

UNIVERSITY OF LATVIA



LATVIJAS UNIVERSITĀTE

Baltic
JOURNAL
OF PSYCHOLOGY



Baltijas
PSIHOLOGIJAS ŽURNĀLS

2003, Vol.4, No.1
2003, sēj.4, Nr. 1

BALTIC JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY

2003, Volume 4, Number 1

BALTIJAS PSIHOLOGIJAS ŽURNĀLS

2003, sēj. 4., Nr. 1

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Layout: Latvijas Universitātes Studentu Avīzes redakcija

Printed by: A/S "Poligrāfists", Kr. Valdemara Street 6, Riga

ISSN 1407 - 768X

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Editorial

Dear readers,

Please take note of two International Baltic conferences planned for the year 2004.

First of all, we invite you to participate at the 6th International Baltic Psychology Conference which will take place in Vilnius from September 16 – 18, 2004.

Ten years ago, in 1994, the Association for the Advancement of Baltic Psychology together with the Faculty of Education and Psychology of the University of Latvia organized the first International Baltic Psychology Conference at the Science Center in Lielupe. This conference brought together Baltic psychologists with colleagues from the West. Various cooperative enterprises, including the launching of the Baltic Journal of Psychology, grew out of the collaborative networks developed during successive conferences. We hope that especially those of you who have attended previous conferences, will show your support by encouraging your students and colleagues to join us at this tenth anniversary event in Vilnius.

Psychologists, along with colleagues from other disciplines, are also invited to participate at the bi-annual conference organized by the Association for the Advancement of Baltic Studies (AABS) which will take place from June 3 – 5, 2004 at the University of Toronto, in Toronto Canada. Abstracts for the Psychology and Education section of the AABS conference can be submitted to the section chair:

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REPORTS OF EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Psychometric properties of the Latvian and Russian Versions of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Form Y)

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This study first adapted the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory Form Y (STAI-Y; Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, Vagg, & Jacobs, 1983) in both the Latvian and Russian languages and then examined its psychometric properties, including internal consistency, test-retest reliability, concurrent validity and construct validity of the STAI-Y. The Latvian sample consisted of 438 male respondents (55 students and 383 employees) and 695 female respondents (381 students and 314 employees). The Russian sample consisted of 161 male respondents (11 students and 150 employees) and 150 female respondents (70 students and 80 employees). The psychometric properties of the STAI-Y Latvian and Russian versions are consistent with the original version.¹

Key words: State – Trait Anxiety Inventory; psychometric properties

Introduction

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory Form Y (STAI-Y) is acknowledged to be one of the most important instruments that measure anxiety. It is widely used in scientific and clinical research (e.g., Kelly, 2002; Iwata & Higuchi, 2000; Mukhopadhyay, 1996; Napierski & Brooks, 1995, and others).

The STAI was developed based on Spielberger's conceptualization of anxiety as both a situational state as well as a personality disposition. In separating anxiety as a situational state from anxiety as a personality trait, Spielberger presents the following definitions: (a) State anxiety (S-anxiety) refers to a subjective emotional state, which consists of feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry, and that is correlated with activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system; (b) Trait anxiety (T-anxiety) refers to a personality disposition, whereby an individual tends to perceive a wide range of safe objects as threatening, and reacts to them with an intensity of S-anxiety that does not correspond with the objective situation (Spielberger, 1972a).

Spielberger, O'Neil, and Hansen (1972b) developed a model that outlines the process whereby behaviour may be anticipated under threatening situations. The roles of S-anxiety and T-anxiety are specified in this process. A situation perceived as threatening results in S-anxiety, the intensity of which is proportional to one's cognitive evaluation of

¹ Author's note. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Daina Skuskovnika, e-mail: skdaina@one.lv

the threat. For each individual, S-anxiety and T-anxiety will correlate: (a) individuals with high T-anxiety will have high S-anxiety more frequently than will individuals with low T-anxiety, and this will occur in many situations including those situations that threaten self-esteem; (b) the higher an individual's T-anxiety, the more situations will be perceived as threatening, resulting in S-anxiety. However, in situations that involve pain and/or a physical threat, S-anxiety is independent of T-anxiety (Spielberger, O'Neil & Hansen, 1972).

The evaluation of a situation is dependent both on the characteristics of the actual situation as well as on an individual's T-anxiety or disposition towards anxiety. Therefore, the strength and duration of S-anxiety result from a cognitive evaluation that is based on four determinants: (a) the external characteristics of the situation, (b) T-anxiety, or the individual's disposition towards anxiety, (c) the individual's evaluation of the likelihood of success in responding to the situation, (d) the impact of feedback on the individual's current level of S-anxiety. It is crucial to further study the question of how information about the presence of S-anxiety influences the evaluation of the situation and whether feedback of this information will strengthen or weaken the S-anxiety (Spielberger, Ritterband, Sydeman & Unger, 1995).

The STAI Anxiety scales were developed in order to provide reliable and relatively brief self-report for assessing state and trait anxiety in research and clinical practice. Both scales (S-anxiety and T-anxiety) were designed to assess unidimensional constructs, and internal consistency was a major criterion in selecting items for the scales. Internal consistency was assessed on the basis of factor loadings and item-remainder correlations. On the basis of insights gained from intensive research with Form X, a major revision of the STAI was begun in 1977. The three main goals in revising the STAI-X scale, were: (a) to develop a more pure measure of anxiety that would discriminate more adequately between anxiety and depression, and provide a firm basis for the differential diagnosis of patients suffering from anxiety disorders and depression; (b) to replace several items that were found to have weak psychometric properties; (c) to improve the factor structure of the T-anxiety scale, and achieve better balance between the anxiety-present items and the anxiety-absent items. In the revised STAI-Y 30 percent of the STAI-X items were replaced, resulting in improved psychometric properties for both the S-anxiety and T-anxiety scales. The test development procedure that was used to develop the STAI-Y is described in the STAI-Y test manual (Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, Vagg & Jacobs 1983).

Method

Participants

Research participants ranged in age from 19 to 69, and were classified according to ethnic group (Latvian or Russian) and occupation (student or working). Ethnic group was determined according to the respondent's language of instruction in elementary school.

In total, 1500 STAI-Y questionnaires were distributed, and 1,444 were returned. The Latvian sample consisted of 438 male respondents (55 students and 383 employees) and 695 female respondents (381 students and 314 employees). The Russian sample consisted of 161 male respondents (11 students and 150 employees) and 150 female respondents (70 students and 80 employees).

The student group consisted of university students enrolled in political science, psychology, and education programmes in several different universities in Latvia. All male respondents in the working group were employed by a telecommunication firm, and worked in the customer service department. Most of the female respondents (72%) in the working group were employed by the same telecommunications firm and also worked in the customer service department. The remaining 28% of the female working group were teachers.

In the Latvian female working group 34% had completed university, 56% had completed secondary school, and 10% had completed elementary school. In the Latvian male working group 21% had completed university, 69% had completed secondary school, and 10% had completed elementary school. In the Russian female working group 25% had completed university and 75% had completed secondary school. In the Russian male working group 23% had completed university, 75% had completed secondary school and 2% had completed elementary school only.

The Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (TMAS, Taylor, 1953) was completed by 58 male respondents, consisting of 33 Latvian students and 25 Russian students, and 116 female respondents, consisting of 47 Latvian students and 69 Russian students.

Instruments

Two questionnaires were used in this research: the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory – Form Y ("Self-Evaluation Questionnaire") (Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, Vagg & Jacobs, 1983) and the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (Taylor, 1953).

Procedure

After receiving Professor Spielberger's permission to adapt the STAI-Y in Latvia, the adaptation process began in October 2000 and was completed in May 2002. According to data collected by the Central Statistics Department of Latvia, 57% of the inhabitants of Latvia are Latvians and 29% are Russians (Demografijas gramata, 2002). The Russian adaptation of the STAI-X (Hanin & Spielberger, 1981) was available in Latvia and had been used extensively in different areas of research and counselling (Hanin & Spielberger, 1983). It was decided that the STAI-Y would be translated both into Latvian and into Russian, and adapted for use in Latvia. Thus, there were three main goals of the present study: (1) to determine if the Latvian version of the STAI-Y has similar psychometric properties as the original STAI-Y; (2) to determine if the Russian version of the STAI-Y has similar psychometric properties as the original STAI-Y, and (3) to compare the results of the Latvian STAI-Y to the Russian STAI-Y.

The method of adapting the STAI-Y into Latvian and into Russian was consistent with the recommendations provided by the International Test Committee (Hambelton & Patsula, 1999; Van de Vijver & Hambelton, 1996). The psychometric properties of the Latvian STAI-Y and the Russian STAI-Y were calculated according to the methodology proposed by Kline (2000), and Anastasi & Urbina (1997). The STAI-Y was translated from English to Latvian, after which it was translated back to English by a different translation.

Both translators were psychologists with Masters level degrees, who were fluent in both Latvian and English. After the translations, an expert group consisting of three psychologists met to discuss the translations and to decide on the best wording. This version was administered to 40 psychology students who were asked to indicate which items were not

clearly formulated. The next version of the translation incorporated the students' suggestions. Extra effort was made to eliminate double negatives from the STAI-Y Latvian version.

A pilot study was carried out with approximately 15 individuals participating in each age group (19–39; 40–49; 50–69). The participants were third-year university students, who were studying to become English language teachers. The students first completed the STAI-Y Latvian version, and after 1 ½ hours, the STAI-Y English version. The respondents' recommendations were incorporated into the final version.

The translation of the STAI-Y from English to Russian followed the same procedure, using experts with a good command of both languages. Fifteen psychology students with good Latvian and Russian language skills first completed the STAI-Y Latvian version, and after 1 ½ hours, the STAI-Y Russian version.

The STAI-Y Latvian-version questionnaires and the STAI-Y Russian-version questionnaires were administered to groups ranging in size from 12 to 30. Those participants who were university students were given the questionnaires at the beginning of their classes, and participants in the working group completed the STAI-Y during their professional in-service training courses. Their individual results on the STAI-Y were made available to them.

In order to examine test-retest reliability, 46 Latvian psychology students and 25 Russian students were readministered the Latvian-version STAI-Y after a 3-month period.

Results

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the STAI-Y Latvian version and the STAI-Y Russian version. The S-anxiety scores from the Latvian sample ranged from 33.66 to 38.43 and the S-anxiety scores from the Russian sample ranged from 35.76 to 46.00 (Tables 1 and 2). In the Latvian sample the T-anxiety scores ranged from 36.6 to 43.0 and in the Russian sample the T-anxiety scores ranged from 36.6 to 48.88. Standard deviations for S-anxiety scores and T-anxiety scores in the Latvian and Russian samples ranged from 6.37 to 10.45, results that are similar to those found with the original American version.

Table 1. *Descriptive properties of the STAI-Y Latvian version in various age groups*

	Age 19 - 39		Age 40 - 49		Age 50 - 69	
	Males n=289	Females n=594	Males n=88	Females n=84	Males n=61	Females n=17
<i>S - Anxiety</i>						
Mean	33.66	38.43	35.26	36.74	35.49	35.18
SD	7.75	10.45	9.21	7.69	8.71	7.78
Alfa	.89	.92	.92	.89	.90	.90
<i>T - Anxiety</i>						
Mean	37.27	43	36.6	40.73	37.43	42.12
SD	7.98	9.11	7.09	8.73	7.78	9.49
Alfa	.87	.90	.84	.90	.83	.91

Table 2. Descriptive properties of the STAI-Y Russian version in various age groups

	Age 19 - 39		Age 40 - 49		Age 50 - 69	
	Males n=74	Females n=95	Males n=56	Females n=31	Males n=31	Females n=24
<i>S - Anxiety</i>						
Mean	35.76	36.21	37.61	45.61	39.77	46
SD	10.33	9.97	11.86	14.01	10.77	13.55
Alpfa	.92	.91	.92	.93	.92	.94
<i>T - Anxiety</i>						
Mean	35.41	39.13	38.89	48.19	40.77	48.88
SD	6.37	8.98	9.28	9.42	6.85	10.39
Alpfa	.79	.90	.87	.90	.76	.89

The internal consistency of the Latvian and Russian versions was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The internal consistency coefficients are high, and similar to the original sample – the alpha coefficients ranged from .83 to .92 in the Latvian sample, and from .76 to .94 in the Russian sample (Tables 1 and 2).

The correlation between the STAI-Y S-anxiety and T-anxiety scales in the original sample for both university students and the employed sample was between .59 and .76. In the current Latvian and Russian samples, the correlation between the S-anxiety and T-anxiety scales ranged from .34 to .83, and was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$).

Test-retest reliability was examined for the STAI-Y Latvian and Russian versions completed by the student group. The test-retest correlation coefficients for T-anxiety were between .85 and .87 in the Latvian student group and between .79 and .87 in the Russian student group. These results are similar to those from the original sample (i.e., .65 to .75).

Table 3. Test-retest reliability results in the Latvian and Russian student groups

	Test - Retest Interval					
	7 days		60 days			
	Latvian student's	Russian student's	Latvian student's	r	N	r
<i>T - anxiety</i>						
Males	22	.87**	26	.79**		
Females	72	.87**	35	.87**	34	.85**
<i>S - anxiety</i>						
Males	22	.67**	26	.6**		
Females	72	.6**	35	.56**	34	.47**

* - $p < .01$

The test-retest reliability for T-anxiety was calculated in the pilot study with students who were studying English. They first completed the STAI-Y Latvian version and completed the English version one hour later. The correlation between the T-anxiety scores in the two versions was .89 ($p < .001$), which indicates that the STAI-Y Latvian version is highly consistent with the STAI-Y English version. Both Latvian and Russian versions of the STAI-Y were completed by 15 students who were fluent in both languages. The correlation between the T-anxiety scores was .84 ($p < .01$), and indicates that these STAI-Y versions can be used in cross cultural research.

Both the concurrent validity and the construct validity of the STAI-Y Latvian and Russian versions were examined. The concurrent validity was determined by examining the correlation between the STAI-Y and the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (TMAS). In the original sample, the correlation between the STAI-X and the TMAS was found to be between .79 and .83. In the current Latvian sample, the correlation between the STAI-Y and the TMAS was found to be between .74 and .75, while in the Russian sample it was found to be between .73 and .76 ($p < 0.001$). The internal consistency of the TMAS, according to the Kuder-Richardson formula, was .84 for the Latvian sample and .86 for the Russian sample. A factor analysis was performed to determine the construct validity of the STAI-Y Latvian version. The results of the factor analysis of the STAI-Y Russian version did not yield the predicted factor structure. Additional analyses need to be performed to explore further the Russian data.

The results of the factor analysis of the STAI-Y in the Latvian sample are presented in Table 4. The first factor in both the male and female Latvian samples consists of S-anxiety statements. In contrast to the original American sample, separate factors were not found for the S-anxiety positive statements and the S-anxiety negative statements. The second factor for the female Latvian sample consists of T-anxiety statements, with the exception of Item 24. The second factor for the male Latvian sample consists of S-anxiety and T-anxiety positive statements. The third factor for the female group consists of S-anxiety and T-anxiety positive statements, while the third factor for the male group consists of T-anxiety negative statements. The fourth factor for both the female and male Latvian samples was not interpretable.

Discussion

Based on the test-retest results, we can conclude that the Latvian and Russian versions of the STAI-Y are relatively stable over time after 7 and 60 days as is the original American version of the test. The two parts of the STAI-Y, correlate significantly, in both the Latvian and Russian samples. This supports the previous results (Spielberger, O'Neil & Hansen, 1972) that the higher an individual's T-anxiety score, the more situations will be perceived as threatening, resulting in an increased S-anxiety score.

The factor analysis of the STAI-Y Latvian version resulted in four factors, similar to what was reported in the STAI-Y test manual (Spielberger et al. 1983) and similar to what was reported in a study by Suzuki et al (Suzuki, Tsukamoto & Abe, 2000). In the original sample, a two-factor model was formed from statements about situational anxiety and statements about anxiety as a personality trait. The four-factor model consisted of positive and negative S-anxiety and T-anxiety statements. In contrast to

Table 4. Factor analysis results in the Latvian sample (695 women, 438 men)

	Males				Females			
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
<i>S-anxiety</i>								
J1	.67	.17			.67			
J2	.39	.32			.51		.24	
J3	.56				.66			
J4	.42	-			.44			
J5	.60	.26	.23		.64		.23	
J6	.44				.49			
J7	.62				.61			
J8	.56	.40			.61		.35	
J9	.50				.63			
J10	.43	.34	.34		.46		.41	
J11	.48	.36			.40		.50	
J12	.65				.73			
J13	.53				.55			
J14	.26				.34	.28		
J15	.55	.29			.63		.29	
J16	.26	.48			.31		.43	
J17	.62				.74			
J18	.49				.57			
J19	.60	.33			.61		.42	
J20	.33	.54			.37		.57	
<i>T-anxiety</i>								
J21		.66				.39	.55	
J22			.52			.59		
J23		.65				.41	.59	
J24								.27
J25			.43	-.23		.40	.39	.34
J26		.43				.41		
J27		.45				.52	.23	-.30
J28			.49			.48		
J29			.44			.64		
J30		.57				.39	.45	
J31			.49			.59		
J32			.42	-.27		.51	.43	.25
J33		.55				.38	.43	
J34		.47				.40	.32	
J35			.47			.44	.38	.30
J36		.58				.39	.48	
J37			.54			.61		
J38			.53			.59		
J39		.50				.58	.28	
J40			.50			.62		

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

the original sample, the statements in the first factor of the Latvian version factor analysis did not separate into positive statements and negative statements, not for the male sample, nor for the female sample. It is possible that there are cultural differences between the Latvian and the American respondents, in the way that they evaluate positive and negative statements. Similar cultural differences between Japanese and American respondents were reported by Iwata & Higuchi, 2000.

The STAI-Y Latvian and Russian versions need further revision in an effort to eliminate the imperfections that were noted. Special attention should be paid to the use of Item 24. This item has a moderate correlation with other items and it is also used on the MMPI and the TMAS as an indicator of anxiety. However, we believe it is necessary to reconsider the inclusion of this item. Item 24 was found to have a very low value in the 4-factor factor analysis in the Latvian sample, similar to what was reported in the original sample and in other studies (Suzuki, Tsukamoto & Abe, 2000; Vircella, Arbona & Novy, 1994).

Internal consistency, test-retest reliability, concurrent validity and construct validity were determined for the STAI-Y Latvian and Russian versions. It was found that the psychometric properties of the STAI-Y Latvian and Russian versions are similar to the psychometric properties of the original American version. Thus, the STAI-Y Latvian and Russian versions are suitable for the measurement of anxiety in the Latvian population.

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International Personality Item Pool: A Scientific Collaboratory and It's Implication for Latvia

Liva Gabrane

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Consensus for the Big-Five factors of personality is found in cross national research. The factors of extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and intellect are found in almost all countries. Few personality measures based on this model are available in Latvia. Research on the five factors of personality and associated topics important to psychology in Latvia, could be facilitated through the Internet collaboratory of L. R. Goldberg, International Personality Item Pool (IPIP), by providing the opportunity to develop Latvian measures of topical constructs (e.g., the Big-Five). Initial efforts to adapt one of the IPIP scales, measuring the Big-Five factors for the use in Latvia are discussed in this paper.¹

Key words: personality assessment, Big-Five, personality trait.

International Personality Item Pool (IPIP)

The International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) provides international collaboration with the goal to develop and continually refine a "broad-bandwidth personality inventory, whose items are in the public domain, and whose scales can be used for both scientific and commercial purposes" (Goldberg, 1999).

IPIP allows scientists to work with others without regard to geographical location. Scientists from different countries have access to different criterion settings. Thus, the pooling of data should lead to substantial improvement of personality measures.

As Goldberg states, "The IPIP Web site is intended to provide rapid access to measures of individual differences, all in the public domain, to be developed conjointly among scientists worldwide. Later, the site may include raw data available for reanalysis; in addition, it could serve as a forum for the dissemination of psychometric ideas and research findings" (<http://ipip.ori.org>).

The IPIP Web site, <http://ipip.ori.org/ipip>, provides access to three types of information: (a) some psychometric characteristics of the current set of IPIP scales, (b) keys for scoring the current set of scales, and (c) IPIP items. The current pool of more than 2000 items is continuously being supplemented with new items.

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The Framework for Organizing Personality Traits

In a variety of Indo-European and other languages, analysis of large samples of trait-descriptive adjectives generally lend support for the Big-Five factor structure which seems to cover most personality attributes, especially in Anglo-Germanic languages (Goldberg, 1990; Digman, 1990; Saucier & Goldberg, 1996).

One may view this model as a hierarchical structure with the Big-Five factors at the top of the hierarchy and various “facets” located below (Goldberg, 1999). Although there is considerable agreement about the characteristics of the five higher-level factors, agreement on an optimal set of lower-level facets is lacking. For example, 45 bipolar dimensions (AB5C) are reported by Hofstee, De Raad, and Goldberg (1992); 30 bipolar dimensions are reported by Costa and McCrae as operationalized in NEO-PI-R (1992); and 16 primary factors are proposed in Cattell’s 16PF Questionnaire. Given little agreement about the relative superiority of any one of these competing lower-level structures, they all are incorporated in IPIP, thus allowing for them to be compared empirically (Goldberg, 1999; Goldberg, in press).

IPIP Scale-Construction Procedures

The strategy described below was used by Goldberg to develop the preliminary versions of all IPIP scales. The scales are available at the Web site (including IPIP-AB5C, which was translated into Latvian). Its use by scientists interested in constructing their own IPIP scales is encouraged (<http://ipip.ori.org>).

- 1) Correlate all IPIP items available with the external criterion, (e.g., the 20-item adjectival marker scale measuring Big-Five Extraversion) and rank IPIP items by the size of the absolute value of their correlations.
- 1a) When the development of IPIP scales targeted at constructs from a multi-scale inventory is the goal, correlate all IPIP items available with each of the inventory scales, categorize each IPIP item by the scale with which it has its highest correlation, and rank the IPIP items within each of the resulting categories by the size of those correlations. This process helps ensure all IPIP items selected for an IPIP scale correlate more highly with their criterion scale than with other scales.
- 2) Select the N highest positively correlating IPIP items and the N highest negatively correlating IPIP items for the preliminary scale, with N being 1/2 the number of items desired in the final scale (e.g., 5+5=10).
- 2a) If the correlations with the original scale are substantially higher within the set correlating positively than are the correlations within the set correlating negatively, or vice versa, relax the criterion for equal numbers of positively and negatively keyed items, attempting to balance it with high strength of association.

² *circumplex – a contraction of circular continuum of complexity (Guttman, 1954). A continuum around which variables can be ordered according to differences in kind, as discriminated from simplex (simple continuum of complexity) around which variables can be ordered according to differences in degree (from “least” to “most”). The circular order among variables is determined by a “law of neighboring” which can be operationalized by a set of correlation coefficients or any other similarity coefficients.*

- 3) Examine the content of the IPIP items selected, noting any item pairs that are essentially identical in content. Omit the lowest correlating item from such redundant pairs. If any item is omitted using this redundancy criterion, add the next highest correlated IPIP item to the set from which it was omitted.
- 3a) Examine if the content of all of the selected items is cohesive. Omit items that are inconsistent with the major story-line, and replace them with others from the set of most highly correlating items.
- 4) Conduct a reliability analysis of the items in the scale in order to identify items whose addition to the scale lowers the Coefficient Alpha reliability of the resulting scale. Again, omit items and substitute them with others from the set of most highly correlating items. Continue this process until Alpha is as high as is reasonable, yet not sacrificing too much breadth of content.

These initial IPIP scales are considered to be preliminary because they should be improved further through the use of more sophisticated procedures (e.g., item response theory). Members of the international research community, including Latvian scientists, are encouraged to use item response theory models and any other suitable techniques to improve the quality of the preliminary IPIP scales.

Translation of IPIP scales targeted at the 45 AB5C facets into Latvian

IPIP-AB5C (International Personality Item Pool – Abridged Big Five-dimensional, Circumplex, Goldberg, 1999) was translated into Latvian (Gabrane, 2003) with consulting help from Goldberg. This instrument was constructed in the circumplex² tradition (McCormick & Goldberg, 1997). Thus, every facet (lower-level scale of the broad five factors) is seen as a blend of two factors on which it has the two highest loadings. Most items load significantly on two factors, not one. The secondary loadings are thought to yield valuable information. For example, the concept of wit contains aspects of both intellect and humor.

Methods

Participants

Thirty students (87%) and adults (13%), aged 18 to 53, with a mean age of 24, completed the test on voluntary basis. Most respondents (90%) were female.

Procedures

The following procedures were used: (a) items were translated using the independent back-translation method, and (b) Coefficient Alpha maximizing was carried out. That is, items with the lowest correlations with the scale total were excluded in order to increase Alpha above .7.

Results

The mean Alpha Coefficient was relatively high, slightly above .8. However, two facets initially had Alpha Coefficients below .7: the 17th, Tenderness (.64), and the 43rd, Creativity (.59). Two items in the 43rd facet had nonsignificant correlations with

the scale total. After excluding the item with the lowest Pearson correlation, the scale's Alpha Coefficient increased from .59 to .79, with eight items remaining in the scale (Table 1).

In the 17th facet, five items had nonsignificant correlations with the scale total. Excluding all five items increased the scale Alpha from .64 to .71. Eight items remained in the scale. The mean Alpha Coefficient of all 45 facets remained .82 (Table 1).

Table 1. Internal consistency estimates for the Latvian IPIP-AB5C scales after Alpha maximizing

Factor	No.	Facet	Number of items		Mean item r	Alpha
			+	-		
I Extroversion						
I+/I vs. I-/I-	1	Gregariousness	4	6	.29	.80
I+/II+ vs. I-/II-	2	Friendliness	5	5	.46	.89
I+/III+ vs. I-/III-	3	Assertiveness	9	3	.25	.79
I+/IV+ vs. I-/IV-	4	Poise	5	5	.31	.68
I+/V+ vs. I-/V-	5	Leadership	5	5	.34	.83
I+/II- vs. I-/II+	6	Provocativeness	8	3	.24	.77
I+/III- vs. I-/III+	7	Self-Disclosure	8	2	.33	.83
I+/IV- vs. I-/IV+	8	Talkativeness	8	2	.42	.88
I+/V- vs. I-/V+	9	Sociability	3	7	.37	.86
II Agreeableness						
II+/II+ vs. II-/II-	10	Understanding	5	5	.38	.86
II+/I vs. II-/I-	11	Warmth	9	2	.44	.89
II+/III+ vs. II-/III-	12	Morality	5	7	.27	.80
II+/IV+ vs. II-/IV-	13	Pleasantness	6	6	.36	.87
II+/V+ vs. II-/V-	14	Empathy	5	4	.26	.76
II+/I- vs. II-/I+	15	Cooperation	2	10	.25	.80
II+/III- vs. II-/III+	16	Sympathy	6	6	.25	.81
II+/IV- vs. II-/IV+	17	Tenderness	7	1	.24	.71*
II+/V- vs. II-/V+	18	Nurturance	6	7	.26	.81
III Conscientiousness						
III+/III+ vs. III-/III-	19	Conscientiousness	6	7	.30	.84
III+/I+ vs. III-/I-	20	Efficiency	5	6	.49	.91
III+/II+ vs. III-/II-	21	Dutifulness	6	7	.37	.88
III+/IV+ vs. III-/IV-	22	Purposefulness	5	7	.32	.86
III+/V+ vs. III-/V-	23	Organization	9	3	.31	.84
III+/I- vs. III-/I+	24	Cautiousness	5	7	.21	.76
III+/II- vs. III-/II+	25	Rationality	8	6	.17	.72
III+/IV- vs. III-/IV+	26	Perfectionism	7	2	.42	.87
III+/V- vs. III-/V+	27	Orderliness	7	3	.20	.71
IV Emotional Stability						
IV+/IV+ vs. IV-/IV-	28	Stability	5	5	.36	.85
IV+/I+ vs. IV-/I-	29	Happiness	5	5	.42	.88
IV+/II+ vs. IV-/II-	30	Calmness	4	6	.36	.85
IV+/III+ vs. IV-/III-	31	Moderation	4	6	.18	.69
IV+/V+ vs. IV-/V-	32	Toughness	4	8	.26	.81
IV+/I- vs. IV-/I+	33	Impulse Control	2	9	.29	.81
IV+/II- vs. IV-/II+	34	Imperturbability	2	7	.42	.88
IV+/III- vs. IV-/III+	35	Cool-headedness	0	10	.28	.80
IV+/V- vs. IV-/V+	36	Tranquility	7	4	.30	.83

V Intellect

V+/V+ vs. V-/V-	37	Intellect	6	5	.33	.81
V+/I+ vs. V-I-	38	Ingenuity	6	3	.48	.89
V+/II+ vs. V-/II-	39	Reflection	8	2	.31	.80
V+/III+ vs. V-/III-	40	Competence	8	0	.22	.70
V+/IV+ vs. V-/IV-	41	Quickness	7	3	.24	.73
V+/I- vs. V-/I+	42	Introspection	10	2	.23	.78
V+/II- vs. V-/II+	43	Creativity	5	3	.30	.79*
V+/III- vs. V-/III+	44	Imagination	5	5	.32	.82
V+/IV- vs. V-/IV+	45	Depth	7	2	.52	.91
Mean					.32	.82

*the modified facets.

Discussion

The mean Alpha Coefficient of the 45 facet scales is considered to be high, reflecting a clear and unambiguous translation of the items. Yet the sample size ($n=30$) is too small for any meaningful findings about the test's reliability. In addition, the data were not acquired on a heterogenous sample that reflects differences associated with age, sex and educational background. Thus, the collection of data from a larger sample (at least $n=300$) is needed, followed by the use of confirmatory factor analysis to examine whether the responses fit the five-factor model. Assistance is needed and thus requested to continue the adaptation of IPIP-AB5C for use in Latvia.

Correlations between the Big-Five factors and various work performance criterions have been reported (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991, McCrae, 2002). Thus, the availability and use of similar scales by Latvian psychologists will enable them to investigate various promising fields that have practical importance, especially in the developing branch of organizational psychology.

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School Attitude, Parental and Teacher Support, and Student Depression in Latvia: Mediator Model

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This study investigates relationships between student's perceived parent and teacher support, school attitude, and depression. School attitudes were proposed to mediate the effects of perceived parent and teacher support on depression. Participants included children and adolescents in grades 5, 8, and 10, recruited from the general population in Latvia. School attitudes did not mediate the effects of perceived parent support on depression. However, for perceived teacher support, school attitudes had a mediating effect on depression. School-based interventions to address depression are discussed.¹

Key Words: depression in schools; school attitude; perceived parental support; perceived teacher support; mediator model

Childhood depression is a growing concern and poses a serious mental health problem. Although several predictive and causal factors have been explored, additional research is needed to address many unanswered questions (Fombonne, 1995). Schools provide an appropriate setting for the study of factors contributing to childhood depression. School experiences constitute a vital part of the emotional growth and development of children. For some, school is challenging and rewarding, while for others it is stressful and traumatic (Wells, 2000). Thus, for some, school experiences may contribute to childhood depression. Students' perceptions of the degree of support offered by teachers and parents may offer further insights into protective factors for preventing depression. This study investigated relationships between perceived teacher support, perceived parental support for school, students' attitudes toward school, and depression in youth.

Depression in youth

Risk factors for children developing psychopathology include negative family interactions as well as specific stressful events. The incidence of depression is higher among lower income families and families with high levels of conflict (Nilzon & Palmerus, 1997). A major family event (e.g. loss of a parent, divorce, or the birth of a new

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sibling) also may trigger depression (Goodyer, 1990; 1993).

Developmental changes associated with adolescence may constitute a further risk factor for depression. Some examples follow. Early maturing girls tend to experience less adequate psychological adjustment, while earlier maturing boys tend not to experience these difficulties. Stressful conflicts associated with shifting relationships within the family during adolescence as well as environmental stressors (e.g. changing schools) can negatively effect psychological adjustment during this period. (Laffert & Peterson, 1995).

Not all children and adolescents who are at-risk will develop depression (Cicchetti & Toth, 1998; Buchanan, 2000). A variety of factors can provide a protective function against depression (Buchanan, 2000). For example, a good relationship with parents and involvement in family activities appears to be important to positive psychological adjustment. Involvement in a supportive community and attending a school with a high standard of achievement and a zero-tolerance policy for bullying also serve as a protective factor (Buchanan, 2000). Additional parental and school protective and risk factors will be discussed further.

School attitude

Although school attitudes are neither an etiological factor nor a strong predictor of depression, they are related to depressive symptoms. Positive attitudes toward school could be a potential protector against depression. When children become depressed, their overall academic functioning decreases and they develop a negative attitude toward school (Stark, 1990). An investigation of school functioning and psychological adjustment revealed that those who had attempted suicide and were depressed reportedly liked school less than those who did not have these depressive symptoms (Howard-Pitney, LaFramboise, Basil, September, and Johnson, 1992). Research investigating relationships between school attitudes and depression is limited. However, exploring how students feel about school appears promising for learning more about risk factors related to depression.

Parental support

Positive relationships exist among constructive adult support, improved academic performance, and emotional stability of school children (e.g., Wentzel, 1998; Puig-Antich et al., 1993). Further analysis can provide insight into the potential role of these caregivers in preventing or mitigating depression in children. Parents who provide support for school may help enhance the child's school experience (Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1994) as well as promote positive emotional adjustment in general. An investigation of parental support on both academic achievement and attitude toward school (Wenz-Gross, Siperstein, Untch, & Widaman, 1997) examined the impact of a variety of stressors and support systems on psychological adjustment. Parent support was related to reduced symptoms of depression as well as reduced school stress and increased positive school attitude. A study of social support and early adolescent adjustment found social support from families was associated with less psychological distress (DuBoise, Felner, Meares, and Krier, 1994). The current study is based, in part, on the premise that students' attitudes toward school mediate relationships between parental support for school and depression.

Teacher support

Teachers constitute another stable adult presence that influences students' emotional well-being and attitude toward school (Hargreaves, 1998). The previously cited study of stress and social support (Wenz-Gross, Siperstein, Untch, and Widaman, 1997) examined teacher support and attitude toward school. Teacher support was defined as "problem solving support from other adult" (p.135). As teacher support increased, positive attitude toward school increased as well. Furthermore, teacher support was associated with decreased psychological distress for children from disadvantaged homes (DuBois, Felner, Meares, & Krier, 1994). The authors suggested that support from school personnel such as teachers can mitigate lack of home support as a protective factor against depression. Teachers are in a position to provide support both academically and emotionally. Thus, the current study proposes that school attitudes of students could mediate the effects of perceived teacher support on preventing depression in students.

Current study

The current study explores relationships among parental support, schooling, and depression using data collected in Latvia in connection with the World Health Organization (WHO). This cross-national health survey was conducted in 1990, 1993, and 1997. The more recent data collected in 1997 were used in this study.

This study examines a mediator model that utilizes the following factors: school attitude, parental support for school, teacher support, and depression. The following hypotheses will be examined. The first hypothesis tests a mediator model of school attitudes, parental support and depression. That is, when school attitudes are controlled, perceived parental support is not expected to relate to depression. The second hypothesis tests a mediator model of teacher support, school attitudes and depression. That is, when school attitudes are controlled, teacher support is not expected to relate to depression.

Method

Participants

Three thousand seven hundred and seventy-seven Latvian children and adolescents participated in the larger WHO Cross-National Survey on the Health Behaviour of School-Aged Children (HBSC) conducted in Latvia. The participants were relatively evenly distributed by grade: five (1311, 34%), eight (1199, 31%), and ten (1265, 33%); and gender: 1,705 were boys (45%) and 2070 were girls (55%). Of these, 3250 children for whom complete data were obtained were included in the study.

Sample selection procedure

The WHO study employed a cluster sample procedure to first select participating schools. Children in grades five, eight, and ten from each of Latvia's four geographical regions and from Riga, the capital city, were selected proportionately to represent the percentage of the total student population from each area. Participants were selected from towns, villages, and countrysides from each region. For analysis in the current study, restrictions were placed to include only those who answered most of the relevant items as explained further in this section.

Measures

Data were gathered using the WHO Cross-National Survey of the Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children (HBSC) and the Children's Depression Inventory (CDI) (Kovacs, 1985).

The core survey consisted of questions concerning general demographic information as well as family and school environment, specific health behaviours such as smoking and alcohol consumption, eating habits, psychosomatic complaints, and sexual education. For the purposes of the current study, only questions concerning grade, gender, school language, perceived teacher and parent behaviours related to school, and participant's attitudes toward school were examined.

Twelve items from the core survey battery concerning teacher and parent behaviours and student attitudes toward school were selected to form three scales representing these domains (Table 1).

Table 1. *Items used to create scales and reliability*

Parental Support for School

1. If I have problems at school, my parents are ready to help
2. My parents are willing to come to school to talk to teachers
3. My parents encourage me to do well at school

$\alpha = .58$

Responses range from 1 = always to 5 = never

Teacher Support for School

1. I am encouraged to express my own views in my classes
2. Our teachers treat us fairly
3. When I need extra help, I can get it
4. My teachers are interested in me as a person

$\alpha = .66$

Responses range from 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree

School Attitude

1. Our school is a nice place to be
2. I feel I belong at this school
(1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree)
3. How do you feel about school at present
(1 = I like it a lot to 5 = I don't like it at all)
4. How often do you think school is boring
(1 = very often to 5 = never)
5. Do you feel safe at school

$\alpha = .68$

(1 = always to 5 = never)

Note. All items but school attitude #4. were reversely scored to reflect increasing support and positive school attitude.

For the parent items, participants who did not live with both parents were instructed to think of the parent they live with most of the time. When calculating the scores from

these scales, restrictions were made to include those who answered at least 2 out of 3 items on the parent support scale, 3 out of 4 items on the teacher support scale, and 4 out of 5 items on the school attitude.

The Children's Depression Inventory (CDI)

The Children's Depression Inventory (CDI) was developed to screen depressive symptoms. This 27-item, self-report measure was designed for school-aged children and adolescents ages 7 to 17 years. This scale assesses a range of depressive symptoms including disturbed mood, lowered activity level, poor self-concept, and interpersonal relationships. The CDI has been found to be a good tool for initial screening and can be administered quickly to large groups of youths (Kovacs, 1985).

The measures were translated into Latvian using the backwards-forwards method. The questionnaires were translated first into Latvian and then back into English. Discrepancies were investigated and, if needed, changes were made. For the HBSC survey, bilingual members of the WHO research team conducted the translations. A team of two Latvian bilingual psychologists and a bilingual editor/teacher translated the CDI. This team was employed to ensure the nuances of the psychological terms were maintained in the translation from English to Latvian.

Procedure

Prior to the collection of the data, consent was obtained from the Latvian Ministry of Education, and principals of the selected schools were contacted and asked if their school would be willing to participate. Members of the WHO research team in Riga travelled to all the participating schools to collect the data. Teachers were not in the classrooms at the time the surveys were being completed. Members of the research team informed the students that they did not have to complete the forms and they were free to withdraw from the study at any time. The students were told that the World Health Organization was trying to collect more information about young people's health, such as eating and life habits. They were instructed not to put their names on the questionnaires and told that no one besides the research team would be allowed to see them. Students were asked to read each question carefully and to answer all the questions. They also were informed that the questionnaire was not a test and there were no right or wrong answers. They were asked not to talk to each other until all the surveys were completed. The completed questionnaires were placed in an envelope with only the date, school, class, and number of questionnaires noted on the outside. Participants were thanked for their time and told a summary of the results would be sent to their schools.

Design of the study

Two mediator models were hypothesized for the current study (see Figures 1 and 2).

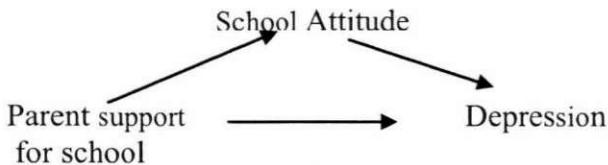


Figure 1. Hypothesized mediator model of relations between parent support for school, school attitude, and depression.

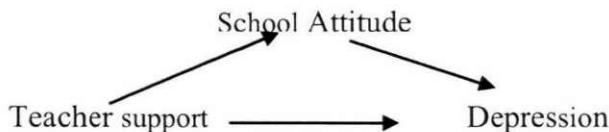


Figure 2. Hypothesized mediator model of relations between teacher support, school attitude, and depression.

To test a mediator model, Kenny (2001) suggests running simple regressions to ensure the initial variable is associated with the outcome variable as well as the mediator variable. Further, the mediator variable must be associated with the outcome variable. Lastly, hierarchical regressions are recommended to be used to test the effects of the initial variable on the outcome variable while controlling for the mediator variable. Mediation is determined by comparing the value of the path from the initial variable to the outcome variable with the path from the initial variable to the outcome variable when the mediating variable is controlled (Kenny, 2001). Full mediation is achieved when the controlled path is zero, but partial mediation is achieved if the controlled path is significantly reduced (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In the current study, the initial variables are data from the two scales created to reflect parental support for school and teacher support. The mediating variable is data from the scale for school attitudes. The outcome variable is depression, measured by the CDI. The two mediator models described above were run to test if school attitudes mediate the effects of parental and teacher support on depression. The unstandardized betas are presented for the regressions.

Results

Parent support for school

School attitudes were hypothesized to mediate the effects of parental support on depression. The result for parental support and depression was $\beta = -.33$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .08$, and for parental support and school attitude was $\beta = .17$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .05$. A hierarchical multiple regression was used to test the mediator model. When school attitudes were controlled, parental support still was significantly associated with depression at $b = -.26$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .08$. A summary of these findings can be seen in Figure 3.

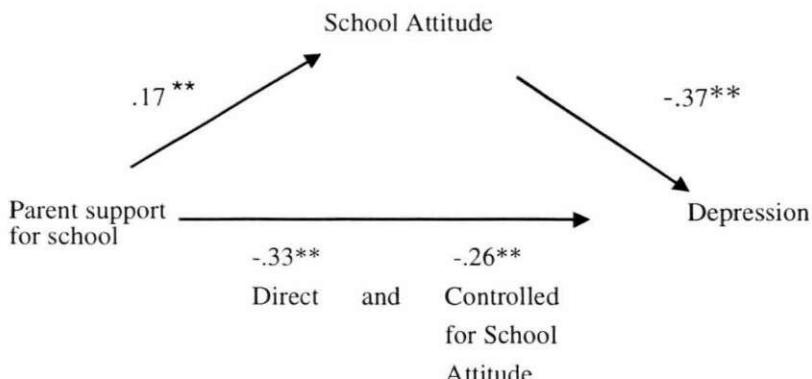


Figure 3. *Summary of mediator model of relations between parent support for school, school attitude, and depression.*

Teacher support

School attitudes were hypothesized to mediate the effects of teacher support on depression. The result for teacher support and depression was $b = -.38$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .06$, and for teacher support and school attitude was $b = .45$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .20$. A hierarchical multiple regression was used to test the mediator model. When school attitude was controlled, the relationship between teacher support and depression was reduced, yet still significantly associated with depression at $b = -.16$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .06$. This difference between the direct path from teacher support to depression and the path controlling for school attitude was sufficiently large to warrant further investigation. A summary of these findings can be seen in Figure 4.

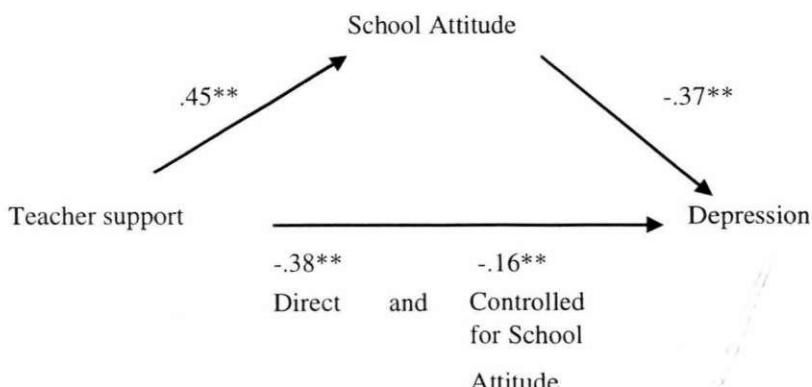


Figure 4. *Summary of mediator model of relations between teacher support, school attitude, and depression.*

McGuigan and Langholz, described in Mackinnon et al. (2002), offer a significance test to test the difference in mediation. The path from teacher support to depression was reduced significantly, $p < .001$.

Discussion

In light of positive relationships between parental and teacher support and student's emotional adjustment, students' attitudes toward school were hypothesized to mediate the effects of parental and teacher support for school on depression. School attitude did not mediate the effects of parental support - that is, how a student feels about school did not mediate the effects of parental support for school on depression. On the other hand, school attitude did mediate the effects of teacher support on depression - that is, only when students' attitudes toward school are positive, support by a teacher may serve as a buffer against symptoms of depression.

Parent and teacher support and depression

Both teacher support and parental support for school were related to ratings of depressive symptoms. Youth who perceived more parental support for school and more teacher support also reported lower levels of depression. This finding is consistent with findings from prior studies that investigated relationships between different types of support and psychological adjustment. For example, consistent with the current study, a prospective study investigating life stress and social support found social support from family members and support from teachers to be associated with lower levels of psychological maladjustment (DuBois, Felner, Meares, & Krier, 1994).

The direction of the current findings cannot be stated conclusively. Teacher support and parental support for school are thought to lower depression. However, depressed children also may elicit less support from adults, especially in the context of school. Depressed children have a decreased interest in school (Kovacs & Goldston, 1991). Thus, they may fail to inform their parents of scheduled school events and meetings involving parents and to request assistance with homework where needed. Similarly, depressed students may not elicit support from their teachers. Students who are sad or withdrawn are less likely to approach their teachers in search of support (Morris, 1992). On the other hand, teachers of depressed students may feel ambivalent or avoid withdrawn children (Smith, 1991). Findings from the current study offer further evidence to support the importance of adult roles in reducing symptoms of depression. However, the precise direction of this relationship is not known.

School attitude

The current study found that both perceived teacher support and parental support for school were associated with an increase in positive school attitude. Students who reported higher levels of teacher support and parental support for school also reported a more positive school attitude. This finding is consistent with the results of prior studies. For example, a study of relationships among social support, stress, and emotional adjustment found that a higher level of both teacher and parental support to be related to a more positive school attitude (Wenz-Gross, Siperstein, Untch, and Widaman, 1997).

The causal relationship between adult support and school attitude cannot be determined from this study and others that employ correlational methods. However, parental support for school is likely to enhance their child's attitude toward school. Children of parents who show an interest in their child's learning are likely to feel encouraged and

enjoy school more. In addition, teachers are likely to recognize parent involvement, feel more responsive, and offer the child more assistance, thus resulting in the child receiving better grades and positive recognition of his or her efforts that enhance the school experience. Children who enjoy school may request support more frequently from their parents for school related activities. This may help explain the consistent positive relationship between parental support and school attitudes. Further research would be needed to determine whether teacher support enhances the school experience thus increasing student's liking for school or if students who like school are more likely to report increased levels of teacher support. Nevertheless, the present findings offer further evidence of a relationship between both parental support for school and teacher support and positive school attitudes.

Teacher support: Mediator model

Past studies have demonstrated the positive effects teacher support can have on both school attitudes and psychological adjustment (Wenz-Gross, Siperstein, Untch, and Widaman, 1997; DuBois, Felner, Meares, & Krier, 1994). The present study found that school attitudes mediate the effects teacher support on depression. There could be several reasons for this. For example, students who have negative attitudes toward school may perceive less support even if support is present. Alternatively, students who display negative school attitudes simply may elicit less support.

The first explanation for the finding that school attitudes mediate the effects of teacher support and depression is that students who display negative school attitudes will not reap the benefits teacher support offers. If indeed students are not benefiting from teacher support due to their negative school attitude, then finding methods that encourage positive school attitudes might help to prevent depression. Miezitis (1992a), in the conclusion of *Creating Alternatives to Depression in Our Schools*, highlights the importance of nurturing creativity in order to promote a sense of hope, a key element that is lacking in depressed children. The arts, including dance, music, and drama, largely are undervalued in schools. However, pursuit of these activities may help many troubled children to find an arena for self-expression that would enhance their sense of self and their attitude toward school (Miezitis, 1992a). The findings of the current study, underscore the importance of promoting positive school attitudes in children.

Depressed children and adolescents display decreased interest in school (Stark, 1990). As an alternative explanation for the significance of the mediator model, lack of interest and withdrawn behaviour commonly associated with depression could interfere with students gaining access to the support offered by teachers. Although teachers report that they are aware of the emotional difficulties of their students (Smith, 1991) and attempt to create positive emotional environments for their students (Hargreaves, 1998), they do not always provide the emotional support they believe is important. For example, Miezitis (1992b) reported two case studies of a teacher-mediated school intervention for depression which involved classroom observations of the teacher's behaviour with the depressed child. In both cases, the teacher interacted less, provided less positive feedback, and called on the depressed child less often compared to other students in the class. After bringing this imbalanced behaviour to the teacher's attention, the researcher found that the teacher was able to use this new awareness to address the child in a more positive

manner. Subsequently, the teacher reported the child's improved behaviour and mood (Mieczitis, 1992b). Further evidence of negative adult interaction with depressed children was described by Mullins, Peterson, Wonderlich, and Reaven (1986) who found adults who viewed a video tape of a depressed child reported they would not like to interact with or spend time with the child. The evidence in the current study may also suggest that teachers may not provide the support depressed children need.

The current findings report only partial and not complete mediation. This suggests that there are other possible mediators impacting the relationships between teacher support and depression. Relationships between the teacher and the student also could be mediating. The positive effects of support on depression may be lost if a student does not like the teacher or vice versa. Academic achievement also may serve as a mediator. Students who do not perform well in school may have difficulty getting or accepting support from their teachers.

The mediator model offers further insight into the complexity of relationships between teachers and their students. While we do not know exactly how school attitudes mediate the effects of teacher support on depression, we know that how a child feels toward school is important in determining relationships between teacher support and depression in children and adolescents.

Parents and teachers as collaborators

Parental support for school was not dependent on school attitude in mitigating depression. On the other hand, to mitigate depression, teacher support was dependent on the presence of a positive school attitude. This suggests that the inclusion of parents in school-based interventions may be highly beneficial. For example, Cole (1990) developed a parent-teacher school-based intervention for depression. The core of the intervention focuses on the school psychologist as a facilitator among the student, teacher, and parent. This allowed the parent and teacher to feel less isolated and to offer each other support when coping with a challenging child.

School psychologists can assist teachers when working with students who exhibit depressive symptomatology. It is important to educate teachers about depression to ensure they do not mistake symptoms of depression for inattention and laziness. There are many resources available for working with students with depression. Some examples include approaches proposed by Mieczitis (1992a), Cole (1990), and Stark (1990).

Limitations and future research

There are several limitations to this study. The large sample size ($n = 3250$) increases the chances of making a Type I error or a false positive (Aaron & Aaron, 1999). The correlational nature of the study precludes causal inferences.

The findings of the current study offer increased insight into the complex relationship between support from significant adults and depression in children and adolescents. Specifically, students' attitudes toward school do not mediate the positive effects parental support has on depression. Concerning teacher support, on the other hand, students' attitudes toward school seem to be an important factor. The current study encourages school psychologists and teachers to explore ways of creating positive experiences in schools for students and to ensure that parents are included in interventions.

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THEORETICAL ARTICLES

Development of the Science of Psychology in Latvia after the Regaining of Independence (1991-2003)

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The number of psychologists in Latvia has increased from several dozen to several thousand since Latvia regained its independence in 1991. Until 1998, there were only a few publications of scientific research in the field of psychology in Latvia but their number has rapidly increased in the last five years. The main fields of research are personality psychology, clinical psychology, cognitive psychology (intelligence) and social and organizational psychology. Papers of Latvian psychologists have been presented at different international conferences, colloquiums and congresses.

Research work is based mainly on three different theoretical approaches: humanistic, psychodynamic and cognitive, which determine the methodology of the studies. The humanistic approach seems closely related to the contemporary tendencies in Russian psychology while psychodynamic and cognitive approaches fall in the mainstream of modern Western psychology.

As Latvia joins the European Community it opens new perspectives of integrating psychological studies of Latvian scientists into the international development of the science of psychology.¹

Key words: psychology in Latvia, humanistic approach, psychodynamic approach, cognitive approach.

Introduction

In the last twelve years radical political, social and economic changes have taken place in Latvia. During this time the number of psychologists in Latvia has grown from several dozen to several thousand. In this report psychological research development in Latvia in the period after the restoration of independence will be examined.

Before turning to the analysis of the research, the changes in the preparation of psychology specialists, their employment and organization must be considered. It was significant for the further development of psychology in Latvia that psychology studies were established at Latvian universities and colleges. In contrast to Estonia and Lithuania where education in psychology was available already from early 1970ies, in Latvia there was no such opportunity. In Latvia at the University of Latvia the first psychology students were enrolled almost twenty years later – in 1989. Up to then psychologists educated in Russia, mainly from Moscow and Leningrad universities worked in Latvia. This explains the small number of psychologists in Latvia (approximately 30 – 40 psycholo-

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gists, among them 10 doctors of psychology) right up to 1993 when University of Latvia graduated the first psychologists in Latvia's history. Already from the beginning of the 90ies the number of universities teaching psychology specialists increased rapidly. Along with state universities (University of Latvia, Riga School of Pedagogy and Education Management, Daugavpils Pedagogy University) several private universities have begun to prepare and train psychologists. Just like economics and law psychology has become one of the most popular specialties in Latvian universities. At present every year about 600 students register to study this subject in Latvia. Therefore now in Latvia there are 5000 specialists with degrees in psychology among them about 500 Masters of Psychology and about 30 Doctors of Psychology. Such popularity of psychology studies is characteristic to many post-socialist countries. There can be several reasons for this. First, the access to such education. Even in the mid-eighties in the whole of the USSR only about 400 students per year could graduate in psychology, but the total number of psychologists was below 10 000 (note that then the total population of USSR was 100 times the population of Latvia). Secondly, strengthened interest about psychological problems and their possible solutions. During the transition period many people experienced strong emotional stress, felt the difficulties of adaptation and this could increase interest in psychological problems. Thirdly, psychology freed itself from ideological restrictions, political censorship. For the first time Western psychologists' writings became widely available, opportunities to meet Western psychologists, attend seminars and lectures organized by Western psychologists appeared. Fourthly, to many psychology may seem an easily acquired area of specialty (compared to, for example, engineering, technical and natural sciences) and because of that the motive to study of psychology can be simply the road to acquiring a university degree.

Only a small portion of all graduates in psychology work in their specialty and in addition, not all of them have the required six years of education in psychology. The largest number of psychologists is employed in the education field. In the Latvian School Psychologists Association there are more than 200 members, but this number does not include all psychologists working in schools. Approximately 100 psychologists are employed in various psychological assistance and support centres and medical institutions. In the Latvian Clinical Psychologists' Association there are about 50 members. Approximately the same number of psychologists is employed in the area of organization psychology of which 30 have joined together in the Latvian Organization Psychologists' Association. Approximately 50 psychologists are lecturers at Latvian universities. As a result a total of 600 specialists are employed in the field of psychology and since independence their number has increased at least twenty times!

Mostly university and college lecturers conduct research. If one takes into consideration that many of the Latvian psychologists were doing research already in the beginning of the 1990ies, then it can be seen that after independence the number of researchers has not increased substantially. To a great extent the limited financial resources provided by the government can explain this. Although some psychologists take advantage of international and foreign foundation support for research, that still is not enough to promote faster growth of the number of researchers. This is proven by the fact that in the last five years

²These and numbers mentioned further on are author's estimates because such data are not collected officially in Latvia.

in Latvia only five new doctors of psychology have emerged among which two have received their degrees outside Latvia (Bergen and Stockholm universities).

Publications

The University of Latvia, Pedagogy and Psychology Institute regularly publishes compilations of reports. Since 2002 the Institute organizes conferences and publishes collections of reports together with the Association for Teacher Education in Europe. Psychological research papers are published in the scientific report compilations of University of Latvia. Beginning with 2003, the science of psychology will have a separate annual compilation published by University of Latvia. Since 2000 University of Latvia, Pedagogy and Psychology Department twice a year issues the "Baltic Journal of Psychology" with reports and writings of Baltic and Western psychologists.

Since 1994 every two years the International Baltic Psychologist Conference (IBPC) takes place. To a certain extent they follow the tradition of biannual Baltic republic psychology conferences established during the Soviet period (the last conference took place in January 1991, in Vilnius, the Baltic States still being part of the USSR). The essential difference from the Soviet era's conferences is that now psychologists of Baltic origin from many countries in the world participate actively.

The executive of the Association for the Advancement of Baltic Psychology (AABP) organized the first IBPC in Latvia in collaboration with the faculty of Education at the University of Latvia with the intent of developing networks among psychologists in the Baltic with those living abroad. Subsequent biannual conferences in Tallinn, Vilnius, Riga and Tartu University were co-sponsored by the AABP with support from the Canadian funding agencies.

In 1998 in Riga the XXI International School Psychology Colloquium took place where psychologists from 35 countries participated. Up to now this was the most significant international psychology event in Latvia. Many psychologists from Latvia have also taken part in subsequent International School Psychology Colloquia in Switzerland (1999), USA (2000), France (2001), and Denmark (2002). Latvian psychologists' researches have been presented at the International Psychologists Congress in Stockholm (2000) and European Psychologists Congress in Vienna (2003).

In this review mainly papers from conferences, colloquia, and congresses will be analysed. The author of this review realizes the insufficiency of this, because not included are conference materials of many other conferences, particularly if the conferences have taken place outside of Riga and the publications are not available at the Latvian National Library. In the last years Latvian psychologists' papers have been published also in significant international psychology journals, but some of them are not available in Latvia.

The contribution of Latvian psychologists living abroad must be emphasized in the development of psychology in Latvia. This has been demonstrated as support for the development of psychology training programs at the University of Latvia, as well as the organization of International Baltic Psychology conferences and the involvement of Latvian psychologists in various international research projects and exchange visits. A significant role in the development of psychology in Latvia and indeed all of the Baltic

States belongs to the Association for Advancement of Baltic Psychology that was organized in Canada in 1991. Juris Dragūns, Jānis Grants, Aina Nucho from USA, Lia Kapelis and Aldis Putniņš from Australia, Imants Barušs, Ilze Kalnins, Solveiga Miezīte and Edite Ozols from Canada, Ināra Erdmanis and Māra Strautmane from Sweden have been actively working in Latvia. The reports, publications, lectures and organizational work of these psychologists undoubtedly has made and is making considerable contribution to the scientific activity in Latvia, but the aim of this report is to show the achievement of psychologists living in Latvia. Psychological issues are investigated also in the research done by teachers, sociologists and physiologists, but inclusion of these in this analysis would require a much larger report.

It must be noted that until 1998 psychological research publications were a rarity. Psychologists participated in The Worldwide Latvian Scientific Congress, 1991, the papers were published (The Worldwide Latvian Scientific Congress, 1991.), yet only a few reflected the results of research done in Latvia (V. Avotiņš, Ā. Karpova). The conference papers of The First Baltic Psychologists Conference unfortunately were not published. Therefore, information about the research done for some time after the restoration of independence was available only from listening to the authors' conference lectures. Most of the authors in the compilation "Personības attīstības problēmas" (Personality Development Problems) are teachers and the reports included there almost without exception are based on Russian pedagogical and psychological theories (Špona, Plotnieks, Meikšāne, chief ed., 1992).

Psychological education of the new generation at the University of Latvia, Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology began in the General and Clinical psychology department. However, at both these University of Latvia departments and other colleges and universities until 1998 there was the "empty period" in the area of psychological research and publications.

Personality psychology

The most significant publication during this "empty period" is the monograph by Ārija Karpova on the research about students' individual style (Karpova, 1994). This work sums up the research done from 1976 to 1988. A big variety of methods was used in this research: modifications of Cattel's 16 PF, MMPI, Lusher's Colour test, socio-metric survey, Gardner's test for perceptual cognition and others. 17 methods in total. Several hundred students participated in this research whose main task was to describe the individual style of personality development, determine its internal structure and find out the proportion of social and individual determinants. The theoretical basis of the research is shaped by B. Ananyev, L. Anciferova, L. Vigotsky, A. Leontyev, V. Myashishchev, S. Rubinstein and other Russian psychologists' theoretical conceptions and activity theory. As a result of the research personality development logic is established – individual style of personality development that is manifested in life-style. This voluminous work saturated with philosophical ideas obviously has formed a concept about what personality research tasks, possibilities and forms in Latvia should be.

Beginning with 1998 most publications have been about a concept called "pašizjūta", a rather vague term which is related with self-esteem (Ozoliņš, 1998), well-being

(Šteinberga, 1999), and self-awareness (Karpova, 2003). University of Latvia's Pedagogy and Psychology Institute researchers have worked on this subject since 1996. First research papers were compiled in a separate collection in 1998. The notion of "pašizjūta" has been introduced by Imants Plotnieks (Plotnieks, 1998) who turned to this idea already before the restored independence basing it on the conceptions of the Latvian philosopher and psychologist Pauls Dāle. I. Plotnieks defines "pašizjūta" as "a singular integral experience where the object is the subject itself, its self-concept, as well as the affect of semi-conscious intuitive self-reflection" (1998., p.10.). There is no analogue for this concept in other psychological theories; also it has no identical designation in other languages. The introduction of the concept of "pašizjūta" can be viewed as the attempt to make Latvian psychology nationally singular, different from the already existing psychology directions.

Ināra Krūmiņa researches "pašizjūta" using Spielberger's STAI anxiety scale, the Russian educator's Lutoshkin's colour method for determining the psychological climate in a class and by using students' drawings and self-characterization analysis (Krūmiņa, 1998). This is the only reference to any specific "pašizjūtas" research methods, although from the research discription it is difficult to tell what are the operational indicators of "pašizjūta".

All in all, one is left with the impression that the concept of "pašizjūta" is a sort of "umbrella" description for concepts linked to a person's self-concept. It can be considered as an attempt to create a holistic approach to personality research as indicated by the author of the concept: "That ... proves... the need for an integral understanding of the concept, because this will determine the approach also to empirical researches, will permit the use of various schools of psychology and direct discoveries" (Plotnieks, 1998).

The use of various schools of psychology is typical for this approach. It can be described as radical eclecticism. An attempt is made in the theoretical justification to unite extremely different, or even diametrically opposite approaches: humanistic psychology, Vigotsky's socio-cultural approach to psychoanalysis, analytic psychology and Bowlby's ethological approach (Tenne, 1998). Mārtiņš Veide links Berne's transaction analysis and psychoanalysis with Master Echart and Raudive (Veide, 1998). It could create a misleading view about Western psychology as a more or less homogeneous system of points of view not paying sufficient attention to the radical differences in these views.

Airisa Šteinberga consistently holds on to the eclectic approach attempting artificially to link the views of Soviet Russian psychologists L.Bozhovich, A.Leontyev, K.Platonov, and S.Rubinstein with the ideas of humanistic psychologists. In the research pedagogical methods are examined with the help of which students' "pašizjūta" could be influenced, but just like in other similar researches the problem of "pašizjūta" assessment is avoided (Šteinberga, 1999).

Identity research has also become popular in Latvia (Dimdiņš, 1996; Martinsone, 1999; Lasmane, 1998, 1999, 2000; Pipere, 2000, 2002; Sebre, 1996, 1998, 1999; Tunne, 1998, 1999). All these studies more or less are based on Erikson's understanding of identity thus making Erikson the most cited foreign psychologist in Latvia. However, also in these researches there is no operational definition of identity. It is being defined as "personality nucleus", "likeness to self" (Martinsons, 1999), identity may be a "deli-

cate nucleus" or it can be "intensified" (Lasmane, 1998, p.171). If the research subject has been defined so vaguely and generally then research becomes problematic. In many of the studies identity itself actually is not researched. Instead, with the help of sociometric questionnaires research is done on emotional attitude towards oneself (Martinsons, 1999), teacher and student mutual interaction evaluation (Lasmane, 1998), choice of professional career (Lasmane, 1999). Exceptions are Ķirts Dimdiņš's research on students' national identity and Anita Pipere's research on Latvian teacher identity, in which Kuhn's and McPartland's methods are used.

Attention has also been focused on self-esteem. Various aspects of self-esteem have been researched in connection with "pašsajūta" and identity (Martinsons, 1998), from the pedagogical aspect (Robinson, Breslav, 1996), or in connection with child – mother relationships (Miltuze, Sebre, 1998; Miltuze, 2003). Geršons Breslavs particularly turns to ethnic difference research in students' self-esteem. (Fomina, Breslav, 2000).

Owing to Daina Škuškovnika's research Spielberger's anxiety scale STAI (Škuškovnika, 2002) has been adapted in Latvia. In these researches a rather surprising fact has emerged – in Latvia anxiety levels are lower than in USA (Škuškovnika, 2002). Research of teachers' professional stress also has been reported (Škuškovnika, 2002b; Uzole, 2002).

From theoretical research Alexey Vorobyov has made an attempt to develop a new, original approach to personality and the understanding of its development (Vorobjovs, 2002, 2002a).

Main attention in this approach is given to personality activity guidance problems. He separates three personality psychological activity guidance principles: hedonism principle, reduction principle and stress decreasing or relaxation principle. The social life of the rich is organized according to hedonism principle; it has been "reborn" in the context of Freud's psychoanalysis. The decreasing of stress or relaxation principle is at the basis of a socially significant activity. Marx's postulate about work as a "free, creative activity" is the basis for understanding activity category in psychology science in Russia. Heavy and common work is tiring, creates negative emotions, dissatisfaction. In a person recognizing the social significance of this work, learning better the skills for performing the work, the stress decreases and the person relaxes. According to the reduction principle man strives for a balanced condition, the elimination of a discomfort situation. Behaviourism has introduced this principle in personality activity guidance system. In Vorobyov's opinion the shortcoming of psychoanalysis, activity theory and behaviourism is that these psychology directions advance only one guidance principle as guiding personality activity. Only merging these principles can solve the personality activity problem. The author offers to merge three radically different approaches into one system.

Clinical psychology

Next, a most voluminous trend by a number of researchers is family violence towards women and children. The originator of this research direction is Sanda Sebre. An important place in these research studies is held by issues related to dissociation. Dissociation is examined as a psychologically protective reaction to a traumatic event,

whereby the emotional experience is not integrated in memory with other aspects of the traumatic event (Sebre, 2002). Dissociation studies are based on P. Janet and S. Freud's observations of the manifestation of dissociation and their explanations which in the last decades have been applied and researched by several western scientists. Dissociation is being researched as a reaction to family violence (Sebre, 1998), as well as the possible consequence of the totalitarian Soviet system (Sebre, 2000, 2002). Various questionnaires are used in the research – the dissociation questionnaire DIS – Q, trauma symptom questionnaire, experienced violence questionnaire, hostility and intolerance questionnaire etc. A definite correlation has been established between emotional, physical and sexual violence in the family, and dissociation indicators. Research has not confirmed the assumption that the politically-motivated traumatic experience of the Soviet period has a direct connection with dissociation, which is explained with the long time that has elapsed since the traumatic events.

All kinds of family violence aspects have been researched: parents' attitudes towards child abuse in connection with their personal experience of violence (Spruževica, Sebre, 2000), the psychological consequences in adulthood of the experience of violence (Sebre, 2000), the child's symptoms related to experience of abuse (Sebre, Spruževica, 1998), partner violence linked to attachment style (Bite, 2001), mother's violence against a child linked to the mother's personal experience of violence in childhood (Sebre, 2002).

The results of these research studies show that violence against children and women in families is far more widespread than society assumes. Emotional violence leaves just as severe psychological consequences as physical and sexual abuse. A vicious circle can be created when mothers' abused in childhood use violence against their own children. Research results are utilized in crisis centers and psychological counseling centres.

All the mentioned research studies are based mainly on a psychodynamic method of approach to children's development, psychopathological symptom formation processes and John Bowlby's attachment theory. Models of attachment is another research theme which has been developing since the middle of the 1990ies, owing to Sanda Sebre. For this research is primarily used the attachment style determination questionnaire developed by K. Bartholomew and L. Horowitz, in some cases also the Hazan and Shaver adult attachment questionnaire. In the research studies the influence of childhood trauma on the development of insecure attachment style (Bite, 2001, 2002), and attachment style links to differences from the perspective of one's own illness (Läce, 2002), have been clarified. The comparison of these methods to other attachment style evaluation questionnaires (Martinsonc, 2001) has been made.

Research studies on university student adjustment and academic achievement by Sarmīte Voitkāne with Solveiga Miezīte also relate to the field of clinical psychology (Voitkāne, 2001, 2002, 2003; Voitkāne, Miezīte, 2001; Voitkāne, Miezīte, 2002).

A three-year longitudinal study explores student resources and challenges experienced upon entering university. Student characteristics and coping mechanisms were assessed by such measures as Beck Depression Inventory, Multidimensional scale of perceived social support, Multidimensional Locus of Control Scales, University of Pittsburgh Survey of Student Needs, Scales of Psychological Well-Being etc., in total

16 methods were used. Voitkāne and Miezīte adapted seven of these tests for this study.

Follow-up studies are in progress to identify the best predictors of student achievement and successful completion of studies. The research provides data on student needs and characteristics of high-risk students, which can be utilized by counsellors and lead to the development of preventive programs for student support.

Popularity of Bowlby's attachment theory is indicated by the fact that in her last research S.Voitkāne in explaining student adaptation problems also includes the insecure attachment style (Voitkāne, 2003). With this, one can conclude that a whole string of researches have the tendency to use attachment style as a universal explanation for most diverse occurrences - violence in the family, student adaptation problems, perception of ones own illness and many others. At the same time it is not entirely clear what are the factors in developing the attachment style. A cautious attitude against excessive backing from attachment styles is created also by the fact that these styles are determined *post factum* - questioning adults decisions are made about their attachment styles in childhood.

A series of studies on depression in Latvian children and adolescents were conducted as part of the World Health Organization Cross-National Surveys of Health Behaviours in School-Aged Children carried out in 1990, 1993, 1997, and 2001 by the research team of Ieva Ranka. (Miezītis & Kalnīns, 1995; Ranka, Miezītis, Kalnīš, & Ervika, 1996; Miezītis, Kalnīš, & Ranka, 2001; Sagratti, Dunlop, Miezītis, & Ranka, 2002; Nobel, Miezītis, & Ranka, 2003).

Data on the Children's Depression Inventory (CDI, Kovacs) were collected on four cohorts of 3000 11-16 year-olds yielding normative data and depression trends from 1990 to 2001. Over the first decade of independence depression scores show a steady decline, approaching averages obtained in Western countries by 2001. Studies show that students with depressive tendencies are more likely to exhibit social withdrawal, psychosomatic symptoms, high risk behaviours such as smoking, and less positive attitudes towards school, poorer relationships with teachers, and with their peers in and outside of school. It has also been shown that school attitudes mediate the effects of teacher support and depression. These findings point to the need for early identification and school-based intervention and prevention programs to help children cope with depression.

The attention of psychologists has been drawn also to crisis situations and reactions to the loss of a close person (Maslovska, 2001; Maslovska, Martinsone, Miltuze, Feno- genova, 2001).

Cognitive psychology: intelligence

Intelligence research in Latvia began under Valdis Avotiņš already in 1970ies (Avotiņš, 1976, 1982). Today it is continued by Maļgožata Raščevska (Raščevka, 1998, 1999a; Upzare, 2001; Raščevska, Miezīte, Vanags, 2003). This research is particularly significant because the results of the research obtained in other countries cannot be directly applied to the population in Latvia. For measuring intelligence the Woodcock-Johnson Test has been adapted. Relying on Sternberg's hierarchical intelligence concept, M. Raščevska has researched practical intellect structure in Latvia. An original practical

intelligence concept has been developed along the questionnaire for measuring it. Research has established the existence of a general practical intelligence factor G and gender differences (Raščevska, Bērziņa, 2001). To determine the validity of the newly developed practical intelligence questionnaire, it has been correlated with other personality and social adaptation categories such as - psychological well-being, perceived social support, etc., which indirectly also characterize the result of a person's adaptation to a new environment. Among these categories are also attachment styles that confirm that this category is present at most of the research done at University of Latvia, Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology, Psychology Department.

In Latvia emotional intelligence research has begun and Bar-On Questionnaire has been adapted for that research (Gaitniece-Putāne, 2003, 2002a); social intelligence has also been researched (Kauliņa, 2001).

Since 1980ies creativity research also has begun in Latvia led by Rita Bebre. Research in this area is continued by Rita Bebre (2000) as well as other psychologists (Brande, Karpova, 2002; Černova, 2002, 2003).

Family psychology

Several topics related to family psychology have been researched. Ārija Karpova has published a general family problem survey (Karpova, 2000). Mother-daughter relationships have been researched by Anika Miltuze (Miltuze, 1999, 2002, 2003), students' views of family formation by Ilze Liepiņa (Liepiņa, 2002), family creativity link with the younger adolescent's creative expressions by Aisma Brände and Ārija Karpova (Brände, Karpova, 2002), links between social axioms and satisfaction in marriage by Marija Ābeliņa (Ābeliņa, 2002).

Social psychology

“Pašizjūtas” and identity research has been done mainly in schools and is therefore related to educational psychology field. The same can be said about several other studies in social psychology, for example, the social climate comparison between Latvian and USA schools (Raščevska, 1999b), and teacher and student interrelationships (Pļavniece, Raščevska, 2002), teacher communication skill self-evaluation (Pļavniece, Raščevska, 2002a). In this research after an extensive teachers' questionnaire it was concluded that teacher communication skills have improved in the last ten years (results of two similar studies done in 1991 and 2001 were compared) and also that the qualitative and quantitative differences in communication skills of Latvian and Russian teachers have changed.

Traditionally values have been a popular research subject for Latvian psychologists. Making use of the Rokeach method Ivars Austers has developed a new value questionnaire adapted to the Latvian situation. With the help of this he has researched the values of the unemployed in Latvia (Austers, 1996); Anda Gaitniece-Putāne has attempted to clarify values according to gender (Gaitniece-Putāne, 2000). Ineta Tunne has done most work in value research, researching youth's values in Latvia (Tunne, 1998, 1999), analysing youth's value dynamics after the regaining of independence (Tunne, 2003). I. Tun-

ne believes that the Rokeach method is defective, because it offers a list of already established values. In her research she analyses student self-descriptions, attempting to find the most essential tendencies and most frequently observed problems. Various psychologists' views are used as argumentation in the research (Spranger, Jung, Erikson, and Assagioli's psychosynthesis) and parallels in the works of pre-war Latvian writers and thinkers are searched. The main theoretical basis of the research, however, is Russian Soviet psychologists V.Yadov's and A. Zdravomislov's value orientation concept.

So far in Latvia there has been a comparatively small amount of research in social psychology. This is in contradiction to the often-expressed opinion about the significance and popularity of social psychology in Latvia. Some other research topics should be mentioned.

Austers in his research has turned to inter-group perception. The main focus is on the question of how people's goals and interests affect their ability to imagine themselves in the place of another person from another social group, to stereotype others from these positions, as well as the explanations of behaviour of people from other social groups. In this connection political behaviour explanations from various groups have been researched (Austers, Montgomery, 2001). Also minority and majority status influence on mutual value stereotypes (Austers, 2002) and the ability to imagine another groups' point of view explaining positive and negative behaviour (Austers, 2000, 2002a). These are the first social psychology studies in Latvia that have been conducted using the modern social cognition approach.

In many countries of the world research has been done to ascertain individualism/collectivism tendencies in society. Such research has also begun in Latvia (Kalniņš, 2002, 2003; Caviars, 2002). Although at the moment no conclusions can be made about dominating individualism or collectivism tendencies in present Latvian society, in the framework of this research Triandis and Realo Questionnaires have been adapted which permit more extensive research in this area. A new research subject in Latvia is also social representations (Reņģe, 2003).

Organizational psychology

Management psychology traditions are continued by research in organizational psychology. Research has been done on job satisfaction, organizational commitment (Pāvuls, 2000, 2002), locus of control (Bistrova, 2002), career choice motivation (Nimroda, 2000), organizational culture (Kamerāde, Lasmanc, 2002), teachers' job motivation (Tiltiņa, Škuškovnika, Kristapsone, 2001, 2002). New methods have been adapted in the research which are now widely used in psychologists' practical work in organizations.

Research on current politically social problems

Many psychologists in their research have referred to Latvia's real social problems. To some extent this can be attributed to research with the goal of improving teaching job quality, and even more, to research family violence. Of particular significance in Lat-

vian society still are the consequences of Soviet occupation, which have touched single individuals as well as whole families. Māra Vidnere has turned to the psychological problems of the politically repressed (Vidnere, 1977; Vidnere, Nucho, 2000; Vidnere, Karpova, Kraukle, Rutka, 2001; Vidnere, Karpova, Nucho, 2002) and so has Sandra Sebre (Sebre, 2000). In these researches the victims' life story analysis and political violence questionnaires are utilized. Taking into account the difficult ethnic interrelationships in society, and the tension in the relationships among various social levels in the population, the tolerance problem has become very topical (Makarevich, 2000. Sebre, 2000).

Transition period problems

Historically in Latvia psychology has formed and developed in very close relationship with pedagogy. Most of the researchers were educated as teachers, and research goals were formulated in terms of pedagogy. Until 1991 psychology in Latvia was part of the Russian Marxist psychology. According to the ideological view point of those days psychological research was based on Marxist psychology theories and methodology. Officially the main task of psychology in Latvia, especially in the area of pedagogy, was to promote the education of the young generation in the ideology of Marxism-Leninism, encourage collectivism, the atheistic world view, and loyalty to the communist party (Plotnieks, 1984). All other research - intelligence and memory, mental retardation, emotional deviation, individual style of communication, etc.- was only of secondary importance.

In a historically short period, during the years of "Awakening" (1988-1990), psychology in Latvia had to change drastically towards principally new tasks, appropriate to the independent and democratic interests of Latvian society. Although "the iron curtain" already was down contacts with foreign psychologists just began to be formed, there was a lack of current scientific literature in psychology, information about most recent theories and research in psychology was lacking. An impediment also was the insufficient knowledge of foreign languages and, therefore, a particularly important support during this period was from Latvians abroad. Some of the research already begun had to be changed to make it relevant to the new tasks, others had to be restarted. That probably explains the already mentioned "empty" period in psychology publications in the early 1990ies. Of course, there were also financial or organizational difficulties, but those probably cannot be considered as the ruling factor.

Directions and orientation of psychology in Latvia

The publications examined during this period reflect the existence of several theoretical directions in psychology in Latvia. In a general and simplified way they can be described as humanistic, psychodynamic and cognitive directions. We could speak also of a fourth direction represented by esoteric psychology, onto psychology and some other "non-traditional" direction of psychology, but these directions are related more to practical rather than to research work.

The humanistic direction in Latvia now dominates in personality and pedagogy psycho-

logy and also in creativity research. Research in these areas is based mainly on Maslow, Rogers, Erikson, Fromm, Jung merging their conceptualizations with pre-war Latvian humanistic ideas in psychology, education and philosophy. Erikson's psychosocial development theory, of course, is attributed to psychoanalysis, nevertheless in the previously mentioned research only the personality identity concept and those Erikson's concepts which actually coincide with Maslow's and Rogers's ideas, social factor significance in personality development and creativity are utilized. Actually, Erikson's identity and Rogers's self-conception are considered similar. Jung's idea about self-realization in the individualization process coincides with humanistic psychology's basic principles, just as many of Fromm's humanistic psychoanalysis principles do. Guna Svence links the humanistic direction with akmeology – the psychology of personality in later adulthood (Svence, 2002). In humanistic psychology direction "key words" are "identity", "pašizjūta", "personality growth", "spiritual improvement", "self-realization", "personality potential", "creative potential implementation", etc., which from a functional point of view are not clearly defined concepts and thus make empirical research difficult. Thus, the research based on humanistic psychology methodology in which such qualitative methods as observation, open interviews, questionnaires with open questions, introspective personal reports, meditations, games, drawing and colour choice analysis, are mostly descriptive. Causal relationships and specific correlations between various phenomena are not experimentally researched. This methodology does not foresee experimental causal relationship research or the use of mathematical statistics methods, correlation and factor analysis. The humanistic direction to a large extent corresponds to the prevalent ideas in Latvian society about what is psychology and what are its tasks.

Clinical psychology research trends in Latvia can be characterized as psychodynamic. Psychoanalysis based publications in Latvia are rare (Silkāne, 2002). Up to a point Bowlby's attachment theory, which merges the ethological and object relationship approach, is linked with psychoanalysis. This approach underlines the significance of child - parent relationships in future adult life. Along with questionnaires in some research also narrative analysis, observations, projective methods, and case studies are used. In attachment research both qualitative and quantitative methods are used.

The cognitive direction is characteristic in intelligence research and its related social cognition approach – used in social psychology and organizational psychology research. Questionnaires, factor analyses and experiments are used in this type of research.

Interesting that the sequence of these directions' appearance in Latvia corresponds to their historic development sequence. The humanistic direction in Latvia began to develop in the beginning of the 1990ies, to a great extent due to the contribution of the psychologists from University of Latvia, Pedagogy and Psychology Institute. Under the leadership of I. Plotnieks they were the first to research the ideas of pre-war Latvian psychologists - P. Dāle, A. Dauge, P. Birkerts, J. Bundulis, P. Jurevičs, J. Students, etc. and the conclusions found in their pre-war works merged them with the modern psychologists' humanistic ideas. Humanistic psychology in USA developed in the 1950ies and 1960ies of the 20th. Because of this the first references of this direction in Latvian psychologists' publications are mainly to the monographs written until 1970ies; journal

articles (Personality "pašizjūta" and identity, 1998) are hardly mentioned.

The psychodynamic approach to scientific research in Latvia appeared in mid-90ies with the permanent move to Latvia of Sandra Sebre the American psychologist of Latvian descent. It was she who promoted the research in Latvia founded on J. Bowlby's theory. Her most active followers became the new generation psychologists who had acquired their psychology education in the newly independent Latvia. J. Bowlby's most significant works were published in the 1970ies, but research within the framework of his theories continues to develop also at present.

The cognitive direction is the most recent of the mentioned directions and its development in the world began in the 1960ies. In Latvia intelligence research started to follow this approach already in the Soviet period. This was done ignoring the negative official attitude towards intelligence assessment tests (Avotins, 1982), however, the cognitive approach in intelligence research fully strengthened only in the late 1990ies under the leadership of Małgorzata Raścevska. Research within the framework of social cognition began at the end of 1990ies to a great extent due to the former students of the Faculty of Education and Psychology of the University of Latvia, later graduates of doctor's and master's programs at Stockholm University, Ivars Austers, Ģirts Dimdiņš and Uldis Pāvuls.

Psychological research classification in the three mentioned directions, undeniably is very conditional, it ignores various essential theoretical nuances, but at the same time it permits, although only approximately, orientation in the diversity of theoretical research. Examining the development of these directions, one can establish the existence of two orientations in psychology in Latvia - orientation towards Russia (humanistic direction) and orientation towards the West (psychoanalytic and cognitive direction).

The humanistic direction orientation towards Russia is not only determined by the fact that many of its followers have acquired their education in Russia. Humanistic psychology arrived in Latvia through Russia, not directly from USA. After the relaxation of ideological restrictions at the end of the 1980ies humanistic psychology ideas became popular among Russian psychologists. The main works of such psychologists as E. Erikson, E. Fromm, A. Maslow and C. Rogers were translated into the Russian. Many Russian psychologists attempted to create new theoretical approaches merging Marxist psychology theories and humanistic psychology concepts. Exactly to these Russian language publications references are made by humanistic researchers. Researchers refer also to Russian authors and methods translated in Russia and adapted for use in Russia.

Akmeology is a particularly Russian approach to problems of developmental psychology that has been created on the basis of B. Ananyev's holistic approach to the person. It was developed by psychologists in Russia and Belarus (Svence, 2003). Also Neuro-linguistic Programming (NLP), Gestalt therapy and some other approaches popular among practical psychologists that have developed in USA are acquired in Latvia mainly through Russian specialists. The same can be said about ontopsychology developed in Italy and other "non-traditional psychology" directions.

Undeniably, such orientation has some advantages. Also at present Latvian people's mentality, except younger generation perhaps, is closer to the Russian and other former Soviet people's mentality rather than American or British mentality. This is

shown even by the great upheaval about joining the European Union. Also the fact that most of the psychologists in Latvia fluently speak and read Russian (which can not be said about English) provides excellent opportunity to learn about research and theories which probably are easier to understand in Latvia, rather than those that have developed in a less familiar cultural environment. Many of these researches are not known in the rest of the world because of the language barrier.

Yet, one has to look at future perspectives of such an orientation. Leaning only on theories and ideas that come from Russia means staying in the Russian psychologists' "information field" at the same time isolating oneself from modern psychology directions of the world.

Research in clinical psychology, the area of intelligence and social and organizational psychology show a highly pronounced "western" orientation. This is demonstrated by the theoretical bases (J. Bowlby's attachment theory, R. Sternberg's intelligence theory, modern social cognition theories) as well as methodologies (adapted original questionnaires and tests, correlation analysis, factor analysis, experiment) used in these areas of research.

Perspectives

The science of psychology after the restoration of independence in Latvia has turned to solving significant and current problems in social, educational, health and economic spheres. It has a definite practical trend. More attention should be devoted to how psychology research results are implemented in practice. Although the prestige of the science of psychology in the eyes of society has grown considerably, nevertheless many serious decisions in social, educational and health spheres are made ignoring the already existing psychological research results and not conducting new research where this would be most necessary.

Psychological research in Latvia is based on varied modern psychological theoretical directions and much of the research is eclectic. The orientation towards Russian psychology which had developed while Latvia was under USSR already since the mid-1990ies gradually has been loosing its leading role in psychology science in Latvia. More and more Latvian psychologists began to lean on the theoretical underpinnings and methodology of Western psychology. Since 1996 Latvian psychologists regularly take part in European psychologists' and Union of Psychology Science's congresses, as well as in many other international psychologists' conferences with reports. The publications of the last five years more and more correspond to the requirements of international standards demonstrating the prerequisites for publication in international psychology journals. In general the number of publications in significant psychology journals is not large (Austers, 2002, 2002a; Dimdins, Austers, Montgomery, 2003; Robinson, Breslav, 1996; Sprugevica, Hoyen, 2003, 2003a). In comparison, Estonian psychologists from 1991-1995 alone have 35 such publications (Niiit, 1996). Yet, research tendencies prove that in Latvia in the next few years such publications will increase. Publication in internationally recognized journals is a criterion for the development of the science of psychology in Latvia. More Latvian psychologists' reports are now published in English and beginning with 1998 English is the most frequently used language

in all publications. This creates a wider circle of psychologists who learn about research in Latvia and submits the scientific level of these researches to the scrutiny of international experts and that is essential for a small country like Latvia.

Research methods are improving. New tests are standardized; newly adapted questionnaires from other languages appear gradually replacing translations from Russian. Modern mathematical statistics and factor analysis methods are more widely used. Still there is very little research done with experiments (Austers, 2002b; Austers, Montgomery, 2001; Dimdins, Austers, Montgomery, 2003; Jushkus, Smetanina, Breslav, 2002). Research done at present by master and doctoral students indicate that in the very near future experimental methods will have adequate status in science of psychology in Latvia.

Accession to the European Union opens up new horizons for the science of psychology in solving Latvia's current problems and in its development into a world level modern science.

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Competence vs. Intelligence in Predicting Work Performance

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The aim of the paper was to examine the reasons given by proponents of competence for preferring it to intelligence in predicting work performance, as well as to examine possible unstated reasons. Stated reasons include use of criterion sampling, a claimed causal relationship between operant thoughts and behaviors and successful outcomes, and changes in learning. Both concepts, as well as their social and scientific context will be examined. Compared to intelligence, validity does not seem to be a major issue for proponents of competence. There is little evidence that validating competencies against performance in organizations is taken seriously enough. Competence does consist of operant thoughts and behaviors, but their causal relations to successful outcomes are questionable. From a developmental perspective, competence reflects changes in what the individual has learned. From the social and scientific perspective there is a need for more practical measurement methods. The accuracy of work performance prediction has come to have secondary importance. Trends in HRM acknowledge the value of competence in linking individual performance and development to business results.¹

Key words: competence, intelligence, work performance.

Prediction of work performance in times of rapidly changing environment and increased global competition has become an important task for psychologists and human resource management (HRM) professionals. The assessment methods of mental abilities are extensively used for prediction of work performance, namely, intelligence tests and competence assessment techniques. Mostly these methods are applied in two HRM areas - selection and development. Focal questions in selection are: "What are the key abilities related to superior performance in particular tasks?" and "Who is the best candidate for performing certain tasks?" The main questions related to prediction in training and development are: "Who will learn better, and how?" and "What needs to be learned to perform better?" Interestingly, intelligence tests and competence assessment techniques are still competing for the title of "the best method for predicting work performance".

The aim of this paper is to examine the reasons (both stated and unstated) that proponents of competence have for preferring it to intelligence in predicting work performance. In the paper the focus will be on the following assumptions made by scholars defending the concept. Competence can predict job performance better than intelligence because it:

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1) is based on criterion sampling; 2) consists of operant thoughts and behaviors causally related to successful outcomes; 3) reflects changes in what the individual has learned (Spencer and Spencer, 1993; McClelland, 1973). To discuss possible reasons underlying those explicitly stated, the social and scientific context will be briefly explored.

The following structure will be used. Firstly, the concepts of competence and intelligence will be examined to clarify the differences between them in respect of claimed assumptions. Secondly, the social and scientific context will be described to identify the possible underlying assumptions of researchers and practitioners that might play a key role in giving preference to the concept of competence. The concluding part of the paper will summarize claimed and possible underlying reasons the proponents of competence have for preferring it to intelligence in predicting work performance, and will make suggestions for further research.

Examination of the reasons for preferring competence to intelligence in work performance prediction is important from both academic and also applied perspectives. Recent developments in research and testing of intelligence might outweigh some of the initial arguments in favor of competence. More than that, trends in HRM practice and related consultancy are showing that competence assessment has acquired broader focus and new values that differ from initial ideas at the time the competence movement started.

Concepts of intelligence and competence

Intelligence

Purpose and definitions

The purpose of intelligence is to adapt to, as well as to shape and select any environmental context by use of mental abilities (Sternberg, 1997). Rephrased, this is also a general contemporary definition of intelligence. Intelligence is also defined as (1) ability to profit from experience; (2) ability to learn, to adapt to the environment, and to understand and control oneself (Sternberg and Kaufman, 1998). In all definitions of intelligence, prediction of behavior is of great importance.

In translation from Latin (*intellectus, intellegere*) intelligence means comprehension, cognition, insight. The etymology of the word has close connections with cognitive ability. Current usage of the word in the English language is connected with ability to learn, to apply knowledge. Intelligence involves extrapolating from past experience to understand the future. It corresponds to how well knowledge is acquired and used. Since the very end of the 19th Century with the research of H. Spencer and F. Galton intelligence has become one of the most objective constructs in behavioral science.

Sternberg and Kaufman (1998) conceded that there has been a broadening of theories of intelligence, nominating the following as major aspects of this broadening: *Multiple* intelligence developed by Gardner (1993) who proposes that there is no single, unified intelligence, but rather a set of distinct and independent ones; *Successful* intelligence originated by Sternberg (1996) which is ability to adapt, select and to shape the environment to achieve desired goals of a specific society, group or individual; *True* intelligence suggested by Perkins (1995) synthesizes classic and current views. True intelligence has three aspects: neural, experiential, and reflective; the *Bioecological Model* of intelligence developed by Ceci (1996) proposes multiple cognitive potentials, context, and knowledge

as the essential core in performance prediction. In addition, there has been strong development of *Social* intelligence (Cantor and Kihlstrom 1987) as well as *Emotional* intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997), focusing on social knowledge and use of emotion.

Thus the concept of intelligence has become broader, and, even more, it has departed from the scientific construct in some cases, although scientists have long defended it. The answer to what is intelligence differs across disciplines, times and places (Sternberg and Kaufman 1998).

Structure

In the 1990s, psychometric-ability tests reflected a multifactor structure of the concept of intelligence (Daniel, 1997). There are many structures conceptualized (e.g. verbal comprehension, perceptual organization, processing speed, and freedom from distractibility, reasoning with novel problems (Wechsler, 1991); fluid and crystallized intelligence (Kaufman and Kaufman, 1993)). The number of mental ability dimensions in the latest tests of intelligence varies around 5-6. An examination of the subscales of intelligence tests indicates that similar constructs are involved in both verbal and/or nonverbal domains: (1) inductive/analytical thinking; (2) deductive/conceptual thinking; (3) ability to adapt to the environment; (4) ability to understand and control oneself. Gardner (1983) concluded that intelligence falls into seven categories: linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic and intra-extra personal. The question of the role of the general factor of intelligence *g* remains open.

Predicting validity

Many psychologists have conducted extensive and fundamental studies of intelligence in order to differentiate performance reliably and objectively. (e.g., Binet, J.M. Cattell, Wechsler, Anastasi, Sternberg and Kaufman). Among mental testing methods intelligence tests are among the most objective and most reliable measures available to social scientists (Wagner, 1997).

It has been recognized that general intelligence is related to the acquisition of knowledge in occupational settings, which influences occupational performance (Brody, 1997). The average validity coefficient or correlation between cognitive ability test scores and job performance can reach up to 0.50 (Wagner, 1997).

Assessment

Among the most prominent intelligence tests are (1) the Binet-Simon Scale (1905) with norms from comparison groups and invention of the Mental Age concept (MA); (2) the Stanford-Binet Scale (1916) with the addition of Intelligence Quotient (IQ); (3) the Amthauer Test of Intelligence Structure (1953) with nine subscales; (4) the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (1955, 1981); the Kaufman Adolescent and Adult Intelligence Test (Kaufman and Kaufman, 1993);

Apart from the traditional static methods just mentioned, there are also dynamic assessment methods. Dynamic assessment as an approach in mental abilities testing was originated by Vygotsky. It involves dynamic assessment where individuals learn at the time of the test after feedback on wrong answers. The Swanson Cognitive Processing test (Swanson, 1995) is the only formal and standartised instrument for dynamic assessment.

A common feature of all major intelligence tests is a high level of procedural standardization, reliability and validity.

A fundamental fact about the assessment of intelligence is that mental processes are always evaluated through behavior of some kind (Sternberg, 1997). Intelligence manifests itself behaviorally in different ways in different contexts (Sternberg, 1996). O'Sullivan, Guilford and Mille (1965) developed tests to measure social intelligence (SI). The SI is based on abilities measured at the behavioral level. For example:

- the ability to identify the internal mental states of individuals;
- the ability to interpret meaningful connections among behavioral acts;
- the ability to respond flexibly in interpreting changes in social behavior;
- the ability to predict what will happen in an interpersonal situation.

Competence

Purpose and definitions

The purpose of competence is to be successful in particular work settings by use of underlying characteristics of an individual (Motives, traits, self-concept, knowledge, and skill) (Spencer and Spencer, 1993; Boyatzis, 1982). A competency is an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to criterion-referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). The overall task of a competency is to predict behavior and to help in distinguishing excellent performers from effective performers in work settings.

There are several important additional reasons why competencies are used. They are a tool: (1) in helping to define and improve superior performance; (2) to provide a common language for employees in making performance operant (Briscoe and Hall, 1999); (3) in linking individual performance directly to business results (Fletcher, 1998); (4) in designing training and development programs; (5) in integrating different HRM processes and aligning them to business results (Storey, 1995).

Translated from Latin (*competentia, competere, competentis*) the term refers to a broad level of knowledge and experience in a specific field. It is connected with achievement, compliance, suitability, capability, and the right to perform or decide because of knowledge and experience. There are several other terms which include the same root as competence: (1) "competency" meaning the same as "competence" –an underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective or superior performance at work (Storey, 1995; Fletcher, 1997), competence consists of competencies or specific abilities; (2) "competences" used in the UK to express the expected output of individual performance in an occupation, and describing standards or minimum level of skills required to function successfully in a profession; (3) "competencies" is a concept used in the USA to describe behavior-based descriptors of a person's performance in terms of inputs (see Table 1.). Three components of the concept are often referred to: (1) suitable abilities and skills, (2) being legally qualified, (3) entitlement of an individual to belong to a profession (King, 1996).

The competency movement was launched by McClelland (1973), who questioned the usefulness of conventional tests of aptitude and knowledge, and recommended focusing on the idea of competence rather than the more traditional concept of intelligence in predicting work performance. Other authorities too have emphasized the importance of

the idea of competence. In the United Kingdom, to take one example, by the National Council for Vocational Qualifications and the Management Charter Initiative (Fletcher, 1998; Storey, 1995) for developing and monitoring performance standards or in the United States of America, to take another example, for determining whether an individual is capable of performing an act of interest in the judicial sense (Ogloff and Wallace, Otto, 1992). Thus it is apparent that the term "competence" is applied broadly in different situations when there is a need to differentiate people with respect to performance related criteria, and it is this process for which it is most useful.

The etymology of the concept is closely related with a strong need in everyday life to differentiate people according to the abilities or general capability required to perform any specific act. In particular, recruitment and selection practices in organizations require methods for identifying relevant qualities in both current and prospective staff that will enable a match between people and jobs (Storey, 1995). Practical application of this underlying idea of competency began at the beginning of the 20th Century with the pioneers of the applied psychology movement in the United States - G. Stanley Hall and Walter Dill Scott. Scott originated a novel approach in testing by measuring job applicants not only for traditional intelligence but also for other abilities needed to do a job at an acceptable level. To identify these abilities he asked executives and army officers to rank their subordinates by performance. Scott was the first who devised specific methods for measuring characteristics displayed by people who were already successful in their occupations (Schultz and Schultz, 1996).

It is no surprise that the concept of competence is closely connected to human abilities. There is some kind of link to abilities in almost every definition. However, what raises a question are the similar definitions of ability/ies on the one hand and competency/ies on the other (see Table 1). For instance, "ability" is defined as "the qualities, power, competence that enable one to perform a particular feat at A specific time now".² Another definition by the prominent psychologist Rubinshteyn (1940) defined abilities as a complex synthetic trait of a personality that determines his/her suitability to act or perform. Thus, it seems that constitutive definitions of both abilities and competencies are similar or do not possess distinctive features in general.

The different terms used to define competence and intelligence are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Meaning of competence and intelligence and related concepts

Concept	Explanation
<i>ability</i>	(1) being able to perform; (2) physical, mental, or legal power to perform; (3) natural or acquired competence in doing (The Penguin Pocket English Dictionary, 1990). The qualities, power, competence that enable one to perform a particular feat at a specific time now, no further training needed (The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology, 1995).
<i>skill</i>	The capacity for carrying out complex, well-organized, patterns of behavior smoothly and adaptively so as to achieve some end or goal (The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology, 1995).

² The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology, (1995)

<i>aptitude</i>	(1) natural ability; (2) general fitness or suitability (The Penguin Pocket English Dictionary, 1990).
	(1) potential for achievement; (2) connotation that a person displays an aptitude by a measurable, present ability that is interpreted as indicating that one may make, with some confidence, a prediction that their performance will increase markedly with additional training (The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology, 1995).
<i>competence</i>	sufficiency of means for the necessities and conveniences of life (The Penguin Pocket English Dictionary, 1990).
	(1) to achieve, to comply, to suite; (2) jur. scope of rights and responsibilities (Encyclopedia of Law, 1997).
<i>competent</i>	(1) someone who's knowledge and experience give a right to perform or decide; (2) capable (The Dictionary of Foreign Words, 1969).
	(1) ability to perform some task or accomplish something; (2) corresponds to something what might be done (The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology, 1995).
<i>competency</i>	Underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to criterion-referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).
<i>competences</i>	Expectations of performance at work in output terms (Flethcher, 1997).
<i>competencies</i>	Behavior-based descriptors of performance at work (inputs) (Flethcher, 1997).
<i>intelligence</i>	the ability to learn, apply knowledge (The Penguin Pocket English Dictionary, 1990).
	(1) ability to profit from experience; (2) behavior manifested by abilities such as reasoning, imagination, insight, judgement, and adaptability; (3) that which the intelligence tests measure (The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology, 1995).
	Ability to learn, the ability to adopt to the environment, and metacognition or ability to understand and control oneself (Symposium by Sternberg, Detterman 1986).
<i>Social Intelligence</i>	Person's ability to understand and manage other people and to engage in adaptive social interactions (Thorndike 1920).
	Individual's fund of knowledge about the social world (Cantor, Kihlstrom 1987).
<i>Emotional intelligence</i>	Ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others (Mayer, Salovey, 1997).
<i>Successful Intelligence</i>	Ability to adapt to, shape, and select environments to accomplish one's goals and those of one's society and culture (Sternberg, 1996).
<i>True Intelligence</i>	Synthesis of neural, experiential (learning from experience), and reflective (strategies in memory and problem solving) aspects of intelligence (Perkins, 1995).
<i>Practical Intelligence</i>	Reflected in our cognitive responses to almost everything that happens outside the school setting (Frederiksen, 1986).
<i>Multiple Intelligence</i>	Set of human intellectual potentials that relate to different cultural domains: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal (Gardner, 1983).

Structure

The structure of competence can be described as a composition of underlying characteristics or clusters and competencies. Underlying characteristics consist of motives (drives), traits (consistent responses), self-concept (attitudes, values), knowledge, and skill (ability) (Spencer and Spencer, 1993; Boyatzis, 1982). Competence can be structured by clusters. Spencer and Spencer (1993) have proposed six clusters of competence: achievement and action; helping and human service; impact and influence; managerial; cognitive; and personal effectiveness. Each of the clusters is divided into several competencies.

Predicting validity

In HRM practice, the most common competence measurement method is the interview. Since different kinds of interviews are of a qualitative nature, there is a risk of low conventional validity and reliability when measurement is made. The concept of Communicative Validity (Kvale, 1989) can help in discussions on the issue just mentioned. Communicative validity according to Kvale involves testing of knowledge claims in a dialog. Valid knowledge is obtained through conversation about social reality rather than confrontation.

A competency model can be validated by rating or ranking a criterion sample of superior or average performers on the competencies identified. Validation by expert panels and job analysis exercises are also common methods. The sensitive issue is validation by interviews and the skills in measurement of those who do the validating. Due to the context of how competencies are applied as a concept, research evidence is limited to conclusions on the general validity of the concept.

Assessment

Measurement methods of competence involve in short, (1) Behavioral Event Interview/ Structured Interview/ Critical-incident technique (Storey, 1995; Spencer and Spencer, 1993); (2) Job Analysis (Armstrong 1997); (3) Observation; (4) Competence Assessment/ Development Centers (Armstrong, 1997); (5) Standardized Questionnaires and Surveys; (6) Special Aptitude Tests (e.g. logical-mathematical and verbal reasoning); (7) Personality assessment.

There are two main purposes of competence measurement - either assessment of performance or development of performance.

Apparently, the most important way to gather information about competences is to gather very detailed behavioral descriptions (indicators). For example, some descriptions of Flexibility competence in the cluster of Personal effectiveness (Spencer and Spencer, 1993) are:

- changes own behavior or approach to suit the situation;
- makes smaller or short term adaptations in own or client company in response to the needs of situation.

In addition, consider the description from the Impact and Influence scale in the cluster of Impact and Influence (*ibid.*):

- with each step adapted to the specific audience or planned to have a specific effect or anticipates and prepares for others reactions;

It is not enough to speak about competence in general. In order to perform or to behave (throughput/process) a person must possess relevant abilities, skills or competence (input), which will result in an outcome. The majority of competence types fall into the category of input. The SI include (1) individual competence (Armstrong, 1997) and organizational competence (Hammel and Heene 1994; Fletcher, 1998), (2) specific competence for a particular task (e.g., typewriting) and general competence for a function (e.g., impact and influence), (3) generic competence for an industry (Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer and Spencer, 1993) or particular to a company, (4) threshold/minimally required competence and differentiating competence bringing about superior performance (Boyatzis, 1982; Storey, 1995), (5) insufficient competence or sufficient compe-

tence (minimal, moderate, optimal, superior) (King, 1996).

The meaning of competence applied in the UK with regard to performance or throughput is of interest here. The National Council for Vocational Qualifications and the Management Charter Initiative (UK) have developed national standards (occupational competences) of performance (Storey, 1995; Fletcher, 1998). Basically these are norms, and actual performance can be compared with them. In a sense, generic competencies by Boyatzis comply with the same meaning - they too can be used as a standards or performance norms. Consequently, a distinction can be made between competence actually possessed by individuals/organizations and expected competence.

The outcome in the form of performance is the last part of a simple work process description. In thinking about outcomes/results, it is necessary to consider several levels, in order to understand better both competence and performance: (1) individual, (2) group, (3) organizational, (4) country, (5) region, (6) global. Those levels have both short as well as long run perspectives.

The social and scientific context

Both intelligence and competence can be regarded as having, in the main, been created in the USA, because in Europe "competence" refers to different dimensions of performance at work, while intelligence testing is applied considerably less than in the USA. Consequently, in the regions where intelligence testing does not have strong traditions, the concept of competence might prevail partly because there is no real alternative for predicting performance in a systematic and reliable way.

Competence has evolved as a counter force to intelligence. When launched by McClelland, competence testing offered an acceptable departure from the conventional trend for many scientists, educational officials as well as members of the general public opposed to the extraordinary power of intelligence test scores in everyday life. It seems to me that the technical issue of the validity of testing competence rather than intelligence was of secondary importance, and the major "battle" was rather about values in the society.

Above all, the concepts under discussion are of real life significance. Both intelligence and competence testing are substantial industries which generate power to decide on certain aspects in human life, and generate financial resources. At almost every international convention or congress of psychology numerous representatives of commercial tests publishers are present. The assessment methods used most extensively in a business sector are also widely available at high prices. Consequently, I assume that preference for competence testing is also closely linked to new business opportunities.

It is a matter of public knowledge that intelligence testing is subject to strict ethical standards. A major prerequisite is appropriate professional training. For instance, intelligence testing traditionally should be carried out by qualified psychologists. The result is that only the members of a restricted and expensive "labor force" have the right to administer tests. Psychologists have much better knowledge of human behavior, but in many cases have little understanding of business. But HRM professionals and a wide range of consultants with good knowledge of business have been left out of reliable prediction of work performance. This was the case until the competency movement gave the red flag to "unprofessional" and "uncontrolled" testing of human abilities to

predict work performance. This means that psychologists are no longer a critical factor in the prediction of work performance. Competence models were easy to understand and to apply. Many forgot to ask: "What evidence shows that these particular competencies are causally linked to superior work performance and that a particular candidate during an interview has revealed the desired competencies?"

Are we forgetting about validity issues? No, we are not. It is just that understanding of validity has changed. Valid knowledge is now obtained through conversation as a shared reality rather than confrontation with universal standards. Competence models meant to predict work performance for the same positions differ across organizations operating in the same markets. But that is not important any more. If agreement exists among HRM professionals and responsible managers then a competence model can be considered validated. It seems that there is almost no chance in this respect for the concept of intelligence to compete with competence. It is most likely that McClelland's launch of the competence concept has close links to Post-Modernism in philosophy with uncertainty; fragmentation; decanonization among its major characteristics (Küle, Külis, 1998). And last, but not least, the social aspect of why competence is preferred to intelligence is related to recent trends in HRM. Firstly, there is great emphasis on human development. Competence models are very relevant for this task. Secondly, since there is a limited number of employees who know exactly what actions or skills will lead to desired organizational outcomes (because of their high intelligence), a common (understandable) language is needed to show all employees how their everyday performance is linked to organizational goals. Competence suits this task well and this can be considered the greatest value of the concept, not prediction of individual work performance.

Conclusions

The aim of the paper was to examine the claimed and possible underlying reasons the proponents of competence have for preferring it to intelligence in predicting work performance. The concepts of competence and intelligence as well as aspects of social and scientific context were examined. The purpose of both concepts was found to be similar – to benefit from using one's potential and by measuring this potential to predict performance. Application of the concept of intelligence is more general, because it exceeds work settings. However, the concept of competence currently is broader due to the fact that it is used not only for the purpose just mentioned but also for integrating different organizational processes, aligning individual efforts with organizational goals and planning individual development. During the last decades both concepts have developed significantly by becoming more similar to each other in respect to predicting occupational success. The concept of intelligence, presumably as a response to the competency movement, has improved in flexibility and become "real life" oriented. The concept of competence has departed little from initial ideas and has developed as a valid method for predicting performance. On the other hand it has been discovered as a unique approach to HRM with respect to human abilities and organizational development. The concept of intelligence from the scientific point of view has greater potential to become even more valid and reliable in prediction because of ongoing systematic research and integration of developments in neuroscience. Nonetheless, it is very doubtful

that the concept of intelligence will ever succeed in becoming integrated into HRM. One area where intelligence proponents could improve results is providing better support in human abilities development.

It seems that researchers on intelligence have listened to McClelland's (1973) call to improve criterion sampling by "getting out of their offices into the field to analyze performance into its components". For example, behavioral descriptions of *social* intelligence and several competencies are as similar as possible. Thus, the second assumption that competence can predict behavior better because it consists of operant behaviors and thoughts can no longer be the principal argument. Rather that is an issue of the extent to which intelligence tests up to date include widely applicable behavioral descriptions. Interestingly, it seems that competence proponents have higher ambitions than it is possible to achieve in respect to validating models by criterion sampling. Firstly, many competence models nowadays are developed and administered by professionals who lack competence to validate these models or for several reasons do not attach importance to validation. Secondly, many competence models now are based on competencies that will be required in the future, so that no criterion sampling can be made or it would certainly be rather difficult. The situation is paradoxical. The concept of intelligence is still among the most objective and reliable, and with advances in science it has good potential to improve in criterion sampling as it is viewed by competence proponents. On the other hand, the concept of competence was developed to meet higher standards in predictive validity, but due to its applied characteristics, changing focus and the profile of professionals, the concept does not seem to measure up to the initial intentions and arguments at the time it was developed.

The underlying structures of the concepts are different. The structure of intelligence is more general and covers mainly cognitive abilities. The structure of competence additionally involves motives, traits, a broader range of skills and self-concept. However we can expect that the structures of both concepts will become more similar, again, because of developments in intelligence research.

The third assumption was related to opportunities that provides the concept of competence in relation to learning and development. Undeniably, in this area the concept of competence is a clear leader if compared with the concept of intelligence. However, its greatest strength is not the power to predict who will learn better or what needs to be learned in order to be successful. It is rather in its structured, understandable and motivating way to develop individual or group competence that might directly lead to desired business results. But that does not mean that the concept of intelligence cannot be of help. It could be applied in a similar way if dynamic assessment methods were developed and proper attention were given to behavioral descriptions to reflect and measure desired abilities.

To finalize, both concepts currently are more similar than different in respect to prediction of work performance. No scientific evidence proves that one of the concepts is significantly better than the other in predicting success in work settings, although the concepts differ to a large extent in how and where they are applied as well as for what purpose.

Summary

Competencies would be good for predicting performance if they were based on criterion sampling (Barrett and Depinet, 1991). There is little evidence that validating competencies against performance in organizations is taken seriously enough. Criterion sampling is also questionable if future competencies are of interest. Compared to the concept of intelligence, validity does not seem to be a "stronghold" for the concept of competence.

Competence does consist of operant thoughts and behaviors, but their causal relations to successful outcomes in many situations are questionable. Since intelligence also consists of operant thoughts and behaviors, and shows a positive relationship to job performance (Barrett and Depinet, 1991; Hunter, 1986), the relevance of this reason for giving preference to the concept of competence must still be proved.

Competence reflects changes in what the individual has learned if a developmental perspective is taken. The concept of intelligence can also be applied from a developmental perspective with the use of intervention programs aimed at producing more intelligent behavior (Grotzer and Perkins, 2000).

The answer to the question of possible underlying reasons the proponents of competence have for preferring it to intelligence in predicting work performance in the social and scientific context is the following: The *first* underlying reason for preferring competence to intelligence in testing human abilities to predict work performance is a need for a more practical measurement method than so far offered by intelligence testing. The concept of competence and the related approach to HRM is more democratic, can be used by a wider range of professionals in different fields, and provides new business opportunities. The *second* reason is that society's values and current status of social science supports this preference. The accuracy of work performance prediction has been reduced to secondary importance by the changing nature of validity and the fast changing business environment. The *third* reason is related to the trends in HRM which acknowledge the value of competence in linking individual performance and development to business results.

What are the practical implications of the answers provided? From the perspective of the concepts' applicability in everyday organizational life, any method can be chosen to predict work performance - either intelligence testing or competence assessment. The decision to apply any of those methods has to be related to the values of a particular community or organization. On the other hand, from the perspective of science it necessary to examine thoroughly the latest scientific evidence concerning both concepts, in order to conclude which method has greater predictive power. So far no common agreement exists about how to validate this discussion.

Suggestions for further research

In respect to intelligence, evidence from recent research calls for going beyond general cognitive abilities and including additional variables that would help in explaining person-context interactions (Wagner, 1997). Sternberg (1994), for example, has proposed a model which besides cognitive abilities includes personality, situations, values,

roles, motivation, and even luck. This idea is similar to the underlying structure of competence – motives, traits, self-concept, knowledge and skills. Thus what would be needed is to explore how the current underlying structures of both concepts can best contribute to explaining person – context interaction. It would be necessary to continue exploring and validating the structure of competence and try to establish the effects of each factor on success in work settings. It is also important to validate the predictive power of both concepts by comparing tests results for the same subjects, carefully selected in accordance with criterion sampling. An Experimental design is advised. Another prospect in research could be exploring social representations about competence and intelligence. Observation suggests that many implicit theories held in the society still attach more predictive power to “intelligence” than “competence”.

Finally, I suggest that the time has come to start integrating both concepts rather than seeing them as opposed to each other in respect to predicting occupational success. In relation to concepts of intelligence and competence similarities can be drawn with what David Magnusson (1995) concluded in exploring scientific progress:

“In the empirical sciences, one characteristic feature of real scientific progress is increasing specialization. When specialization in a subfield of the natural sciences has reached a certain level, it becomes apparent that further progress lies in integration with what has been achieved in neighboring disciplines. During recent decades the most important steps forward in natural sciences have been taken by integration within the interface of what were earlier conspicuously different disciplines. This happened first in the interface of physics and chemistry and recently in the interface of biology, chemistry and physics. The earlier unambiguous and clear boundaries between sub-disciplines have disappeared.”

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KOPSAVILKUMI LATVIEŠU VALODĀ

Latviešu un krievu versijas trauksmes – stāvokļa un trauksmes –iezīmes pašnovērtējuma anketas Y formas psihometriskie rādītāji

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Pētījuma ietvaros ir veikta trauksmes – stāvokļa un trauksmes – izzīmes pašnovērtējuma anketas Y formas (STAI, State – Trait anxiety Inventory, Form Y; Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, Vagg & Jacobs, 1983) adaptācija latviešu un krievu valodā.

STAI izstrādāta, balstoties uz Čārlza D. Spīlbergera (Charles D. Spielberger) koncepciju, kuras ietvaros trauksme tiek apskatīta gan kā situācijas noteikts individuāls stāvoklis, gan kā individuāla personības dispozīcija. STAI Y forma tiek atzīta kā viena no nozīmīgām trauksmes noteikšanas metodēm, kas tiek plaši lietota, veicot zinātniskus un kliniskus pētījumus (piemēram, Kelly, 2002; Iwata & Higuchi, 2000; Mukhopadhyay, 1996; Napieralski & Brooks 1995 u. c.).

Lai noteiktu STAI Y formas latviešu un krievu versiju iekšējo saskaņotību, retesta ticamību, konkurentu un konstruktu validitāti, pētījumā tika izmantotas 1444 anketas (1133 – latviski, 311 – krievu valodā).

STAI Y formas iekšējās saskaņotības rādītāji latviešu izlasē svārstās no 0,83 līdz 0,92, krievu izlasē – no 0,76 līdz 0,94, kas ir līdzīgi oriģinālās izlases iekšējās saskaņotības rādītājiem. Trauksmes kā izzīmes retesta ticamības rādītāji ir robežās no 0,85 līdz 0,87 latviešu studentu grupā un robežās no 0,79 līdz 0,87 krievu studentu grupā, kas ir līdzīgi oriģinālās izlases rezultātiem (attiecīgi no 0,65 līdz 0,75). STAI Y formas konkurentu validitāte tika noteikta, izmantojot Teilores personīgās trauksmes skalu (TMAS, A personality scale of manifest anxiety; Taylor, 1953). Oriģinālajā izlasē sakarība starp STAI X formu un TMAS ir robežās no 0,79 līdz 0,83. Latviešu izlasē sakarība starp STAI Y formu un TMAS ir 0,74 un 0,75, līdzīgi krievu izlasē – 0,73 un 0,76 ($p<0,001$), kas norāda, ka abas šīs metodikas var uzskatīt par līdzvērtīgiem trauksmes kā personības izzīmes mērinstrumentiem.

Pārbaudot STAI Y formas latviešu varianta konstruktu validitāti, tika veikta faktoranalīze. Krievu valodas varianta rezultātu faktoranalīze nedeva interpretējamus rezultātus nepietiekamā respondentu skaita dēļ.

Iegūtie psihometriskie rādītāji saskan ar oriģinālā testa psihometriskajiem rādītājiem, kas ļauj secināt, ka STAI Y formas latviešu un krievu versija var tikt lietota Latvijā gan zinātniskajos pētījumos, gan psihodiagnostikā.

Starptautiskais personības jautājumu fonds – lietojums Latvijā starptautiskās zinātniskās sadarbības ietvaros

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IPIP (Starptautiskais personības jautājumu fonds) ir starptautiska sadarbības laboratorija (angļu val. – *collaboratory*), kas piedāvā zinātniekiem no visas pasaules iespēju veidot pašiem savus personības Lielā Piecnieka mērinstrumentus. Pašlaik projekta mājas lapā ir apkopoti 2000 jautājumi angļu valodā, kā arī skalas, kas mēra vairāku komerciālo piecfaktoru testu zemāka līmeņa konstruktus. Ar laiku projekta mājas lapā paredzēts ievietot arī pētījumos iegūtos datus, kas būtu pieejami atkārtotai analīzei.

Raksta autores bakalaura darba ietvaros tika latviski iztulkotas IPIP skalas, kas mēra AB5C piecfaktoru modeļa (Saīsinātā Lielā Piecnieka dimensiju Cirkulārā modeļa (angļu val. – *circumplex*)) 45 apakšskalas jeb šķautnes (Goldberg, 1999). IPIP-AB5C ir konstruēts, nemot vērā gan katras apakšskalas jautājumu primāros, gan arī sekundāros svarus attiecībā pret personības pieciem faktoriem, tātad katras apakšskalas tiek skatīta kā piederīga diviem faktoriem, piemēram, Plāpīguma apakšskalas jautājumiem vienlaicīgi ir pozitīva korelācija ar Ekstraversijas faktoru, kā arī negatīva korelācija ar Intelekta faktoru.

30 respondentu izlasē vecumā no 18 līdz 53 ar vidējo vecumu 23,7 tika iegūti pagaidu IPIP-AB5C skalu iekšējās saskaņotības rādītāji, taču, lai iegūtu drošticamu informāciju par IPIP-AB5C skalu psihometrisko kvalitāti, nepieciešams turpināt ievākt datus no lielākas izlases. Šis raksts ir iespējamas sadarbības piedāvājums, lai turpinātu IPIP-AB5C, kas ir plašs un informatīvs bagāts tests, adaptāciju latviešu valodā.

Tā kā ir atklāta personības piecu faktoru korelācija ar dažādiem darba izpildījuma kritērijiem (Mount & Barrick, 1991; McCredie, 2002) un arī Latvijā attīstās organizāciju psiholoģijas virziens un pielietojuma sfēra, psihologiem efektīvai pētniecībai būs nepieciešami arī īsāki instrumenti, tādēļ turpmāk ir plānots iztulkot salīdzinoši īsu Lielā Piecnieka personības struktūras testu (100 Big Five factor markers, L. R. Goldberg, 2001).

Psiholoģijas zinātnes attīstība Latvijā pēc neatkarības atjaunošanas (1992–2002)

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Kopš Latvijas neatkarības atjaunošanas 1991. gadā psihologu skaits Latvijā ir pieaudzis no dažiem desmitiem līdz vairākiem tūkstošiem. Tas ir ietekmējis arī pētniecisko darbību psiholoģijas sfērā. Zinātnisko publikāciju skaits sāk strauji pieauga, sākot ar 1998. gadu. Latvijas psihologi aizvien aktīvāk piedalās starptautiskajās konferencēs, kolokvijos un kongresos, zinātniskie pētījumi tiek publicēti vietējos un starptautiskajos rakstu krājumos un žurnālos. Publikācijās atspoguļotās galvenās pētījumu sfēras ir personības psiholoģija, kliniskā psiholoģija, kognitīvā psiholoģija, sociālā un organizāciju psiholoģija.

Personības psiholoģijas sfērā tiek pētīta personības pašizjūta un identitāte, pašvērtējums, personības vērtību sistēma, to izmaiņas un attīstība pusaudža un agrīnās jaunības gados. Ir izvirzīti jauni priekšstati par personības pašizjūtu un personības attīstību dažādu aktivitātes veidu kontekstā. Stresa un trauksmes pētījumos ir adaptētas Latvijas apstākļiem atbilstošas pētījumu metodes.

Pētījumi kliniskajā psiholoģijā skar galvenokārt tādas problēmas kā fiziskā un emocionālā vardarbība pret sievietēm un bērniem ģimenēs, bērnu - vecāku attiecību ie-spaidi uz turpmākajām attiecībām pieaugušā vecumā, disociācijas iespējamie cēloņi un tās saistība ar dažādām novirzēm sociālajā uzvedībā, studentu adaptācijas problēmas pirmajā mācību gadā, psiholoģiskās krizes situācijas un to pārvarēšana.

Kognitīvās psiholoģijas ietvaros notiek dažādu intelekta aspektu (praktiskais intelekts, emocionālais intelekts, sociālais intelekts, radošums) pētījumi. Īpaši nozīmīgi ir pētījumi praktiskā intelekta sfērā, kur tiek veidotas jaunas pētījumu metodes un pārskatīti līdzšinējie priekšstati par praktisko intelektu.

Sociālpsiholoģiskajiem pētījumiem ir gan lietišķa ievirze (psiholoģiskais klimats skolās, skolotāju komunikācijas prasmes un to pilnveidošana), gan plašāka teorētiska pieeja (mazākuma un vairākuma statusa ietekme uz stereotipu piedēvēšanu savējai un ārgrupai, pozitīvas un negatīvas uzvedības novērtēšana no savējo un ārgrupas viedokļa). Uzsāktie individuālisma/kolektivisma pētījumi sniedz iespējas iekļauties plašākos starpkultūru pētījumos.

Pētījumos par apmierinātību ar darbu, lojalitāti pret organizāciju, organizācijas kultūru u. c. ir adaptētas jaunas metodes, kuras gūst plašu lietojumu organizāciju psihologu praktiskajā darbā.

Politiskās un sociālās pārmaiņas Latvijā ir mudinājušas psihologus pievērsties arī tādām aktualitātēm kā padomju politiskā režīma psiholoģiskās sekas, attiecības starp dažādām etniskajām grupām, tolerance un tās veicināšana sabiedrībā.

Analizējot veikto pētījumu teorētisko pamatojumu, ir iespējams izdalīt trīs teorētis-

kos virzienus Latvijas psiholoģijā: humānistisko, psihodinamisko un kognitīvo.

Humānistiskais virziens ir iezīmigs pārejai no padomju laikam raksturīgās orientācijas uz krievu marksistiskās psiholoģijas teorijām uz humānistiski orientētu pieeju personībai, it īpaši pedagoģiskajā kontekstā. Galvenā uzmanība tiek veltīta personības pašizjūtai, izaugsmei, garīgumam. Mūsdienu humānistiski orientēto psihologu koncepti tiek saistīti ar pirmskara Latvijas psihologu, filozofu un pedagogu atziņām. Humānistiskajam virzienam ir raksturīga vairāk filozofisku, nevis operacionālu jēdzienu izmantošana, lietojot attiecīgu pētījumu metodoloģiju: novērojumi reālās pedagoģiskajās situācijās, aptaujas, pašvērtējumu, sacerējumu, stāstījumu un spēļu situāciju analīze. Šis virziens dominē personības pētījumos.

Psihodinamiskās pieejas pamatā ir balstīšanās uz saistību starp agrīnās bērnības attiecībām un pārdzīvojumiem ar pieauguša cilvēka sociālo uzvedību. Kvalitatīvo pētniecības metožu izmantošana tiek apvienota ar matemātiskās statistikas metožu lietošanu. Gandrīz visi pētījumi kliniskās psiholoģijas sfērā ir balstīti uz šo pieeju.

Kognitīvā pieeja ir raksturīga lielākajai daļai intelekta pētījumu (izņemot radošuma pētījumus) un jaunākajiem pētījumiem sociālās un organizāciju psiholoģijas sfērā. Šajos pētījumos līdzās aptaujām tiek plaši izmantotas matemātiskās pētījumu metodes – korelāciju metode, regresiju metode, faktoru analīze u. c.

Publikācijās atspoguļoto pētījumu analīze ļauj izdarīt šādus secinājumus: humānistiskā pieeja saknējas galvenokārt krievu psiholoģijas tradīcijās, gan padomju laika marksistiskajā psiholoģijā, gan Krievija no Rietumiem pārņemto humānistisko teoriju interpretācijās. Šo pētījumu datus aprakstošā metodoloģija neatbilst mūsdienu psiholoģijas zinātnes prasībām.

Lai gan kliniskās psiholoģijas pētījumos balstīšanās uz pieaugušo atmiņām, restaurējot agrīnās bērnības pārdzīvojumus, var būt diskutējama, tajos tiek izmantotas mūsdienu matemātiskās datu apstrādes metodes.

Intelekta, starpgrupu uztveres un attiecību pētījumi tiek veikti kognitīvās pieejas ietvaros, izmantojot tai atbilstošas mūsdienu metodoloģijas metodes: korelatīvo analīzi, eksperimentu un kvazickspērimentu.

Līdz šim vienīgi kognitīvajā un psihodinamiskajā pieejā veiktie pētījumi ir tikuši akceptēti starptautiskajā psihologu sabiedrībā (publikācijas starptautiski atzītos izdevumos). Latvijas iestāšanās Eiropas Savienībā sniedz jaunas iespējas Latvijas psihologu ieguldījumam psiholoģijas zinātnes attīstībā visā pasaulei.

Kas labāk paredz darba izpildes kvalitāti – kompetence vai intelekts?

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Latvijas Universitāte

Darba izpildes kvalitātes paredzēšana paaugstinātas globālās konkurences apstākļos psihologiem un personāla vadības speciālistiem ir nozīmīgs uzdevums. Intelekta un kompetences vērtēšana kļuvusi par divām populārākajām pieejām šī uzdevuma veikšanā. Vienlaikus kompetences pieejas aizstāvji jau no 70. gadu sākuma asi kritizējuši intelekta mērišanas efektivitāti darba izpildes paredzēšanas nolūkos.

Raksta mērķis bija analizēt teorētiskos pieņēmumus, kāpēc kompetences mērišana palīdz paredzēt darba izpildes kvalitāti labāk nekā intelekta mērišana, kā arī analizēt iespējamos iemeslus kompetences mērišanas pieejas aizstāvēšanai no praktiskā viedokļa.

Abu jēdzienu būtība ir līdzīga: iegūt noteiktu labumu no sava potenciāla un nodrošināt iespēju paredzēt darba izpildes kvalitāti. Intelekts tiek definēts kā spēja iegūt noteiktu labumu no savas pieredzes, spēja mācīties un pielāgoties apkārtējai videi. Kompetence tiek definēta kā individuālam piemītoša jebkura spēja vai īpašība, kas samērā droši var tikt tieši saistīta ar labu vai izcilu darba izpildi. Intelekta jēdziens salīdzinājumā ar kompetences jēdzienu ir vispārigāks, jo aplūkojams ne tikai darba kontekstā. Savukārt kompetence kā jēdziens, lai arī aplūkojams galvenokārt darba kontekstā, sniedz plašākas izmantošanas iespējas. Piemēram, dažādu organizācijas procesu savstarpējā integrācijā un individuālo rezultātu saistīšanā ar organizācijas mērķiem. Pēdējās desmitgades laikā abi jēdzieni ir kļuvuši līdzīgi.

Teorētiskie pieņēmumi jeb publiskotais pamatojums kompetences pieejas efektivitātei darba izpildes paredzēšanā saistīts ar: a) efektivitātes kritēriju izvēli; b) cēloņsakarībām starp noteiktām domām, uzvedību un konkrēta darba izpildes kvalitāti; c) iespējām noteikti, kas apgūts mācībās. Tika konstatēts, ka kompetences pieejas aizstāvji salīdzinājumā ar intelekta pieejas aizstāvjiem validitātei nepiešķir nozīmīgu lomu darba izpildes paredzēšanā, ipaši ja runa ir par kompetencēm, kuras būs nozīmīgas nākotnē. Kompetence kā jēdziens tik tiešām izpaužas noteiktās domās un uzvedībā, taču secinājumi par iespējām raksturot cēloņsakarības ar darba izpildes kvalitāti norāda uz nepieciešamību veikt papildu izpēti. Arī intelekts izpaužas noteiktās domās un uzvedībā, turklāt pētījumi apliecina intelekta saistību ar darba izpildes kvalitāti. Attīstības skatījumā gan intelekts, gan kompetence palīdz noteikt, ko individuāls ir iemācījies. Tāpēc kompetences pieejas aizstāvju lietotie argumenti nepārliecīcina par ievērojamām priekšrocībām darba izpildes kvalitātes paredzēšanā. Vienlaikus kompetences mērišanas pieejas galvenā vērtība ir atbalsts saistīt individuālo darba izpildi un attīstību ar personāla vadības procesiem un uzņēmuma mērķiem. No praktiskā viedokļa kompetences ir vienkāršāk mērīt un lietot, tam nav nepieciešama profesionālā izglītība.

Saistībā ar iepriekšminēto tika secināts, ka darba izpildes kvalitātes paredzēšanai izmantojami abi jēdzieni. Iespējams, ka lēmums, kuru jēdzienu lietot katrā konkrētajā gadījumā, lielā mērā būs atkarīgs no attiecīgajā sabiedrībā pastāvošajām vērtībām un pieņēmiem.

PROFESSIONAL AND ACADEMIC ISSUES IN PSYCHOLOGY IN BALTICS

Approved by Ministry of
Education and Science
Regulation no. 262, June 3, 2003.

Psychologist Assistant's Professional Standards

Profession	Psychologist Assistant
Qualification level	5
Job description	A psychologist assistant works in an organization and/or in private practice and renders psychological services to an individual, and/or to a group, and/or to an organization only under a supervisor-psychologist. A psychologist assistant under the supervision of a psychologist performs psychological assessment, counseling, rehabilitation in crisis and after trauma, promotes psychological adaptation and development. Psychologist assistant independently does scientific research, presents it, and is responsible for his/her own professional development in the chosen field of school, clinical, social, organizational/work, forensic, etc. psychology. Depending on the chosen field of activity and assistant's ability and supervisor's agreement the psychologist assistant uses specified scientifically based assessment and research, consulting, rehabilitation, and development promotional methods in the chosen field, and renders other psychological services in conjunction with the psychologist's work ethic.

Responsibilities and tasks

Responsibilities and tasks for psychologist assistant in various fields are similar, but the methods of implementation for studying the subject (personality features, intelligence, etc.), and objects (individual, group, and/or organization) are different. The choice is determined by the theory and practice of each field of psychology. All the responsibilities and tasks mentioned below, except 6 –8, the psychology assistant performs only under the supervision of the supervising psychologist. Psychology assistant may fulfil assistant's functions for clinical, school, organization, and other practicing psychologists, depending on their education and optional courses taken during studies. A supervisor can be a psychologist with appropriate qualifications and training who has agreed to do this work.

Responsibilities	Tasks
1. Follow psychologists' work ethic	1.1. Inform clients, employers, and other specialists about ethical principles in psychologists' work. 1.2. In conflict situations act according to the requirements of the Code of Psychologists' Ethics, first informing the supervisor about it.
2. Psychological assessment (of the individual, group, and/or organization).	2.1. Indicate the goal of the assessment. 2.2. Choose appropriate research methods, develop assessment plan. 2.3. Perform data collection, analysis, and interpretation. 2.4. Process the results and conclusions of the obtained assessment. 2.5. Discuss the obtained conclusions about the client with supervisor. 2.6. Explain the obtained conclusions to the client in an understandable way.
3. Psychological counseling (of the individual, group, and/or organization).	3.1. Collect and summarize information about the problem. 3.2. Define the problem, set goals and work out the counseling plan. 3.3. Choose appropriate counseling methods. 3.4. Discuss points 3.2. – 3.3. with supervisor. 3.5. Conduct the consultation process. 3.6. Discuss the consultation process with supervisor. 3.7. Discuss and explain the consultation process and its results with the client.
4. Promotion of psychological adaptation and development. *	4.1. Specify information about client's problem (re-assess the reasons for non-adaptation). 4.2. Set the adaptation or development promotion program goals and work out the plan. 4.3. Co-operate with other specialists from other areas in the program. 4.4. Discuss the program with supervisor. 4.5. Implement the program. 4.6. Appraise the changes together with the supervisor.
5. Psychological rehabilitation in crisis and trauma after-effects. **	5.1. In cooperation with the supervisor assess the psychological consequences of trauma and/or crisis and set rehabilitation goals. 5.2. Choose adequate rehabilitation methods. 5.3. In cooperation with the supervisor and other specialists perform rehabilitation activities. 5.4. Appraise the changes.
6. Professional growth.	6.1. Participate in scientific and practical conferences, seminars, courses, socio-psychological training sessions. 6.2. Follow new developments described in professional literature. 6.3. Regularly participate in supervisory activities and in personal psychotherapy.
7. Performing scientific research in psychology.	7.1. Indicate the problem and goal of the research. 7.2. State the theme and analyze scientific literature on the chosen topic. 7.3. State the research hypothesis or the research question. 7.4. Choose the research design, develop the plan 7.5. Collect data. 7.6. Process, analyze, and interpret the data. 7.7. Write a report on the research results and present it.
8. Developing the psychological research data base.	8.1. Maintain and systematize materials of psychological research. 8.2. Collect psychological research materials to add to the Latvian data base (for test standardizing, for instance), observing confidentiality and principle of voluntary participation.

* these responsibilities are for school and clinical psychologists

** this responsibility is for clinical psychologists only

Specific factors of work environment

Organizational factors – work is done individually, in pairs, or in task groups. Psychologist assistant performs his responsibilities under the supervision of the psychologist.

Office equipment – to counsel groups and individuals the psychologist assistant needs a specially equipped office (isolated from outer noises) with at least one table, comfortable chairs, computer, and a filing cabinet for keeping papers. The psychologist assistant needs psychological assessment equipment and other working materials, and other equipment for his professional activities.

- No Physical • No Biological • No Chemical

Specific requirements for completing tasks

In cases where education has not been obtained under educated specialists in a special study program a special official certificate attesting the background and ability of the psychologist assistant is required for the application of complicated psychological research and evaluation methods, consulting, and rehabilitation methods.

Skills

Division into common and specific skills:

- *Common skills* are skills used in diverse fields of psychology (school, clinical, social, organizational/work, and other fields) and they are the basis for specific skills required for performing professional activities.
- *Specific skills* are skills similar by the designation to several fields of psychology, but specific by the content, and appropriate to the theoretical basis, practice, and type of client of those fields of psychology. The psychologist assistant continues to improve the more significant of these skills during the work process under the supervision of the supervisor.

<i>Common skills in the field</i>	<i>Specific skills in the field</i>	<i>General skills / abilities</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Choose an adequate way to communicate with representatives of diverse age and social groups. Use various modes of contact. Evaluate factors of environment, culture, and social background of the client. Recognize the client's personality traits and expression of mental condition in his/her behavior. Base professional activities on scientifically based psychological theories. Reassess critically the validity and reliability of various methods. Follow professional ethics and psychohygiene. Use various psychological methods adequately to obtain psychological information (observation, questionnaire, testing, interview, etc.) Process, analyze, and discuss psychological assessment information. Develop research projects in psychology, and implement them. Write reports on scientific research. Use computer programs for statistics data processing and analysis. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Make contact with client* Define the needs of client during the interview. Choose adequate psychological assessment. Perform psychological assessment of the client. Discuss and explain psychological information to the client in an understandable way. Appraise own professional competence in accomplishing specific tasks <p><i>Under the supervisor</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Choose the method of psychological counseling according to the client's problem. Provide psychological consultation to the client if it is possible to do it within the assistant's area of responsibility Evaluate the results of psychological counseling. Perform psychological rehabilitation of the client** Motivate the choice of psychological assessment, counseling, and rehabilitation** methods. Work out the adaptation development program of the client in cooperation with other specialists, and implement it. Evaluate psychological changes of the client. Evaluate own professional competence to perform specific tasks. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Communication skills. Work independently. Cooperate in a team/group. Plan and organize tasks, and indicate priorities. Plan, organize, and guide the work of professional group. Convince others and justify own opinions. Use information sources and select the necessary information. Process, systematize, and store the applied documents. Creativity and research skills Conflict solving. Follow general ethics principles. Follow the requirements of work safety and hygiene. Communicate in Latvian and acquired foreign languages. Upgrade professional knowledge and skills in the process of continuing education. Make decisions and take on responsibility. Present information about the current theme, and explain it to others (orally and in writing). Use computer in order to store and process information.

*client may be an individual, group, or organization

** rehabilitation methods used in clinical psychology

Knowledge

<i>Knowledge</i>	<i>Stage of knowledge</i>		
	<i>Basic</i>	<i>Understanding</i>	<i>Application</i>
Branches of psychology and areas of professional activities			
Methods and Methodology of Quantitative and Qualitative Research			
Methods of Data Processing and Analysis (simple and multifactorial)			
Biological Basis of Mental Processes			
General Psychology			
History of Psychology			
Ethics in Psychology			
Cognitive Psychology			
Neuropsychology			
Developmental Psychology			
Social Psychology			
Personality Psychology			
Differential Psychology			
Educational Psychology ^a			
Organizational Psychology ^b			
Work Psychology ^b			
Clinical/Abnormal Psychology			
Health Psychology			
Family Psychology ^c			
Psychological Counseling			
Psychometrics			
Psychological Assessment			
Development of Scientific Thesis			
Foreign Languages			
Computers for Data Analysis			
Labour Legislation ^b			
Basic Economics ^b			
Human Rights Basics			
Introduction to Philosophy			
Courses in other branches of psychology ^d			

^a more necessary for psychologist assistants who work in schools

^b more necessary for psychologist assistants who work for organization/work psychologists

^c more necessary for psychologist assistants for clinical and school psychologists

^d more necessary for psychologist assistants who work in specific branches of psychology (forensic, environmental, sports., etc. psychology)

Additional Requirements for Professional Standards

For the acquisition of knowledge and skills obtained in an education program appropriate for the profession of psychologist assistant it is necessary to have at least 4 years (160 credits) of education, including 26 credits spent working under the supervision of a psychologist. The extent of the practice is determined in conjunction with the Republic of Latvia Cabinet's regulation No.481 requirements. This is recommended by the guidelines of the Federation of European Psychologists Association for Diploma of European Psychologists and it is recognized as appropriate requirement by the Latvian Psychologist Assistant professional standards development group. Supervision can be done only by a psychologist with the appropriate professional education, at least 3 years working experience in psychologist's profession and preparedness for supervisory tasks.

Note: 40 credits in the Latvian educational system. = 60 credits - ECTS European Credits Transformation System

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APSTIPRINĀTS
ar Izglītības un zinātnes ministrijas
2003. gada 3. jūnija rīkojumu Nr. 262

PSIHOLOGA ASISTENTA PROFESLIJAS STANDARTS

Profesija	Psihologa asistents
Kvalifikācijas līmenis 5	
Nodarbinātības apraksts	<p>Psihologa asistents strādā organizācijā un sniedz psiholoģiskos pakalpojumus individuālai un/vai grupai un/vai organizācijai tikai psihologa – supervizora pārraudzībā. Psihologa pārraudzībā psihologa asistents veic psiholoģisko izpēti un izvērtēšanu, konsultēšanu, psiholoģisko rehabilitāciju krīžu un traumu gadījumos, veicina psiholoģisko adaptāciju un attīstību. Psihologa asistents patstāvīgi veic zinātniskos pētījumus, tos prezentē un rūpējas par savu profesionālo izaugsmi izvēlētajā jomā – skolas, kliniskajā, sociālajā, organizācijas/ darba, juridiskajā u.c. psiholoģijā. Atkarībā no izvēlētās darbības jomas, kompetences un pārrauga akcepta psihologa asistents lieto jomai specifiskās zinātniski pamatootas izpētes un izvērtēšanas, konsultēšanas, rehabilitācijas, adaptācijas un attīstības veicināšanas metodes un sniedz citus psiholoģiska rakstura pakalpojumus, ievērojot psihologa darba ētiku.</p>

Pienākumi un uzdevumi

Dažādu psiholoģijas nozaru psiholog asistentu pienākumi un uzdevumi ir līdzīgi, atšķiras šo uzdevumu veikšanai izvēlētās metodes, izpētes priekšmets (personības ieziņmes, intelektuālās spējas u.c.) un objekts (individu, grupa un/ vai organizācija). Izvēli nosaka katras psiholoģijas nozares teorijas un prakse. Visus turpmāk minētos pienākumus un uzdevumus, izņemot 6.–8., psihologa asistents veic tikai supervizora pārraudzībā. Psihologa asistents var pildit asistenta funkcijas gan kliniskajam, gan skolas, gan organizācijas psihologam u.c. praktiski strādājošiem psihologiem atkarībā no viņa izglītības apgūto izvēles kursu ietvaros studiju laikā. Par supervizoru var būt psihologs ar atbilstošu kvalifikāciju un sagatavotību, kas piekritis veikt šo darbu.

Pienākumi	Uzdevumi
1. Ievērot psihologa darba ētiku	1.1. Informēt klientus, darba devēju un citus speciālistus par psihologa darba ētikas principiem. 1.2. Darba konfliktsituācijās rīkoties atbilstoši psihologa ētikas kodeksa prasībām, pirmām kārtām par to informējot supervizorū.
2. Psiholoģiskā izpēte un izvērtēšana (individuāla, grupas un/vai organizācijas)	2.1. Noteikt izpētes mērķi. 2.2. Izvēlēties atbilstošas izpētes metodikas, izveidot izpētes plānu. 2.3. Veikt datu ievākšanu, apstrādi, analīzi un interpretāciju. 2.4. Noformēt iegūtās izpētes rezultātus un secinājumus. 2.5. Pārrunāt gūtās atziņas par klientu ar supervizoru. 2.6. Izskaidrot gūtās atziņas klientam saprotamā veidā.
3. Psiholoģiskā konsultēšana (individuāla, grupas un/vai organizācijas)	3.1. Ievākt un apkopot informāciju par problēmu. 3.2. Noteikt konsultēšanas mērķi un izstrādāt konsultāciju plānu. 3.3. Izvēlēties atbilstošas konsultēšanas metodes. 3.4. Pārrunāt 3.2.–3.3. punktu ar supervizoru. 3.5. Vadīt konsultēšanas procesu. 3.6. Pārrunāt konsultēšanas procesu ar supervizoru. 3.7. Pārrunāt un izskaidrot klientam konsultēšanas procesu un tā rezultātus.
4. Psiholoģiskās adaptācijas un attīstības veicināšana*	4.1. Precizēt informāciju par klienta problēmu (izvērtēt dezadaptācijas iemeslus). 4.2. Noteikt adaptācijas vai attīstības veicināšanas programmas mērķi un izstrādāt plānu. 4.3. Sadarboties ar citiem programmā iesaistītajiem citu nozaru speciālistiem. 4.4. Pārrunāt programmu ar supervizoru. 4.5. Realizēt programmu. 4.6. Novērtēt izmaiņas kopā ar supervizoru.
5. Psiholoģiskā rehabilitācija pēc traumas un krīžu gadījumos **	5.1. Sadarbībā ar supervizoru izvērtēt traumas un/vai krīzes psiholoģiskās sekas un noteikt rehabilitācijas mērķus. 5.2. Izvēlēties atbilstošas rehabilitācijas metodes. 5.3. Sadarbībā ar supervizoru un citiem speciālistiem veikt rehabilitācijas pasākumus. 5.4. Novērtēt izmaiņas.
6. Profesionālā izaugsme	6.1. Piedalīties zinātniskajās un zinātniski praktiskajās konferencēs, semināros, kursos, sociālpsiholoģiskajos treniņos. 6.2. Sekot jaunumiem profesionālajā literatūrā un piedalīties personīgajā psihoterapijā. 6.3. Regulāri piedalīties supervizijas nodarbībās.
7. Zinātniskā pētījuma veikšana psiholoģijā	7.1. Noteikt pētījuma problēmu un mērķi. 7.2. Formulēt tematu un analizēt zinātnisko literatūru. 7.3. Formulēt pētījuma hipotēzi vai pētījuma jautājumu. 7.4. Izvēlēties pētījuma metodes, shēmu (dizainu), izslasi un izstrādāt plānu. 7.5. Ievākt datus. 7.6. Apstrādāt, analizēt un interpretēt datus. 7.7. Rakstiski apkopot pētījuma rezultātus un secinājumus un tos prezentēt.
8. Psiholoģiskās izpētes datu bāzes veidošana	8.1. Saglabāt un sistematizēt psiholoģiskās izpētes materiālus. 8.2. Ievērojot konfidencialitāti un brīvpārātības principu, sagatavot psiholoģiskās izpētes materiālus Latvijas kopīgo datu bāžu veidošanai (piemēram, testu standartizācijai).

* Šis pienākums ir vairāk skolu un klīnisko psihologu asistentu kompetence

** Šis pienākums ir tikai klīnisko psihologu asistentu kompetence

Darba vidi raksturojošie īpašie faktori

Organizatoriskie faktori – darbs tiek veikts individuāli, pārī vai darba grupā. Psihologa asistents veic savus pienākumus supervizora pārraudzībā.

Darba telpu iekārtojums – psihologa asistentam individuālu un grupu konsultāciju vajadzībām ir nepieciešams speciāli iekārtots sava darba kabinets (no ārējiem trokšņiem izolēts), ar vismaz vienu galdu, ērtiem krēsliem, vēlams dators, materiālu glābāšanai – slēdzams skapis. Psihologa asistenta darbam ir nepieciešamas psiholoģiskās izpētes metodikas, citi darba materiāli un aprīkojums atkarībā no profesionālās darbības jomas.

- Fizikālie – nav • Bioloģiskie – nav • Kīmiskie – nav

Īpašas prasības uzdevumu veikšanai

Komplicētu psiholoģiskās izpētes un izvērtēšanas, konsultēšanas un rehabilitācijas metožu lietošanai nepieciešams oficiāls dokuments, kas apliecina psihologa asistenta sagatavotību, ja attiecīgās metodes nav apgūtas profesionālo studiju programmu ietvaros apmācīta speciālista vadībā.

Prasmes

Kopīgo un specifisko prasmju dalijuma veidošanas princips:

- **kopīgās prasmes** ir prasmes, kas tiek izmantotas vairākās psiholoģijas jomās (skolu, kliniskajā, sociālajā, organizāciju/darba u.c. psiholoģijā) vai arī veido specifisko prasmju bāzi jeb pamatu, bez kura apguves nevar turpināt profesionālās darbības jomām specifisko prasmju apguvi;
- **specifiskās prasmes** ir prasmes, kas pēc nosaukuma ir lidzīgas vairākām psiholoģijas nozarēm, bet pēc satura ir specifiskas, atbilstošas šo psiholoģijas nozaru teorētiskajiem pamatiem, praksei un klienta veidam. Svarīgākās no šim prasmēm psihologa asistents turpina pilnveidot supervizora pārraudzībā darba procesā.

Kopīgās prasmes nozarē	Specifiskās prasmes profesijā	Vispārīgās prasmes / spējas
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> izvēlēties atbilstošu saziņas veidu ar dažādu vecuma un sociālo grupu pārstāvjiem lietot dažādus saskarsmes paņēmienus novērtēt klienta* apkārtējās vides faktorus, kultūras un sociālās iezīmes atpazīt klienta personības iezīmju un psihisko stāvokļu izpausmes uzvedībā balstīt savu profesionālo darbību uz zinātniski pamatošām psiholoģijas teorijām kritiski izvērtēt dažādu metožu validitāti un ticamību ievērot profesionālo ētiku un psihohigiēnu iegūt psiholoģisku informāciju, adekvāti izmantojot dažāda veida psiholoģijas metodes (novērošana, aptauja, testēšana, intervija u.c.) apkopot, analizēt un interpretēt psiholoģiska rakstura informāciju, <i>konsultējoties ar pārraudzītāju</i> izstrādāt pētījuma projektus psiholoģijā un tos realizēt rakstīt zinātniska pētījuma pārskata darbu/ rakstu lietot datu statistiskās apstrādes un analīzes datorprogrammas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> veidot kontaktu ar klientu* intervijā noteikt klienta vajadzības izvēlēties psiholoģiskās izpētes metodes atbilstoši klienta izpētes vajadzībām veikti klienta psiholoģisko izpēti /izvērtēšanu pārrunāt un izskaidrot psiholoģiska rakstura informāciju klientam saprotamā veidā izvērtēt savu profesionālo kompetenci konkrētu uzdevumu veikšanai <p><i>Supervizora pārraudzībā</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> izvēlēties psiholoģiskās konsultācijas metodi atbilstoši klienta risināmajai problēmai sniegt klientam psiholoģisku konsultāciju, ja to ir iespējams veikt psihologa asistenta kompetences robežās novērtēt psiholoģiskās konsultācijas rezultātu veikti klienta psiholoģisko rehabilitāciju ** pamatot psiholoģiskās izpētes, konsultēšanas un rehabilitācijas** metožu izvēli izstrādāt klienta adaptācijas vai attīstības programmu sadarbībā ar citiem speciālistiem un to realizēt novērtēt klienta psiholoģiskās izmaiņas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> saskarsmes prasme veikt darbu individuāli sadarboties komandā/grupā plānot, organizēt un vadīt izpildāmos darbus un noteikt to prioritātes plānot, organizēt un vadīt profesionālās grupas darbu pārliecināt citus un argumentēt savu viedokli izmantot informācijas avotus un atlasīt nepieciešamo informāciju noformēt, sistematizēt un glabāt lietišķos dokumentus jaunrades un pētniecības prasmes risināt konfliktsituācijas ievērot vispārīgos ētikas principus ievērot darba drošības un higienas prasības spēt sazināties latviešu valodā un apgūtā svešvalodā pilnveidot profesionālās zināšanas un prasmes tālākizglītības procesā pienem lēmumus un uzņemties atbildību prezentēt informāciju par noteiktu tematu, izskaidrot to citiem (mutiski un rākstiski) lietot datoru informācijas glabāšanai un apstrādei

* klients var būt indivīds, grupa vai organizācija

** rehabilitācijas metodes lieto kliniskajā psiholoģijā

Zināšanas

Zināšanas	Zināšanu līmenis		
	Priekšstats	Izpratne	Lietošana
Psiholoģijas nozares un profesionālās darbības jomas Kvantitatīva un kvalitatīva pētījuma metodoloģija un metodes psiholoģijā			
Statistikas datu apstrādes un analīzes metodes (vienkāršās un multivariatīvās)			
Psihēs bioloģiskie pamati			
Vispārīgā psiholoģija			
Psiholoģijas vēsture			
Psihologa ētika			
Kognitīvā psiholoģija			
Neiropsiholoģija			
Attīstības psiholoģija			
Sociālā psiholoģija			
Personības psiholoģija			
Diferenciālā psiholoģija			
Pedagoģiskā / mācību psiholoģija ^a			
Organizāciju psiholoģija ^b			
Darba psiholoģija ^b			
Kliniskā/ patopsiholoģija			
Veselības psiholoģija ^c			
Ģimenes psiholoģija ^c			
Psihologiskā konsultēšana			
Psihometrika			
Psiholoģiskās izpētes un izvērtēšanas metodes			
Zinātnisko rakstu darbu izstrāde			
Svešvaloda			
Informātikas pamati			
Darba likumdošana ^b			
Ekonomikas pamati ^b			
Cilvēktiesību pamati			
Filosofijas pamati			
Citu psiholoģijas nozaru kursi ^d			

^a šīs zināšanas ir vairāk nepieciešamas to psihologu asistentiem, kas strādās skolā

^b šīs zināšanas ir vairāk nepieciešamas to psihologu asistentiem, kas strādās organizāciju/darba
psiholoģijā

^c šīs zināšanas ir vairāk nepieciešamas klinisko un skolas psihologu asistentiem

^d šīs zināšanas ir vairāk nepieciešamas to psihologu asistentiem, kas strādās specifiskās psiholoģijas
nozarēs (juridiskajā, vides, sporta psiholoģijā u.c.)

Papildprasība profesijas standarta apguvei

Profesijai atbilstošo zināšanu un prasmju apguvei atbilstošajās izglītības programmās nepieciešami ne mazāk kā 4 gadi (160 kr. punkti), tai skaitā 26 kreditpunktu apjomā jāietver prakse psihologa supervizora pārraudzībā. Prakses apjoms noteikts saskaņā ar Latvijas Republikas MK noteikumu Nr. 481 prasībām, un to rekomendē Eiropas Psihologu asociāciju federācijas izstrādātie galvenie norādījumi Eiropas psihologa diplomam, to atzīst kā atbilstošu prasību šī Latvijas psihologa asistenta profesijas standarta izstrādes grupa. Psihologa supervizora pienākumus var veikt tikai psihologs ar atbilstošu profesionālo izglītību (sk. psihologa profesijas standartu), vismaz 3 gadu darba pieredzi psihologa pienākumu veikšanā un sagatavotību supervizora pienākumiem.

Psihologa profesijas standarta izstrādes darba grupas sastāvs:

Malgožata Raščevska, darba grupas vadītāja, Dr.psych., asoc. prof., Latvijas Universitātes Pedagoģijas un psiholoģijas fakultātes Psiholoģijas nodaļas vadītāja.

Inga Ezera, darba grupas sekretāre, Mg. psych., Latvijas Organizāciju psihologu biedrības deleģētā pārstāvē.

Ilāna Ekbauma, Mg. psych., Latvijas organizāciju psihologu biedrības valdes priekšsēdētāja

Ludmila Kalīņnikova, Dr. psych., Psiholoģijas augstskolas docente, Attīstības psiholoģijas katedras vadītāja, Profesionālo psihologu asociācijas biedre

Natālija Šmeļova, Psiholoģijas augstskolas lektore, Psiholoģiskās un psihiatriskās palīdzības konsultatīvā centra vadītāja, Psiholoģijas un psihiatrijas konsultāciju centra psiholoģe.

Guntis Tomsons, Starptautiskā Praktiskās psiholoģijas institūta vicerektors.

Tamāra Čaikovska, Starptautiskais Praktiskās psiholoģijas institūts, Praktisko psihologu asociācijas deleģētā pārstāvē.

Kristīne Maslovska, Mg. psych., Latvijas Psihologu apvienības valdes priekšsēdētāja, Valsts policijas Psiholoģiskā dienesta psiholoģe.

Anda Kauliņa, Mg. psych., RPIVA Psiholoģijas profesionālās studiju programmas direktore.

Inese Platpīre, Mg. psych., Latvijas Skolu psihologu asociācijas priekšsēdētāja, Rīgas Kultūras skolas psiholoģe.

Ingūna Upzare, Mg. psych., Rīgas Skolu valdes Psiholoģiskā dienesta vadītāja.

Evija Strika, Mg. psych., Klinisko psihologu asociācijas deleģētā pārstāvē, BOV SIA "Psihiatrijas centrs" vecākā psiholoģe.

Anda Upmane, Mg. psych., Latvijas Universitātes Pedagoģijas un psiholoģijas fakultātes Psiholoģijas nodaļas Psihologa asistenta profesionālās programmas direktore.

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