii, 2014; Rizeanu, Gatej, Ciolacu, 2017).

Self-efficacy influences choices about the activities in which a person engages, the willingness of the individual to work and persevere in performing tasks, affective responses and responses to stress and work performance (Betz, 2000).

People with a high degree of self-efficacy set high goals, put more effort and give more time to a difficult task (Bandura, 1997).

Research on the self-efficacy construct has determined that people with a high level achieve better results in the current occupation, achieve more successful careers, are more satisfied with both their work and their lives in general, have a lower level of stress, adapts more efficiently in challenging conditions and makes more effective use of the benefits and opportunities (Bubulac, Gatej, Rizeanu, 2018; Judge et al., 2008).

The locus of control is the degree to which people expect to achieve their desired goals. It is the degree to which they attribute their behavior to external causality, such as environmental factors, or internal causality, such as their own decisions (Rizeanu, 2016; Rotter, 1966).

Krampen (1988) attributes to locus of internal control, the notion of efficient. According to him, people with an internal locus of control are characterized by high activism, inventiveness, quick decision and high responsibility. These people have great confidence in their own abilities, feeling independent of other people or situations. On the other hand, people with an external locus of control are unsafe and passive when confronted with ambiguous or unexpected situations. They can be distinguished by low self-esteem, dependence on others, and trust in luck and fate.

2. OBJECTIVE AND HYPOTHESES

2.1. OBJECTIVE

The overall objective of this research is to identify levels of empathy, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and locus of control in psychological students.

2.2. HYPOTHESES

- We assume that psychologist students have a high level of empathy.
- We assume that psychologist students have an increased emotional intelligence.
- We assume that psychologist students have a high level of self-efficacy.
- We assume that psychologist students have an internal locus of control.

3. METHOD

This research involved the participation of 108 students in psychology, first, second and the third year, at the Hyperion University of Bucharest, male and female, aged between 19 and 52 years.

We used the following measures: Questionnaire Measurement of Emotional Empathy (Mehrabian, Epstein, 1972), Goleman Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (Goleman, 1995), Self-Efficacy Scale – SES (Ierusalim, Schwarzer, 1981) and the Rotter Internal-External Control Scale (Rotter, 1966).

Questionnaire Measurement of Emotional Empathy - QMEE (Mehrabian, Epstein, 1972) contains 33 items that capture empathy and emotional behavior. The answer to each statement is given on a scale of +4, strong agreement, to -4, strong disagreement.

Goleman Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (Goleman, 1995) presents 10 scenarios in which any person can be found at any given time. Each item is accompanied by four variants of response. Scoring is based on a table that divides the score according to the answer.

Self-Efficacy Scale – SES (Ierusalim, Schwarzer, 1981) contains 10 items and is designed to assess the person's beliefs about their ability to cope with the

difficulties encountered during the task. The 10 items have four variants of answer as follows: "totally untrue as far as I am concerned", "largely untrue as far as I am concerned", "for the most part true of me", "Perfectly true as far as I am concerned". The score is obtained by adding the score of the 10 items.

The Rotter Internal-External Control Scale (Rotter, 1966) aims to determine the internal or external locus of control. The test comprises 29 items and the score can range from 0 to 23 points. A score of less than 8 points indicates an internal locus of control, and a score of more than 8 points indicates an external locus of control.

4. RESULTS

The results showed that the general profile of the psychological students participating in the study is outlined by a higher proportion of females, an average age of 28.1 years, a low level of empathy, a medium level of emotional intelligence, a medium level of self-efficacy and the presence of an external locus of control.

According to the calculation of the relative frequencies for the gender variable, 37% of the study participants were male and 63% female.

Table 1-Frequency for male and female

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	68	63.0	63.0	63.0
	Male	40	37.0	37.0	100.0
	Total	108	100.0	100.0	

The minimum age of the study participants is 19 years, the maximum age is 52 years, and the mean is 28.1 years.

Table 2-Descriptive statistics for age

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Age	108	19	52	28.10
Valid N	108			

Relative frequencies for the QMEE test results have shown that 99.01% of participants had a low level of emphaty, while 0.9% of participants had good empathy. According to these results, the hypothesis that assumes that psychological students have a high level of empathy is denied, confirming the null hypothesis.

Table 3-Frequency for emphaty

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Good emphaty	1	.9	.9	.9
	Low emphaty	107	99.1	99.1	100.0
	Total	108	100.0	100.0	

In terms of emotional intelligence, Goleman Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire test results showed that 48.1% of study participants have emotional intelligence below average, and 51.9% of them have emotional intelligence at an average level.

According to these results, the hypothesis that assumes that psychological students have a high level of emotional intelligence is confirmed.

Table 4 - Frequency for emotional intelligence

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below average	52	48.1	48.1	48.1
	Average	56	51.9	51.9	100.0
	Total	108	100.0	100.0	

Self-Efficacy Scale results showed that most study participants, 34.3%, have an average level of self-efficacy. While an equal percentage of 23.1% was recorded for, on the first hand, the low level and on the other hand the high level of self-efficacy; 9.3% of participants have a very low level of self-efficacy, while 10.2% have a very high level.

The results shows that the hypothesis that assumes that psychological students have a high level of self-efficacy is denied, confirming the null hypothesis.

Table 5 - Frequency for self-efficacy

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very low level	10	9.3	9.3	9.3
	Low level	25	23.1	23.1	32.4
	Medium level	37	34.3	34.3	66.7
	High level	25	23.1	23.1	89.8
	Very high level	11	10.2	10.2	100.0
	Total	108	100.0	100.0	

As far as the locus of control is concerned, the Rotter Internal-External Control Scale results showed that 57% of the participants have an external locus of control and 42.6% have an internal locus of control.

According to the results, the hypothesis that assumes that psychological students have an internal locus of control is denied, confirming the null hypothesis.

Table 6-Frequency for locus of control

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Internal	46	42.6	42.6	42.6
	External	62	57.4	57.4	100.0
	Total	108	100.0	100.0	

5. CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this research shows that the general profile of the psychological students participating in the study is outlined by a higher proportion of female gender, an average age of 28.1 years, a low level of empathy, an average level of emotional intelligence, an average level of self-efficacy and the presence of an external locus of control.

In contrast to some international studies, where the emphasis is placed either on the differences between some concepts also proposed in this study (Dugi, 2013) or on the relationship between them (Hajloo, 2014) or even on methods of improving them (Al- Darmaki, 2004), our study focused on the concrete drawing of a crude profile of the Romanian student to psychology, which is a solid starting point of some studies to investigate the psychologist student, starting from the knowledge of some qualities and gaps which characterizes it.

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THE RELATION BETWEEN PERSONAL NEED FOR THOUGHTS STRUCTURE, HOPE AND WELL-BEING

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Abstract

In our times, when individuals sense the lack of balance and face stress and tension in all aspects of life, the need for structure and finding ways to improve our well-being, has become a necessity. Authors cited in this study underline the relation between mindfulness and attitude change (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986), or mindfulness and depression (Teasdale, 1999 cited by Herbert and Forman, 2011). Also, according to Litalien et al. (2013) cited by Ciarrochi et al. (2015) hope and established goals are predictors of well-being. The participants were a number of 16 people, the instruments were: Adult Dispositional Hope Scale (Snyder et. al, 1991), Personal Need for Structure - PNS (Thompson, Naccarato, and Parker, 1989), The Mindfulness Attention Awareness Scale - MAAS (Brown and Ryan, 2003); the results confirmed on two hypothesis regarding the positive correlation between hope and mindfulness attention awareness and the negative correlation between lack of hope and mindfulness attention awareness. Experiencing mindfulness can mean letting go of the thoughts that resurface obsessively, calm our mind, focus on the basic experiences, such as breathing or the awareness of the body sensations, and just let the natural energy flow through our mind and body.

Keywords: *thoughts, structure, awareness, well-being*

1. INTRODUCTION

Vago and Silbersweig (2012) published a theoretical review focused on neurobiological mechanism of mindfulness. They were interested in underlining the way that self-awareness, self-regulation and self-transcendence modulate self-specifying and narrative self-networks through frontal-parietal brain hemisphere. The authors evidenced that perceptual cognitive, emotional and behavioural processes are mechanisms that support self-awareness, self-regulation and self-transcendence. Vago and Silbersweig (2012) underline that mindfulness practice modulate neuroplastic changes in network brain structure.

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Kabat-Zinn (1990), Bishop et al. (2004), Carmody (2009) cited by Vago and Silbersweig (2012) highlighted that mindfulness practice may increase awareness and responding skills to mental processes, having as a result the emotional distress.

Krech (2006) was focussed in his dissertation, to develop a state mindfulness scale. The author underlines the relationship between mindfulness, personality and cognition. He cited Messick (1976) and Sternberg (1997) by presenting that cognitive styles are related to personality and mindfulness. Hence, Sternberg and colleagues (1997) underline that mindfulness is a capacity for an individual to access cognitive abilities.

Cook-Cottone and Guyker (2018) developed and validated the Mindful Self Care Scale (MSCS) in the way to support positive embodiment. The authors involved in the study a number of 448 participants, aged between 18 and 71. Previous studies of Cook-Cottone were focused on: supportive relationship related with well-being (Cook-Cottone, 2015), sense of purpose related with sense of mission, value, strength and meaning (Cook-Cottone, 2015; Norcross and Guy, 2007), relationship between rest and self-care (Cook-Cottone, 2015). The author highlighted that rest meant getting enough sleep, taking restful breaks, and planning time to rest, and also the effects of environmental micro-stressors on individual's resilience and ability to cope (Cook-Cottone, 2015).

Luttrell, Briñol and Petty (2014) published a theoretical review focused on how the process of thinking can be related to persuasion. In this way, the authors analysed the concepts of mindful and mindless thinking as active processes of elaboration in relationship with persuasion. Hence, there were approached subjects as: mindfulness and attitude change, elaboration likelihood model of persuasion (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986) and body awareness and persuasion.

Ciarrochi et al. (2015) published a six year study evaluating hope and emotional well-being. In this study participated a total of 975 high school students. The authors analysed if hope relates to emotional experiences in time and the results showed that hope is an antecedent to positive affect. Also, the study revealed that high levels of hope in individuals lead to implementing and achievement of goals.

Snyder (2000) cited by Ciarrochi (2015) is of the opinion that positive emotional states appear as a consequence of hopeful thoughts and goals oriented thoughts.

Even if further research is necessary, according to Litalien et al. (2013) cited by Ciarrochi et al. (2015) hope and established goals are predictors of well-being in a period of time full of changes, such as progressing from school to university.

Herbert and Forman (2011) were interested to highlight in their book the perspectives of mindfulness regarding the cognitive behaviour therapy, cognitive therapy, metacognitive therapy, emotional schema therapy, dialectical behaviour therapy. According to Teasdale (1999) cited by Herbert and Forman (2011) practising exercises to improve our state of mind represent a benefit for

individuals, as they learn to prevent depression relapses. Also, as the authors highlight, mindfulness-based cognitive therapy (Segal, et al., 2002) and mindfulness-based stress reduction (Kabat-Zinn, 1990) help individuals focus on the present moment, on the simple aspects of their lives, and on the basic experiences, thus avoiding obsessive thoughts and practising nonattachment.

2. **OBJECTIVE AND HYPOTHESES**

2.1. OBJECTIVES

1. To highlight the possible relationship between: adult hope and mindfulness attention awareness.
2. To highlight the possible relationship between: adult lack of hope and mindfulness attention awareness.
3. To highlight the possible relationship between hope and personal need for organization and structure.

2.2. HYPOTHESES

1. We assume that there are statistically significant positive correlations between hope and mindfulness attention awareness in adults.
2. We assume that there are statistically significant negative correlations between adult lack of hope and mindfulness attention awareness.
3. We assume that there are statistically significant positive correlations between hope and personal need for organization and structure in adults.
4. We assume that there are statistically significant positive correlations between need for structure and mindfulness attention awareness.

3. **METHOD**

3.1. PARTICIPANTS

The participants are a group of 16 people, aged between 23 and 56 years old (Mean=42.06; S.D= 8.90), men and women, participating in personal development groups.

3.2. THE INSTRUMENTS

1. Adult Dispositional Hope Scale (Snyder et. al, 1991). The scale is composed from 12 items and is used to measure an adult's dispositional hope. The answers are scored from 1 to 4 on a Likert scale. The authors found that the test-retest correlation for the Adult Dispositional Hope Scale is around the value .80. Also, the scale evidences the internal consistency with Alpha Cronbach ranging from .74 to .84.

2. Personal Need for Structure - PNS (Thompson, Naccarato, and Parker, 1989). PNS is a scale composed from 12 items that assesses the general preference for cognitive simplicity. The PNS contains 2 subscales:

I. General need for structure;

II. Responding to lack of structure.

Scoring: The 12-items of the PNS are rated according to a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Van den Berg (2003) found out that the Alpha Cronbach reliability coefficient of the PNS in this sample was .76, M = 2.53, SD = 0.39.

3. The Mindfulness Attention Awareness Scale - MAAS (Brown and Ryan, 2003). The MAAS is a 15 item instrument that measures people's tendency to be mindful of moment to moment experience.

Scoring: Respondents are asked to indicate how frequently they have the experience described in each of the 15 statements. Scoring is rated using a 6-point Likert scale from 1 to 6. The MAAS instrument has a good internal consistency, with Alpha Cronbach ranging of .82 and .87 in student and adult samples (according the authors).

3.3. PROCEDURE

The questionnaires were applied to a total of 16 people, during the afternoon. Conditions have been met for ethics in research on human subjects, such as volunteering, anonymity, possibility to leave the research at any time. Also, the General Data Protection Regulation's legal framework was respected (GDPR; May 25, 2018).

3.4. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

The dependent variables: adult hope, adult lack of hope, need for structure, responding to lack of structure, and mindfulness attention awareness.

4. RESULTS

The collected data was computed using the program SPSS 15 for statistics.

In table 1 – Descriptive Statistics can be seen mean standard deviation for the variables: adult hope, adult lack of hope, need for structure, responding to lack of structure, and mindfulness attention awareness.

4.1. TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1 – Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	**Std. Deviation**	**N**
Hope	26.5625	3.53966	16
Lack of hope	8.8125	2.19754	16
Need for structure	16.0000	2.89828	16
Responding to lack of structure	26.2500	4.44972	16
Mindfulness Attention Awareness	64.8125	9.68999	16

In table 2, we can observe correlations between adult hope variable and mindfulness attention awareness (rho=.727; p<0.01) and between lack of hope variable and mindfulness attention awareness (rho=.774; p<0.01), and lack of hope and hope (rho=.74; p<.01).

Table 2 – Correlations

			Hope	Lack of hope
Spearman's rho	Hope	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.740**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001
		N	16	16
	Lack of hope	Correlation Coefficient	-.740**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.
		N	16	16
	Need for structure	Correlation Coefficient	.032	.459
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.905	.073

		N	16	16
	Responding to lack of structure	Correlation Coefficient	-.057	.155
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.833	.567
		N	16	16
	Mindfulness Attention Awareness	Correlation Coefficient	.727**	-.774**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000
		N	16	16

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

In table 3 there are not statistically significant correlations.

Table 3 – Correlations

			Need for structure	Responding to lack of structure
Spearman's rho	Hope	Correlation Coefficient	.032	-.057
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.905	.833
		N	16	16
	Lack of hope	Correlation Coefficient	.459	.155
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.073	.567
		N	16	16
	Need for structure	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.136
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.614
		N	16	16
	Responding to lack of structure	Correlation Coefficient	.136	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.614	.
		N	16	16
	Mindfulness Attention Awareness	Correlation Coefficient	-.389	-.264
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.136	.323
		N	16	16

5. CONCLUSIONS

The authors Munoz, Hoppes, Hellman and Cummins (2016) found out that meditation can increase hope via stress reduction. Faria (2016) underlines that mindfulness and hope were positively correlated to happiness and also that hope mediated the relationships between flow, mindfulness and happiness.

Regarding our study, analysing the results in tables 2 and 3 can be highlighted the following hypotheses:

1. We assume that there are statistically significant positive correlations between hope and the awareness of the present moment in adults.

2. We assume that there are statistically significant negative correlations between adult lack of hope and the awareness of the present moment.

The other hypotheses have not been confirmed at the threshold of significance ($p<0.05$) for a number of 16 persons. A future study can confirm the finding with the possibility of enlarging the sample. In this way, it would be interesting if there could be statistically significant correlations between need for personal structure and mindfulness attention awareness, responding to lack of structure and mindfulness attention awareness.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE STRUCTURING LEVEL OF THE PSYCHICAL FUNCTIONS, THE SELF-ACCEPTANCE AND THE WELL-BEING

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Abstract

The main objective of this research is to study the relationship between the structuring level of the psychical functions, the self-acceptance and the well-being. This research is part of a larger study that consisted of making a synthesis between two directions of the psychology, the analytical, Jungian psychology and the humanist psychology and also to study the effectiveness of Jungian psychoanalysis. The main matters predominantly studied from the analytical psychology were the personality profile, i.e. the temperament and the structuring level of the four psychical functions, determined by the ego's capacity of using them in a conscious and autonomous manner, with a low consumption of energy and in the long run. The four psychical functions described by Jung and researched in this thesis are: the thought, the feeling, the sensation and the intuition. During this research, 150 participants were tested among which 83 (55%) are females and 67 (45%) are males. They were between 35 and 65 years old.

Keywords: *psychic functions, self-acceptance, well-being*

1. INTRODUCTION

The main theoretical objective of this research consists of making a synthesis between two directions of the psychology, the analytical, Jungian psychology and the humanist psychology. Jung considers that the analytical psychology: "researches the causes of the pathogen diminution of the accommodation and it follows the tortuous tracks of the neurotic thought and feeling in order to examine the route from the alienation again to life. This is why our psychology is a practical science. We do not research for the sake of the research, but with the direct purpose of helping" (Jung apud Jacobi, 2012, page 16). The main matters predominantly studied from the analytical psychology were the personality profile, i.e. the temperament and the structuring level of the four psychical functions, determined by the ego's capacity of using them in a conscious and autonomous manner, with a

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low consumption of energy and in the long run. The four psychical functions described by Jung and researched in this thesis are: the thought, the feeling, the sensation and the intuition. The influence of the structuring level of these functions on certain features of personality were analyzed (Beebe, 2006). The following assumption was formulated: it is supposed there is a positive connection between the structuring of the psychical functions and the self-acceptance and the well-being in the following meaning: the more structured the psychical functions are, the more the self-acceptance and the well-being are.

His long drawn up theory is clinically substantiated, starting from the premise that the people are fundamentally good and healthy.

The unique „force of life" postulated by Rogers is the tendency of accomplishment/achievement of the Self - the actualizing tendency – seen as a specific motivation determining any lively being to develop itself plenarily, i.e. to achieve the largest possible extension. The peculiarity of the Rogersian view on the tendency of the Self achievement is provided by its generalization to any lively being, from plants to animals and to the human being, the algae being one of the first used examples. From the individuals, Rogers extended the presence of this tendency to ecosystems and he postulated the direct relationship between the ecosystem complexity and the efficacy of the tendency. Thus, due to its complexity, the forest has a much higher potential of achievement than a corn field. The most complex being, the human being, has the highest potential of achievement. "The experience gradually made me conclude that the individual has in himself the capacity and the tendency, latent, if not obvious, of forwarding to maturity. It is the impulse, visible in all forms of organic life and in the human life, of extending, amplifying, acquiring autonomy, developing itself, the tendency of expressing and activating all the capacities of the organism or of the Self" (Rogers, 2008, pages 72-73). The optimism by which he relates to the human being is also present in his vision about this process of the Self's achievement. "This tendency may be so deeply buried under the numerous hardened layers of the psychical defense mechanisms; it may be hidden behind some complex screens denying its existence; but I have the conviction that it exists in any individual only awaiting for the appropriate conditions to be released and expressed" (Rogers, 2008, page 73). An important part of his therapeutic work consisted precisely of the separation, dissolution of these defense mechanisms layers.

Within the Self's becoming process, deployed during the therapeutic process, Rogers identified several stages (Rogers, 2008). These stages are as follows:

1. The alienation from the appearance — since early childhood, people learn that the other ones (parents, relatives, friends, teachers) await something from them. They learn the conditioned behaviours, like, for instance, "if...then..." Unfortunately, these conditions have little to do with the small child's nature. Thus, in the attempt of corresponding as much as possible, at least superficially, the

people build up a kind of social masks (Jungian person). These masks are aimed to offer to the other ones which they wish.

2. The alienation from "you must" — together with the appearances, "show them what they wish to see", the children also learn the behaviour "act as you have to", "you must be only like that, do everything like that". This way, the degree of personal autonomy is lower and lower, the life satisfaction is minimal, the feeling that "it is never enough" is constantly present in the background.

3. The alienation from the realization of other people's expectations – in other people, Rogers includes the cultural limitations too. "In our current industrial culture, for example, as Whyte vigorously showed in her recent book, there is an enormous pressure of acquiring the features expected from the <person of the corporation>. Thus, the individual must be a full member of the group, subordinate his individuality in order to comply with the group's needs, he must become the <multilateral man able to work with multilateral people>"(Rogers, 2008, page 243). Doing constantly and mostly which the society expects increase the level of alienation towards our own person. However, the alienation is experienced together with several negative emotions, like the frustration, the fury, the aggressiveness, the depression.

4. The alienation from indulging other people — it often represents the unique motivation of most people's actions. It is usually deployed with a higher level of autonomy, like a reflex, built in childhood and adolescence. Even the teenagers seeming rebellious act so that to indulge their friends. Rogers balances against this motivation the Shakespearean exhortation "to thine own self be true". Thus, the first important stage in the process of the Self's achievement, in Rogers' vision, is rather negative. The people discover how they do not want to be, what not to do any longer.

5. Towards the autonomy — after discovering the "No" and of the capacity of renouncing the automatisms and inferences, the autonomy follows. Rogers asserts about this autonomy: "I would not like to give the impression that my clients drive in a reckless or fortitudinous manner to this direction. On the contrary. The freedom of being oneself is a freedom presuming a tremendous responsibility and the individual goes to it cautiously, fearfully, almost without any confidence" (Rogers, 2008, page 245).

6. Towards the existence as a process — constantly, the people, particularly the Europeans and the Americans are focused on results so that nothing else matters any longer, so much the less the process carried out to achieve those results. When everything is according to the plan, everything is secure, but also astounded, frozen. The difference is similar with the difference between a forest that is complex, rich, sometimes dangerous and a plantation of aligned trees, all the same. When everything must be according to the plan, there is in the background, and it persists, the idea that we cannot get on in another way, we cannot face with

something we have not scheduled. In other words, there is insecurity, lack of self-confidence and anxiety in the background.

7. To the existence as a complexity — ”I acknowledge that this wish of being what one is in each moment – the entire richness and complexity, without hiding anything of oneself and without having fear of anything in oneself – is a common wish of those who showed a big progress in the therapy. It is no need to say that this goal is difficult and, in an absolute meaning, impossible to achieve. Notwithstanding, one of the most visible trends in the customers is to succeed either in being the same with the entire complexity of their changing Self, in each moment” (Rogers, 2008, page 247). Rogers’ words show that this stage does not suppose walking naked in the street, of course from psychological point of view, i.e. to express as often as possible everything we experience, but enlarging the field of our own consciousness so that we should become aware of as much as possible of our inner experiences and, besides that, being able to encompass them even if they are sometimes deeply contradictory. In other words, the less appearances are in front of our own person the more we are more honest to ourselves and, with the time, the anxiety and insecurity diminish.

8. To the openness towards the experience – it supposes openness, confidence and conscious contact with our own experience. The reception, acceptance, nomination and expression of our experiences require much courage and determination, the more so as in many societies the expression of the emotions is considered a lack of courtesy.

9. To the acceptance of other persons – the next stage is represented by the degree of the acceptance level, from the self to the other persons. It is possible to tell that learning and practicing the openness to the own person represents a training for the authentic openness towards other people, the enrichment of the inner world determines the enrichment of the exterior world, as well as the enrichment of each relationship taken individually. As a matter of fact, which is thus developed is the openness and the warm acceptance of the other people.

10. To the self-confidence — it represents a last stage but, at the same time, a condition more and more developed during the process of personal improvement described by Rogers. Without being arrogance or self-sufficiency, the self-confidence represents a keystone of the process. Rogers considers that, without self-confidence, El Greco or Hemingway would not have created anything. The self-confidence in itself also involves a kind of fidelity to oneself. In Jungian terms, it represents the confidence and the adoption of one’s own myth. It is this confidence that guarantees the possibility of developing the personal unicity (Rogers, 1951, 1980, 2008).

The study conducted by Bess, Harvey & Swartz (2003), Kay & Franscis (2008), Desjardins (2009) and Ragozzino & Kelly (2011) concluded that psychological types influence different aspects of psyche.

2. OBJECTIVE AND HYPOTHESES

2.1. OBJECTIVE

The main objective of this research is to study the relationship between the structuring level of the psychical functions, the self-acceptance and the well-being.

2.2. HYPOTHESES

It is assumed that there is a positive link between the structuring of psychic functions and self-acceptance and well-being in the following sense: the more psychic functions are structured, the more self-acceptance and well-being are.

3. METHOD

3.1 PARTICIPANTS

Participants: 150 people were tested among which 83 (55%) are females and 67 (45%) are males. They were between 35 and 65 years old. All the participants have university degrees and they come from urban environments.

3.2 INSTRUMENTS

The psychological instruments used for the research are two personality questionnaires: MBTI (Myers Briggs Type Inventory) and CPI (California Psychological Inventory).

MBTI is one of the most famous personality questionnaire built based on the Jungian theory of the psychological types. It was built by Katharine Cook Briggs and her daughter, Isabel Briggs Myers. The instrument was drawn up during the Second World War. Its first purpose was to help the women, obliged to work during the second world war, to be hired in the industrial fields which they were fitter for and, this way, to alleviate their integration in the activity.

The first format was published in 1962. It is used for the healthy population, in order to highlight the typological differences. It is not a clinical test. With the time, several formats of this instrument were elaborated. They are: F format, containing 166 items, G format, containing 126 items, J format, the longest one, containing 290 items, AV format, containing 50 items and is for a self-assessment, M format (93 items). Besides, in 1989, an instrument was elaborated with a new scoring system, initially called K format or “Expanded Analysis Report” (EAR). At present, it is known as MBTI Step II “Consulting Psychologists Press” (CPP) together with “Center for Applications of Psychological Type” (CAPT) and MBTI Trust turned the J format into MBTI Step III. Likewise, it was also built the

instrument MMTIC (Murphy — Meisgeier Type Indicator Children) aimed to the children.

The MBTI, whichever might be its format, assesses 4 dichotomous pairs (extraversion/introversion, thought/feeling, sensation/intuition, judicative/perceptive) and the 16 potential juxtapositions representing 16 types of personality.

C.P.I. is one of the most famous personality questionnaire. It was elaborated by Harrison Gough and it is published by Consulting Psychologists Press (like MBTI). Harrison Gough considers that the structural elements of the personality are the features. In their identification and description, he starts from the study of the language, i.e. of the descriptions already existing in the vocabulary of a commonly used language. This was the starting point in the construction of the CPI.

It was thought and built as a correspondent of MMPI (Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory). But, unlike the MMPI which is a clinical test, the CPI assesses the normal people, the interpersonal behaviour and their social interactions, being frequently used in the staff selection, vocational counseling, team building, personal development, research.

The initial test contained 480 items, questions with dichotomous answers. It was published in 1957, like C. P. I. — 480. The latest revision was performed in 1996 and, in 2002, a scale was published with 260 items, CPI — 260, which is a shorter version of the original scale. The known variants are: CPI — 480, published in 1957, CPI—462, published in 1987, CPI-434, published in 1996 and CPI-260, published in 2002 (Gough, 1987, 2009; Meyer, Davis, 1992).

3.3 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

Table 1. The group tendency for the Self-Acceptance and Well-being and the Number of structured functions

	Value	Df	Asmp. Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	1.388E2[a]	4	0.001
Probability	135.499	4	.000
Linear association	86.772	1	.000
N	150		

[a] For 0 cel. (.0%) frequencies lower than 5
the minimum expected frequency is 14.41.

According to the coefficient χ^2 (138.8) significant from statistical point of view at a level p=0.001 we can say that the group tendency is very significant from statistical point of view. There is a significant difference from statistical point of

view between the frequency distributions of the levels of the self-acceptance depending on the number of structured functions.

Table 2. Coefficients for the Self-Acceptance and Well-being and the Number of structured functions

			Value	Std Errora	Aprox. Tb	Aprox. Sig.
Ordinal	D coeficient	Simetric	0.727	0.049	14.808	0.001
		ASelf-Acceptance and	.727	.049	14.808	.000
		Number of structured functions Well-being	.728	.050	14.08	.000

[a] Null hypothesis.

The use of the standard asymptotic error for the null hypothesis.

Table 3. The correlation between the number of structured functions and the well-being

		Valoare	Std. Error	Aprox. T[b]	Aprox. Sig.
Ordinal	Kendall's tau-b	.727	.049	14.808	.000
	Kendall's tau-c	.727	.049	14.808	.000
	Gamma	0.886	0.040	14.808	0.001
N		150			

The gamma coefficient of Goodman-Kruskal equal to 0.886 shows a positive very strong correlation between the number of structured functions and the well-being at a significance threshold p=0.001.

The d coefficient of Somers, 0.727, as significant from statistical point of view at a significance threshold p=0.001, acknowledges a high degree of association at the level of the two variables. The value of d coefficient being smaller that the value of gamma shows that the introduction of the dependency relationship better explains the noticed association. Hence, we can consider the hypothesis as validate. Which means that the more structured the psychical functions of a person are the more the self-acceptance and the well-being are.

CONCLUSIONS

The research achieved its goal, demonstration that the structuring level of the psychical functions determines an increase of the self-acceptance and of the well-being. This relationship is important particularly in the analytical psychotherapeutic process because one of its purposes consists precisely in improving the structuring level of the psychical functions, this real tool of personality. This improvement leads to improvement an important part of that person's life, by increasing the well-being and the self-acceptance.

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IRRATIONAL GAMBLING RELATED COGNITIONS OF COMPULSIVE GAMBLER

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Abstract

Gambling addiction is a current issue that concerns society in its whole, due to the negative impact it has on both gamblers and their family life. This addiction usually starts as a pleasant pastime; occasional gamblers enjoy this type of activity for which they allow limited time and a previously set amount of money *(Disley et al., 2011).*
This article is aimed at emphasizing the significant correlation between gambling addiction and the high level of irrational gambling-related cognitions among the 56 compulsive gamblers aged between 19 to 53 years old –our research group. We have used South Oaks Gambling Screen –SOGS in order to identify gambling addiction and Gambling Related Cognition Scale-GRCS to spot the level of irrational cognitions among the subjects within our research group. Being able to confirm important correlation between these two variables is a step forward in adopting efficient treatment methods against this type of addiction.

Keywords: *compulsive gambler, gambling related cognitions, addiction journal*

1. INTRODUCTION

Gambling turns into addiction when the activity itself becomes an obsession and takes over all thoughts, at the expense of interest in real life – family, friends, work.

In time, gamblers end up betting higher and higher amounts of money and spending all their spare time in gaming halls, sport betting agencies and casinos in a desperate attempt to balance game losses; this leads to negative emotions such as

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depression, anxiety, insomnia, and in worst-case scenarios, suicide attempts, some resulting in death (Rizeanu, 2013, 2018).

Blaszczynski's studies (2010) showed that pathologic gambling had various negative effects on the gamblers: depression, suicidal thoughts, anxiety, alcohol and drug abuse, difficulty in having a steady job, lies and scams, decreased cognitive performance, physical symptoms.

Gambling addiction is basically money addiction; as long as gamblers play driven by the desire to win money, it is this overwhelming desire that initially brings them to gamble compulsively (Coombs, 2004).

A gambler's erroneous gambling-related cognitions play an important role in triggering and maintaining this pathology, and they refer especially to the capacity to influence or predict winning (Rizeanu, 2012). The illusion of control is most common among gamblers who are into slot machines, because the result of the gamble is out in short intervals and they provide the opportunity of instant gratification (Ladouceur et all, 2003; Rizeanu, 2014; 2017).

A meta-analysis of co-morbidity associated with pathological gambling carried out by Lorains, Cowlishaw and Thomas (2011) revealed that 60.1% of those who are addicted to gambling are also addicted to nicotine, 57.5% are addicted to controlled substances, 37.9% show mood disorder and 37.4% show anxiety disorder.

Given the high prevalence of associated co-morbidities, Shaffer and LaPlante (2005) stated that pathological gambling should be considered a complex syndrome and not just a singular mental disorder.

Cognitive behavioral therapy is currently considered the most efficient treatment method for gambling addiction (Disley et al., 2011; Grant & Potenza, 2007; Pallesen, et al., 2005; Petry et. al, 2008, Rizeanu, 2015). This type of therapy states that irrational cognitions related to a person's ability to control the game and to anticipate and predict winnings represent the main factors that lead to the development of this pathology. Cognitive restructuring has positive effects with respect to lessening the severity of the addiction by lowering the intensity of gambling-related erroneous cognitions.

A recent research conducted by Nicholson, Graves, Ellery and Afifi (2016) concluded that greater gambling severity is associated with increased endorsement of irrational cognitions.

1. OBJECTIVE AND HYPOTHESES

1.1. OBJECTIVE

The aim of this research is to analyze the connection between the severity of gambling addiction and the intensity of irrational gambling-related cognitions.

1.2. HYPOTHESES

The hypothesis is that there is a significant interdependence between pathological gambling and the intensity of gambling-related erroneous cognitions.

2. METHOD

The research group was made of 56 subjects aged 19 to 53 who went to a psychotherapist and claimed having a gambling problem, and who were tested to establish whether they were addicted to gambling and whether the level of their irrational gambling-related cognitions was high.

For this research we used South Oaks Gambling Screen-SOGS (Lesieur & Blume, 1987) and Gambling Related Cognition Scale (GRCS), a 23-item-questionaire with which the participants were able to self-assess their gambling-related cognitions on a Likert scale in 7 points, where 1= strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree (Raylu & Oei, 2004).

3. RESULTS

When applying SOGS, the group scored a mean of 11.13 points and a median of 11 points. The lowest score was 8 points and the highest 14 points- both values within the pathological gambling risk area (table 1).

Table 1 – Statistical indicators SOGS

Statistics

N	Valid	56
	Missing	0
Mean		11.13
Median		11.00
Mode		13
Std. Deviation		1.706
Skewness		-.247
Std. Error of Skewness		.319
Kurtosis		-1.079
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.628
Minimum		8
Maximum		14

Gambling Related Cognition Scale (GRCS) is a 23-item-questionaire where the gambling-related erroneous cognitions are divided into 5 subscales:

- interpretive biases related to the ability to control the game;
- the illusion of control;
- game prediction;
- unrealistic expectations related to game of chance;
- inability to stop gambling.

The research group's results when applying GRCS show an average of 119.91 points and a median of 118 points- both situated within the high risk gambling-related erroneous cognitions area. The standard deviation that was calculated (6.040) indicates a spread of values around a central tendency. Here are the most frequent gambling-related erroneous cognitions among the group subjects, with a key role in triggering and developing their gambling behavior: illusion of control, interpretive biases, balance loss attempts, wrong reasoning, unrealistic expectations.

Table 2 – Statistical indicators GRCS

Statistics

Total GRCS

N	Valid	56
	Missing	0
Mean		119.91
Median		118.00
Mode		118
Std. Deviation		6.040
Skewness		.227
Std. Error of Skewness		.319
Kurtosis		-.802
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.628
Minimum		108
Maximum		132

In order to analyze the relation between pathological gambling, measured with SOGS, and the level of erroneous gambling-related cognitions, measured with Gambling Related Cognition Scale, we calculated Pearson correlation coefficient and we obtained significant correlations between the variables: $r(56)= 0.829$; $p=0.001 < 0.01$ bilateral.

Table 3 Correlations SOGS – GRCS

Correlations

		Total SOGS	Total GRCS
Total SOGS	Pearson Correlation	1	.829**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	56	56
Total GRCS	Pearson Correlation	.829**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	56	56

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

4. CONCLUSIONS

These results confirm our hypothesis that there is a significant correlation between pathological gambling and the intensity of gambling-related erroneous cognitions. Research carried out by Abdollahnejad, Delfabbro & Denson (2014) emphasized the close connection between irrational cognitions and gambling addiction and the fact that gambling addicts had a higher level of these cognitions than occasional gamblers.

Tang and Wu (2012) carried out research on the extent to which irrational cognitions are linked to gambling addiction on a group of 2835 Chinese teenagers, 934 young adults and 162 adults, and came to the conclusion that there was a close connection between these variables among the three age groups, the most common ones being inability to stop gambling and unrealistic expectations regarding the odds of winning.

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THE EFFECTS OF NONVERBAL ENFORCEMENT ON DRIVING BEHAVIOUR

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Abstract

The main objective of this pilot-study is to reveal the effects of nonverbal enforcement considering cultural specific differences on Romanian drivers. Driving psychology involves the responsibility of social norming, enforcement psychological strategies, methods of keeping the drivers safe from their tendencies of speeding, all this based on a complete awareness of the driver for the consequences of his behavior.

We made this experiment on a very busy road from Romania in order to measure the speed when a stimulus associated with enforcement is applied and the situation in which the driver saw no consequences of his speeding behavior. The study was conducted on national road 21, between Slobozia and Braila.

The results shown a difference of 44 km/h between the two experimental situations.

Keywords: *psychological enforcement, driving behavior, speeding behavior, social responsibility.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Social norms regulate the behaviour of people in the most diverse spheres of society, social life cannot normally unfold without the action of social norms. This is because social norms contain rules addressed to individuals, describing and detailing the ways in which values must be concretized into legitimate and accepted behaviors by society. Social norms ensure the adaptation of the individual's conduct to the needs and needs of the group, individualize and value the subject, ensure its integration into the social values system of the community.

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We define social norms as rules of conduct that contribute to the rationalization of social life through the following effects. First, the rules create a system of rights, obligations and prohibitions that materialize different interests, goals and social ideals (Gatej, Rizeanu, Ciolacu, 2016). Second the rules ensure human sociability, as well as the predictability of social behaviours and actions. Third norms ensure that conflicts and social tensions are avoided, by mutually limiting individual, unconstrained and free conduct. The norms establish rules of social action and social conduct, stipulating what means an individual must adopt in social conditions determined to achieve his desiderata.

Norms are a social one: individuals perceive, accept and respect them due to the intervention of three factors.

The first one is the social pressure of the group / collective / society exercised formally / informally, organized / not organized, institutionalized / not institutionalized. The more comprehensive society, the social pressure is more pressing, becoming normative pressure, being exercised through administration, police, justice, prosecution. The second factor is the moral and normative socialization process through various social agents or social institutions and the third factor is the existence of a system of social sanctions by which, on the one hand, prizes are awarded the conduct conforming to the ethical model of the respective society and, on the other hand, they are sanctioned, suppressed, disavowed by nonconformist, deviant, delinquent conduct (we are talking about the existence of a complex system of organized and unorganized social sanctions, formal and informal).

Representing, in essence, standards or standards of social behaviour, whose "observation and respect for society can alert us through a more or less intense constraint" (Carbonnier, 1969), social norms are extremely diverse (moral, legal , economic, religious, etc.), being elaborated in certain forms and emanating from different instances, agents or social groups.

Addressing the normative aspects of social life, the members of a social community comply with rules and rules of conduct for two reasons. The first reason is because they are self-absorbed and internalized in the process of socialization, individuals wanting to comply with these norms because they regard them as part of their social "ego" and the second reason is because group members expect each other to behave according to the group's rules, and when they deviate from this behaviour, the others manifest their disagreement in some ways.

These expressions of approval / disapproval of the social group towards a particular type of individual behaviour form the system of social sanctions (Gatej, Rizeanu, Ursachi, 2017).

Sanction, in the most general sense of the term, is a punishment or reward, the purpose of which is to achieve compliance with the rules of conduct considered desirable by a social group (Gould, Kolb, 1964).

Any sanction includes punishment or reward, the purpose of which is to make the conduct compliant with rules considered legitimate and desirable in a society. It is constituted by certain ways of approval or disapproval towards a particular mode of behaviour. Social sanction begins to act when internal control becomes ineffective when "the individual loses the inner feeling of what is and what is not allowed, becoming necessary to be in the interest of the group brought to order by others or removed from group" (Szczepanski, 1972).

Failure to comply with social norms and values leads to a reaction of the social environment in which they are valid, a series of diffused or precise sanctions, organized or not, based on the social constraint and pressure that the group, community or society exerts against nonconformist or deviant behaviours. Often, however, sanctions do not ensure the absolute effectiveness of the rules, but they "substitute a norm (the sanction) of another (the one that imposes unregulated conduct), they open an alternative, they allow a choice" (Pinto, Grawitz, 1965).

Sherif and Asch's studies show that people are fitting for two different reasons (Moscovici, 1991). On the one hand, people have information needs, and on the other hand people have normative needs (Deutsch & Gerald, 1955). In case of informational needs, people are complying because they want to judge correctly, and so in special situations I suppose that four or six eyes see better than two. We often orient ourselves better in our world, especially when we are in a foreign territory, looking at the ideas, perspectives and knowledge of others. In the case of normative requirements, people comply because they are afraid to look deviant, being driven by a strong need to belong to the group and to replace differences with similarities. The two types of needs help us to understand both the correspondent types of conformism, namely private conformism and public conformism (Allen, 1965).

Contrary to this, public conformism, also referred to as compliance, refers to the superficial change of behaviour due to the desire to obtain benefits or to avoid punishment. Examples of public conformism are whenever someone gives up the normative pressure, choosing at the manifest level to agree on the position of the group.

The analysis of traffic violations and errors is based on the model proposed by Reason (1990), which supports the existence of two completely separate psychological determinants underlying the occurrence of road accidents. Reason (1990) argues that errors and violations are mediated by different psychological mechanisms. Violations require explanations in terms of social and motivational factors, while the errors could be explained by individual characteristics related to information processing (Rizeanu, Gatej, Ciolacu, 2017). Errors were divided into lapses, omissions and mistakes; violations were divided into simple violations, aggressive violations, or non-intentional violations (Havârneanu, Gheorghiu and Hohn, 2010).

2. OBJECTIVE AND HYPOTHESES

2.1. OBJECTIVE

The main objective of this study is to show how important is the nonverbal enforcement in order to keep a preventive and defensive driver behavior.

2.2. HYPOTHESES

While the coercive force becomes aware, the behavior of driving violation will be reduced.

There is a significant difference between the average speeds in the presence of a possible enforcement factor and the average speed in the absence.

3. METHOD

3.1. PARTICIPANTS/SUBJECTS

1000 participants were tested by measuring the speed on a Romanian main road (DN 21), both car drivers and truck drivers, males and females. The age and demographical information could not be registered regarding the experimental design and Romanian laws.

3.2. INSTRUMENTS/APPARATUS/STIMULI/MATERIALS

We used the Datacollect® system by an agreement with the Romanian official dealer Safety Camera System in order to collect speeds of the passing vehicles.

3.3. PROCEDURE

In the first experimental condition one of the researchers wearing a safety vest stayed in the proximity of a vehicle stopped on the road side. The SDR® system recorded the speed of the passing vehicles. After that in the second experimental condition there was no enforcement stimulus at all and also the speed was measured using the SDR® system.

4. RESULTS

In order to observe significant differences, the T test procedure for independent samples was applied on the data.

4.1. TABLES AND FIGURES

*Table 1.*Descriptive values for average speed

	Code	N	Mean	SD*	Standard mean error
Average speed	1.00	500	54.0313	.67015	.05321
	2.00	500	98.0159	.56541	.09634

*Standard deviation

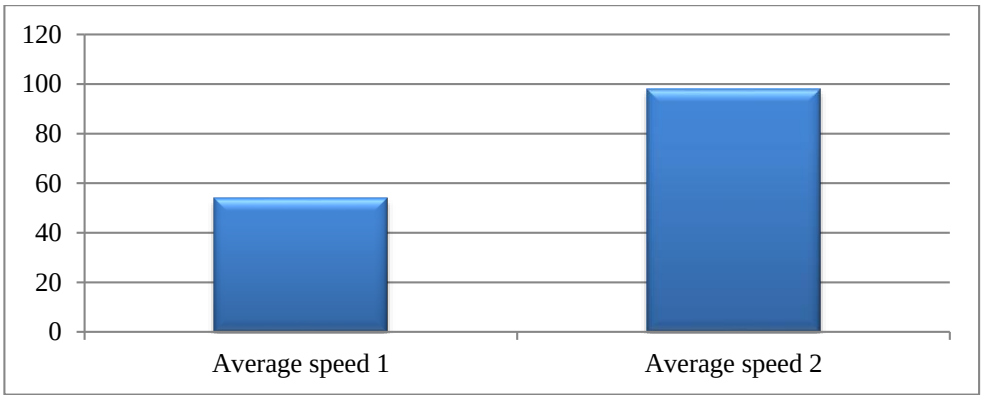

Figure 1. Diferences between the two samples

Table 2. T test for the difference between the two experimental samples

		Levene		**T test**						
		F	**Sig.**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2 tailed)**	**Diff. mean.**	**Diff. SD***	*95% Confidence interval of the difference*	
Average speed	Equal variances	3.543	.017	7.888	998	.001	.75431	.10974	Inferior	Superior
									.55579	1.02214

*Standard deviation

The T test procedure that was applied to reval a dignificant difference between the two samples means showed that the assumption of having important differences can be confirmed. Considering this fact we can asume that the experimental hypothesis of this study is confirmed, the drivers involved in the experimental sample had a lower speed that the omes that were recorded as simple drivers on a romanian national road (DN 21) ($m1=54.03$, $m2=98.01$, $t=7.88$, $df=998$, $p < 0.05$).

The difference between the two means is significant, 44 km/h, revealing the effect of enforcement comunication strategies to create a preventice and defensive driving environment.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The main conclusion of this study is a very specific for the Romanian enforcement strategy: in order to develop an effective prevention and defensive driving environment is necessary to have a good communication strategy including nonverbal strategies and the presence of enforcement officers in daily traffic.

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