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Editorial

Dear readers:

We are very pleased to present you the 2002 issue of the Baltic Journal of Psychology. Do not be surprised - this is not a new journal, but the same Journal of Baltic Psychology that we launched under the sponsorship of the University of Latvia in the fall of 2000 after the 4th International Baltic Psychology Conference held at the University of Latvia in Riga. We finally caught up with the error in the English translation of the journal title, just in time before the submission to the refereed journal register.

We wish to thank our editorial board and our contributors for their contributions to our journal. We are receiving an increasing number of submissions from our doctoral students and colleagues in the Baltic States. The initial hope to make this a Baltic Journal of Psychology, offering an opportunity for publication of research emanating from the Baltic area is becoming a reality. Unfortunately, the initial start up grant from the University of Latvia has run out and we are facing the challenge of increasing our readership to make the journal financially viable. We are open to suggestions and will welcome contributions from all sources. Thank you for your support and interest in our publication.

The current issue offers some interesting clinical research on attachment and separation issues, an area of considerable research interest in the clinical psychology program at the Faculty of Education and Psychology of the University of Latvia, as well as innovative work in organizational psychology. We try to include papers in the areas of school, clinical, social and organizational psychology to address the interests of a wider readership in current areas of applied psychology.

We welcome your comments and suggestions on how to improve the quality and interest level of our journal and welcome your participation in our forum.

Solveiga Miežitis
Editor of the Baltic Journal of Psychology

REPORTS OF EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Psiholoģiskā separācija mātes - meitas attiecībās pieaugušo vecumā

Anika Miltuze,
Latvijas Universitāte, Latvija

Pētījuma mērķis ir noskaidrot pieaugušu meitu psiholoģisko separāciju attiecībās ar māti un tās saistību ar meitu priekšstatiem par attiecībām ar māti bērnībā līdz 16 gadu vecumam. Kā bērnības attiecību dimensijas tiek izdalītas emocionālais siltums un kontrole. Paralēli tiek pētīta psiholoģiskās separācijas saistība ar atsevišķiem demogrāfiskajiem rādītājiem (meitu vecums un ģimenes stāvoklis). Psiholoģiskā separācija ietver funkcionālo, emocionālo, konfliktuālo un attieksmes neatkarību. Pētījumā piedalījās 224 dažādu kursu klātienēs un neklātienēs, dažādu specialitāšu studentes vecumā no 18 līdz 30 gadiem (vidējais vecums - 21 gads). Kā izpētes metodes tika izmantotas Psiholoģiskās separācijas aptauja (Psychological Separation Inventory, Hoffman, 1984) un Vecāku attieksmes aptauja (Parental Bonding Instrument, Parker et.al., 1979). Pētījuma rezultāti parādīja ciešu saistību starp emocionālo siltumu meitu attiecībās ar māti bērnībā un emocionālo tuvību, nepieciešamību pēc atbalsta, līdzīgiem uzskatiem ar māti un brīvību no konfliktiem pieaugušo vecumā. Kontrole bērnībā saistījās ar emocionālo atkarību no mātes pieaugušo vecumā. Atsevišķas psiholoģiskās separācijas skalas saistījās ar meitu vecumu un ģimenes stāvokli.¹

Atslēgvārdi: psiholoģiskā separācija, mātes un meitas attiecības.

Teorētiskais pamatojums

Psiholoģiskās separācijas jēdziens ir aizgūts no psihoanalītiskās teorijas, un tam visvairāk pievērsusies ASV psihoanalītiskās skolas pārstāve Margareta Mālere (Mahler, Pine & Bergman, 1975), runājot par separācijas - individuācijas procesu no dzimšanas brīža līdz 3 gadu vecumam, kad bērnam veidojas sava "Es" reprezentācija, t.i., spēja darboties neatkarīgi no mātes un kognitīvi redzēt pašam sevi kā atdalītu individu. Šajā laikā bērns kļūst arī emocionāli neatkarīgāks no mātes. Separācijas - individuācijas process apmēram 3 gadu vecumā noslēdzas ar mātes tēla internalizāciju (Mahler, Pine, & Bergman, 1975).

Pēteris Bloss (Blos, 1979) velk paralēles starp separācijas - individuācijas procesiem zīdaiņa vecumā un atdalīšanos no vecākiem pusaudža gados. Balstoties uz jau pie-

¹ Autora piezīme. Korespondenci par šo rakstu sūtīt Anikai Miltuzei. e-pasts: psihologi@eduinf.lu.lv

minēto separācijas - individuācijas fāžu aprakstu zīdaiņa un agrīnās bērnības vecumā, autors izdala 4 atdalītus psiholoģiskās separācijas aspektus pusaudža vecumā - bērna spēja darboties neatkarīgi 2 - 3 gadu vecumā sasaucas ar pusaudža spēju tikt galā ar savām personiskajām lietām bez vecāku palīdzības; bērna spēja apzināties sevi kā atsevišķu būtni un veidot priekšstatu pašam par sevi sasaucas ar pusaudža spēju veidot pašam savus uzskatus un pārlicības, nesaistītus ar vecāku uzskatiem; bērnībā attiecības ar māti ir augstākā mērā kompleksas, tās ietver sevī gan emocionālo atkarību no mātes, gan vienlaicīgi konfliktus un negatīvas izjūtas. Tāpēc pusaudža vecumā tiek runāts gan par pusaudža spēju atbrīvoties no pārlieku lielas tuvības un emocionālā atbalsta no vecāku puses, gan par brīvību no pārmērīgas vainas izjūtas, aizvainojuma un dusmām attiecībās ar vecākiem. Amerikāņu psihologs Džefrijs Hofmans (Hoffman, 1984) iesaka visas šīs fāzes apvienot vienā nosaukumā - psiholoģiskā separācija. Šis apzīmējums tiks izmantots arī šī raksta ietvaros.

Psiholoģiskā separācija ir sava "Es" mēreni stabila reprezentācija, kas ir atšķirīga no "svarīgo citu" un objektu reprezentācijas (Ruebush, 1994). Psiholoģiskā separācija no vecākiem tiek uzskatīta par vienu no būtiskākajiem attīstības uzdevumiem, lai indivīds kļūtu pieaudzis un notiktu pāreja no pusaudža vecuma uz briedumu. Šī doma ir pārstāvēta vairākās psiholoģiskajās teorijās - gan psihoanalītiskajā pieejā, kur tiek uzsvērts, ka veiksmīga abu separācijas - individuācijas fāžu atrisināšana ir nepieciešama veselīgai psiholoģiskajai attīstībai (Blos, 1979), gan Ē. Eriksona (Ericson) psihosociālās attīstības teorijā, kur runāts par bērna atdalīšanos no vecākiem un savas neatkarīgas identitātes veidošanu (Eriksons, 1999), gan arī ģimenes sistēmu teorijā, kur tiek uzsvērts pienākums attīstīt emocionālo, uzvedības un kognitīvo neatkarību no vecākiem (Olson, Russell & Sprenkle, 1983). Tomēr vairums šo teoriju aplūko abu dzimuma jauniešu psiholoģiskās separācijas procesu no vecākiem, neizdalot dzimumatšķirības.

Pētot psiholoģiskās separācijas procesus pusaudža vecumā, ir svarīgi ņemt vērā gan bērnu, gan vecāku dzimumu, jo attiecības ir divvirzīnu - tās ietver gan vecāku izturēšanos pret bērnu, gan bērna izturēšanos pret vecākiem (Russell & Saebel, 1997).

Viena no pirmajām par dzimumā bāzētajām atšķirībām vecāku attieksmē pret bērnu sāka runāt Nensija Čodorova (Chodorow, 1974, 1978, 1987). Viņa uzsvēra, ka māte izturas atšķirīgi pret meitu un dēlu jau zīdaiņa vecumā, turklāt ir vērojamas atšķirības arī meitu un dēlu identifikācijas procesos. Atšķirībā no sākotnējiem psihoanalītiskajiem uzskatiem, kuros tiek akcentēta meitas edipālā mīlestība pret tēvu un vienlaicīgā novēršanās no mātes, N.Čodorova raksta, ka meitas dzimumidentitātes attīstība neprasa noraidīt viņas agrīno identificēšanos ar māti (Chodorow, 1987). Māte ir aprūpētāja un identifikācijas avots abu dzimumu bērniem, tomēr meitenes identificēšanās turpinās visu dzīvi, kamēr zēna identifikācija ar māti tiek lauza un pārnesta uz tēvu. N.Čodorova to nosauc par "pagarināto" identificēšanos ar māti un norāda, ka cīņa par autonomiju no mātes ir viens no lielākajiem strīda jautājumiem sievietes dzīves pieredzē (Chodorow, 1978).

Novatorisku skatījumu uz sievietes psiholoģiju pauž Džcina Beikere Millere (Miller, 1976), kura atšķirībā no Māleres un Blosa kā nozīmīgu sievietes personības komponentu izdala nevis separēšanos, bet gan tieši pretēji - afiliāciju un attiecības ar citiem. Viņas viedoklim pievienojas arī Karola Gilligana (Gilligan, 1982), kura atzīmē, ka sievietes realitāte ir atšķirīga no vīrieša realitātes, turklāt īpaši akcentē sievietes spēju saskaņoties

ar citiem. Autores runā par tādu sievietes būtību, kas sevī ietver "pievienošanos citiem", t.i., centrēšanos uz attiecībām ar citiem, un, viņuprāt, šīs spējas saknes ir meklējamas meitas sākotnējās attiecībās ar māti.

Arī Dženceta Sareja (Surrey, 1985, 1991) uzsvēr, ka sievietēm sevis izjūta veidojas tikai attiecībās ar citiem. Viņa ir izstrādājusi t.sk. "self-in-relation" teoriju, kas ir vēlta īpaši sievietes attīstībai. Dž.Sareja apgalvo, ka sievietes attīstības mērķis nebūt nav separēšanās, bet gan attiecību veidošana un saglabāšana, un sievietes veselīgas attīstības raksturīga iezīme ir attiecību ietilpības un kompetences padziļināšana (Surrey, 1985). Arī šī pētniece norāda, ka attiecības un identitāte attīstās sinhroni un ka šīs prasmes ir veidojušās saistībā ar primāro aprūpētāju (parasti - māti). Tieši šajās attiecībās maza meitene tiek aprūpēta, un tas arvein vairāk atsaucas uz tālākajām attiecībām, kur ir nepieciešamas rūpes un gādība. "Self-in-relation" teorijas atbalstītāju uzskatos var atrast norādes, ka, ņemot vērā īpašo sievietes attīstības situāciju, separācijas - individuācijas procesu vairāk var saistīt ar vīriešu attīstību (Allen & Stoltenberg, 1995).

Ja mēs pieņemam, ka psiholoģiskā separācija pusaudža gados un agrinā jaunībā vairāk ir vīriešu privilēģija, tad rodas jautājums - vai meitas attiecības ar māti visu mūžu saglabājas tādas kā bērnībā? Daļa teorētiķu uzskata, ka var runāt par mātes un meitas attiecību pāreju jaunā kvalitātē, kas balstās uz savstarpējo empātiju (Surrey, 1985; Jordan, 1991). Džudita Džordana (Jordan, 1991) ir ieviesusi apzīmējumu "separācija saiknes ietvaros" (*separateness within connection*), kas nozīmē, ka atdalīšanās no mātes ir iespējama tikai caur tuvām attiecībām ar viņu. Šīs domas atbalstītāji uzskata, ka šis process ir atslēga mātes un meitas attiecību izmaiņām pusaudža vecumā (Ruebush, 1994).

Fakts, ka pastāv atšķirības vīriešu un sieviešu psiholoģiskajā separācijā, ir apstiprinājies vairākos pētījumos. Ir novērots, ka sievietēm piemīt lielāka spēja paturēt pozitīvās saites ar vecākiem nekā vīriešiem (Moore, 1987), un ka jaunas sievietes pārdzīvo daudz lielāku tuvību ar saviem vecākiem nekā jauni vīrieši (Frank, Avery & Laman, 1988), turklāt kopumā sievietes vairāk demonstrē afiliāciju ģimenei, tuvību un emocionālās izpausmes. Vīrieši tai pat laikā vairāk pauž vajadzību pēc neatkarības un pašdiferencēšanās (McDermot et al., 1983 kā cit. Allen & Stoltenberg, 1995). Pētot tieši sudējošo jauniešu separācijas procesu, ir novērots, ka studentes demonstrē nozīmīgi zemāku psiholoģisko separāciju nekā studenti (Lopez, Campbell & Watkins, 1986; Lapsley, Rice & Shadid, 1989). Daži autori (Allen & Stoltenberg, 1995) iesaka šīs atšķirības aplūkot caur "self-in-relation" teorijas (Surrey, 1985, 1991) prizmu, kur tiek runāts par sievietes virzību veidot tuvas attiecības, balstoties uz savām bērnības attiecībām ar māti.

Vecāku un bērnu savstarpējās attiecības ir agrinākās un ilgstošākās sociālās attiecības cilvēka dzīvē, un šo attiecību kvalitātei ir nozīmīga loma katra indivīda psihosociālajā attīstībā. Tai pašā laikā galvenā problēma bērnu un vecāku savstarpējo attiecību izpētē ir saistīta ar attiecību centrālo jēdzienu definēšanu un mērīšanu (Pedersen, 1994). Pamatojoties uz iepriekš veiktiem pētījumiem (Ainsworth et.al., 1975; Schaefer, 1965; Siegelman, 1963 kā cit. Parker, Tupling & Brown, 1979), Gordons Pārkers (Parker) kā galvenās vecāku un bērnu savstarpējo attiecību dimensijas piedāvā emocionālo siltumu iepretī emocionālajam vēsumam un kontroli iepretī autonomijas sekmēšanai, kā vadošo tomēr izdalot emocionālā siltuma dimensiju (Parker, Tupling & Brown, 1979).

Dž. Boulbija (Bowlby) radītās pieķeršanās teorijas ietvaros ir vecāku emocionālais siltums, mīlestība un rūpes par bērnu tiek definēti kā viens no būtiskākajiem kompo-

nentiem indivīda psihosociālajā attīstībā (Boulbijs, 1998), jo tas ļauj justies bērnam pietiekami droši, lai dotos pētīt apkārtējo vidi un apzinātos savas spējas (Carton & Nowicki, 1994 kā cit. Herz & Gullone, 1999), un tiek uzskatīts, ka tieši stipra un droša emocionālā saite dod indivīdam spēju separēties un individuēties (Boulbijs, 1998).

Tātad - no vienas puses, ir skaidrs, ka vecāku emocionālais siltums un rūpes bērībā var būt būtisks priekšnoteikums veselīgai psiholoģiskajai separācijai pusaudža gados, lai gan empīrisku pētījumu šajā jomā ir maz (pārsvārā psiholoģiskā separācija ir pētīta saistībā ar adaptāciju augstskolai (Lapsley, Rice & Shadid, 1989); depresiju (Lopez, Campbell & Watkins, 1986); un mātes un meitas attiecībām tagadnē (Ruchush, 1994)). Savukārt, no otras puses, runājot par sievietes attīstības situāciju, gan teorētiski (Chodorow, 1978; Gilligan, 1982; Surrey, 1985), gan praktiskajos pētījumos (Baruch & Barnett, 1983; Chavis, 1987; Fischer, 1981; Goldberg, 1995; Rivers, Barnett & Baruch, 1979; Troll, 1989) tiek uzsvērtā sievietes pagarinātā identificēšanās ar māti un kopības izjūta, kas paredz tuvības un emocionālo saišu saglabāšanu. Līdz ar to var teikt, ka šobrīd psiholoģijā ir apgrūtināta izpratne par normatīvām mātes - meitas attiecībām, un, lai gan nevienam nav šaubu, ka vecāku emocionālais siltums ir ļoti būtisks faktors jebkura indivīda psihosociālajā attīstībā, ir grūti prognozēt, kāda tieši loma tam ir psiholoģiskās separācijas procesos mātes un meitas attiecībās. Līdz ar to izkristalizējas arī šī pētījuma jautājums:

- *Vai pastāv saistība starp mātes emocionālo siltumu bērībā un meitas psiholoģisko separāciju 18-30 gadu vecumā?*

Pamatojoties uz Pārķera izdalīto otro attiecību dimensiju un ievērojot meitu demogrāfisko situāciju, tiek izvirzīti vēl divi papildu pētījuma jautājumi:

- *Vai pastāv saistība starp mātes kontroli bērībā un meitas psiholoģisko separāciju 18-30 gadu vecumā?*
- *Vai pastāv saistība starp meitas psiholoģisko separāciju no mātes un viņas vecumu, laulības statusu un to, vai meita pati ir māte?*

Metode

Pētījuma dalībnieki

Aptaujas anketu komplekts tika izdalīts Latvijas augstskolu dažādu kursu un dažādu specialitāšu 250 studentēm, atpakaļ tika saņemtas anketas no 228 sievietēm vecumā no 18 līdz 30 gadiem. 4 anketas izrādījās nederīgas, jo šīm sievietēm mātes bija mirušas, un līdz ar to nebija iespējams pētīt psiholoģisko separāciju no mātes. Galīgo izlasi veidoja 224 sievietes, kuru vidējais vecums - 21 gads.

Instrumentārijs

Sievietes aizpildīja aptauju komplektu, kas sastāvēja no aptaujas par demogrāfiskajiem datiem, Psiholoģiskās separācijas aptaujas (Hoffman, 1984) un Vecāku piesaistes aptaujas (Parker, Tupling & Brown, 1979). Visu aptauju aizpildīšana ilga 25 minūtes.

Demogrāfisko datu aptauja tika izstrādāta ar mērķi noskaidrot sieviešu vecumu, laulības statusu un to, vai sievietei ir bērni un cik to ir.

Psiholoģiskās separācijas pētīšanai tika izmantota Psiholoģiskās separācijas aptauja (Psychological Separation Inventory – PSI, saīsinājums latviešu valodā – PSA), ko izstrādājis amerikāņu psihologs Džefrijs Hofmans (Hoffman, 1984). Šī aptauja ir veidota, pamatojoties uz separācijas - individuācijas psihodinamisko modeli vēlīnā pusaudža un agrīnā pieaugušo vecumā (Blos, 1979). Tā pēta psiholoģisko separāciju no vecākiem kā multidimensiālu procesu. Aptauja sastāv no 138 apgalvojumiem, kas ietver sevī četras apakšskalas: *Funkcionālā neatkarība (FN)* - spēja tikt galā ar dažādām praktiskām un personiskām lietām bez vecāku palīdzības (skala ietver 26 apgalvojumus, piem., “Es bieži lūdzu savu māti palīdzēt man personisko problēmu risināšanā”); *Emocionālā neatkarība (EN)* - brīvība no pārmērīgas vajadzības pēc atzinīga novērtējuma, kopības izjūtas, tuvuma un emocionālā atbalsta no vecāku puses (ietver 34 apgalvojumus, piem. “Es dažreiz zvanu uz mājām, lai tikai dzirdētu savas mātes balsi”); *Konfliktuālā neatkarība (KN)* - brīvība no pārmērīgas vainas izjūtas, nemicra, neuzticēšanās, aizvainojuma, dusmām un atbildības izjūtas attiecībā pret vecākiem (ietver 50 apgalvojumus, piem., “Es kļūstu dusmīga, kad mana māte kritizē mani”); *Attieksmes neatkarība (AN)* - atšķirības starp savu un vecāku attieksmi, uzskatiem un pārliecību (skala ietver 28 apgalvojumus, piem., “Mani uzskati par bērnu audzināšanu ir līdzīgi kā manai mātei”). Kopējā psiholoģiskā separācija ir aprēķināma tikai gadījumā, ja visas apakšskalas pozitīvi korelē savā starpā (Hoffman, 1984). Pētījuma dalībniekiem pēc Likerta skalas no 1 līdz 5 vajadzēja novērtēt, cik lielā mērā katrs apgalvojums attiecas uz viņu, kur 1 = “Pilnībā nav taisnība par mani” un 5 = “Ļoti patiesi par mani”. Aptauja ir paredzēta, lai pētītu psiholoģisko separāciju no mātes un tēva, līdz ar to puse jautājumu (69) attiecas uz māti, puse - uz tēvu. Katrā apakšskalā iegūtie punkti tiek skaitīti atsevišķi attiecībā uz katru vecāku un atņemti no maksimāli iespējamā punktu skaita attiecībās ar katru no vecākiem katrā skalā. Augstāks punktu skaits norāda uz augstāku psiholoģisko separāciju.

Aptaujas oriģināls tika saņemts no autora un aptaujas adaptēšanai latviešu valodā tika pielietota turp un atpakaļ tulkošana. Šajā pētījumā tika izmantoti tikai tādi jautājumi, kas attiecas uz attiecībām ar māti. Autors norāda, ka aptaujas apakšskalu Kronbaha alfas koeficients attiecībās ar māti ir robežās no 0.84 līdz 0.92 (Hoffman, 1984).

Lai izpētītu meitu prickšstatus par mātes izturēšanos pret viņu bērnībā, tika izmantota Vecāku attieksmes aptauja (Parental Bonding Instrument - PBI, saīsinājums latviešu valodā - VAA), kuru 1979. gadā izveidoja Parkers, Tuplinga un Brauns (Parker, Tupling, Brown, 1979), Latvijā tulkojusi un savos pētījumos izmantojusi Ieva Bite (Bite, 1998). Aptauja sastāv no 25 apgalvojumiem, kas raksturo vecāku attieksmi un izturēšanos pret bērnu līdz 16 gadu vecumam. Katrs apgalvojums respondentam jānovērtē pēc Likerta skalas no 0 līdz 3, kur 0 nozīmē “te pilnībā atbilst”, bet 3 - “nemaz man neatbilst”. Aptauja sevī ietver divas apakšskalas. Pirmā ir *emocionālā siltuma* skala (sastāv no 12 apgalvojumiem, piem., “Runāja ar mani sirsnīgā, draudzīgā balsī”), kurā augsti rezultāti norāda, ka vecāki bijuši emocionāli atsaucīgi, saprotoši un draudzīgi, turpretī zemi rezultāti liecina par emocionālu vēsumu, noraidošu attieksmi un nepietiekamām rūpēm. Otrā ir *kontroles skala* (sastāv no 13 apgalvojumiem, piem., “Mēģināja kontrolēt visu, ko es darīju”), kur augsti rezultāti norāda, ka vecāki ir kavējuši bērna neatkarības izpausmes, izrādījuši pārmērīgu aprūpi un pastiprinātu kontroli, turpretī zemi rezultāti liecina par bērna neatkarības un autonomijas veicināšanu. Šajā pētījumā apgalvojumi tika attiecināti nevis uz abiem vecākiem, bet tikai uz mātes iz-

turēšanos pret meitu līdz 16 gadu vecumam.

Aptauja tika veikta frontāli, studentu auditorijās.

Rezultāti

Aptauju skalu iekšējā saskaņotība

Tā kā *Psiholoģiskās separācijas aptauja* Latvijā tika izmantota pirmo reizi, pirmais analīzes posms ietvēra sevi iekšējās saskaņotības noteikšanu ar Kronbaha alfas koeficientu palīdzību aptaujas skalām. Noskaidrojās, ka iekšējās saskaņotības koeficienti ir augsti visām skalām:

- Funkcionālās neatkarības skalai $\alpha = 0,84$;
- Emocionālās neatkarības skalai $\alpha = 0,85$;
- Konfliktuālās neatkarības skalai $\alpha = 0,87$;
- Attieksmes neatkarības skalai $\alpha = 0,83$.

Tika izrēķināta Kronbaha alfa arī *Vēcāku piesaistes aptaujas skalām*. Arī tā norāda, ka aptaujas iekšējā saskaņotība ir augsta:

- Emocionālā siltuma skalai $\alpha = 0,90$;
- Kontroles skalai $\alpha = 0,90$.

Līdz ar to var teikt, ka aptaujas, kas ir lietotas šajā pētījumā, demonstrē augstu ticamību.

Psiholoģiskās separācijas rādītāji un to salīdzinājums ar oriģinālās aptaujas izlases datiem

Salīdzinot šajā pētījumā iegūtos psiholoģiskās separācijas skalu aprakstošās statistikas rādītājus ar autora iegūtajiem atbilstošajiem rādītājiem ASV, kur arī tika pētītas augstskolu studentes vecumā no 18 līdz 22 gadiem (Hoffman, 1985), varam redzēt, ka Latvijas sievietēm ir vērojamas nedaudz augstākas vidējās vērtības funkcionālās un attieksmes neatkarības skalās, bet šīs atšķirības nav statistiski nozīmīgas, turpretim statistiski nozīmīgi zemāki rezultāti ir gūti emocionālās un konfliktuālās neatkarības skalās (skat. 1. tabulā).

1.tabula. *Psiholoģiskās separācijas aptaujas (PSA) skalu aprakstošā statistika meitām attiecībās ar māti Latvijas izlasei (18-30 g.) un ASV izlasei (18-22 g.)*

Skalas	Latvijas izlase (n=224)		ASV izlase* (n=107)		t tests
	M	SD	M	SD	
Funkcionālā neatkarība	33,00	9,20	31	10	1,79
Emocionālā neatkarība	35,98	11,77	42	13	-4,20**
Konfliktuālā neatkarība	65,75	15,55	80	15	-12,87**
Attieksmes neatkarība	25,75	9,24	25	11	0,54

*(Hoffman, 1985)

** $p < 0,001$

Tā kā Latvijā veiktajā pētījumā iekšējās saskaņotības rādītāji ir tikpat augsti kā Hofmana veiktajā aptaujā, var domāt, ka rezultāti ir savstarpēji salīdzināmi.

Psiholoģiskās separācijas aptaujas un Vecāku attieksmes aptaujas rādītāju saistība

Izmantojot Pīrsona korelācijas koeficientu, noskaidrojās, ka, pirmkārt, pastāv vairākas nozīmīgas korelācijas starp atsevišķām Psiholoģiskās separācijas skalām - pozitīvi korelē funkcionālās un emocionālās neatkarības skalas (0.66), attieksmes neatkarības skala korelē ar visām trim pārējām psiholoģiskās neatkarības skalām (skat. 2. tabulu).

2. tabula. *Psiholoģiskās separācijas aptaujas (PSA) un Vecāku attieksmes aptaujas (VAA) skalu korelāciju matrica (n=224)*

	FN	EN	KN	AN	ES
Funkcionālā neatkarība (FN)					
Emocionālā neatkarība (EN)	0,66**				
Konfliktuālā neatkarība (KN)	0,024	-0,04			
Attieksmes neatkarība (AN)	0,43**	0,40**	-0,31**		
Emocionālais siltums bērnībā (ES)	-0,40**	-0,39**	0,45**	-0,39**	
Kontrolē bērnībā (K)	-0,09	-0,58**	-0,07	0,15*	-0,35**

** $p < 0,01$

* $p < 0,05$

Pētot psiholoģiskās separācijas saistību ar Vecāku attieksmes aptaujas apakšskalam un atbildot uz izvirzītajiem pētījuma jautājumiem, var teikt, ka pastāv statistiski nozīmīga negatīva sakarība starp meitu priekšstatu par emocionāli siltām attiecībām ar māti bērnībā un funkcionālo, emocionālo un attieksmes neatkarību, kā arī statistiski nozīmīga pozitīva sakarība ar konfliktuālo neatkarību. Kontroles skala veidoja statistiski nozīmīgu negatīvu korelāciju tikai ar emocionālo neatkarību un pozitīvu korelāciju ar attieksmes neatkarību.

Emocionālais siltums un kontrole veido statistiski nozīmīg negatīvu savstarpējo korelāciju.

Psiholoģiskās separācijas un demogrāfisko rādītāju saistība

Pētījumā tika aprēķināta korelācija starp meitu psiholoģiskās separācijas rādītājiem un viņu vecumu. Kā var redzēt 3. tabulā, nozīmīga pozitīva sakarība ir novērojama tikai starp meitu vecumu un funkcionālo un emocionālo neatkarību.

Savukārt, izmantojot χ^2 kritēriju, tika konstatēta statistiski nozīmīga saistība starp meitas funkcionālo un emocionālo neatkarību no savas mātes un viņas laulības statusu, kā arī funkcionālo un emocionālo neatkarību un audzināmo bērnu skaitu.

Lai noskaidrotu apakšgrupu, pēc dažādiem demogrāfiskajiem rādītājiem sadalītu, psiholoģiskās separācijas atšķirības, tās tika izveidotas pēc šādiem kritērijiem:

- ģimenes stāvoklis (precējušās - 8%, neprecējušās - 92%);
- bērni (nav bērnu - 90%, ir viens bērns - 6%, ir divi un vairāk bērnu - 4%).

3. tabula. Psiholoģiskās separācijas aptaujas skalu (PSA) saistība ar vecumu, laulību statusu un bērnu esamību (n=224)

Neatkarīgie mainīgie	Sakarība ar PSA skalām			
	Funkcionālā neatkarība	Emocionālā neatkarība	Konfliktuālā neatkarība	Attieksmes neatkarība
Vecums (r)	0,36**	0,28**	0,01	0,05
Precējušās vai neprecējušās (χ^2)	22,95***	13,86*	4,73	4,16
Bērni (χ^2)	24,95**	25,38**	10,66	15,96

*** $p < 0,001$ ** $p < 0,01$ * $p < 0,05$

r - sakarība noteikta ar Pīrsona korelācijas koeficientu

χ^2 - sakarība noteikta, izmantojot „hī kvadrāta” kritēriju.

Precētas un neprecētas sievietes statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības (skat. 4. tabulu) funkcionālajā un emocionālajā neatkarības skalā. Tāda pati nozīmīga atšķirība šajās skalās pastāv starp sievietēm, kam ir un nav bērnu. Attieksmes skalas vērtību sadalījums statistiski nozīmīgi atšķiras arī sievietēm, kam ir un nav bērnu.

4. tabula. Psiholoģiskās separācijas aptaujas skalu (PSA) aprakstošās statistikas rādītāji dažādu demogrāfisko kritēriju apakšgrupās

Apakšgrupas	Funkcionālā neatkarība		Emocionālā neatkarība		Konfliktuālā neatkarība		Attieksmes neatkarība	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
<i>Ģimenes stāvoklis</i>								
precējušās (n=19)	41,26	7,54	45,95	9,68	67,63	16,11	29,26	10,66
neprecējušās (n=205)	32,23	8,98	35,05	11,54	65,58	15,52	25,42	06,09
<i>Secinošā statistika</i>	U = 908,5***		t = - 3,98***		n.s.a.		n.s.a.	
<i>Bērni</i>								
nav bērnu (n=203)	32,31	9,14	35,22	11,80	65,82	15,39	25,22	9,18
viens bērns (n=13)	37,69	6,86	41,00	8,68	67,46	17,28	29,08	7,14
divi un vairāk (n=8)	42,88	6,42	47,00	8,18	61,13	18,11	33,63	9,94
<i>Secinošā statistika</i>	H = 12,95**		H = 11,47**		n.s.a.		H = 7,28*	

*** $p < 0,001$; ** $p < 0,01$; * $p < 0,05$

n.s.a. - nav statistiski nozīmīgu atšķirību

U – Manna-Vitnija U kritērijs

t – tests

H – Kruskola-Valisa rangū summu tests

Tātad pētījuma rezultāti apliecina, ka pastāv sakarība starp meitu psiholoģisko separāciju no mātēm un emocionālo siltumu un kontroli attiecībās ar māti un ka psiholoģiskā separācija ir saistīta gan ar meitas vecumu, gan laulības statusu un bērnu skaitu.

Iztirzājums

Analizējot iegūtos rezultātus, var teikt, ka šī pētījuma dalībnieces kopumā ir demonstrējušas rezultātus, kas ir diezgan līdzīgi tiem, kādi iegūti pētījumā ar studentēm ASV. Visizteiktākās atšķirības novērojamas konfliktuālās neatkarības skalā, kur Latvijas sievietes uzrāda

zemāku neatkarību, t.i., viņām ir izteiktāka vainas izjūta, dusmas, aizvainojums, neatrisinātas problēmas un neuzticēšanās savām mātēm. Tas ļauj domāt, ka sievietēm Latvijā dusmu un aizvainojuma uzkrāšana, neizpaušana un nešana sevi ir raksturīgāka, nekā tas ir sievietēm ASV. Lielā mērā to varētu skaidrot ar latvisko mentalitāti un audzināšanu, kas nav atbalstījusi emociju izpaušanu un izrādīšanu ne ģimenē, ne sabiedrībā vispār. Zemāki rezultāti uzrādīti arī emocionālās neatkarības skalā, kas norāda, ka Latvijas sievietes izjūt arī lielāku emocionālo atkarību no savas mātes, t.i., lielāku nepieciešamību pēc atbalsta, pozitīva novērtējuma, tuvības ar savu māti nekā ASV sievietes.

Pētot psiholoģiskās separācijas skalu savstarpējās korelācijas, jāatzīst, ka visciešāk ir saistīta funkcionālā un emocionālā neatkarība. Šis rezultāts pilnīgi sakrīt arī ar Dž. Hofmana veiktajiem pētījumiem (Hoffman, 1984), kur starp šīm skalām parādījās cieša korelācija (0.55). Autors atzīmē, ka abas skalas pēta savstarpēji saistītus komponentus. Var secināt, ka meitas, kuras jūtas emocionāli tuvākas savai mātei, tai pašā laikā izjūt lielākas grūtības veidot pašas savu personisko dzīvi un risināt personiska rakstura jautājumus, kā arī savos uzskatos vairāk piekrīt mātes domām un attieksmei. Jāpiezīmē, ka meitas, kuras ir demonstrējušas augstāku konfliktuālo neatkarību, norāda uz zemāku attieksmes neatkarību, t.i., aizvainojums, dusmas, vainas izjūta, aizdomīgums attiecībā ar māti saistās ar viedokļu un uzskatu atšķirībām. Un otrādi - meitas, kuras attiecības ar māti jūtas brīvas no savstarpējiem konfliktiem, aizvainojuma un dusmām, demonstrē lielāku uzskatu un attieksmes sakrītību ar māti. Var secināt, ka labākas attiecības ar māti (bez iekšējām negācijām) cieši saistās ar uzskatu un attieksmes sakrītību. Šī saistība, šķiet, norāda, ka meitu vajadzība identificēties ar māti un viņas uzskatiem turpinās arī pieaugušo vecumā, jo meitas, kurām ir labas attiecības ar māti, nebūt netiecas veidot savus atšķirīgus uzskatus. Šis rezultāts sakrīt gan ar teorētiskajām nostādnēm par meitu pagarināto identifikāciju ar māti (Chodorow, 1978), gan arī ar pētījumos gūtajiem apstiprinājumiem, ka pat pieaugušām meitām ir novērojama spēcīga identifikācija ar māti (Smith, Mullis & Wayne Hill, 1995; Smith, Wayne Hill & Mullis, 1998).

Meklējot atbildi uz izvirzītajiem pētījuma jautājumiem, jāsecina, ka emocionālais siltums attiecībā ar māti bērnībā nozīmīgi negatīvi korelē ar funkcionālo, emocionālo un attieksmes neatkarību, kā arī vienlaikus pozitīvi korelē ar konfliktuālo neatkarību. Tas nozīmē, ka sievietes, kuras savas attiecības ar māti bērnībā uzrāda kā emocionāli siltas, atbalstošas un mīlas, arī pieaugušo vecumā vairāk tiecas uz emocionālo tuvību ar māti, izjūt nepieciešamību pēc viņas atbalsta un palīdzības personiskās dzīves organizēšanā un norāda uz līdzīgiem uzskatiem ar māti, tātad kopumā - demonstrē zemu psiholoģiskās separācijas līmeni. Atbilde uz izvirzīto pētījuma jautājumu ir šāda - augstāks emocionālais siltums attiecībā ar māti bērnībā ir nozīmīgi saistīts ar zemāku funkcionālo, emocionālo un attieksmes separāciju pieaugušo vecumā. Šis rezultāts apstiprina iepriekš paustās atziņas (Chodorow, 1978; Surrey, 1985; Jordan, 1991; Gilligan, 1982), ka meitas attiecības ar māti nevirzās uz atdalīšanos un separāciju, bet emocionālās saites un tuvība, ja tāda ir veidojusies bērnībā, tiek saglabāta arī turpmāk. Arī citi pētījumi ir pierādījuši, ka jauni pieaugušie nebūt neatsakās no savas ģimenes, lai veidotu savu personisko izaugsmi (Steinberg, 1990) un meitas attiecības ar māti visas dzīves garumā pārsvarā var definēt kā siltas, draudzīgas un līdzjūtīgas (Baruch & Barnett, 1983; Fischer, 1981). Šī atklātā saistība liek domāt par vēl kādu būtisku iezīmi mātes un meitas attiecībās - tās laika gaitā attiecības paliek relatīvi nemainīgas. Arī iepriekš veiktajos pētījumos ir pierādīties, ka mātes un

meitas interakciju vispārējā struktūra paliek relatīvi nemainīga visas dzīves garumā (Miller, 1995), un longitudālā pētījumā ir konstatēts, ka šīs attiecības uzrāda stabilitāti laika gaitā - vētrains attiecības paliek vētrains, bet tuvas attiecības turpina būt tuvas (Troll, 1987).

Interesanti, ka paralēli jau minētajai sakarībai emocionālais siltums bērnībā ir pozitīvi saistīts ar konfliktuālo neatkarību, t.i., mātes atsaucība un mīlestība bērnībā saistās ar meitas spēju veidot brīvas attiecības ar māti pieaugušo vecumā, un otrādi - emocionālais vēsums bērnībā saistās ar dusmām, aizvainojumu, neuzticēšanos un vainas izjūtu attiecībās ar māti. Ir pētnieki, kas pierādījuši, ka, ja eksistē spēcīga emocionālā saite, veidojas vide savstarpējai atkarībai, kur konflikti tiek risināti atklāti (Smith, Wayne Hill & Mullis, 1998).

Atbildot uz otro pētījuma jautājumu par kontroles saistību ar psiholoģisko separāciju, noskaidrojās, ka kontrolējoša mātes izturēšanās bērnībā cieši saistās ar zemu emocionālo neatkarību pieaugušo vecumā. Interesanti, ka paralēli šai saistībai tiek demonstrēta pieaugoša atšķirības neatkarība. Tas ļauj secināt, ka meitas, kuras ir piedzīvojušas lielāku mātes kontroli bērnībā un šobrīd jūtas emocionāli atkarīgākas no savām mātēm, tiecas demonstrēt lielāku atšķirību uzskatos. Šis novērojums zināmā mērā saskan ar citiem pētījumiem (Bengtson & Kuypers, 1971 kā cit. Fischer, 1981) par to, ka jauni pieaugušie ir tendēti pārspīlēt savas atšķirības uzskatos un vērtībās no vecāku uzskatiem un vērtībām. Pētījuma autori to saista ar bērnu vēlmi veidot savu neatkarību. Citi pētnieki (Rivers, Barnett & Baruch, 1979, 78) norāda: tā kā meita "vienkārši nevar sevi piespiest būt atšķirīgai no mātes, viņa kaut kādā līmenī identificējas ar māti, bet pūlas to noliegt varbūt pat visa mūža garumā". Arī šī pētījuma ietvaros var runāt par nespēju emocionāli separēties un individuēties attiecībās ar māti, ja ir bijusi kontrolējoša bērnības pieredze. Tas tiek kompensēts ar īpašu sava viedokļa un atšķirības uzsvēršanu.

Lai gan iegūtie pētījuma rezultāti saskan ar teorētiskajām nostādnēm par mātes un meitas attiecībām (Chodorow, 1978; Gilligan, 1982; Surrey, 1985), mēs nevaram aizmirst, ka informācija par mātes izturēšanos pret meitu bērnībā ir iegūta, balstoties uz meitu tagadnes atmiņām un vērtējumu. Līdz ar to ir iespējams, ka tagadnes attiecības ar māti zināmā mērā veido meitas izjūtu un priekšstatu par attiecībām bērnībā, t.i., ja šobrīd attiecības ar māti ir emocionāli siltas un tuvas, meita ir tendēta to pašu saskatīt arī savā bērnībā. Savukārt, ja šobrīd meita pārdzīvo domstarpības ar māti un jūtas nesaprasta, arī attiecības pagātnē var tikt pakļautas šim redzējumam.

Pētot psiholoģiskās separācijas saistību ar demogrāfiskajiem rādītājiem, var novērot, ka līdz ar vecumu pieaug meitu funkcionālā un emocionālā neatkarība, tai pašā laikā - konfliktuālajai un atšķirības neatkarībai ar vecumu saistības nav. Arī laulības statuss un tas, vai meita pati ir māte, saistās ar viņas funkcionālo un emocionālo neatkarību. Liekas likumsakarīgi, ka meitas, kuras ir precējās un kurām ir bērni, uzrāda nozīmīgi augstāku gan funkcionālo, gan emocionālo neatkarību no mātes. Laulības un bērnu piedzimšana tiek uzskatītas par būtiskākajām dzīves pārējām, kas atstāj iespaidu uz visām līdzšinējām attiecībām (Fischer, 1981), tai skaitā arī uz meitas attiecībām ar māti. Līdz ar apprecēšanos un bērnu piedzimšanu meita sāk pildīt ne tikai meitas lomu, bet vienlaicīgi apgūst arī sievas un mātes lomu. Iepriekš veiktie pētījumi rāda (Baruch & Baruch, 1983), ka meitām, kuras dzīvē pilda vairāk lomu, attiecības ar māti atstāj mazāku iespaidu uz viņu subjektīvo labklājību nekā meitām, kurām lomu ir mazāk. Arī šajā pētījumā ir pierādījies,

ka meitas, kuras pilda vairāk lomu, izjūt salīdzinoši lielāku emocionālo un funkcionālo separāciju attiecībās ar māti nekā meitas, kurām lomu ir mazāk.

Pētījuma nozīmība

Šis ir Latvijai būtisks pētījums divu aspektu ziņā. Pirmkārt, ir pārtulkota un Latvijā pirmo reizi pētnieciskiem nolūkiem lietota Psiholoģiskās separācijas aptauja (Hoffman, 1984), kas paver plašākas iespējas psiholoģiskās separācijas procesu pētniecībai pusaudža un agrīnās jaunības periodā. Otrkārt, pētījums papildina nedaudzos Latvijā veiktos pētījumus par mātes un meitas attiecību aspektiem, kas mūsu valstī atrodas tikai aizsākuma stadijā (līdz šim ir veikti pētījumi par pieaugušu meitu pašvērtējuma saistību ar viņu attiecībām ar māti (Miltuze & Sebre, 1999), kā arī atsevišķas pētnieciskās iestrādes kursa darbu līmenī). Tomēr ir jāpiekrīt jau iepriekš paustam viedoklim (Boyd, 1989), ka joprojām ir nepieciešami teorētiski pamatoti pētījumi, lai attīstītu mūsu izpratni par normatīvām mātes - meitas attiecībām, par to, kāda lomu tām ir sievietes psihosociālajā attīstībā, kāda nozīme ģimenes struktūrā un funkcionēšanā.

Secinājumi

Pētījuma rezultāti kopumā apstiprina teorijas, ko izstrādājušas psiholoģes sievietes (Chodorow, 1974, 1978, 1987; Gilligan, 1982; Jordan, 1991; Miller, 1976; Surrey, 1985, 1991) par meitas pagarināto identificēšanos ar māti un orientāciju uz attiecībām, nevis separāciju. Analizējot iegūtos rezultātus par bērnības pieredzes saikni ar psiholoģisko separāciju pieaugušo vecumā, var secināt, ka, pirmkārt, augstāks emocionālais siltums attiecībās ar māti bērnībā ir saistīts ar zemāku funkcionālo, emocionālo un attieksmes, kā arī ar augstu konfliktuālo separāciju pieaugušo vecumā. Otrkārt, mātes augstāka kontrolējoša izturēšanās bērnībā ir saistīta ar zemāku emocionālo neatkarību pieaugušo vecumā. Papildus var novērot likumsakarības, ka labākas attiecības ar māti tagadnē (bez aizvainojuma, dusmām un vainas izjūtas) ir saistītas ar uzskatu un attieksmes sakrītību; mātes un meitas attiecības paliek relatīvi nemainīgas laika gaitā; līdz ar vecumu pieaug meitu funkcionālā un emocionālā neatkarība, tai pašā laikā - konfliktuālajai un attieksmes neatkarībai ar vecumu saistības nav.

Summary

The aim of the research is to identify adult daughters' psychological separation in the relationship with mother and its connection to daughters' concepts about relationship with mother in childhood up to age 16. In childhood a relationship's emotional warmth and control are separated. At the same time psychological separation is researched in connection with distinct demographic indicators (daughters' age and family situations). Psychological separation includes functional, emotional, conflict and attitude independence. In the research participated 224 students from various specialties from full-time and distance education student population between the ages 18-30 (average age 21 years). Psychological Separation Inventory (Hoffman, 1984.) and Parental Bonding Instrument (Parker et.al., 1979) were used as the research methods. Research results

showed close relationship between emotional warmth in daughters' relationships with mother in childhood and emotional closeness, necessity for support, similar views with mother and lack of conflict in adulthood. Control in childhood was connected to emotional dependency on mother in adulthood. Special psychological separation scales were linked to daughters' age and family situations.

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Adult Attachment Styles, Childhood Abuse Experience and Violence in Intimate Relationships

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The aim of this current study was to examine the relationships among adult attachment styles, childhood abuse experience and physical violence between partners in intimate relationships. One-hundred-ninety-seven heterosexual male and female participants aged 25-50 completed measures of childhood abuse history and adult attachment styles (secure, preoccupied, fearful and dismissive). Fifty-six (29%) respondents reported physical violence in their current intimate relationships. Results indicated that experience of childhood physical, sexual or emotional abuse, and insecure adult attachment style was related to involvement in a violent partner relationship. Multiple regression analysis showed that a history of childhood physical abuse experience was the most significant predictor of being involved in a violent relationship, and a second significant predictor was Preoccupied attachment style. These findings highlight the importance of attachment theory, adult attachment style and childhood history of abuse in understanding the dynamics of domestic violence.¹

Key words: attachment, child abuse, domestic violence, relationship violence.

Introduction

Information from the Latvian National Police Force indicates that in Latvia on the average 35 women are murdered each year by their partners. According to the City of Riga Police Force each week they receive about 400 calls to which they must respond, and one fourth of these calls are concerning violence between partners in intimate relationships. Approximately one half of all violent acts against women take place within the home (Statistics from Latvia State Police Information Centre, 2000).

Research concerning abuse and violence within the family has been taking place in many countries for the past several decades. In Latvia issues of intra-familial violence have received public attention only since the reestablishment of independence in 1991. During the past few years there have been research projects concerning risk-factors and psychosocial symptoms associated with parental violence against

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children (Sebre, Sprugevica, Zagare, Sluka, 1998) and relationships between childhood experience of abuse and adult attachment styles (Bite, 2000). The present study is the first investigation in Latvia of the association between childhood history of abuse, adult attachment style and violence between partners in intimate heterosexual relationships, examining these associations for both men and women.

Attachment in childhood and adulthood

According to Bowlby (1988), attachment is a biologically based system of behaviour that exists between the child and the attachment figure (usually the parent), in order to ensure the child's proximity to the attachment figure. The inborn need for close attachment serves a survival function, especially in the situations of threat and danger. Only by using a parent as a secure base is the child able to explore his or her environment effectively (Bowlby, 1988). The quality of early attachment relationships depends on the extent the child can rely upon the attachment figure as a secure base. (Ainsworth, 1978).

An important aspect of Bowlby's theory is his concept of the internal working model, a mental construction that forms the basis of personality. On the basis of early experience with the attachment figure, the child develops expectations about his own role in relationships (worthy and capable of getting others' attention vs. unworthy and incapable of getting needed attention) and others' role in relationships (accessible, trustworthy, responsive and caring vs. inaccessible, untrustworthy, unresponsive and uncaring). The working model includes affective as well as cognitive components, and it makes a great impact on how subsequent attachment-related information is perceived. The working model serves to influence affective experience, the selective evoking of memories, and the mediation of behaviour with significant others. Ainsworth (1989) provided the empirical basis for Bowlby's theory by showing that mother-child interactions during the first 3 months of life predicted 12-month-olds' behaviour during separations and reunions. When caregivers are available and consistently responsive secure attachments develop, including a cognitive model of self as worthy of love and a model of others as trustworthy. An unreliable or rejecting caregiver promotes an internal model of self as insecure or unwanted and a model of others as unreliable or rejecting. Insecure attachment (avoidance, resistance, and disorganization) has been found to predominate in populations of children who have been neglected or physically and sexually abused (Egeland & Sroufe, 1981).

On the basis of Bowlby's concept of the internal working model, attachment theorists emphasize that attachment relationships are important throughout the life span (Ainsworth, 1989). Researchers have developed an attachment classification system of adult attachment style as secure, dismissing, preoccupied or fearful (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Secure adults have been described as comfortable with a wide range of emotions, self-confident and trusting, comfortable with closeness, and coherent in their ability to reflect the past (Main & Goldwyn, 1984). They have a positive sense of self-worth and an expectation that others will be trustworthy and accepting. Preoccupied adults (similar to resistant attachment in childhood) are

often confused and anxious, clinging, depressive, dependent and jealous, and overly expressive. They experience the self as unworthy, but others as positive (often in an idealized manner) and therefore seek relationships and approval of others. Dismissing adults (previously avoidant children) have been described as uncomfortable with intimacy, avoiding close relationships. Their inner view of self is positive (or, more concretely, pseudo-positive), but others are seen as negative. Fearful individuals are described as socially inhibited and unassertive, they show a combination of avoidant and preoccupied traits. The inner model of self and of others is negative: they long for relationships, yet are afraid of them simultaneously. In fear of rejection they most often avoid relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Consequences of child abuse

There are two factors, which are often used to explain children's psychological reactions to difficult, traumatic experience: *internalization and externalization* (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983). Children who internalize are often anxious, depressed, with tendency to withdraw from others, but those who externalize are often aggressive, hostile, delinquent. Sexually abused girls most often are characterized by the first model, internalization, while boys by the second, externalization. However, as a consequence of abuse frequently the behavior of the child can alternate from depression to aggression and vice versa (Friedrich, 1987). Friedrich (1990, 1995) has conceptualized an *integrated contextual model*, which includes the following factors in explanation of the impact of child abuse: the child's interpersonal experience before and after the abuse; the child's neurophysiological, behavioral, and cognitive reactions; and the development of inner models of "self" and "others".

The long-term consequences of childhood abuse experience can be categorized in the following groups: (1) emotional (depression, low self-esteem, guilt, shame, anxiety, anger); (2) interpersonal (isolation, withdrawal, relationship difficulties, fear of intimacy, revictimization); (3) behavioural (self-destructive behavior, eating disorders, substance abuse); (4) cognitive/ perceptive (denying, cognitive distortions, dissociation, amnesia, nightmares, hallucinations); (5) physical (psychosomatic pains, sleeping disorders, sexual problems) (Sanderson, 1990).

Wieland (1997, 1998) has developed an *internalization model* explaining how different aspects of the abuse (intrusion, threats, distorted family boundaries, distortions of reality, etc.) will leave an impact on the child's functioning. The degree of impact will be influenced by the child's characteristics: developmental level, temperament, quality of attachment, and present understanding of himself and his world, as well as by previous life experience. According to this model, the child internalizes information about the world and him or herself. Thus, for example, the experience of having been threatened leads to an internalization "I am responsible for the abuse", which results in a feeling of responsibility for other people and events. The experience of abuse can also lead to the internalization "I am different ... damaged" or "I am powerless" (Wieland, 1998). The child who experiences him or her as negative and powerless treats subsequently becomes self-abusive, engages in abusive relationships, becomes oversensitive or aggressive.

Childhood abuse and attachment theory

The abuse itself (and the betrayal of trust that it represents) as well as the response of significant others to the disclosure of abuse, may cause sudden erosion of trust in a previously securely attached child (Herman, 1992). The long-term consequences of child abuse are also greatly connected with family system disorders and parental attitudes toward the child, especially if this is the intra-familial abuse. The severity of the consequences of child abuse is related to support or lack of support from the nonviolent parent.

There is an intergenerational transmission of insecurity in close family relationships (Zeanah & Zeanah, 1989). Intergenerational transmission of insecure attachment is frequently associated with familial abuse, and insecure attachment in the parent precedes onset of abuse of the child (Alexander, 1992). In a study of abuse victims Alexander (1992) discovered that there are specific aspects of parenting which are related to each of the three insecure childhood attachment styles: (1) Parental rejection is connected with avoidant attachment in the child. The avoidant parent turns away from the child and is generally unavailable, both physically and psychologically. Avoidance is one factor in the dynamics of abuse. (2) Role reversal/ child parentification is associated with the resistant parent-child attachment. Parentification is the expectation that the child will fulfill the parental role in the family system. The experience of growing up as a parentified child can lead to a sense of entitlement in the abuser, resulting in expectations that the child should meet one's emotional or even sexual needs. Growing up as a parentified child can also lead to expectations to be nurtured by rather than to nurture the child. (3) Fear/unresolved trauma is connected with disorganized attachment style, which is characteristic in incest families and families with alcoholism. The parent may be abused himself or herself and may attempt to suppress or repress his own trauma or experience of abandonment through *substance abuse or dissociation*.

Violence in intimate relationships

Marital violence (spousal abuse, male-to-female violence, violence in intimate relationships) includes patterns of behavior which are used to control, compel, demean, and humiliate the partner, by means of physical violence, emotional abuse, sexual assault, social isolation and intimidation (Straus & Gelles, 1990).

One of the most commonly cited reasons for violent domestic behavior is abuse experience in childhood: in one study 50 - 70% of men who battered their wives had either witnessed battering at home in their childhood or were themselves abused by a parent (Paymar, 1993; Gelles, 1994). Also, people with childhood abuse and trauma experiences are more tended to become victims of different types of violence and abuse - sexual and physical assaults, and violence within the family (Messman & Long, 1996).

Sociopolitical theories emphasize that violence against women is encouraged by patriarchal attitudes and institutions perpetuating male dominance, as well as by gender roles and culturally based stereotypes, especially those advocating the traditional

Western gender role prescriptions of the female as passive (Pence, 1987). The sociocultural and historical context of Latvia is similar to the Western traditional gender role model in that the male is expected to be dominant in male-female relationships. However, in reality the male-female dominance relationship is at times skewed in various manners, including the model of hyper male bravado and aggression as overcompensation for feelings of deep insecurity, which has been exacerbated by the historical experience of defeat and humiliation during the Soviet period, but also in previous historical times (Sebre, 1999). Socialization of young Latvian boys during past decades has often been characterized by a dearth of positive male role models, under emphasis upon responsibility, and a relatively free reign on aggressive play among boys (in contrast to the admonition that "girls don't fight").

Although there is small percentage of men suffering from physical violence in relationships, mostly we will consider women as the victims of domestic violence. Some women make use of violence in marriages, women may exert control in relationships, and women can be abusive to their partners. But women do not typically accompany their violence with physical intimidation, rape or physical coercion. Physical violence is not an effective tool for most women because of the physical size and strength differences between men and women. While women may use violence, they use it in very different ways (Pence, 1986).

Attachment and violence in intimate relationships

Bowlby (1988) argued that anger in a relationship serves a functional role by alerting the partner that attachment needs are not being satisfied. In studies with infants there has been found that unmet attachment needs yield anger, rage and other powerful emotions. "Strange situation" experiments have shown how anger is expressed towards the attachment figure after separation (Ainsworth *et. al.*, 1978). The biological function of attachment behavior is protection: the threat of abandonment creates both intensive fear and anger (Bowlby, 1988).

However, anger may become dysfunctional in adult intimate relationships. The perception of unmet attachment needs (influenced by the internal working model), may precipitate violent behavior by the adult male. This violence may be triggered by perceived threats of separation or unavailability of the attachment figure. Research indicates that violent men are more rejection-sensitive than nonviolent men, and are more likely to perceive rejection unambiguous situations (Downy & Feldman, 1996). Insecure attachment patterns may increase the adult's tendency to react with intense anger and anxiety when the relationship is perceived as endangered (Wolfe, Wekerle & Scott, 1997).

The thesis that victims of abuse are at increased risk to become offenders has been criticized (Widom, 1988) because certainly not all victims grow up to offend. Childhood victims may instead as adults be involved in an exploitative relationship, either as a victim or as an exploiter. The relationship pattern of the abuse may thus be repeated intergenerationally, even if it is not a literal reenactment (Bolen, 2000).

Attachment history may serve to predict whether individuals are at increased risk to exploit or to be exploited. Avoidantly attached individuals who are typically hos-

tile and exhibit overtly aggressive behavior (Egeland & Sroufe, 1981) may be at increased risk to be aggressive and abusive in intimate relationships. Ambivalent individuals, who more typically employ approaching strategies, may be at greater risk for revictimization. Disorganized individuals, by using contradictory behaviors, may be at risk for both abusive behaviors and revictimization (Bolen, 2000). Other research suggest that all three insecure attachment styles may make an individual prone to relationship violence (Dutton et.al., 1994).

Regarding the partners of violent persons, the situation may be similar to that described by Bowlby in observations of children (Bowlby, 1988). If children have experienced parental abuse, they often show excessive anxiety and alertness in interactions with their parents. Some children can be especially sensitive to the needs of their parents. Children understand very early that a nervous and potentially violent parent can be easily calmed if persistent attention is given to his or her wishes. Similar behavior can be observed in female victims of men's violence. Women in violent relationship are often characterized by insecure attachment styles, especially preoccupied style (Kesner & McKenry, 1998). Since childhood abuse experience is related to insecure attachment, this can influence further adult relationship building with men who are abusive and violent. Childhood abuse leaves an impact on the development of internal working models and attachment styles. It follows that if one feels unworthy, she might perceive the partner's abusive behavior as appropriate, and blame herself for the violent act.

It was thus hypothesized that male and female respondents who live in violent intimate relationships would differ from respondents who live in non-violent relationships in terms of their attachment styles and childhood abuse histories. It was also hypothesized that both childhood history of abuse and adult attachment style would be predictive of involvement in violent intimate relationships.

Method

Participants

One hundred three women and 94 men aged 25-50 (mean age = 33 years) agreed to participate in this study. All the respondents were married or cohabiting in a heterosexual relationship at least for 3 years (mean = 10.1 years). All reported completion of secondary or highest education, and all respondents were Latvian. Their professions included office personnel, physicians, teachers, police officers, firemen and others (see Table 1).

Procedure

Written questionnaires together with return-envelopes were distributed as follows: half of the questionnaires were given to respondents in their work places; and another half were given to university students for distribution to adult males and females. The criteria for distribution was that the respondent must be from age 25 to 50, with at least a secondary or higher education, and with co-habitant status in a heterosexual

relationship for at least three years.

Table 1. Means and Frequencies of Selected Participants' Demographic Characteristics of Study

	Females (n=103)	Males(n=94)
Mean age	33.1	32.9
Number of years co-habiting	10.9	10.2
Education:		
Secondary	49%	44%
Highest	51%	56%
Income (LVL per month):		
Under 80	13%	4.3%
80-150	50%	22.6%
150-250	24%	47.3%
more than 250	11%	25.8%
Profession:		
Office Personnel	49%	40%
Physicians	13%	6%
Police officers	15%	24%
Teachers,	9%	-
Firemen	-	16%
Others	14%	14%

Measures

All of the questionnaires used in the study were translated from English to Latvian by two independent translators. Any discrepancies were discussed and a consensus was agreed upon. The consented upon version was then back-translated to English by two different independent translators, and any discrepancies were discussed and resolved. A pilot study using the same questionnaires was made during the first author's previous research (Bite, 2000). Respondents did not report any difficulty in answering any of the items, and all items were found to be culturally appropriate. Cronbach alpha ratings (reported below) were adequate to very good.

Relationship Questionnaire (RQ) (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). The Relationship Questionnaire consists of four short paragraphs, each describing one of the four attachment styles: secure, preoccupied, fearful or dismissive. At first, respondents were asked to identify which of the four descriptions best describes how they feel about close relationships. Then respondents were asked to rate on a 7-point Likert scale the degree to which each of the four paragraphs describes their relationships. As a result, this questionnaire provides both categorical and continuous data regarding adult attachment style ratings.

Revised Adult Attachment Scale (RAAS) (Collins & Read, 1998). Eighteen statements were rated on a 5-point Likert-scale measure concerning three attachment dimensions: closeness, feeling that one can depend on others, and anxiety of being abandoned or unloved. Cronbach's alpha for the Depend, Anxiety and Closeness items were .64, .88, .63.

Trauma Symptom Inventory (TSI) (Briere, 1995) is a 112-item self-report ques-

tionnaire that measures trauma-related symptoms in adults. The TSI was designed to tap both the specific symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder such as intrusive experiences and avoidance of stimuli that remind one of the trauma, and other more chronic post-traumatic sequelae such as dissociation, anger, and anxiety. This measure consists of 10 clinical scales and 3 validity scales. Items are rated on a 4-point Likert scale. Cronbach's alpha ratings were found to range from .63 to .89.

Violence and Abuse History Questionnaire was developed on the basis of the Conflict Tactics Scale (Strauss, 1979), and consists of 18 concrete questions about childhood emotional, physical, and sexual abuse experience, as well as 15 items concerning partner's violence towards the respondent, or respondent's use of violent behavior towards the partner. Items concerning both intra-familial and extra-familial childhood physical and sexual abuse were included. Violence in intimate relationships was defined as physical assaults: battering, beating, strangulation, kicking, hustling (for example, "In your intimate relationships, have you ever experienced that your partner kicked you? How many episodes do you remember?").

Results

Initial analysis involved placing the respondents into one of two groups: those who report violence in intimate relationships, and those who do not. Differences between the two groups were then compared with ANOVA and t-test in terms of childhood abuse experience ratings and adult attachment style ratings. Relationships among childhood history of abuse, adult attachment styles, and violence in intimate relationships were examined using multiple regression analysis.

Relationship violence. As seen in Table 2, 32 female and 24 male respondents reported violence in their intimate relationships. Thirty of the women reported being victims of their partner's violence, and 20 of the men reported that they were the perpetrators of the violence. Respondents who reported being involved in violent intimate relationships did not differ significantly by age, duration of relationship, education, income or professions from those who did not report such violence in their relationships.

Table 2. *Incidence of Self-Reported Violence in Intimate Relationships*

	<i>Total group (n=195)</i>	<i>Females (n=102)</i>	<i>Males (n=93)</i>
No abuse reported	139 (71.3%)	70 (68.6%)	69 (74.2%)
Abuse reported:	56 (28.7%)	32 (31.1%)	24 (25.8%)
Respondent is violent	37 (19%)	17 (16.7%)	20 (21.5%)
Partner is violent	43 (21.9%)	30 (29.4%)	12 (12.9%)
Both partners are violent	23 (11.8%)	15 (14.7%)	8 (8.6%)

Adult Attachment Styles. Respondents were asked to identify in the questionnaires which of the four attachment styles' descriptions best describes how they feel about close relationships. As seen in Table 3, 41% of the 192 respondents reported secure attachment style, and 59% reported one of the three insecure attachment styles.

Results differed between men's and women's groups, especially in terms of the type of insecure attachment reported. Men had a greater propensity to report Dismissing attachment style (31.5% of the men vs. 17.2% of the women reported this style); and women had a greater propensity to report Preoccupied attachment style (23.2% of the women vs. 13.5% of the men reported this style). Results were similar to the previous research on childhood abuse and attachment styles of young women in Latvia (Bite, 2000).

Table 3. Incidence of Self-Reported Attachment Styles by RQ (categorical ratings)

	Total group (n=192)	Females (n=103)	Males (n=89)
Secure	41%	39.4%	42.7%
Fearful	16.5%	20.2%	12.4%
Preoccupied	18.6%	23.2%	13.5%
Dismissing	23.9%	17.2%	31.5%

Adult attachment styles, childhood abuse experience and violence in intimate relationships in the total group. Initially results of the entire group were analyzed. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was made with the attachment style ratings (continuous) and childhood abuse experience indexes (continuous) as independent variables and violence vs. non-violence groups as the dependent variable. The violence in intimate relationships group had higher childhood physical abuse experience ratings ($F=12.05$, $p<.001$), greater childhood emotional abuse in the family ($F=13.09$, $p<.001$), and more childhood sexual abuse ($F=5.37$, $p<.05$). They also reported higher ratings on Preoccupied attachment style by RQ ($F=16.56$, $p<.001$) and on Anxiety dimension by RAAS ($F=14.01$, $p<.001$).

T-tests were computed to compare more specific differences between the two groups (respondents with and without violence in their intimate relationships) on childhood abuse experience ratings and attachment scale ratings. As seen in Table 4, the groups differed significantly regarding history of childhood abuse: respondents with violence in their intimate relationships reported more childhood emotional abuse experiences ($t=-3.62$, $p<.001$), greater childhood physical abuse ($t=-3.47$, $p<.01$), and greater childhood sexual abuse ($t=-2.32$, $p<.05$). Results of the Trauma Symptom Inventory showed significant differences between the two groups, with higher symptom scores reported by those respondents with violence in their intimate relationships: higher anxiety scores ($t=-2.68$, $p<.01$), greater depression ($t=-2.63$, $p<.01$), greater PTSD ($t=-3.65$, $p<.001$), greater identity confusion ($t=-2.06$, $p<.05$), more tension reduction behaviour ($t=-2.53$, $p<.05$), and more sexual concerns ($t=-2.6$, $p<.01$).

Attachment styles as measured by the RQ ratings were significantly higher for those respondents with violence in their intimate relationships, as seen in Table 4, in regard to two of the insecure attachment styles: preoccupied ($t=-4.07$, $p<.001$) and fearful ($t=-2.48$, $p<.01$). The Anxiety dimension in respondents' romantic relationships was rated higher in the violent relationship group ($t=-3.74$, $p<.001$). These results were stable independently of gender and whether the respondent was a violence victim or perpetrator.

Multiple regression analysis with violence in intimate relationships as the dependent variable showed that childhood physical abuse was the most significant predictor of violent partner relationships, explaining 13% of variance ($\beta = .35, p < .001$). Preoccupied attachment style was also a significant predictor, explaining an additional 4% variance ($\beta = .21, p < .01$).

Table 4. *Adult Attachment Style Ratings and Childhood Abuse Ratings for Non-Violent vs. Violent Relationship Groups*

	Non violent relationship group (n=72)		Violent relationship group (n=30)		t - test
	M	SD	M	SD	
<i>Attachment style ratings:</i>					
Secure	4.59	1.68	4.31	1.73	1.03
Fearful	2.87	1.70	3.60	1.91	-2.48**
Preoccupied	3.05	1.64	4.21	1.96	-4.07***
Dismissing	3.55	1.90	3.12	1.88	1.37
<i>Childhood abuse experience ratings:</i>					
Physical abuse	0.07	0.26	0.27	0.52	-3.47**
Sexual abuse	0.07	0.26	0.20	0.49	-2.32*
Emotional abuse	13.69	5.28	16.89	6.05	-3.62***

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Female group results. Analyses were made separately for women and men. As seen in Table 5, the women who reported suffering from their partner's violence ($n=30$), also reported higher levels of experienced emotional childhood abuse ($t = -3.03, p < .01$), as well as higher childhood physical abuse scores ($t = -1.95, p < .05$). Regarding trauma symptoms, women who reported suffering from partner's violence reported higher levels of depression ($t = -2.64, p < .01$), and PTSD ($t = -1.96, p < .05$) symptoms. Regarding adult attachment style, in the group of violence victims the Preoccupied attachment style prevailed ($t = -2.91, p < .01$). The Anxiety dimension as measured by the RAAS was elevated also in the violent relationships group ($t = -2.82, p < .01$).

Male group results. Two groups of men were compared: men who reported that they use violence toward their intimate partners, and men, who do not report such behaviour. As seen in Table 6, the violent men reported childhood abuse experience more often than the non-violent men: higher levels of childhood physical abuse ($t = -2.76, p < .01$); and more childhood emotional abuse ($t = -3.17, p < .01$). When trauma symptoms were compared between the two groups, results indicated that only the PTSD symptom scores were higher in the violent group than in the non-violent group ($t = -2.48, p < .05$).

Exploring the differences in adult attachment styles, a tendency toward higher preoccupied style was found. Preoccupied attachment style scores were higher ($t = 1.98, p < .05$) in the group of men who reported violent behaviour. Also elevated for the violent men were the Anxiety scale's results as measured by the RAAS: differences between two groups were found ($t = -1.99, p < .05$).

Table 5. Female Respondent Adult Attachment Style Ratings and Childhood Abuse Ratings for Non-Violent vs. Violent Relationship Groups

	Non violent relationship group (n=72)		Violent relationship group (n=30)		t-test
	M	SD	M	SD	
<i>Attachment style ratings:</i>					
Secure	4.71	1.69	4.00	1.88	1.78
Fearful	3.25	1.83	3.96	2.07	-1.62
Preoccupied	3.35	1.74	4.56	1.99	-2.91**
Dismissing	3.33	1.89	2.01	2.01	0.83
<i>Childhood abuse experience ratings:</i>					
Physical abuse	0.02	0.26	0.20	0.41	-1.95*
Sexual abuse	0.14	0.35	0.30	0.60	-1.71
Emotional abuse	1.97	0.80	2.53	0.94	-3.03**

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

Table 6. Male Respondent Adult Attachment Style Ratings and Childhood Abuse Ratings for Non-Violent vs. Violent Relationship Groups

	Non violent relationship group (n=74)		Violent relationship group (n=20)		t-test
	M	SD	M	SD	
<i>Attachment style ratings:</i>					
Secure	4.45	1.64	4.74	1.56	-.67
Fearful	2.61	1.58	2.84	1.50	-.57
Preoccupied	2.89	1.58	3.53	1.93	-1.98*
Dismissing	3.78	1.87	3.16	1.80	1.28
<i>Childhood abuse experience ratings:</i>					
Physical abuse	0.02	0.25	0.20	0.44	-3.07**
Sexual abuse	0.02	0.17	0.02	0.23	-0.54
Emotional abuse	1.82	0.50	2.25	0.74	-3.17**

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

Discussion

Results indicated that there is a connection between childhood physical, emotional and sexual abuse experience, adult attachment style, and involvement in a relationship with physical violence between intimate partners. Experience of physical abuse in childhood was the most important predictor of involvement in violent adult relationships. This indicates that both men and women re-enact in intimate relationships their own childhood experience. Childhood abuse experience creates feelings of insecurity, difficulties in protecting oneself, negative view of self, and therefore difficulties in stopping or escaping from the violent relationship. Since men are the most common perpetrators of physical violence in relationships, and physical violence victims are mainly women, this supports the view that men are more tended to externalize their traumatic experiences, while women internalize them (Friedrich, 1987).

Ratings of adult attachment styles showed that both male and female respondents, whose relationships are violent, have a tendency to greater Preoccupied attachment style ratings, and ratings of Anxiety in regard to their romantic relationships.

In comparison to non-violent males, the violent males were more likely to report a Preoccupied attachment style, which is marked by strong insecurity and dependency needs, indicating that their violent behavior could be a product of their insecurity and dependency. According to attachment theory, anger is a natural part of all attachment relationships (Bowlby, 1988), but functional anger that serves to support the secure relationship becomes dysfunctional in insecure relationships (Kesner & McKenry, 1998). Anger is related to a fear of separation (Bowlby, 1988). The Preoccupied pattern of attachment is characterized by fear of loneliness and rejection sensitivity. A negative view of self and separation fear can promote the wish to control another person and to prevent her leaving. Violent behavior is one of the control mechanisms. Preoccupied individuals have a sense of love-unworthiness combined with an (often idealized) positive model of others. Thus, this attachment style creates a strong dependency upon relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). According to childhood attachment styles, this is an anxious-resistant attachment. The behavior strategy of these children is both contact-seeking behavior and angry outbursts towards the attachment figure. Similarly, in adult relationships, if the model of self is negative, anger might arise when other people are not able to fulfill the self's dependency needs. These can be exaggerated needs, the desiring of something unreal - a fulfillment of inner feelings of emptiness or a demonstration of ceaseless care.

Women who reported that their partners are violent towards them also reported Preoccupied attachment style. When the view of the self is negative, unsatisfying or destructive relationships may coincide with one's conviction that she is not good enough to deserve a positive, satisfying relationship. Preoccupied adults are strongly attached and enmeshed in their close relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Therefore it is difficult to leave a violent partner, because the intimate partner is seen as a source of security. Since these women often have abuse and violence experience in their childhoods, they may have internalized the conviction that "I'm responsible" (Wieland, 1998). Thus feelings of guilt and helplessness may arise. According to Alexander (1992), Preoccupied adults in their childhood were treated in a role-reversal manner by their parents. This pattern may continue in their adult relationships - the child who was coerced into being a parent to her parents, may as an adult feel the need to be a parent, a mother, to her intimate partner. Ratings on the Anxiety dimension were also quite high for these women, attesting to fear of being abandoned and fear of loneliness.

One of the limitations of this study is that it relied solely on self-report measures. Using self-report measures, an important issue to consider is whether the measure is capturing the unconscious or conscious representations of the relationship. Therefore, in future studies the associations examined in this study could be further explored by in-depth interviews.

Another aspect to consider is that experience of childhood abuse and Preoccupied attachment style are predictors of involvement in violent intimate relationships. However, there are men who have experienced childhood abuse and/or evidence

insecure attachment as adults, but who are not violent in their relationships. Therefore, in future studies it would be important to look at the factors which protective and encourage breaking of intergenerational cycles of abuse. Finally, violence and abuse are influenced by important sociocultural factors (Mauriocio & Gormley, 2001). Future studies might benefit from the inclusion of sociocultural factors and interpersonal factors, such as gender-related issues, communication processes in relationships, and interaction styles.

Results of this study verify the role of attachment issues both in violence prevention and in the treatment of its aftereffects. These findings highlight the need for psychological and therapeutic help for the victims and perpetrators. If a therapist understands that specific attachment dynamics trigger exaggerated dependency needs and dysfunctional anger which leads to violent behavior, intervention goals can include helping the batterer to identify internal and external stimuli associated with these dynamics and to manage corresponding negative affect. Similarly, the therapist needs to understand the strong dependency needs, possible effects of role-reversal, and feelings of guilt and responsibility which the victim is faced with. The results of this study have implications not only for psychologists and psychotherapists, but also for all professionals who are in contact with abusive family situations - this includes social workers, teachers, police officers, court officials, and others. By understanding the underlying psychological dynamics of the victim and the perpetrator, it is more likely that society will respond in a responsible manner.

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The psychological Adjustment of Children with Phenylketonuria

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Phenylketonuria (PKU) is an inherited genetic metabolic disorder in which an enzyme required to digest phenylalanine (Phe), a part of protein, is missing. Low protein diet must be introduced early from birth to avoid mental retardation and other somatic and neurological symptoms. Even early treated children with PKU have a higher risk of psychosocial maladjustment. The present study aims to evaluate the psychological adjustment of PKU children (as compared to healthy controls) and analyze it in the context of disease-related and environmental factors. Lithuanian children with PKU (ages 7-11 years) have more behavior problems than healthy controls. The differences in internalizing, social and attention problems, and aggressive behavior are most apparent. Children with PKU have lower mean IQ than healthy controls. Lower IQ as mediated by life-long Phe level correlates with patients' internalizing problems. Parental feelings of guilt and anger and indulging a child with PKU significantly relate to higher rates of internalizing and social problems.¹

Keywords: phenylketonuria, children, behavior problems.

Phenylketonuria (PKU) is an inherited metabolic disorder associated with severe mental retardation, if untreated. The absence or inactivity of phenylalanine hydroxylase, the enzyme that converts the amino acid phenylalanine (Phe) to tyrosine, causes PKU (Sullivan & Chang, 1999). This conversion of Phe is important for the biogenesis of several neurotransmitters, including dopamine and serotonin, and prevents the accumulation of metabolites, which are toxic to the central nervous system.

In late 1960s screening programs to identify PKU soon after birth were developed in most of European countries and the United States. In Lithuania the newborn screening for PKU was introduced in 1975. The incidence rate of this autosomal

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recessive metabolic disorder is 1 from 9000 newborns in the Lithuanian population.

The treatment of PKU consists of dietetic therapy and supplementation of amino acids reduced from Phe. Compliance with the diet is measured by the level of Phe in the blood. Foods high in protein and therefore high in phenylalanine (e.g. milk, meats, eggs, cheese, other protein foods) are usually excluded from the diet. Instead, the diet generally consists of a milk substitute (special formula) and measured amounts of fruits, vegetables, starches and cereals. Children with PKU require outpatient clinic visits several times a year.

The effectiveness of treatment of PKU includes three main parameters: an early start of treatment, quality of blood Phe level control and duration of blood Phe level control (Burgard, 2000). There is international consensus that treatment should start as early as possible within the first weeks of life and continue at least till age 10.

The intelligence quotient (IQ) has always been one of the key measures for evaluating the outcome of PKU treatment. Researchers from Europe and United States report that early and continuously treated patients have normal IQ levels, albeit lower than those of parents', siblings' or matched controls' (Burgard, 2000; Griffiths et al., 2000). Deficits in early treated patients' neuropsychological functioning have been reported, especially in the executive function, psychomotor speed, and visual organization, often resulting in lower arithmetic and linguistic skills (Chang, Gray & O'Brien, 2000). Studies have documented significant correlations between the lower scores on tests of psychomotor development and intelligence in children with PKU and the elevated Phe levels before the age of 6 years (Burgard et al., 1994; Waisbren et al., 1994; Waisbren, 2000).

Even early and continuously treated patients with PKU have a higher risk of psychosocial maladjustment (Weglage, 2000). Children and adolescents with PKU age 8 to 18 years have been reported to have more internalizing problems such as depressive mood, withdrawn behavior, anxiety, and hyperactivity than healthy controls or children in the general population (Burgard et al., 1994; Kalverboer et al., 1994; Smith et al., 1988; Stevenson et al., 1979; Weglage et al., 1994; Weglage et al., 2000). The occurrence of externalizing problems in children with PKU is not higher than those in normal controls (Sullivan & Chang, 1999; Weglage, 2000).

There are two hypotheses concerning the etiology of the elevated rate of psychosocial maladjustment in PKU: one based on a biological and the other on a psychological perspective. From the biological perspective it is proposed that increased levels of Phe may lead to a reduced synthesis of dopamine and serotonin in the brain of patients with PKU resulting in an imbalance of neurotransmitters and thus contributing to the pathogenesis of psychiatric disturbances (Weglage et al., 2000). As a result, deficiencies in the frontal lobes can be related to behavior problems, e.g. hyperactivity, impulsiveness (Ris et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1988).

The psychological perspective stresses the importance of abnormal developmental conditions and of stress evoked by the burdensome continuous dietary treatment. The results of several German investigations support a psychological perspective for the development of emotional and behavioral problems in PKU patients (Burgard et al., 1994; Weglage et al., 2000). These researchers conclude that the observed behavior disturbances resulted from stress associated with the chronic disease in-

stead of Phe levels. A few studies suggest that lower IQ can mediate the psychological maladjustment in early-treated PKU children (Smith & Knowles, 2000; Sullivan & Chang, 1999).

Investigations failed to find a psychosocial profile specific to patients with PKU (Sullivan & Chang, 1999; Weglage, 2000). Thus, the conclusion drawn has been that psychosocial maladjustment in children with PKU seems to be similar to that in children with other chronic diseases. The illness and its treatment may impose a burden on the child's psychological development and on his or her parents.

Beyond the intrachild focus of most organismic models, contemporary frameworks for studying child development increasingly emphasize the importance of transacting biological, social and psychological factors. Central to all of these current perspectives is the recognition of the family as the critical context of development for the young child (hauser-cram et al., 1999). Parental involvement in pku treatment is essential, because parents are the ones mostly responsible for the child's compliance with a dietary regimen. In addition to the usual strain with a newborn child, parents of pku children have to deal with two additional demands: 1) the grievance and disappointment of having given birth to a sick child, 2) the requirements of having to manage the special diet (awiszus & unger, 1990).

Studies of parents having children with the chronic health conditions suggest that parents will experience feelings of guilt (Eiser, 1985). Distress and anxiety, common in PKU families, especially in the first year, may be associated with neurotic or psychosomatic problems found in their child with PKU (Smith et al., 1988). Also the restrictive-controlling style of parenting is believed to contribute to the development of psychosocial maladjustment (Sullivan & Chang, 1999; Weglage, 2000).

However, few studies explore the psychological adjustment of children with PKU in the context of family-related factors. Investigations may provide clarity regarding environmental factors that co-vary with measures of psychological functioning across the lifespan of patients with early and continuously treated PKU (Sullivan & Chang, 1999).

The aim of this study is to investigate behavioral and emotional problems of children with PKU and possible explanations for these problems in terms of the disease-related (e.g. elevated Phe levels and intellectual functioning) and family-related (e.g. parental reactions to child's disease and interactions with an affected child) factors.

Method

Participants

Twenty-five children with early and continuously treated PKU, aged 7-11 years (10 boys, 15 girls; mean age 9.37, $SD=1.45$) participated. All children are patients at the Human Genetics Center at the Vilnius University Hospital. They were compared with healthy (non-PKU) children matched for age, gender, parental education and rural or urban residence.

Measures

Intelligence quotients (IQ) for both groups were obtained administering the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC-R).

The behavioral and emotional problems of children in both groups were assessed through their parents' ratings on the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL, Achenbach, 1991). CBCL measures behavior problems on eight subscales: withdrawal, somatic complaints, anxiety/depression (these three comprise internalizing problems), delinquent and aggressive behavior (these two comprise externalizing problems), social problems, thought problems, and attention problems.

Parental reactions to child's disease and interactions with a child were assessed with a semi-structured questionnaire. Parents of children with PKU answered "yes" or "no" to a list of statements about their reactions and interactions. They could also add other statements to the list.

Mean Phe level of PKU patients was obtained from Phe levels records in the Human Genetics Center. The Phe levels were measured several times a year from birth to age 7 years.

Statistical analysis of the data was performed with SPSS Version 9.0. The Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare means between groups. Correlations were assessed using Pearson's *r*. Chi-square test was used to assess the association between variables.

Results

The between group comparison of cbcl scores with Mann-Whitney U test show children with pku to have significantly more total ($z=2.923$, $p<.01$) and internalizing problems ($z=2.528$, $p<.05$) than matched controls (figure 1). Mean scores of externalizing problems do not differ significantly. The comparison of behavioral and emotional problems across separate subscales indicates significant differences between two groups in withdrawal ($z=2.517$, $p<.05$), anxiety/depression ($z=2.301$, $p<.05$), social problems ($z=2.432$, $p<.05$), attention problems ($z=2.956$, $p<.01$), and aggressive behavior ($z=2.014$, $p<.05$). The mean scores of somatic complaints, thought problems and delinquent behavior do not differ significantly. Despite higher rates found for pku-affected children behavioral profiles for two groups are remarkably similar (see figure 2).

The mean IQ of the children with PKU is 83.4 (SD=14) and it is significantly lower ($z=5.057$, $p<.001$) than those of the matched children without any chronic illness (mean IQ is 107.6, SD=10.3).

Correlations between IQ, mean Phe level, and CBCL scores were computed for children with PKU (see Table 1). Phe levels correlated significantly and negatively with patients' IQ ($p<.05$). IQ, in turn, correlated significantly and negatively with internalizing problems ($p<.05$), and withdrawn behavior and anxiety/depression ($p<.05$). There were no significant correlations found between Phe level and behavior problems.

A summary of frequencies of parental reactions to child's disease is shown in

Table 2. Most of parents (96%) reacted with feelings of confusion and distress to the knowledge their child has PKU. Third of them felt anger toward self/others/God (36%) or blamed themselves (29%). Half of parents who have a child with PKU indulge her/him (58%) or require no discipline from the PKU-affected child (46%).

Parental feelings of guilt and anger are related to higher rates of children's with PKU behavior problems (see Table 3). Compared to parents who did not react with feelings of anger parents who felt anger to others/God/themselves rated their children as more withdrawn ($p < .05$), and as having more social, thought and attention problems ($p < .05$, respectively). The rates of total ($p < .01$) and internalizing problems ($p < .05$) are higher in the children's with PKU group whose parents reacted with anger. Parents who blamed themselves rated their children as having more social problems ($p < .05$) than those who did not blame themselves.

Indulging the child with PKU relates to higher rates of behavior problems as well (see Table 3). Parents who indulge their children rated them as more withdrawn ($p < .05$) and as having more internalizing ($p < .01$) and social problems ($p < .05$). Ratings of delinquent behavior, on the contrary, were lower for children whose parents make concessions to their ill child ($p < .05$). Compared to children who are not indulged, those who are indulged have lower IQs and higher Phe level. Although the differences do not reach a significant level.

All parents who felt anger and guilt tended to indulge the ill child (Figure 3). The associations between feelings of anger and indulgence, and between feelings of guilt and indulgence as computed with Chi-square are 10.286, $p < .001$, and 7.059, $p < .01$, respectively.

Discussion

Lithuanian children ages 7 to 11 with PKU, compared to those who do not have PKU, have more behavioral and emotional problems as rated by their parents. Their higher incidence of internalizing problems is similar to those reported by other researchers (Burgard et al, 1994; Smith et al., 1988; Weglage et al., 2000). In addition, the children with PKU evidenced more social and attention problems. These findings are also in accord with those of Weglage et al. (2000) and Smith et al. (1988). The finding that our PKU patients are rated higher on aggressive behavior is not addressed in previous studies. We have no reasonable explanation for higher aggressiveness in children with PKU except its tendency to co-occur with social and attention problems. Moreover, the aggressive behavior was not explained solely by any of the variables explored in our study.

We believe the lower IQ as mediated by elevated Phe level's not the mean Phe level itself contributes to the internalizing problems in our sample of children with PKU. Lower IQs in children with PKU found among those with higher Phe levels further increases the likelihood of the anxiety/depression and withdrawal. These findings are in agreement with Schaffer et al. (1985) and Wenar (1990) who believe lower IQs may lead to anxiety, depression and withdrawn behavior in children with soft neurological signs and those with mild mental retardation.

The findings of present study in essence confirm the significance of the family-

related variables in predicting the psychological adjustment of children with PKU. Parental feelings of guilt and/or anger as well as indulging a child are associated with behavior problems. The restrictive-controlling parenting style has been reported to be a risk factor for children's with PKU behavior problems (Sullivan & Chang, 1999; Weglage 2000). In addition, parental overprotection may play an important role in psychological functioning of children with chronic illness (Eiser, 1985; Meijer et al., 2000). Both may be conditioned by parental reactions to their child's disease (e.g. with feelings of anger or guilt). Thus parental adjustment to the knowledge that their newborn child has PKU is important to consider while treating PKU and to address when needed by the means of education, counseling and other forms of assistance.

The correlational and comparative design of our study prevents us from drawing conclusions about causality. For example, parents who felt angry/guilty and indulge their child may be simply prone to detect more psychological problems in their children. On the other hand, parents who perceive problems in their child (as conditioned by other organic or intrapersonal factors) may feel more guilty as a consequence. Further investigations taking in account different organic, intrapersonal, interpersonal variables and the use of multiple regression models with larger data sets could provide more clarity and precision in evaluating children's with PKU psychological functioning.

Finally, we accept the interactional perspective in child development (Wenar, 1990) that emphasize children's psychopathology never can be viewed as exclusively "in" the child. It is probable that the already existing organic vulnerability may make children with PKU more susceptible to psychological risk factors. The accumulation of multiple negative stresses may increase the risk for psychopathology as a growing child also copes with a disease and continuous demands on its treatment (Caprara & Rutter, 1997).

Medical treatment of phenylketonuria should be accompanied by psychological support for the entire family. Psychological counseling and other forms of assistance should comprise both parental support (e.g. when dealing with initial reactions to child's disease), evaluation of the child's emotional, social and intellectual functioning, and considerations of the triadic relationship between the child and his/her parents.

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Psychosocial Factors and Smoking Behaviour in a Latvian Adolescent Population

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To date, researchers have identified several psychosocial variables that are related to smoking behaviour, yet few studies involve non-Western samples. Since adolescence is a high-risk period for smoking and smoking prevalence rates are on the rise in several non-Western countries such as China, it is important to extend previous studies to include cross-cultural samples. The present study further explored the association between psychosocial variables and cigarette smoking in an adolescent Latvian sample. Self-report data was collected from 2085 Latvian smoking and non-smoking adolescents as a part of Cross-National Survey of Health Behaviour in School Aged Children in 1997-1998. Results indicated that several social-environmental, psychological and behavioural factors were related to smoking status and the implications of these results were discussed¹.

Key words: smoking behaviour, health behaviour, adolescent.

Smoking Incidence and Prevalence

Smoking initiation and experimentation is prevalent during adolescence and recent statistics show that adolescent smoking is on the rise (Johnston, Malley & Backman, 1996). Approximately 47% of adolescents aged 13-18 in Australia and New Zealand are smoking daily (Hill et al., 1995; Stanton et al., 1996) and 28% to 36% of American adolescents smoke (Wang et al., 1999). In China, the smoking rate has risen to 16.5% among adolescents aged 10-19, and it is estimated that an alarming number of Chinese children will die prematurely from smoking related causes (see Zhang et al., 2000). Among cultural groups, African American youth were least likely to initiate smoking and to become more frequent smokers (Goodman & Capitman, 2000),

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although a large majority of them reported an intention to commence smoking once they were older (Coogan et al., 1998).

Social-Environmental Variables

Researchers commonly acknowledge that the onset of smoking occurs from ages 11 to 15 (Conrad, Flay & Hill, 1992; Kandel & Logan, 1984; Zhang, Wang, Zhao, & Vartiainen, 2000) and is most prevalent prior to age 18 (Johnston, O'Malley, & Bachman, 1987) with few adults becoming novice smokers (Johnston et al., 1987; Kandel & Logan, 1984; Lynch & Bonnie, 1994). It is predicted that the younger people are when they initiate smoking, the more likely they are to become regular smokers in adulthood (Paavola, Vartiainen, & Puska, 1996; Patton et al., 1998). Although many adolescent smokers do not believe they will continue smoking in five years, researchers estimate adolescent smokers can expect to continue smoking for 16 to 20 years (Pierce & Gilpin, 1996). Despite their desire and attempt to quit, adolescent smokers grossly underestimate the difficulty involved in smoking cessation. In fact, smoking cessation is more common amongst males than females, and is particularly difficult for adult females who are significantly less successful at quitting (Cecil et al., 1996; Stanton, Lowe, & Gillespie, 1996).

Although several cross-cultural studies purport a higher prevalence of smoking behaviour among adolescent boys than adolescent girls (Cecil, Evans, & Stanley, 1996; Escobedo Reddy, & Giovino, 1998; Zhang et al., 2000), girls are more likely to experiment with cigarette smoking (Grunberg, Winders, & Wewers, 1991). Rate of experimentation with smoking is particularly salient since it has been associated with more regular smoking patterns (Patton et al., 1998). Not surprisingly, adolescent smokers tend to be surrounded by peers (Patton et al., 1998), teachers (Zhu et al., 1992), and family members (Patton et al., 1998) who smoke (Zhang et al., 2000). Parental smoking, particularly mothers' smoking behaviour has been shown to be a strong predictor of daily smoking for youth smokers (Patton et al., 1998). Low socio-economic status (SES) is also related to smoking (Lewis, Harrell, Bradley, & Shihing, 2001).

Psychological Factors

Cross-cultural data supports the association between smoking initiation and heightened stress levels for both novice and experienced adolescent smokers. Higher perceived stress is associated with own the increased number of cigarettes adolescents smoked (Cohen et al., 1983). Canadian youth who smoke reported experiencing more stress, worry, anxiousness, and nervousness compared to non-smoking youth (Mitic, McGuire, & Neumann, 1985). In Britain, occasional smokers reported significantly less stress compared to regular smokers and nonsmokers were found to have the lowest stress levels. Smokers in grades 4-12 reported being more stressed at home or at school (Coogan et al., 1998).

In addition to heightened stress levels, smoking behaviour has been associated with depressed mood. Research purports depressed mood precedes smoking initia-

tion (Glass, 1990) making the risk of smoking initiation highest for people with current or past experiences with depressed mood (Escobedo, Kirch, & Anda, 1996; Patton et al., 1998). A higher prevalence of depressed mood and low self-esteem has been reported in smoking versus non-smoking adolescents (Conrad et al., 1992; Patton et al., 1998) and this finding has also been supported in research with American-Latino youth (e.g., Escobedo et al., 1996). While smoking has not been found to be a causal factor in major depression (Kendler et al., 1993), lifetime prevalence of depression is nearly doubled for smokers compared to non-smokers (Kendler et al., 1993). Epidemiological surveys (Hughes, Hatsukami, Mitchell, & Dahlgren, 1986) have found that depressed individuals are more likely to smoke than are nondepressed individuals (Quattrochi, Baird, & Yurgelun-Todd, 2000) and are more likely than nonsmokers to experience depression at some point in their lifetimes (Glassman et al., 1990). As with stress levels, negative mood changes are evident when smokers, particularly heavy smokers, abstain from cigarette smoking (Hughes, Higgins, & Hatsukami, 1990).

Behavioural Factors

Several behavioral factors have been associated with smoking status of youth. Physical activity, sports participation, (Patton et al., 1998; Tomori et al., 2001) and extreme dieting have been associated with lower smoking rates (Stanton, Lowe, & Gillespie, 1996). Studies indicate that compared to nonsmokers, smokers are more likely to report alcohol and drug use, alcohol intoxication, television viewing, and risk-taking behaviours such as drinking and driving, infrequent seat belt use, and fighting (Coogan et al., 1998). In addition, smokers report disdain for school (Coogan et al., 1996), high truancy rates (Tomori et al., 2001) and poorer academic performance (Johnston, O'Malley, & Eveland, 1978) compared to their non-smoking peers. Poor academic marks and alcohol use have been shown to be strong predictors of becoming a moderate to heavy smoker (Goodman & Capitan, 2000).

The purpose of the present study was to explore factors related to smoking status of adolescents, and investigate these factors in a Latvian adolescent population. Since adolescent smoking is on the rise in several countries (e.g., China) and research to date has relied primarily on westernized and adult samples, it is critical to provide cross-cultural data for factors relating to smoking behaviour.

Method

The data reported in this study were collected as part of an international survey of children's health known as the Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children: A World Health Organization Cross-National Survey (HBSC). The purpose of this survey is to assess health behaviour and its social and psychological correlates among 11 to 16 year-old children. Since its inception in 1982, four separate surveys have been carried out at 4-year intervals in most countries in Europe, and in Canada, United States and Israel. The major objectives of this international effort are first to increase understanding of the extent of, and factors associated with, health-risk behaviour among

adolescents within the social context of their lives; and second, to contribute to the development of strategies and interventions that will reduce health risk behaviours. The protocol of the study broadly reflects the WHO definition of health as encompassing physical, emotional and social well-being that allows people to realize their full potential (World Health Organization, 1984). Thus, the survey included questions about health status, symptoms of health, symptoms of poor health, lifestyle health, lifestyle health behaviours, family and peer relationships, an school. Surveys are conducted every four years to show trends over time in health behaviours and to identify factors that might have contributed to these changes. The database gained is directly relevant to the formation of health policy, the planning of health education in schools and the enhancement of research capability in health promotion and disease prevention. The survey findings have been published in a series of international reports (for the 1989-90 survey see King and Coles, 1992; for the 1993-94 survey see King, Wold, Tudor-Smith & Harel, 1996; for the 1997-98 survey see Currie, Hurrelman, Settertobulte, Smith & Todd, 2000).

Latvia became a member of the HBSC study in 1989, the only Soviet republic to do so at that time. Since becoming a member it has carried out the survey according to international protocol. Each country that joins the study is also permitted to add questions of national interest. In Latvia we added the MLES Children's Depression Inventory (CDI) because we were interested in studying the mental health of young people and also we wished to begin the work of standardizing the test for clinical research and application for practice in Latvia.

Participants

Participants in the study were recruited from 224 classes in 110 of Latvia's 690 schools including Latvian ($n = 1111$), Russian ($n = 803$), and both Latvian and Russian ($n = 111$), speaking students in grades eight ($n = 1050$) and ten ($n = 1035$). Participants (boys = 897 and girls = 1188), were randomly selected from a larger sample who participated in the Cross-National Survey on the Health Behaviour of School-Aged Children (HBSC). Using a cluster sampling approach, participants were recruited from Latvia's four geographical regions (Vidzeme 19%, Kurzeme 18%, Latgale 19%, Zemgale 10%) and from the capital city Riga (34%).

Measures

The Health Behaviour in School-Aged Children Survey (HBSC) is an international questionnaire made up of three core sections (demographics, health problems, and lifestyle) and four focus sections (school environment, psychosocial health, social inequity, and injury-related behaviours). Questions pertaining to cigarette smoking including parental smoking habits, frequency of smoking, grade, gender, and ethnicity were variables of interest.

Stress was assessed by the *Multidimensional Life Events Survey (MLES)* assesses major life and daily stressors that may play a contributing role in the development and maintenance of depression in adolescence. Stressful situations relating to family

life, social relationships, school, and work were assessed by the frequency and degree of impact (i.e., no effect/event, moderate effect, and strong effect) of the event in the past year. This measure was developed by a research team at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (Miczitis & Vood, 1996) incorporated several common items or themes from existing life events inventories, including the Life Events Checklist (Johnson & McCutcheon, 1980), the Unpleasant Life Events Schedule & the Major Life Events Schedule (Lewinsohn, Gotlib, & Seeley, 1995) and the Short Life Events & Difficulties Schedule (Smith & Oatley, 1995).

Depression was assessed by the *Children's Depression Inventory (CDI)* is the most widely used self-report measure of depressive symptomatology in youth (Curry & Craighead, 1993). It has been shown to have high degrees of internal validity (.59 to .68; Kovacs, 1992), test-retest reliability ($r = .87$; Saylor, Finch, Spirito, & Bennett, 1984), and construct validity, especially in nonclinical populations (Kovacs, 1985). A CDI cut-off score of 15 has been established as an "optimum" cut off for accurately identifying individuals who are dealing with depressed mood (Fundudis et al., 1991) and has been used in the present study.

Procedure

A task force including bilingual psychologists, bilingual language editor, and WHO research team members translated measures from English to Latvian using the "backwards-forwards" method. The questionnaires were first translated from English into Latvian, and then back to English and checked for discrepancies with the original English version.

After consent to participate was obtained by principals and students, three examiners from the Academy of Medicine (in Riga) research team administered questionnaire packages to students in a group-format during a regularly scheduled class. To minimize order and fatigue effects on any particular questionnaire, packages were randomly distributed by classroom. After these anonymous questionnaire packages were completed, students were debriefed and given the opportunity to ask the research team questions regarding the study.

Results

Analyses of variance and chi-squared analyses were conducted to examine group differences (daily versus non-smokers) on smoking status in a sample of 2085 Latvian adolescents in grades eight and ten. The majority of Latvian adolescents did not engage in smoking behaviours (85.5%). Of those who did smoke, 14.2 % reported smoking everyday. The majority of adolescents reported having tried cigarette smoking (68.9%) and the average age of smoking onset was 13.3 yrs. Daily smokers were found to smoke an average of 8.7 cigarettes a day. Approximately 76.4% of daily smokers tried to quit smoking (see Table 1).

Table 1. Frequency Distribution of Smoking Status

	<i>N</i>	<i>Percentage^a</i>
Total number of students	2085	100
Smoke everyday	297	14.2
Tried smoking	1690	68.9
Tried to quit smoking	470	19.1

a. Percentages are based on overall total students

Social-Environmental Factors

Gender, grade, ethnicity, and the socioeconomic status (SES) of the student's father and mother, the smoking behaviour of the student's father and mother, and the number of close friends, were included in the analysis of social- environmental factors (see Table 2). Results revealed a number of differences between smokers and non-smokers. Adolescent males were more likely to smoke than adolescent girls, $\chi^2(1, N = 2085) = 48.85, p < .001$ and Latvian adolescents were more likely to smoke than Russian adolescents, $\chi^2(1, N=1914) = 7.56, p < .01$. Grade was also significantly related to smoking behaviour. Smoking increased significantly from grade eight to ten, $\chi^2(1, N = 2085) = 101.95, p < .001$. Adolescent smoking behaviour was significantly related to parents' smoking behaviour.

Table 2. Social-Environmental Factors by Smoking Status

<i>Social/Environmental Factor</i>	<i>Smoking Status</i>	
	<i>Smokers N (%)</i>	<i>Non-smokers N (%)</i>
Gender***		
Male	183 (61.6)	714 (39.9)
Female	114 (38.4)	1074 (60.1)
Grade***		
Eight	69 (23.2)	981 (54.9)
Ten	228 (76.8)	807 (45.1)
Ethnicity**		
Latvian	141 (50.5)	970 (59.3)
Russian	138 (49.5)	665 (40.7)
Parent's Smoking Behaviour		
Father Smokes*	186 (77.2)	1025 (70.4)
Mother Smokes***	100 (36.3)	347 (21.1)
Father's SES**		
High	49 (25.1)	258 (22.5)
Middle	29 (14.9)	302 (26.3)
Low	117 (60.0)	589 (51.3)
Mother's SES		
High	42 (20.3)	270 (20.4)
Middle	96 (46.4)	613 (46.4)
Low	69 (33.3)	438 (33.2)

a. Percentages are based on smoking status subgroup totals

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Students were more likely to smoke if their mother currently smoked $\chi^2 (1, N=1916) = 30.50, p < .001$, or father, $\chi^2 (1, N=1696) = 4.59, p < .05$. A curvilinear relationship between students' smoking status and SES was found. Students with fathers of high and low SES were more likely to smoke than students with fathers of middle SES, $\chi^2 (1, N=1344) = 11.76, p < .01$. In contrast, mothers' SES was not related to their children's smoking behaviour, $\chi^2 (2, N=1528) = 0.004, p < .99$.

Psychological Factors

Depression, stress, irritability, nervousness, and reported happiness were the psychological variables examined between smokers and non-smokers (see Table 3). Mood and stress were significantly related to students' smoking behaviour. Depressive symptomatology and stress varied between the two groups with smokers more likely to report depressive symptoms, $F (1, 2084) = 6.47, p < .011$, dealing with a greater number of stressful events, $F (1, 1933) = 27.05, p < .001$, and a higher level of stress $F (1, 1932) = 29.04, p < .001$.

Table 3. Psychological Factors by Smoking Status

Psychological Factor	Smoking Status	
	Smokers	Non-smokers
Depressive Symptoms*		
Mean	10.59	9.75
SD	5.65	5.14
Reported Level of Stress***		
Mean	8.58	6.56
SD	7.4	5.71
Number of Stressful Events in Past Year***		
Mean	4.9	3.8
SD	3.6	3.0
	<i>N (%)</i>	<i>N (%)</i>
Irritability/ Bad Temper**		
About Every Day	34 (11.5)	168 (9.4)
More than Once a Week	71 (24.1)	328 (18.4)
About Every Week	87 (29.5)	435 (24.5)
About Every Month	56 (19.0)	456 (25.6)
Rarely or Never	47 (15.9)	392 (22.0)
Feeling Nervous/Anxious**		
About Every Day	43 (14.7)	207 (11.7)
More than Once a Week	44 (15.1)	250 (14.1)
About Every Week	73 (25.0)	316 (17.8)
About Every Month	56 (19.2)	358 (20.2)
Rarely or Never	76(26.0)	643 (36.2)
Happiness***		
Very Happy	25 (8.4)	236 (13.2)
Quite Happy	174 (58.6)	1090 (61.1)
Not Very Happy	82 (27.7)	418 (23.4)
Not Happy at All	16 (5.4)	39 (2.2)

a. Percentages are based on smoking status subgroup totals

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Smokers felt irritable or had a bad temper more often than non-smokers. More smokers reported being irritable or having a bad temper “about every week”, “more than once a week”, or “about every day” whereas more non-smokers reported being irritable or having a bad temper “about every month” or “rarely or never”, $\chi^2(4, N=2074) = 16.83, p < .01$. Smokers also reported feeling nervous more than non-smokers. More smokers reported feeling nervous and anxious “about every week”, more than once a week”, or “about every day” whereas more non-smokers reported being nervous or anxious “about every month” or “rarely or never”, $\chi^2(4, N=2066) = 16.63, p < .01$. There were also significant group differences in students’ self-reports of perceived happiness with more smokers than nonsmokers likely to report being “not very happy” or “not happy at all”. In contrast, non-smokers tended to report being “very happy” or “quite happy”, $\chi^2(3, N=2080) = 16.68, p < .001$.

Table 4. Behavioural Factors by Smoking Status

Behavioural Factor	Smoking Status	
	Smokers N (%)	Non-Smokers N (%)
Tried Alcohol	296 (99.7)	1559 (87.5)
Has ever been drunk***		
Never	22 (7.4)	1252 (70.4)
Sometimes	208 (70.0)	510 (28.7)
More than 10 times	67 (22.6)	17 (1.0)
Frequency of Drinking Beer		
Every Day	8 (2.8)	3 (0.2)
Every Week	89 (30.8)	60 (3.5)
Every Month	59 (20.4)	111 (6.5)
Rarely	119 (41.2)	842 (49.4)
Never	14 (4.8)	688 (40.4)
Age of Drinking Onset		
Mean	13.49	12.36
SD	1.48	2.42
Academic Achievement		
Very Good	3 (1.0)	57 (3.2)
Good	55 (18.6)	730 (41.1)
Average	203 (11.0)	903 (50.8)
Below Average	34 (11.5)	87 (4.9)
Missed School Days		
0	63 (21.6)	847 (49.6)
1	43 (14.7)	266 (15.6)
2	21 (7.2)	158 (9.3)
3	31 (10.6)	136 (8.0)
4 or more	134 (45.9)	299 (17.5)
Use Seat Belts	193 (72.6)	1245 (85.2)
Use Bike Helmets	8 (3.6)	99 (7.0)

a. Percentages are based on smoking status subgroup totals

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Behavioral Factors

Smokers and non-smokers differed on a number of behavioural variables including, alcohol use, drinking onset, academic achievement, truancy, and the use of seat belts and bike helmets (see table 4). Smokers were more likely than nonsmokers to have tried alcohol, $\chi^2 (1, N = 2078) = 39.1, p < .001$, although the age at which they started drinking was earlier for non-smokers than smokers, $F (1, 516) = 33.46, p < .001$. Smokers were also more likely to have been intoxicated, $\chi^2 (2, N = 2076) = 583.92, p < .000$, and to drink beer more often ("every month", "every week" or "every day"), $\chi^2 (4, N = 1993) = 423.97, p < .000$.

Academic achievement and truancy were highly related to student's smoking status. Students who did not do well in school were more likely to be regular smokers compared to students who were more achievement oriented, $\chi^2 (3, N=2072) = 72.20, p < .001$. Smokers were more likely to receive "good" or "very good" grades in school whereas non-smokers were more likely to be receive "average" or "below average" grades. Truancy rates were also found to be related to smoking status. Smokers were more likely to miss more days of school (3 or more days) compared to non-smokers (2 or fewer days), $\chi^2 (4, N=1998) = 139.10, p < .001$.

Safety behaviours were not consistently related to smoking behaviour. Compared to non-smokers, smokers were less likely to regularly use seat belts, $\chi^2 (1, N=1727) = 25.88, p < .001$. Despite a moderate trend towards higher helmet use for non-smokers compared to smokers, bike helmet use was not found to be significantly related to smoking behaviour, $\chi^2 (1, N=1629) = 3.62, p = < .057$.

Discussion

Adolescent smoking in Latvia is a significant health concern. The prevalence and onset of smoking among Latvian youth was comparable to rates found in western (Conrad, Flay & Hill, 1992; Kandel & Logan, 1984) and non-western samples (Zhang et al., 2000). The majority of Latvian adolescents were not smoking, yet a large number of our sample had tried smoking, and the number that smoked daily was notable.

Some research has indicated that smoking is part of a cluster of problematic behaviours that constitutes the "risk behaviour syndrome" (Escobedo, 1996). Our findings suggest that Latvian adolescents who smoke have this cluster of problematic behaviours and are more likely to be maladjusted compared to their nonsmoking peers. For instance, adolescent Latvian smokers were more receptive to drinking alcohol. Smokers had established more regular drinking patterns and were more likely to have "been drunk". In fact, the percentage of smokers indicating that they had been intoxicated was almost ten times greater than that of non-smokers. A positive association between truancy and smoking behaviour and an inverse relationship between academic achievement and smoking behaviour indicated that smokers were not performing well at school. Despite the uncertainty of whether these students had poor grades and attendance prior to smoking initiation, low grades and poor attendance in school indicates that adolescent smokers are dealing with several

problems. In addition to school related problems, smokers were more likely than non smokers to avoid using seat belts and a positive trend for smokers to forego bike helmet use. These findings lend support to Coogan et al.'s (1998) characterization of a "high risk" individual as having poor school performance, poor self-esteem, and a willingness to take risks.

Our findings add to Coogan et al.'s (1998) description of a "high risk" individual by addressing a cluster of social-environmental factors including family SES and smoking status among parents. Results of this study indicated that fathers' not mothers' SES was associated with adolescent smoking behaviour. The lack of association between mothers' SES and smoking status of their adolescents may be due to the fact that father's SES is a better measure of a family's overall SES. When fathers' SES was examined it was found that adolescents from high SES and low SES groups were more likely to smoke than students from a middle SES group. While previous research has noted a positive relationship between smoking and low SES (Lewis et al. 2001), results of the present study revealed that the association between SES and smoking was non-linear. It may be that adolescents at either end of the socioeconomic spectrum experience similar amounts of stress and use smoking as a coping mechanism. Another explanation is that adolescents of high and low SES choose to smoke for different reasons. There is some evidence that smoking is related to taste and boredom among adolescents of high SES while low SES adolescents used smoking for social reasons (De Vries, 1995). Similarly, correlational studies have found gender differences of reasons why adolescents smoke (Allen et al., 1994). Compared to female adolescent smokers, males were more likely to smoke for social reasons. In addition to being less socially confident, adolescent male smokers experienced more depressed and anxious symptoms, and had fewer coping skills than their female smoking peers.

Our findings also indicated that Latvian adolescents who smoke were more likely to live in a smoking environment where one or both parents smoked. The smoking behaviour of adolescents' mother, opposed to father, was most strongly related to smoking status. Although it has been found in previous studies (Patton et al., 1998) it is not clear why the smoking behaviour of an adolescent's mother is particularly predictive of smoking status. However, it is worth noting that in the present study the smoking rate among fathers was considerably higher than among mothers. The gender differences in adolescent smoking behaviour mirrors that of their parents. It may be that if an adolescent's mother smokes it is likely that both parents smoke, which magnifies the association between parental and adolescent smoking. It is possible that adolescents living in these homes may have more difficulty in smoking cessation. The difficulty in quitting may be due to easy accessibility to cigarettes, and the fact that smoking is an integral part of the family lifestyle. Considering the heightened stress levels and associated behavioural problems of smoking, adolescent smokers living in smoking environments may be exposed not only to their own psychological and behavioural problems but also to those of their family members. It is important to acknowledge that SES and the rate of smoking among families is beyond the control of adolescents and it is therefore necessary to include family members in prevention and cessation programs. Further research is needed to inves-

tigate factors common to low and high SES that relate to smoking so that individualized prevention programs can be designed.

Psychological problems were also identified in adolescents who smoked. Specifically, higher rates of depressive symptoms, irritability, and nervousness among smokers supports previous findings that associate mood disturbance and anxiety with smoking status (Cohen et al., 1983; Conrad et al., 1992; Coogan et al., 1998; Mitic et al., 1985; Patton et al., 1998). Although it is not clear that smoking causes major depression (Kendler et al., 1993), there is sufficient evidence to support the relationship between smoking status and negative mood which suggests that depressed and anxious adolescents are particularly vulnerable to smoking behaviour. Smoking cessation is also more difficult for individuals with a history of depression (Escobedo et al., 1996; Quattrochi et al., 2000). Although the lack of diagnostic instruments did not permit for identification of major depression in the present study, it is important to note that adolescent smokers were more likely to experience negative affect. In addition to feeling unhappy, smokers were also more likely to report being distressed and had experienced more stressful events within the past year. It is possible that adolescent smokers use cigarette smoking as a way to deal with stress. However, this ineffective strategy can leave problems unresolved and contribute further to stress levels and exacerbate mood states. It is important for adolescents to understand that smoking can increase stress and affect mood and that it is not a viable coping mechanism for stress reduction. These psychological problems speak to the cluster of problems adolescent smokers experience. It is therefore important that professionals understand the increased psychological distress experienced by adolescent smokers and aim to provide information to adolescents about the relationship of stress and depression to smoking. Furthermore, educating adolescents as to the physical and psychological health risks associated with smoking is important for adolescents to fully grasp the spectrum of health hazards associated with smoking.

The results of this study speak to the vulnerability of adolescents who smoke. The psychological, behavioural, and socio-economic problems that smokers face can alert teachers, parents and caregivers that adolescents who smoke may be using substances as a coping strategy. Moreover, these findings suggest the need for more elaborate and generalized prevention programs. The psychological, behavioural, and social-environmental implications of smoking could be integrated as part of an educational program that would involve family members. Early identification of individuals who smoke is critical as research has shown that high risk behaviours can emerge as early as grade four (Coogan et al., 1998). The dramatic increase in the smoking rate among Latvian students from grade eight to grade ten underscores the need to reach adolescents at an early age.

Given that the majority of Latvian students have tried smoking and most have tried to quit, peer facilitation from smokers may be necessary for students to understand the negative implications of smoking, including unsuccessful attempts at quitting despite a high desire to do so. Adolescents' exaggerated perception of the number of peers who smoke also speaks to the benefits of peer facilitation.

Our results indicate that smoking appears in the context of other problems and that adolescents who smoke are more at risk or vulnerable to maladaptive beha-

viours such as drinking and risk taking behaviours. It is therefore important to target these individuals early on and to help them to address their problems with more constructive coping strategies such as proactive problem solving skills and utilization of support systems.

In summary, the findings in the present study identify a number of correlates of smoking among adolescents in a cross-cultural sample and further delineate a relationship between smoking behaviour with a number of psychosocial variables. Similar to Western samples, adolescent smoking is a significant health concern in Latvia. The results in the present study have significant implications for helping health care professionals and support the need for prevention programs with young Latvian adolescents. In particular, these results help identify students potentially at risk for smoking, emphasize the need for information regarding the effect of smoking on mental health, and flag additional difficulties adolescent smokers may be facing. The results also highlight the ubiquitous nature of smoking behaviour in adolescence and further affirm this developmental period as a critical time for smoking experimentation and initiation.

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The Attribution Style Questionnaire (Lithuanian version): Adaptation Study Comparing Depressed with Nondepressed Participants

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This study assessed the reliability and validity of the Lithuanian translation of the Attribution Style Questionnaire (ASQ-L). A total of ninety-six participants were interviewed during a broader study of the cognitive style of depression. In addition to the translated version of the Attribution Style Questionnaire, the Lithuanian version of the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck et al 1961) was administered to check for severity of depression symptoms. The results demonstrated moderate overall internal consistency separately for positive and negative events and an unexpectedly strong correlation between explanations of good and bad events. Construct validity was supported by high interrater agreement between the test takers and expert raters of explanations for typical hypothetical events of the ASQ. The scale's criterion validity was confirmed by the significant difference between depressed and nondepressed subjects in the employment of more internal, stable and global explanations for bad events.¹

Key words: attribution style, depression, internal consistency, criterion validity.

Introduction

The Attribution Style Questionnaire is one of the three most commonly used methods for assessing explanatory style (Reivich, 1995). It measures the degree to which a person tends to explain events with internal, stable and global reasons (Peterson, Semmel, Baeyer, Abramson, Metalsky & Seligman, 1982). It was developed to investigate the prediction of the reformulated learned helplessness model of depression that people who tend to explain bad events using internal, stable and global reasons will be more prone to depression than those who offer external, unstable specific explanations for these events (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978, Seligman, Abramson, Semmel & von Baeyer, 1979). Much research on depression utilizing an attributional style viewpoint and the ASQ has been conducted (Peterson & Seligman, 1984; Sweney, Anderson & Bailey 1986 for review) and meta-analysis con-

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firms the relationship between explanations of negative outcomes employing internal, stable and global causes and depression (Sweeney et al., 1986). The expected inverse relationship between a similar pattern of explanation for positive events and depression has also been demonstrated, but is not so widely documented as with negative events (Sweeney, Anderson & Bailey, 1986). The Attribution Style Questionnaire is a reliable, valid and convenient measure for assessing ways of explaining events across various domains, in particular depression and achievement (Tennen & Herzberger 1986; Reivich 1995).

The purpose of our study is to investigate the reliability and validity of the Lithuanian version of the ASQ, comparing clinically depressed with non-depressed subjects. Research hypotheses are:

1. Clinically depressed participants will explain hypothetical negative events with more internal, stable and global causes than non-depressed.
2. Clinically depressed participants will explain hypothetical positive events with more external, unstable and specific causes than non-depressed.

Method

Participants

A total of 96 people were recruited to participate in a postgraduate study examining the relationship between the cognitive style of field independence-dependence (Witkin et al 1981) and depression. As part of this project, the ASQ and BDI responses from two independent samples of Lithuanian participants were collected. Participants in the experimental group ($n = 43$; mean age = 38.1 years; range: 16 to 67 years) and control non-depressed group ($n = 53$; mean age = 39.5 years; range: 18 to 67 years) were drawn from Mental Health Centers and Labor Exchange Training Units and schools respectively. The groups were matched by age, sex, and education level. To be included in the experimental group, participants were required to have received a diagnosis of depressive episodes according to ICD 10 (The ICD-10, 1992). Exclusion criteria were any of the following: bipolar disorder, comorbidity of psychotic symptoms or organic disorder. The depressed patients scored $M_c = 25.24$ $SD_c = 12.16$ on the BDI. Participants from the control group - $M_c = 13.4$ $SD_c = 9.45$. The experimental group, with a diagnosis of clinical depression, scored significantly higher than the control group on the BDI, $t(92) = 5.31$; $p < 0.01$. The 95% confidence interval of the difference was 7.41-16.26.

Procedure

Together with other instruments the ASQ and BDI were administered to participants from the experimental group during individual interviews, and in small groups of 5 -10 to participants from the control group. All sessions lasted approximately 40-60 min and were carried out by the same researcher. Participants had been provided with a brief explanation of the aims of the study and the rights of participants. Written consent was obtained from the students.

Instruments

The ASQ is a self-report instrument that yields scores for the explanatory style of bad and good events using three causal dimensions: internal versus external, stable versus unstable, and global versus specific causes. The ASQ presents 12 hypothetical events, half of them good and half bad, and the test taker is asked to write down the one major cause of each event and then rate the cause along a 7-point continuum for each of the three causal dimensions. The ASQ scores comprising the present data were based on a Lithuanian translation of the original instrument, which we refer to henceforth as the ASQ-L. Following independent translations of the ASQ-L by two psychologists, all items were subsequently reviewed by a panel of experts. For good events, a score of 1 is the lowest or worst possible score, whereas a score of 7 is the highest, or best possible score. Conversely, for bad events a score of 1 is the highest, or best possible score, and a score of 7 is the lowest, or worst possible score. Because of the reverse order of scoring for good and bad situations, scores for good events must be separated from scores for bad events. Composite scores, composite positive (CoPos) and composite negative (CoNeg), were calculated by summing the positive and then the negative scores on the three dimensions of attributional style. The composite positive minus composite negative (CPCN) was computed by subtracting the composite negative (CoNeg) scores from the composite positive (CoPos).

The BDI is a 21-item scale that identifies symptoms related to cognitive, behavioral, affective, and somatic components of depression. It is used as a self-report measure (Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock & Erbaugh 1961). Each item comprises four statements rated from 0 to 3 in terms of intensity; high scores represent a more intense depression. The measure showed a very good reliability of $\alpha = .82$ (Yin & Fan, 2000) and may be considered a valid measure of depression symptoms. The Lithuanian version of the Beck Depression Inventory, BDI-L, showed good concurrent validity when clinically depressed participants ($n=40$), having a BDI average score of 24, were compared with the members of a nondepressed control group ($n=40$), who obtained a BDI average of 9 (Domanskiene, 1991). In our study the BDI-L showed very high internal consistency ($n=85$) $\alpha = .907$.

The structure of the Attribution Style Questionnaire is a combination of an open-ended format for items that ask the participant to record the major cause for the event, and a fixed format for rating the dimensions on a continuum from 1 to 7. During the administration of data collection we noticed that some participants had difficulty with this format of the ASQ-L, and so we decided to compare ratings of test takers with those of expert raters. If the interrater agreement indicated by a correlation is high, this means that naïve test takers' and questionnaire constructors' understanding of internality, stability and globality does not differ, a finding that would support the construct validity of the ASQ-L.

For this purpose, we employed the procedure described by Schulman et al., (1989). We selected at random 27 ASQ protocols. Each hypothetical event and the cause that the test taker wrote down was extracted from the protocol, typed out, randomized with the events and explanations of the subjects and given to three raters, who did not know who the participants were and what their depression score was. The

raters analyzed the cause written by the test taker for each event using "The Guidelines for Extraction and Rating Spontaneous Explanations" (Schulman et al. 1989). All expert raters were literate in English, so that they could fully understand the guidelines (Schulman et al, 1989).

We included the participants' ASQ and raters' scores only if subjects responded to every question on the questionnaire and also wrote explanations. For this reason the number of protocols analyzed was less than 27.

Results

Reliability

Internal Consistency

Internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha) for internality, stability, globality and composite scores (Table 1) are modest and comparable to relevant estimates mentioned by Tennen and Herzberger (1986) and Sweeney et al. (1986).

*Table 1. Internal consistency scores (Cronbach's alpha (α) for internality, stability, globality between good and bad outcomes**

	<i>Internality</i>	<i>Stability</i>	<i>Globality</i>	<i>Composite</i>
Positive outcomes (n)	.40 (84)	.44 (84)	.46 (83)	.58 (81)
Negative outcomes (n)	.38 (83)	.58 (83)	.56 (84)	.69 (80)

* All scores are significant at .01 level.

Our study also confirms that the internal consistency for composite scores is higher than for individual dimensions (Tennen & Herzberger, 1986) (Table1).

Consistency across valence

Peterson et al. (1982) found that the attribution composite positive scores versus composite negative scores are unrelated to each other ($r = .02$; $n = 130$), but Schulman, Castellon and Seligman (1989) on the other hand, found a small, significant negative correlation between those two indices ($r = -.24$; $n = 160$). When we estimated the relationship between composite negative and positive scores, it appeared to be surprisingly high ($r = .53$; $p < .01$; $n = 93$). This shows a rigid pattern of explaining events, whether positive or negative, or a rigid pattern of filling in the questionnaire. To test this explanation we compared composite negative and composite positive scores separately for the depressed participants and the nondepressed control group. Strikingly, controls scored an even higher correlation between the positive and negative events explanation ($r_c = .67$; $p < .01$) and the same calculations for depressed patients yielded non-significant estimates ($r_d = .35$; $p > .05$). This may have happened because in interviewing depressed patients individually we obtained more accurate scores than when we worked in groups with participants in the control group. Some of them may have lacked motivation to fill out

the questionnaires and thus have provided invalid ratings.

Construct validity

When comparing test takers' ratings of their explanations on the ASQ-L with raters' ratings of those same explanations we got similar or better scores than Schulman and his colleagues (1989) (Table 2). In analyzing ratings by individual dimensions we estimated the following scores: for the negative internal dimension $\alpha_{in} = -.81$; stable - $\alpha_{sn} = -.73$ and global - $\alpha_{gn} = -.56$ ($p < .01$); for the positive internal dimension $\alpha_{ip} = -.89$; stable - $\alpha_{sp} = -.68$ and global - $\alpha_{gp} = -.55$. All scores except the global negative are significant when $p < .01$ and n varies from 16 to 22. Comparing our results with those reported by Schulman et al. 1989, it can be seen that in our study we observe a much higher degree of interrater agreement between test takers and raters. This indicates very good construct validity of the ASQ-L, bearing in mind our observations that some test takers were perplexed when they encountered the unusual ASQ-L format.

Table 2. Comparison of test takers and raters interrater agreement scores of Schulman et al. (1989) and our study Keturakis (2001)

Variable	Correlation of ratings by test takers and 3 raters Schulman et al (1989) study N=159	Test takers and 3 raters interrater agreement Lithuanian sample	
		Average Intraclass Correlation* (n)	Confidence interval (95 %)
Composite positive score (CoPos)	.52	.83 (15)	.62 - .94
Composite negative score (CoNeg)	.48	.79 (16)	.55 - .92
CPCN Composite negative minus composite positive	.71	.85 (10)	.59 - .96

*All scores are significant at .01 level.

Criterion validity

Criterion validity is estimated by comparing test scores with one or more criteria known to measure the attribute being examined. We followed the predicted concurrent validity according to the reformulated model in the domain of depression. We compared attributional styles of clinically depressed and non-depressed controls. We also related symptoms of depression measured by the BDI with explanatory style.

It would be expected that people who are depressed would use internal, stable and global explanations for bad events more frequently than non-depressed persons. Comparing the composite negative attributional style scores (CoNeg) between groups (Table 3) we can observe that the depressed participants obtained higher scores on CoNeg than the non-depressed. This difference is significant, $t(92)=2.4$, $p < .05$. The ASQ-L scores are in accordance with the predictions of learned helplessness model in the domain of depression.

Table 3. Composite attribution style scores comparison between depressed and nondepressed subjects

	Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
CPCN	Depressed	41	1.79	3.30
	Controls	52	2.36	3.01
CoNeg*	Depressed	42	12.96	3.23
	Controls	52	11.34	3.26
CoPos	Depressed	42	14.71	3.18
	Controls	52	13.70	3.96

* Means differ significantly between groups at .05 level.

Two other composite scores that would be expected to differ between the groups actually failed to do so in our study (Table 3).

The individual scales' analysis (Table 4) comparison between depressed patients and nondepressed participants revealed that only global ratings differed between them for negative outcomes when $p < .01$. This means that the depressed patients were prone to explain negative events with general causes. We can say they see those causes as influencing their overall life. Put another way, they tend to generalize causes for negative events.

Table 4. Individual dimensions of attributional style compared between depressed and non-depressed subjects

	Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Internal Negative	Depressed	41	5.07	1.04
	Controls	42	4.74	1.00
Stable negative	Depressed	40	3.92	1.01
	Controls	43	4.19	0.88
Global negative*	Depressed	41	4.32	1.13
	Controls	43	3.43	1.09
Internal positive	Depressed	41	5.02	1.10
	Controls	43	5.34	0.75
Stable positive	Depressed	41	4.92	0.84
	Controls	43	5.07	0.75
Global positive	Depressed	41	5.12	0.96
	Controls	42	4.73	1.03

* Means differ significantly between groups at .01 level.

Exploring the relationship between symptoms of depression and the explanatory style, we found that composite negative scores correlated with BDI scores when Spearman's rho was .36 ($p < .01$), and the composite positive minus negative score (CPCN) correlated inversely with BDI - .28; $p < .01$. This corresponds with other data in the original ASQ estimates (Peterson & Seligman 1984). The composite positive score was not related to depression symptoms. The individual dimension analysis revealed significant relationships between depression symptoms measured by BDI and internal negative ($r = .25$ $p < .05$), stable negative ($r = .22$, $p = .05$) and global negative ($r = .41$ $p < .01$) estimates. This is similar to what Peterson, Bettes and Seligman

(1985) reported. Correlations of individual dimensions with positive events range from -.13 to .11 and were not significant. In their study, Peterson et al (1985) noted an inverse relationship between individual dimensions of attributions for good events and depression.

Discussion

The Lithuanian translation of the Attribution Style Questionnaire is a reliable instrument for observing individual ways of explaining good and bad events. A significant positive correlation between the ASQ-L scores for positive and negative outcomes contrasts with the data for the original ASQ (Peterson et al 1982; Schulman et al 1989) and possibly reflects the inconsistent behavior of unmotivated participants when they filled out the questionnaire, something that threatens the reliability of the scale. In future research with the ASQ-L the correlation of composite scores between positive and negative events needs to be attended to and reported.

1. The explanatory style of internality, stability and globality for negative events was related to clinical depression as well as to symptoms of depression measured by the self-report questionnaire. Consequently, we can claim that the translated version of the ASQ has good criterion validity.

2. The explanatory style of externality, instability and specificity for positive events was not related to clinical depression or to the severity of symptoms of depression. The meta-analysis of attribution style in depression revealed that effect sizes for positive outcomes' relations to depression were smaller than the corresponding effects for negative outcomes (Sweeney et al. 1989). In our view this results from the small sample size.²

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Dimensionality of Pay Satisfaction in Latvia: Exploring Structure

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The aim of the study was to test whether structure of pay satisfaction in Latvia is multidimensional and to determine whether it is stable across distinct samples with different pay practices. As yet there is little evidence on how universal is the multidimensional structure of pay satisfaction in most studies having been conducted in North America. Pay satisfaction was measured by Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) developed by Heneman and Schwab. Two samples were used. One sample consisted of 481 employees working in banks, mainly as tellers and account managers. The other sample consisted of 666 employees working in schools, mainly teachers. Also a combined sample of the mentioned groups was used in several analyses. Exploratory Factor analysis was the main method for exploring concept structure. In addition, qualitative analysis was performed to identify availability of attitudes toward pay. Results confirmed the previously obtained dimensions of pay satisfaction for only one sample. Thus, the results suggest that the dimensions of pay satisfaction vary with pay practices. Complementary items to the original PSQ helped to discover additional dimensions of pay satisfaction and led to question the construct validity of pay satisfaction. The study has implications for adaptation of PSQ outside of North America and should stimulate further research on pay satisfaction in Europe and eventually contribute to developing universally valid work motivation models.¹

Key words: pay satisfaction.

One of the most significant outcomes of work is the reward people receive. The reward can be almost anything an employee values and wants to receive for his/her work from what an employer is willing and able to give (Cascio, 1995). Reward perceived more narrowly consists of components that can be transformed into financial terms (Milko-vich & Newman, 1990) and is called compensation or pay. Traditionally, compensation consists of (a) base pay; (2) bonuses, incentives (variable pay); (3) benefits; and (4) allowances (Ezera, 2001; Cascio, 1995; Armstrong, 1997, 2000:570). To broaden the concept of reward, one can add nonfinancial components such as interesting work,

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challenging tasks, opportunities to develop competence, good social environment, excellent company image, and work recognition (Armstrong & Murlis 1994).

Regardless of how perfectly a reward system is designed in a particular organization, it is a subject of social cognition processes. How a person perceives reward system or work outcome is largely based on values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations and attitudes. Since a reward system consists of many different components, there most likely will be separate if not different attitudes towards each of the components. This rises the question of reward structure and dimensions.

For the purposes of this study, only the financial part of a reward system will be explored. Pay satisfaction broadly defined is an attitude (Miceli, & Lane, 1991; p. 238). If pay is to be included in a definition of attitude, pay satisfaction would be regarded as an evaluative judgment to rate pay positively or negatively. Pay satisfaction as an attitude in a broader sense has affective, cognitive and behavioral dimensions. It is rather unstable, and is subject to change with actual pay practices in a given organization.

Research on pay related issues began with scientific management proposed by Frederick Taylor. During the 1930's research on pay was focused on psychological aspects in the context of motivation theories. Systematic research on pay satisfaction was initiated in the 1960's when Edward Lawler integrated discrepancy theory with equity theory (Lawler, 1971; Weiner, 1980;p.742).

Pay satisfaction is defined in discrepancy theory as the difference between expected and received pay, in absolute (Katzell, 1965) or perceived terms (Locke, 1968). Typical measures of pay satisfaction in that period were based on the difference between expected and received pay (Lawler, 1971;p.208; in Porter, 1961). Similarly, Lawler defined pay satisfaction as "the discrepancy between (a) perceived amount of actual pay and (2) perceived amount of pay, which should be received "(Lawler, 1971;p.214). A person thus would be dissatisfied with pay if there is less pay received for the work done than what should be received. On the other hand if a person receives more than he/she should receive, guilt and discomfort will be felt. Lee Dyer and Roland Theriault (1976;p.602) modified the model of Lawler by proposing that pay satisfaction is a function of perceived pay equity and perceived adequacy of pay administration.

Weiner (1980) proposed to return to the earlier Dyer and Theriault's approach, with one important modification which allowed avoiding different interpretation of constant amount of pay (e.g. a pay increase of 50 USD will be interpreted differently by a person who receives a salary of 400 USD and a person receiving 2000 USD). Weiner (1980;p.743) defined pay satisfaction as "discrepancy between (a) perceived actual pay and (b) perceived pay that should be received (c) relative to pay in absolute terms". Therefore, relative equitable pay is the perceived pay that should be received minus perceived actual pay divided by perceived actual pay.

Miceli and Lane (1991) concluded that pay satisfaction is not adequately defined because in most definitions causes of pay satisfaction are described rather than explained. They named several problems with defining pay satisfaction. First, there is challenge of interpreting what pay is. It can be influenced by pay history and traditions. Pay can be perceived as base pay only or it may include bonuses and benefits.

Second, there is a lack of focus on affective dimension of pay satisfaction. Third, there is no clear relationship between job satisfaction and pay satisfaction. Fourth, not enough evidence has been gathered on pay satisfaction structure. Miceli and Lane (1991;p.246) propose to define pay satisfaction as “the sum of overall positive or negative feelings about pay”.

Initially, pay satisfaction was measured as one-dimensional concept (Shaw, 1999; Judge & Welbourne, 1994; Heneman & Schwab, 1985). Among the most popular measure of exploring pay satisfaction were the Minnesota Satisfaction Inventory (Weiss et al., 1967) and the Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al, 1969). Both methods were developed to investigate job satisfaction along several dimensions, including pay satisfaction. Despite the potential of these methods for grouping items into two or three categories (e.g. pay amount, comparison, administration) (Weiner, 1980), those categories tended to be collapsed into a single overall pay satisfaction scale (Heneman & Schwab, 1985;p.130).

A different approach was suggested by Heneman and Schwab (1985). They provided evidence that pay satisfaction is a multidimensional concept consisting of 4 independent dimensions: (a) satisfaction with pay level; (b) satisfaction with benefits; (c) satisfaction with pay rises; and (d) satisfaction with pay structure and administration. In an earlier discussion authors proposed five factors by separating pay structure from pay administration, but confirmatory factor analysis rejected this proposition. The main reason for proposing multidimensional approach was the expectation that a person may have a different attitude towards different aspects of pay, and thus traditional methods measuring pay satisfaction would not be able to reveal multidimensional nature of the concept.

Heneman and Schwab in the remarkable article sparked numerous research projects that were designed to explore pay satisfaction structure. Results were contradictory. Among the first who doubted stability of pay satisfaction structure were Scarpello, Huber and Vandenberg (1988). They found that the only valid scales were these of pay level and benefits. Except for the pay level scale, the other scales highly correlated. To determine factor structure, authors used the same method as Heneman and Schwab. A three-factor solution was found. It was concluded that pay satisfaction structure systematically changes depending on pay system practices of a given organization. Several researchers who discovered three, four and five factors solution supported this conclusion. Carraher (1991) presented evidence for a three-factor solution, adding that orthogonal factor extraction method is irrelevant since pay satisfaction dimensions cannot be independent of each other. Findings of other authors (e.g. Mulvey, Miceli, Near, 1992), who used confirmatory instead of exploratory factor analysis, did not yield support for three, four or five factor solutions. However, they shared that a four or five factor solution fits empirical data somewhat better, suggesting a return to the original version of pay satisfaction dimensions proposed by Heneman and Schwab.

Strong support for the original four factor approach was provided by Judge and Welbourne (1994) who concluded that the four-factor model is (a) reliable; (b) supported by empirical evidence; and (c) valid independently of high factor correlation.

Since most of the studies on pay satisfaction as well as job satisfaction were car-

ried out in North America, there is not enough evidence on how universal multidimensional structure of pay satisfaction is. Therefore, it is important to replicate pay satisfaction studies in other cultures by exploring its internal structure. The aim of this study is to test whether structure of pay satisfaction in Latvia is multidimensional and to determine whether it is stable across samples with different pay practices.

An additional reason for exploring pay satisfaction structure is the growing number of cross-cultural studies designed to develop complex work motivation models, with pay related attitudes often included as a variable (see Li-Ping Tang et al, 2000; Roe et al, 2000; Kalleberg & Rognes, 2000; Lum et al, 1998; Dulebehn, 1998).

Method

Sample and procedure

Two samples were chosen, employees of banks and schools. One of the main reasons for choosing these groups was that there are different pay practices in banks and schools, which can be described by the following criteria - pay administration, setting pay levels, compensation package, and pay rises. In banks pay is administered by human resource or financial department in relation to each bank's strategic objectives. In schools pay is administered centrally by Ministry of Education and Science and Teachers Trade Union in relation to the State budget. In banks there are human resource management professionals who try to follow contemporary compensation practices developed in United States and Europe. This would not be the case with schools. In banks pay levels are mainly set according to competitive market rates for well described jobs. In schools pay levels are based on state budget and are provided for 1 full time job, irrespective of the fact that many teachers work "2 full time workloads". In banks there are more complex compensation packages including different bonuses and wide range of benefits. This is hardly the case in schools. In banks there are annual pay reviews related to performance of the bank as well as unit and individual reviews. In schools pay rises are determined irregularly by the responsible Ministry, and sometimes even as a result of a general strike. Thus pay practices in schools and banks can be considered different from the perspective of Human Resource Management.

Both samples were selected at random. First, eight cities were selected, and then schools or branches of banks. The total number of questionnaires was 1171. There were 481 (41.9%) banks employees, 666 (58.1%) schools employees. A total of 452 (39.4%) participants were from the capital Riga, and 695 (60.6%) from other cities. There were 165 (14.4%) men and 975 (85%) women. In terms of age there were 132 (11.5%) persons under 25, 333 (29.0%) from 25-35, 341 (29.7%), from 35-45, 217 (18.9%) from 45-55, and 122 (10.6%) 55 years old or older. A total of 806 (70.3%) of participants had Bachelor or Master degrees. Latvian was the native language of 972 (84.7%) participants.

The sample of bank employees mainly consisted of tellers and managers, 239 (49.7 %) of them were from Riga, 242 (50.3 %) from other cities. There were 109 (22.7 %) men, and 371 (77, 1%) women. There were 94(19.5%) participants under

25, 186 (38, 7%) from 25-35, 119 (24.7%) from 35-45, 67 (13.9%) were from 45-55, 15 (3.1%) were 55 and older. 203 (42.2%) participants had bachelor programs in progress, and 220 (45.7%) had Bachelor or Master degrees.

The sample of school employees consisted mainly of teachers and principals. 213 (32%) of them were from Riga, and 453 (68%) from other cities; 56 (8.4%) were men and 604 (90, 7%) women; 38 (5.7%) were under 25, 147 (22.1%) from 25-35, 222 (33.3%) were from 35-45, 150 (22.5%) were from 45-55, 107 (16.1%) were 55 and older. 586 (88.0%) had a Bachelor or Master degrees.

All questionnaires were distributed to the 76 groups (46 branches of banks and 30 schools) of study participants who filled them out in groups under supervision of a researcher. The response rate was higher than 95%.

Measures

Pay satisfaction was measured with a questionnaire developed by Heneman and Schwab (1985). It consisted of 18 original questions, which were divided into four pay satisfaction dimensions: (a) satisfaction with pay level; (b) satisfaction with benefits; (c) satisfaction with pay raises; and (d) satisfaction with pay structure and administration. Participants evaluated each item on a 5 point Likert type scale where "1" was "very dissatisfied", "2" "dissatisfied", "3" "neither satisfied not dissatisfied", "4" "satisfied", "5" "very satisfied".

The questionnaire was adapted into Latvian by using international recommendations (Vijver & Poortinga, 1991); 12 items were added to provide similar items for adaptation purposes if needed. These added items were created for four original pay satisfaction dimensions and an additional one - for satisfaction with bonuses. All original items in English were translated into Latvian by four different translators, who compared their versions after the translations was completed, discussed them and created one version for translation back into English. Different translators performed the back translation. Then both versions were compared and discussed until the panel of experts agreed on the final version. The method was slightly modified by adding the answer option to "do not know", which is assumed to be crucial in cultures or organizations with different pay practices.

Results

Availability of attitudes

Before exploring pay satisfaction structure, analyses were performed to establish the presence of attitudes on specific issues of pay practices. As expected, in both samples, a large number of "don't know" responses was related to pay administration and benefits (see Table 1).

Responses to all items were normally distributed with a slight positive skew, meaning that respondents tended more to be dissatisfied than satisfied with their pay. In both samples, the mean of all items ranged from 1.88 to 3.29 (see Table 2), and standard deviation, from 0.80 to 1.13. The number of cases with no missing values in the

sample of banks' employees were 113(25%), and 180(27%) in the sample of schools' employees.

Table 1. Analysis of "do not know" Responses to the Extended Heneman and Schwab Pay

Items	Banks		Schools	
	N	Percentage	N	Percentage
Level of rumors in the company ^{AB}	228	48.4	275	42.5
Pay of other jobs in the company ^B	217	45.5	277	43.2
How the company administers pay ^B	186	39.3	204	31.2
Differences in pay among jobs in the company ^B	179	37.9	224	34.0
Criteria determining pay level ^{ABC}	157	33.3	51	7.8
Amount spent for benefits ^{BC}	151	31.9	299	45.7
The way how pay increase is determined ^{BC}	141	30.0	97	14.7
Consequence in pay practices ^B	137	29.3	147	22.7
How management accounts for external pay references ^{AB}	127	27.0	194	29.7
Equity of pay system ^{AB}	125	26.3	131	19.9
Overall pay system of the company ^{ABC}	116	24.4	59	9.0
The company's pay structure ^B	107	22.7	99	15.2
Influence my supervisor has on my pay ^B	95	20.4	106	16.3
The value of my benefits ^B	74	15.6	146	22.4
My pay level comparing to the market level ^A	72	15.2	56	8.5
Bonus system of the company ^A	68	14.3	69	10.5
Rises I have typically received in the past	64	13.6	51	7.8
Size of my bonuses ^A	62	13.2	46	7.0
The number of benefits I receive ^B	57	12.0	123	18.8
My most recent rise	51	10.8	37	5.6
All bonuses granted to me ^A	43	9.1	31	4.7
Information the company gives about pay	38	8.0	19	2.9
My benefits package	23	4.9	48	7.3
Everything I receive for my job ^A	13	2.7	18	2.7
My overall level of pay	10	2.1	8	1.2
My overall compensation ^A	8	1.7	3	0.5
Compensation compared to my job tasks ^A	5	1.1	7	1.1
Size of my current salary	5	1.0	2	0.3
My take-home pay	3	.6	0	0
My current salary	1	.2	2	0.3

^A Added items.

^B More than 15% of respondents did not have any attitude or did not wish to disclose it on a particular subject.

^C More than 10% difference between school and bank employees in number of attitudes expressed toward a particular subject.

Control for systematic differences based on demographic variables

Several tests were performed to identify if there are systematic differences based on gender, age, and affiliation to a bank or a school.

First, One-way Anova for both samples separately was applied to compare means of each item scores of male and female groups. Results indicated that there are no

systematic differences based on gender. Similar procedure was applied to compare means of each item scores of bank and school employees groups. Results indicated that there are systematic differences based on type of organization respondents are working. To eliminate mentioned differences data was standardized for both samples separately. Consequently, factor analysis for the combined sample was processed with Z-scores obtained for the employees of banks and schools.

Table 2. Mean, Standard Deviation and Number of Valid Responses for Items of Heneman and Schwab Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire

Item	Bank employees			School employees		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
My take-home pay ^L	477	2.87	0.92	661	1.88	0.86
My benefit package ^B	449	2.65	1.13	607	2.00	0.98
My most recent rise ^R	423	3.05	1.07	625	2.12	0.96
Influence my supervisor has on my pay ^R	368	3.29	0.90	547	3.28	0.91
My current salary ^L	477	2.97	0.94	659	2.15	0.87
Amount the company pays toward my benefits ^B	321	2.71	1.07	355	2.01	0.93
Rises I have typically received in the past ^R	406	3.07	0.94	604	2.19	0.91
The company's pay structure ^S	365	2.86	0.92	553	2.53	0.97
Information provided by company about pay issues concerning me ^S	437	3.27	0.94	637	3.30	1.05
My overall level of pay ^L	467	3.03	0.90	655	2.14	0.86
The value of my benefits ^B	398	2.79	1.01	505	2.16	0.94
Pay for other jobs in the company ^S	260	3.18	0.80	365	2.43	0.87
Consistency of the company's pay policy ^S	331	2.96	0.83	501	2.99	0.96
Size of my current salary ^L	476	2.96	0.92	659	2.09	0.86
The number of benefits I receive ^B	416	2.56	0.99	531	2.11	0.90
How my rises are determined ^R	329	2.90	0.88	563	2.65	1.00
Differences in pay among jobs in the company ^S	294	2.73	0.87	435	2.61	0.86
How the company administers pay ^S	287	2.98	0.86	449	2.89	0.95
N of cases with no missing values	113			180		

L - Satisfaction with pay level;

B - Satisfaction with benefits;

R - Satisfaction with pay rises;

S - Satisfaction with pay administration/structure.

Second, after index of pay satisfaction was calculated based on results obtained in factor analysis, correlation analysis was performed to cross check impact of age and gender variables on Pay Satisfaction. Neither age nor gender correlated significantly with pay satisfaction in both samples. Age and pay satisfaction in banks correlated .086, and in schools correlated .030. Gender and pay satisfaction in banks correlated .009, and in schools correlated -.018.

Pay Satisfaction Structure for Bank Employees

Principal Components method with *Varimax* rotation was chosen for factor extraction. The number of factors was not defined prior to analysis. A four factor solution

was obtained that corresponds to the original PSQ structure developed by Heneman and Schwab (see Table 3). Criteria for using an item to define a factor was the highest factor loading as well as an item's semantic meaning according to the expected structure of the construct. In the case of item's fair (.450) and poor (.320) loading on one or two other factors (Comrey & Lee, 1992), the decision was taken to exclude an item from calculation due to poor interpretation opportunities. 16 out of 18 items clearly indicating four underlying dimensions of Pay Satisfaction, and providing the ground for calculating indexes: satisfaction with pay (F1, $\alpha=.94$), satisfaction with benefits (F2, $\alpha=.92$), satisfaction with pay administration (F3, $\alpha=.82$), and satisfaction with pay raises (F4, $\alpha=.68$). Satisfaction with pay accounted for 42.9% of variance of all items. Communalities for this dimension were also the highest (from .797 to .891). Satisfaction with benefits had factor loadings and communalities ranging from .752 to .831. This factor had power to explain 11% of variance of all items. Satisfaction with pay administration had relatively high factor loadings (from .794 to .579), but smaller communalities (from .716 to .588). This factor had power to explain 9% of variance. Fourth dimension (pay rises) had relatively small factor loadings (from .733 to .463), but smaller communalities (from .649 to .366). This factor had power to explain only 6% of variance.

Table 3. *Four Factors Solution*, Including Eigenvalues, Communalities and Reliability Coefficients of Heneman un Schwab Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire for bank employees*

Items	Bank employees, N=260-477				
	h^2	F1	F2	F3	F4
Size of my current salary	.891	.887	.189	.159	.207
My current salary	.890	.883	.153	.177	.238
My take-home pay	.803	.850	.166	.145	.178
My overall level of pay	.797	.804	.265	.220	.180
The value of my benefits	.831	.229	.850	.214	.103
Amount the company pays toward my benefits	.821	.142	.846	.232	.174
My benefits package	.763	.202	.820	.192	.110
The number of benefits I receive	.752	.164	.810	.131	.227
Differences in pay among jobs in the company	.716	.146	.098	.794	.235
How the company administers pay	.693	.184	.151	.783	.150
Consistency of the company's pay policy	.682	.216	.252	.734	.185
The company's pay structure	.641	.304	.166	.638	.338
Pay for other jobs in the company	.588	-.053	.252	.579	-.432
How my rises are determined	.607	.203	.281	.515	.471
My most recent rise	.649	.290	.122	.109	.733
Influence my supervisor has on my pay	.551	.233	.134	.223	.655
Rises I have typically received in the past	.366	.193	.308	.138	.463
Information provided by company about pay issues concerning me	.403	.047	.233	.367	.460
Eigenvalues for unrotated solution	-	7.7	1.9	1.6	1.1
Variance explained prior to rotation (%)	-	42.9	10.9	8.9	6.3
Cronbachs α reliability coefficients**	-	.94	.92	.82	.68

* Extraction method: undefined factor number, principal components, Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization.

**Coefficients were calculated only for underlined items.

Pay Satisfaction Structure for School Employees

Principal Components method with *Varimax* rotation was again chosen for factor extraction. Factor number prior to analysis was not defined. A three factor solution was obtained which deviated from the original PSQ structure developed by Heneman and Schwab (see Table 4). Criteria for using an item to define a factor was the same as described for the sample of bank employees. 13 out of 18 items corresponded to expected underlying dimensions of Pay Satisfaction. Items pertaining to satisfaction with pay raises appeared in dimensions of satisfaction with benefits and satisfaction with pay administration.

It is interesting that in the sample of school employees of satisfaction with benefits (F1, $\alpha=.86$) explains more variance (41%) than satisfaction with pay (F3, $\alpha=.92$, 7%) contrary to the bank employees sample. Satisfaction with pay administration (F2, $\alpha=.79$) explained 13% of total variance. Satisfaction with pay had higher communalities ranging from .857 to .785, and factor loadings from .866 to .776. Satisfaction with benefits had communalities ranging from .709 to .519, and factor loadings from .815 to .644. Satisfaction with pay administration had communalities ranging from .729 to .477, and factor loadings from .834 to .685.

Compared to the other sample, the same items were loading only in two dimensions - satisfaction with pay and benefits.

Table 4. *Three Factors Solution, Including Eigenvalues, Communalities and Reliability Coefficients of Heneman un Schwab Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire for School Employees*

<i>Items</i>	<i>School employees, N=355-661</i>			
	<i>h²</i>	<i>F1</i>	<i>F2</i>	<i>F3</i>
Amount the company pays toward my benefits	.709	.815	.179	.111
The value of my benefits	.697	.770	.187	.262
The number of benefits I receive	.647	.730	.225	.251
My benefits package	.519	.644	.209	.246
Rises I have typically received in the past	.521	.600	.144	.374
My most recent rise	.492	.555	.169	.394
Pay of other jobs in the company	.307	.522	.143	.115
How the company administers pay	.729	.139	.834	.118
Consistency of the company's pay policy	.643	.151	.784	.075
Influence my supervisor has on my pay	.536	.189	.705	.058
Information provided by company about pay issues concerning me	.477	.002	.687	.069
How my rises are determined	.600	.329	.685	.154
Differences in pay among jobs in the company	.419	.227	.596	.109
The company's pay structure	.473	.289	.555	.285
My current salary	.857	.286	.159	.866
My take-home pay	.738	.161	.105	.837
Size of my current salary	.806	.322	.141	.826
My overall level of pay	.785	.393	.172	.776
Eigenvalues for unrotated solution	-	7.4	2.3	1.3
Variance explained prior to rotation (%)	-	41.1	12.8	6.9
Cronbaha reliability coefficients**	-	.86	.79	.92

*Extraction method: undefined factor number, principal components, Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization.

**Coefficients were calculated only for underlined items.

Pay Satisfaction Structure for Combined Sample with Additional Items

The last analysis performed on pay satisfaction structure was exploratory factor analysis with *Varimax* rotation for the combined sample and with 12 items added to the questionnaire. These items were intended to form an additional dimension referring to satisfaction with bonuses, and to add some items to the original dimensions in order to obtain better concept structure. Factor number was not defined prior to analysis. A five factor solution was obtained (see Table 5).

Table 5. Five Factors Solution*, Including Eigenvalues, Communalities and Reliability Coefficients for The Expanded Heneman and Schwab Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire for The Combined Sample

Item	Joint sample, N=1148					
	h^2	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Size of my current salary	.853	.880	.148	.190	.124	.076
My current salary	.818	.859	.159	.205	.085	.072
My take-home pay	.700	.811	.123	.146	.059	.051
My overall compensation ^A	.778	.801	.176	.196	.208	.155
My overall level of pay	.766	.792	.158	.283	.143	.115
Compensation comparing to my job tasks ^A	.599	.631	.257	.190	.230	.214
My pay level comparing to the market level ^A	.412	.444	.136	.071	.050	.435
My most recent rise	.446	.443	.312	.376	.077	-.064
How the company administers pay	.673	.130	.723	.086	.221	.279
Influence my supervisor has on my pay	.602	.175	.704	.195	.120	-.154
Consistency of the company's pay policy	.606	.125	.688	.162	.149	.262
Information the company provides on pay issues	.448	.069	.649	.133	.072	.003
How my rises are determined	.601	.205	.643	.268	.245	.116
Criteria determining pay level ^A	.580	.337	.575	.074	.224	.283
Equity of pay system ^A	.624	.188	.564	.054	.339	.392
The company's pay structure	.545	.319	.558	.186	.083	.301
Differences in pay among jobs in the company	.563	.138	.547	.131	.032	.476
The value of my benefits	.754	.265	.165	.767	.178	.192
Amount the company pays toward my benefits	.738	.173	.193	.760	.188	.240
The number of benefits I receive	.697	.255	.173	.733	.213	.141
My benefits package	.651	.224	.183	.727	.177	.085
Rises I have typically received in the past	.426	.368	.211	.476	.141	-.017
All bonuses granted me ^A	.832	.206	.190	.301	.807	.107
Size of my bonuses ^A	.840	.235	.222	.290	.801	.098
Bonus system of the company ^A	.785	.105	.400	.182	.747	.153
Everything I receive for my job ^A	.535	.378	.279	.311	.401	.237
Level of rumors in the company ^A	.458	-.006	.169	.041	.074	.650
Pay of other jobs in the company	.426	.050	.004	.349	.033	.548
Overall pay system of the company ^A	.544	.356	.218	.134	.300	.511
How management accounts external pay references ^A	.542	.253	.424	.108	.239	.480
Eigenvalues for unrotated solution	-	12.2	2.5	1.7	1.2	1.1
Variance explained prior to rotation (%)	-	40.5	8.5	5.8	4.1	3.8
Sample size if index calculated ^B	-	1090	542	602	928	391
Cronbach's α reliability coefficients ^B	-	.94	.83	.89	.90	.50

* Extraction method: undefined factor number, principal components, Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization.

^a *Complemented items*

^b *Coefficients were calculated only for underlined items.*

Criteria for using an item to define a factor was the same as described for the sample of banks. F1 corresponded satisfaction with pay, that explains 40.5% of total variance ($\alpha=.94$), F2 corresponded to satisfaction with pay administration, including one item from satisfaction with pay rise; it explained 8.5% of total variance ($\alpha=.83$); F3 corresponded to satisfaction with benefits, and explained 5.8% of total variance ($\alpha=.89$). F4 corresponded to satisfaction with bonuses, and explained 4.1% of total variance ($\alpha=.90$), while F5 consisted of 3 items corresponding to satisfaction with internal pay equity (rumors about pay, pay in other jobs, and overall pay system of the company), that explained 3.8% of total variance ($\alpha=.50$). Excluding F5, communalities and factor loadings were quite high for all four of the remaining factors. Satisfaction with pay had communalities ranging from .853 to .700, and factor loadings ranging from .880 to .792. Satisfaction with pay administration had communalities ranging from .673 to .448, and factor loadings ranging from .723 to .643. Satisfaction with benefits had communalities ranging from .754 to .651, and factor loadings ranging from .767 to .727. Satisfaction with bonuses had communalities ranging from .832 to .785, and factor loadings ranging from .807 to .747. Satisfaction with pay equity had communalities ranging from .544 to .426, and factor loadings from .650 to .511.

Factor analysis results suggested that samples be separated and that additional calculations be conducted for complementary dimensions of satisfaction with pay. Added item required expression of an attitude toward overall compensation, and clearly made this dimension broader as well as purified factor loadings and reliability of the scale. Satisfaction with pay (overall compensation) of school employees had reliability of .93. A similar level of reliability (.95) was attained for bank employees. In both samples, the extended complemented dimension of satisfaction with pay had high factor loadings and communalities ranging from .873 to .809.

Discussion

The present study provides supportive evidence that in the sample of bank employee structure of pay satisfaction measured by PSQ consists of four dimensions. However the original structure of pay satisfaction measured by PSQ was not stable for the samples. For school employees, who experience different compensation practices from bank employees, their structure of pay satisfaction consisted of three dimensions. Pay rise and pay administration dimensions were not differentiated from each other. The same results appeared in the combined sample. The added items to PSQ formed two separate dimensions. As expected, all items related to bonuses formed a distinct dimension. This finding raises the question of whether the original four (or even five, if administration is separated from structure) dimensions represent the complete structure of pay satisfaction. For example, bonuses are an important contribution to total compensation, and might generate distinct attitude toward it. Surprisingly, some evidence was obtained that results of pay administration, like rumors and perceived level of pay of other jobs, might form another dimension. Thus there

could possibly be two attitudes relating to pay administration, one focused on pay administration effort and practices, and the other centered on the current result of pay administration practices. This possibility should be further explored.

A novel feature included in the study is that respondents were provided with an opportunity to give an alternative answer, namely, "do not know". This innovation generated interesting qualitative results in respect to the presence of attitudes. As expected, many participants did not have an attitude toward items of pay administration and benefits. These results can be explained on the basis of company or sector specific pay practices experienced by employees in both samples. The majority of participants probably perceive salary as only one component of their pay even it is not true. Therefore, it is advisable to include in PSQ an opportunity to provide "do not know" to see whether an attitude indeed exist. This would be helpful in these countries where employees perceive salary as their most important compensation component.

Finally, results of the study imply that only one dimension of pay satisfaction has the power to explain variance among surveyed employees, and it is satisfaction with salary. This conclusion is supported by the results of qualitative analysis of "do not know" responses as well as results of factor analysis. The question could be still asked whether attitude toward salary or overall pay could serve better for predicting differences among employees related to pay satisfaction, and for predicting other attitudes in more complex work motivation models. In part, this question arose as a result of reviewing numerous recently developed work motivation models, which, despite the virtual consensus on multidimensional structure of pay satisfaction, still apply one-dimensional (overall) measures of pay satisfaction. It seems that using a one-dimensional structure of pay satisfaction results in glossing over the systematic variability in compensation practices on revealed structure of the concept in different countries and across diverse samples.

However this conclusion about the applicability of one-dimensional structure of pay satisfaction does not suggest that the concept itself does not have multidimensional structure. It does, but there is a clear need to develop better pay satisfaction measuring instruments, which would be more universal and not so dependent on pay practices.

In addition some comments would be appropriate regarding relationships between important demographic variables (age and gender) and pay satisfaction. Several analyses indicated that there were no significant relationships between gender and pay satisfaction. This could be explained by the fact that in the mentioned samples most likely there is pay equity both on objective and perceived level. Results also suggested that there were no significant relationship between age and pay satisfaction in each sample separately. Presumably, it is controversial since people in different career stages have another pay expectations. Results of the study can be explained by the fact that each sample was rather homogenous regarding age pattern. Identification of age differences in relation to pay satisfaction in the combined sample was not intended to be in the focus of the study. However this issue does require further attention in further studies.

There are several limitations in this study. First, the number of samples in the

study is not sufficient for drawing general conclusions about the stability of the concept structure across distinct groups of employees. Second, use of exploratory methods in exploring construct is subject to limitation. Analysis should be repeated with confirmatory methods to test whether the data fit the a priori structure obtained by Heneman and Schwab.

In summary, the study was part of PSQ adaptation in Latvia, and it confirmed the multidimensional structure of pay satisfaction. However, the number of dimensions varied across samples raising the question, whether satisfaction with pay raises could well be an integrate part of satisfaction with pay administration. Thus, the study supports the notion that the concept structure varies together with pay practices. Complementary items to the original questionnaire helped to discover additional dimensions of Pay Satisfaction that led to questioning the construct validity of Pay Satisfaction.

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THEORETICAL ARTICLES

Creativity and innovation: Men's business or women's work?

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Innovation involves the introduction of novelty into a functioning system, for present purposes a system of production, management, sales, and the like. The novelty must lead to devices or procedures that achieve goals or solve problems of the particular system, i.e., it must be relevant and effective. Thus, innovation involves functional creativity. Stereotypes of men and women regard properties associated with innovation (e.g., having many ideas, taking risks, standing up to opposition) as typically male, and thus imply that innovation is men's business. However, successfully introducing novelty requires both "male" and "female" characteristics, so that it is also women's work. This paradox can be understood with the help of a phase model of functional creativity.¹

Key words: creativity, innovation, stereotype, gender.

The essence of creativity is production of novelty - doing something in a new way. Although the term is traditionally used in connection with art, literature, music and similar activities, in recent years the attention of researchers, educators, economists, business and military leaders, and ultimately politicians, has been drawn to creativity's importance as a factor in social progress, economic development and even geopolitical survival. The general argument is easy to summarize: In the face of rapid change societies will stagnate, even perish, unless their leaders in all fields become more creative. Thus, creativity is no longer seen as purely the domain of aesthetes and intellectuals concerned with questions of truth and beauty (as important as these issues may be) but as a pathway to national prosperity and a means for making the nation strong, stable and safe. In the Baltic States the problems are, among other things, economic (e.g., developing the industrial base, combating poverty), biotechnological (e.g., communications and transport, health), environmental (e.g., pollution, deforestation), social (e.g., integration of minorities, ageing of the population,) and political (e.g., achievement of stable and responsible government).

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The importance of products

Adopting a human capital approach a number of recent writers (e.g., Walberg and Stariha, 1992) have given considerable attention to the importance of creative people in business, manufacturing, sales, management, administration, and the like, areas that are markedly different from the more traditional domains associated with creativity such as literature, art, music, or theatre. Creativity is frequently seen nowadays as vital for the growth or even the survival of firms and organisations at a time of globalisation and relentless competition. Although he was writing about engineering creativity, Horenstein (2002) summed up what is needed in a useful way: “devices or systems that *perform tasks or solve problems* [my italics]”. As Burghardt (1995) pointed out, creativity in this sense differs from the kind of creativity that is typical in areas such as fine art. According to him, fine art is “a manifestation of creativity with no *functional* purpose [my italics], only aesthetic purpose”. By contrast, what is needed is “creativity *with a purpose* [my italics]”. The purpose is to design novel products, develop innovative systems for producing them, market them in new ways, and so on. Cropley and Cropley (in press) refer to this as “functional” creativity. Its most important aspect is the novel devices or systems that perform tasks or solve problems, i.e. its *products*. The study of functional creativity thus involves a dimension (the product) that is often neglected in educational and psychological research. I myself and other writers such as Albert (1990) frequently recommended focusing on person and process, because creative products were thought to be too difficult to define.

More recently, however, Cropley and Cropley (in press) defined four key properties of *useful* products, which they refer to as “functional”. Slightly modified for present purposes, these are:

- (a) relevance and effectiveness (the product does what it is supposed to do in a particular context)
- (b) novelty (the product introduces something new)
- (c) beauty (the product is understandable, complete, well finished, and internally harmonious)
- (d) generalizability (the product opens up possibilities in contexts other than the one into which it is being introduced)

Extending Taylor’s (1975) idea of “levels” of creativity, Cropley and Cropley argued that the criteria just listed for defining functionally useful products (products that succeed in performing tasks or solving problems) form a *hierarchy*. The first criterion in the hierarchy is relevance and effectiveness. If a product is simply relevant and effective it is not creative but “routine”. Of course, even if they are not creative routine products can be extremely *useful*, and thus differ from those displaying none of the criteria in the hierarchy, but they lack novelty and are therefore not creative. When a relevant and effective product’s effectiveness is *supplemented* by novelty, it achieves the lowest level of functional creativity, and can be labelled “original”. The further addition of beauty yields an “elegant” product, and effectiveness, novelty and beauty supplemented by generalizability yield “innovative” products. “Original,” “elegant” and “innovative” products can all lay claim to *funcio-*

nal creativity.

Functionally creative products that solve problems can be contrasted with the “merely” aesthetic products of some forms of art, music, literature, and the like, in which the primary focus is on novelty and/or beauty rather than on effectiveness, with the result that practical usefulness (relevance and effectiveness) is missing. Of course, it can be argued that such products display their own form of usefulness, since they solve aesthetic problems such as how to communicate an artist’s sense of wonder. However, this concept of relevance and effectiveness is clearly different from what Horenstein and Burghardt had in mind in their definitions of engineering creativity, or Cropley and Cropley in their discussions of practical, “functional” creativity. The hierarchical organization of the criteria of functional creativity is depicted in Table 1.

Table 1. The hierarchical organization of functional products

Criterion	Kinds of functional (practically useful) products				
	Uncreative		Creative		
	Routine	Original	Elegant	Innovative	Aesthetic
Effectiveness	+	+	+	+	?
Novelty	-	+	+	+	+
Elegance	-	-	+	+	?
Generalizability	-	-	-	+	?

Innovation-introducing novelty into organizations

The achievement of functional creativity in business, manufacturing, marketing, administration, and the like is usually referred to as “innovation”—the deliberate introduction of something new into a functioning system. As King (1992, p. 90) put it, innovation is “... the sequence of activities by which a new element is introduced”. King emphasized that innovation in the sense just outlined involves an *intention* to bring about change, so that innovatory change differs from change that results simply from natural evolution with the passage of time—it is *revolutionary* rather than simply *evolutionary*. Thus, innovation involves a deliberate “challenge to the status quo.” King went on to make a further important point. He argued that the term “innovation” should only be applied to change deliberately introduced with the aim of *benefiting* the system into which it is introduced. From the point of view of the present paper, innovation thus involves the actual insertion of functional creativity into an organization. One example illustrating the benefits it can bring is to be seen in Munroe’s (1995) conclusion that 70% of the cost of a product is determined by its design, so that creative design can lead to substantial cost savings. As a result, in some countries creativity training for employees, especially managers, is becoming widespread (Clapham, 1997; Thakray, 1995). According to the 1995 US Industry Report, corporations in that country are now budgeting billions of US Dollars for creativity training programs, and demand for training is outstripping the supply of trainers (Hequet, 1995).

From an or organizational psychology point of view, innovation can readily be

understood with the help of Sternberg's (1999) concept of "propelling" a field, although he was referring to creativity. This can involve:

1. *conceptual replication* (generalizing the known);
2. *redefinition* (seeing the known in a new way);
3. *forward incrementation* (extending the known in an existing direction);
4. *advance forward incrementation* (extending the known in an existing direction but going beyond what is currently tolerable);
5. *redirection* (extending the known in a new direction);
6. *reconstruction and redirection* (returning to an approach previously abandoned and breathing new life into that approach);
7. *re-initiation* (beginning at a radically different point from the current one and taking off in a new direction).

As this list shows, the innovation need not necessarily involve calling into existence something that never existed before. Indeed, only the last of the processes or tactics just mentioned involves introducing something previously completely unknown. In fact, Miller (2000) argued that modifying what already exists is the usual way that creativity occurs, while King (1992), who was referring directly to the organizational psychology of innovation, also made the point that an innovation need not be "entirely novel or [even] unfamiliar to the members of the unit (p. 90)". In terms of Kirton's (1989) increasingly popular distinction, most innovations involve "adaptation" rather than "innovation".

A simple example of how this can happen in an industrial/organizational setting is to be seen when a manager transfers to a new work setting procedures that were commonplace in the old but are unknown in the new. This occurred for example when safety practices well known in the refueling of commercial aircraft were transferred to Formula One motor racing. Although commonplace in the original work setting, the practices were unknown in the new. They were highly successful, and were regarded as an effective, creative innovation. This is an example of *forward incrementation* in Sternberg's sense (see above).

As has just been emphasized, simply drawing attention to novel ideas and practices or putting them up for discussion is not sufficient. Innovation requires the actual introduction of novelty into the system, i.e., into a business, a factory, or an organization. If the introduction of novelty does not lead to a practical solution that "propels a field" by "performing tasks and solving problems" we would not normally speak of innovation. Making the link to creativity, it can be said that unsuccessful innovation that fails to perform tasks and solve problems in a functioning system does not involve functional creativity because the first element in the hierarchy (relevance and effectiveness) is absent. There may still be a high level of, let us say, "aesthetic" creativity, but this is usually of little interest to people in organizations. Thus, innovation can be regarded as an example of functional creativity.

Ironically, whether or not an innovation succeeds (i.e., whether functional creativity is achieved) depends to a considerable degree on characteristics of the system into which the novelty is introduced. Indeed, the success of an innovation may depend more on characteristics of the organization than on its own intrinsic novelty or merit. This is one of the "paradoxes" of creativity referred to by Cropley (1997)-in

the functional sense, creativity may be determined more by the environment into which the novelty is introduced than on the novel measure or product's actual qualities. Summarizing the relevant literature, Plate (1997) listed the factors in an organization that may influence the success of an innovation without themselves being part of the innovation. They may not even be directly affected by it! These are:

- (a) available resources (personnel, infrastructure and financial);
- (b) organizational culture;
- (c) short and long term goals of the organization;
- (d) competing priorities of the organization;
- (e) groups or individuals in the organization who see their position threatened by the innovation;
- (f) even the reactions of the opposition.

Psychological aspects of innovation

Other factors involved in innovation can be stated in a more psychological way: *workplace culture* (Burningham and West, 1995), *communication processes* (Rosenfeld and Servo, 1990), and *role expectations* (Scott and Bruce, 1994). As Millward and Freeman (2002) emphasized, from a psychological point of view the most interesting aspect of communications as an element of innovation lies within the individual person seeking to introduce an innovation. If the innovator fails to communicate the idea effectively to others, the innovation will not occur. This can happen because of lack of interpersonal communication skills, but also because the originator makes no attempt to communicate an idea to others, for instance because of fear of being ridiculed or of making other people angry or unhappy.

This means that innovation requires what might be called "interpersonal" skills. One of these involves quieting people's fears. This often requires indicating *multiple pathways* to the implementation of the desired innovation, so that a way can be found around anxiety and resistance. Abra (1994) showed that achieving spectacular breakthroughs may require *cooperation with others*. This might take the form of brainstorming or similar kinds of team work. Managers who prefer to work alone or to be the undisputed star of the show may have difficulties with this aspect of innovation. Research on creativity has repeatedly linked it to personal properties. One of these is what Cropley (1992) called "openness to the spark of inspiration". Long experience can, despite its undoubted benefits, inhibit such openness-willingness to allow innovation. Root-Bernstein (1989) spoke of the "novice effect" in this regard. By contrast to the expert, the novice is not inhibited by the negative effects of experience. However, for an experienced manager to return to novice status or even admit to lack of expertise requires a high level of *self-confidence*. Other examples of relevant personal properties that have been investigated in the context of creativity research are flexibility, impulsivity, sensitivity, autonomy, self-image, and ability to tolerate uncertainty. Recent reviews of such research include summaries by Csikszentmihalyi (1996), Eysenck (1997) and Feist (1999). Table 2 (see below) contains a number of examples of personal factors that are of particular relevance to innovation.

To turn to a different aspect of the psychology of innovation, actions like taking a

strong stand in favour of an innovation are risky, and people's willingness to be innovative is thus affected by, among other things, fear of being wrong or of looking foolish. As a result, considerable courage and *willingness to stand alone* is required. Production of novelty also depends on people's dissatisfaction with the *status quo* and a drive to make things better, as well as on their willingness to take risks, to expose themselves to criticism or ridicule, and the like (i.e., on motivation). Examples of these psychological factors in innovation are also shown in Table 2.

Table 2. *Examples of motivational, personal and social factors associated with innovation*

<i>Motivation</i>	<i>Personality</i>	<i>Social factors</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • goal directedness • persistence • curiosity • risk taking (courage) • drive to ask questions (even "uncomfortable") • unwillingness simply to carry out orders • desire to do things differently • drive to reveal one's own unusual ideas to others • mastery drive • desire for acclaim 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • openness to the novel • flexibility • independence • acceptance of things that are "different" • self-image as innovative and daring • tolerance for ambiguity • sensitivity to problems • mental toughness • autonomy • self-centredness • intuitiveness • playfulness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • team work • willingness to go it alone • willingness to risk looking foolish • communication skills • confidence in a group • willingness to admit not having an answer • low level of respect for "sacred cows" • willingness to be disrespectful to authority • willingness to risk hurting people's feelings

It is customary in discussions of production of novelty in psychology and education to emphasize not only interpersonal skills, personality and motivation (see above), but also cognitive processes such as having many ideas, transforming them through elaboration, expansion or reconstruction, building broad concepts, deviating from the conventional, drawing unexpected conclusions, making unusual combinations, constructing remote associations, and the like. These are the basis of "divergent" thinking. In addition, both Sternberg's seven ways of propelling a field (see above), as well as the factors listed above that influence the success of an innovation, show that the introduction of novelty into a functioning system must build on what already exists. Thus, innovative managers must operate on the basis of a *foundation of knowledge*. They must be able to take account of factors that already existed prior to the introduction of the novelty such as the goals of the organization, and to calculate an innovation's "downstream consequences". This means that successful innovation also requires knowledge of the *status quo* and the ability to make accurate decisions based on existing knowledge. This, in turn, requires familiarity with the facts, good memory, rapid recall, logical reasoning, and the like, aspects of what psychologists call "convergent" thinking. Without underestimating the importance of convergent thinking, there seems to be excessive emphasis on it in many organizations, and consequently a need for more emphasis on diverging from the tried and trusted. For this reason researchers studying innovation in practical settings (e.g., Facaoaru, 1985) have emphasized the importance of a "two track" approach that involves both diver-

gent and convergent thinking.

The arguments and definitions outlined above lay the foundation for the main issue with which this paper is concerned: Is there a relationship between innovation and gender? Put bluntly, "Can both men and women be innovative?"

Stereotypes of "male" and "female"

The concept of gender has a biological basis—there really are differences between men and women! However, without disputing the existence of biological differences, there is a great deal of disagreement about the nature and extent of social and psychological differences. According to traditional assumptions, males are, among other things, autonomous, self-confident, and determined, whereas females are sensitive, modest and responsible. However, it is obvious that "male" and "female" are not discrete categories: Females display characteristics traditionally labelled "male" and males display "female" characteristics. In fact, it is unclear whether gender is a matter of biological destiny or little more than a social construct. Thus, as psychological categories "male" and "female" are best regarded as *stereotypes*.

None the less, despite their uncertain scientific status, these stereotypes exert a strong influence on aspects of experience such as the way boys and girls are educated or treated by their parents. To take a simple example, it is commonplace in Australian TV reports to see the parents of an adult female athlete who has just won a world title or a gold medal refer to their daughter as "my little girl". By contrast, it is almost unimaginable that the parents of a similar male athlete would talk about their "little boy". Millward and Freeman (2002) summarized the central aspects of society's stereotypes of male and female and made a direct link to management by reviewing evidence indicating that these stereotypes have consequences for females' management behaviour and for factors like promotion. Schein (1994) concluded that the stereotypes dog female managers from the very beginning of their careers.

An important mechanism through which stereotypes affect the behaviour of females and males is *role expectations*. Scott and Bruce (1994) showed that these expectations have direct effects on innovative behaviour. For instance, not only do male managers expect their female colleagues to avoid risks, but the women too are familiar with the stereotype and the associated role expectation, and tend to behave accordingly. There are a number of psychological mechanisms that could lead females to conform to existing stereotypes: *imitation* (e.g., Bandura, 1962), *identification* with the same gender parent, who conforms to the stereotypes (e.g., Hoffman, 1971), *differential reinforcement* by parents, teachers and the like of what are perceived as gender appropriate behaviours (e.g., Fagot and Leinbach, 1993), or the view that gender roles are an essential part of *cognitive development* and form part of a developing child's internal view of how the world holds together (e.g., Kohlberg, 1966). Thus, even if they are no more than stereotypes, a society's ideas on gender differences affect what is regarded as "normal" in men and women, what duties they take on or are assigned, what kind of management behaviour they exhibit, and so on, although it should also be emphasized again that gender behaviours overlap. Some of the relevant aspects of the stereotypes of "male" and "female" are listed in Table 3.

The contents of this table are based on discussions in Millward and Freeman (2002), Powell (1993) and Schein (1994), and strongly reflect the “classic” analysis of Mac-coby and Jacklin (1974).

Table 3. Stereotypes of the “typical” female and male

Area	“Female”	“Male”
<i>Cognition</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • concrete • narrowly focused • convergent • intuitive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • abstract • broadly focused • divergent • logical
<i>Motivation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • gives up quickly • seeks security (avoids risks) • seeks to avoid failure • reactive • pursues long term goals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • persistent • takes risks • seeks to achieve success • proactive • pursues short term goals
<i>Personality</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • cautious • empathic • sensitive • oriented towards feelings • lacking self-confidence • responsible 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • daring • egocentric • aggressive • oriented towards ideas • full of self-confidence • adventurous
<i>Social</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • people oriented • wants to be liked • communicative • slow to come forward • allows herself to be dominated • gives in to authority • fears criticism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • task oriented • wants to be respected • taciturn • thrusts himself into limelight • tries to dominate others • challenges authority • fights back when criticized

Gender and innovation

Combining the information in Tables 2 and 3, it is now possible to examine the relationship between gender stereotypes and innovation or, in other words, to begin answering the question listed above: “Is innovation men’s business or women’s work?” Already by about 20 years ago creativity researchers had drawn attention to an interesting aspect of creativity-it seems to have many characteristics that contradict each other. Cropley (1997) summarized these as the “paradoxes” of creativity. Among these are a number of “polarities”. To give a few examples, which do not by any means exhaust the list, creativity requires:

1. openness for multiple solutions vs. drive to find the best possible solution;
2. openness to material from the subconscious vs. a strong orientation to reality;
3. a critical, almost destructive attitude vs. constructive problem solving;
4. openness to a variety of possibilities vs. passionate engagement for a particular solution;
5. a self-centered attitude vs. consideration for others;
6. emotional involvement vs. cool self-control;
7. a “loner” work style vs. capacity for team work;

Table 4. *The extended phase model of innovation*

<i>Phase</i>	<i>Process</i>	<i>Motivation</i>	<i>Personality</i>	<i>Social</i>
<i>Preparation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> identifying the problem setting goals convergent thinking 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> problem solving drive (intrinsic motivation) dissatisfaction with the status quo 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> critical attitude optimism sensitivity to problems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> willingness to admit not having an answer willingness to risk loss of status
<i>Information</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> perceiving learning remembering convergent thinking 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> curiosity preference for complexity willingness to work hard 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> knowledgeability willingness to judge and select patience thoroughness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> willingness to be come a novice openness to the ideas of others ability to brainstorm
<i>Incubation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> building broad categories making remote associations building networks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> freedom from constraints tolerance for ambiguity low closure drive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> nonconformity acceptance of fantasy adventurousness intuitiveness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> willingness to delay answering willingness to abandon a previous position
<i>Illumination</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> grasping the essence of an idea recognizing a solution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> intuition reduction of tension desire for closure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> sensitivity flexibility openness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> willingness to admit being wrong willingness to disagree
<i>Verification</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> assessing relevance and effectiveness self-assessment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> desire for closure desire for quality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> hardnosed sense of reality self-criticism responsibility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> belief in oneself willingness to show "disrespect" for authority
<i>Communication</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> achieving closure gaining feedback transmitting information focusing on the essential 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> desire for recognition, acclaim or reward (extrinsic motivation) risk taking 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> self-confidence courage of one's convictions autonomy empathy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> willingness to risk looking foolish willingness to stand out in the group willingness to risk hurting feelings
<i>Validation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> judging relevance and effectiveness evaluating 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> desire for acclaim mastery drive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> toughness flexibility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> powers of persuasion acceptance of criticism willingness to risk seeming antisocial

8. a high level of expertise vs. ability to think like a novice;
9. playfulness vs. strong sense of responsibility
10. low level of need for feedback vs. high level of willingness to communicate results to others.

Striking about these paradoxes is that they correspond well with a dichotomy involving stereotypical “male” characteristics at one pole (e.g., coolness, independence, secretiveness, preference for logic, etc) and stereotypically “female” properties at the other (e.g., emotional involvement, cooperativeness, communication skills, intuitiveness, etc). Thus, the answer to the central question is that innovation requires both typically male and also typically female characteristics, even if this state of affairs is paradoxical in nature.

The way in which it is possible for such paradoxical relationships to exist simultaneously can be explained with the help of a phase model of creativity. Building on the work of Wallas (1926) I have proposed a seven-phase model: Preparation, Information, Incubation, Illumination, Verification, Communication and Validation. These are listed in Table 4, along with examples of thinking (cognition), motivation, personality and interpersonal skills that seem to be involved in each phase.

In the various phases different cognitive processes, motivational states, personal properties, and interpersonal skills play different roles. In the stage of Incubation, for instance, tolerance for ambiguity involving broad associations and uninhibited flow of ideas is absolutely necessary, whereas the phases of Verification or Communication demand more or less the opposite—a narrow focus and a single, clear answer. Validation differs again because it necessitates exact calculation of what is possible and practicable. According to the gender role stereotypes summarized in Table 3, Incubation would thus be more “male”, Verification and Communication more “female”, and Validation would again be predominantly “male”. These remarks involve only examples. The approach just sketched out can be applied to all phases to show how they involve “male” and “female” characteristics. Without attempting to develop an all encompassing and exhaustive model, I believe that the phase approach offers insights into the “androgynous” nature of creativity and innovation. What is necessary is the “integration of opposites” based on “the art of balancing” (Urban, 1997). Innovation is both men’s business and also women’s work!

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PROFESSIONAL AND ACADEMIC ISSUES IN PSYCHOLOGY IN BALTICS

Psihologa profesijas standarts

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Viens no nozīmīgākajiem 2002. gada notikumiem Latvijas psihologu dzīvē ir psihologa profesijas standarta izstrāde. Saskaņā ar Latvijas Republikas Ministru kabineta noteikumu Nr. 481 "*Par otrā līmeņa profesionālās augstākās izglītības valsts standartu*" 10., 21. un 26. pantu, izstrādājot atbilstošas profesionālās izglītības programmas (profesionālā bakalaura, profesionālā maģistra, otrā līmeņa profesionālā), ir jāņem vērā *profesijas standarts*, kas nosaka studiju kursu izvēli, apjomu un saturu, kā arī prakses saturu iegūstamajam profesionālajam grādam. Ministru kabineta noteikumi Nr. 131 nosaka *Profesiju standarta izstrādes kārtību*, bet tā formātu – "Profesijas standarta formata apraksts", kas tika publicēts avīzē "Izglītība un Kultūra" 2001. gada 13. decembrī.

Ievērojot šo reglamentējošo dokumentu prasības un kompetentu Izglītības un zinātnes ministrijas (turpmāk - IZM) vadošo speciālistu – Veltas Vikmanes un Izoldes Rodbergas - ieteikumus, Latvijas psihologi 2002. gada aprīlī izveidoja darba grupu, kurā iesaistījās vairums augstskolu (Latvijas Universitāte, Psiholoģijas augstskola, Starptautiskais Praktiskās psiholoģijas institūts, Sociālo tehnoloģiju augstskola un RPIVA), kas izglīto psihologus. Darba grupā iesaistījās šo augstskolu psiholoģijas studiju programmu direktori un docētāji, kā arī vairāku vadošo psihologu profesionālo asociāciju (Latvijas Skolu psihologu asociācijas, Latvijas Klīnisko psihologu asociācijas un Latvijas Organizāciju psihologu biedrības) vadītāji un biedri (pilnu sarakstu skat. profesijas standarta beigās, 1. pielikumā). Darba grupas regulārajās tikšanās reizēs vienreiz nedēļā mēneša laikā tika izstrādāts psihologa profesijas standarts, balstoties ne tikai uz grupas dalībnieku profesionālo kompetenci, bet arī ņemot vērā galvenokārt Eiropas Psihologu asociāciju federācijas (European Federation of Psychologists Associations) izstrādātās vadlīnijas par prasībām psihologa Eiropas diplomam (The developing of a European Diploma for Psychologists – Europsychologists) un ASV Skolu psihologu nacionālās asociācijas (National Association of School Psychologists) standartu skolu psihologu apmācībai un praksei (Standarts for Training and Field Placement Programs in School Psychology, 2000, informācija iegūta interneta adresē: www.naspsweb.org).

Darba grupa 15 cilvēku sastāvā par savu vadītāju izvēlēja asoc. profesori Malgožatu Raščevsku, LU Pedagoģijas un psiholoģijas fakultātes Psiholoģijas nodaļas vadītāju.

Kad darbs pie standarta tika kopumā pabeigts, tas tika nodots apspriešanai profesionālo psihologu asociācijām, diskutēts augstskolu Psiholoģijas nodaļu un katedru docētāju sanāksmēs. Ieteikumi tika integrēti standartā.

Standarts tika iesniegts IZM triju profesionālu psihologu asociāciju - Latvijas Skolu psihologu asociācijas, Latvijas Klīnisko psihologu asociācijas un Latvijas Organizāciju psihologu biedrības vārdā.

Standarts latviešu valodā redzams 1. pielikumā, un tam seko standarts angļu valodā. Žurnāla redakcijas vārdā aicinu lasītājus apspriest šo standartu, izteikt ierosinājumus tā pilnveidei. Šī standarta izstrādes process ir sasniedzis tikai pirmo galapunktu, bet tas ir atvērts pārmaiņām. Darba grupa ir gatava turpināt radošo procesu un ierosināt veikt izmaiņas standartā, ja profesionālie psihologi to atzīs par nepieciešamu. Ieteikumus lūdzu sūtīt uz žurnāla adresi (skat.1. vāka iekšpusē lpp.).

Izstrādātais standarts tika apstiprināts ar IZM 2002. gada 6. jūnija rīkojumu Nr. 321, reģ. Nr. PS0078.

Pateicamies standarta ekspertiem – “Skalbes” klīniskajai psiholoģei, Ma. psych. Natālijai Bahmačovai un Rīgas 32. vidusskolas psiholoģe, dr. psych. Natālijas Ivanovai par atsaucību standarta izvērtēšanā no praktisko psihologu viedokļa.

1. pielikums

APSTIPRINĀTS

ar Izglītības un zinātnes ministrijas
2002.gada 6. jūnija
rīkojumu Nr. 321

PROFESIJAS STANDARTS

Reģistrācijas numurs PS0078

Profesija	Psihologs
Kvalifikācijas līmenis	5
Nodarbinātības apraksts	Psihologs strādā organizācijā un/vai privātp praksē un sniedz psiholoģiskos pakalpojumus indivīdam un/vai grupai un/vai organizācijai. Psihologs veic psiholoģisko izpēti un izvērtēšanu, konsultēšanu, psiholoģisko rehabilitāciju krīžu un traumu gadījumos, veicina psiholoģisko adaptāciju un attīstību, veic zinātniskos pētījumus, tos prezentē un rūpējas par savu profesionālo izaugsmi izvēlētajā psiholoģijas darbības jomā – skolas, klīniskajā, sociālajā, organizācijas/ darba, juridiskajā u.c. psiholoģijā. Atkarībā no izvēlētajā darbības jomas psihologs apgūst un lieto jomai specifiskās zinātniski pamatotās izpētes un izvērtēšanas, konsultēšanas, rehabilitācijas, adaptācijas un attīstības veicināšanas metodes un sniedz citus psiholoģiska rakstura pakalpojumus, ievērojot psihologa darba ētiku.

Pienākumi un uzdevumi

Dažādu psiholoģijas nozaru psihologu pienākumi un uzdevumi ir līdzīgi, atšķiras šo uzdevumu veikšanai izvēlētās metodes, izpētes priekšmeti (personības iezīmes, intelektuālās spējas u.c.) un objekti (indivīds, grupa un/ vai organizācija). Izvēli nosaka katras psiholoģijas nozares teorijas un prakse.

<i>Pienākumi</i>	<i>Uzdevumi</i>
1. Ievērot psihologa darba ētiku	1.1. Informēt par psihologa ētikas principiem klientus, darba devēju un citus speciālistus. 1.2. Darba konfliktsituācijās rīkoties atbilstoši psihologa ētikas kodeksa prasībām.
2. Psiholoģiskā izpēte un izvērtēšana (indivīda, grupas un/ vai organizācijas)	2.1. Noteikt izpētes mērķi. 2.2. Izvēlēties atbilstošas izpētes metodikas, sastādīt izpētes plānu. 2.3. Veikt datu ievākšanu, apstrādi, analīzi un interpretāciju. 2.4. Noformēt iegūtās izpētes rezultātus un secinājumus. 2.5. Pārrunāt un izskaidrot gūtās atziņas klientam saprotamā veidā.
3. Psiholoģiskā konsultēšana (indivīda, grupas un/vai organizācijas)	3.1. Ievākt un precizēt informāciju par problēmu. 3.2. Noteikt konsultēšanas mērķi un izstrādāt konsultāciju plānu. 3.3. Izvēlēties atbilstošas konsultēšanas metodes. 3.4. Vadīt konsultēšanas procesu. 3.5. Pārrunāt un izskaidrot klientam konsultēšanas procesu un tā rezultātus.
4. Psiholoģiskās adaptācijas un attīstības veicināšana*	4.1. Precizēt informāciju par problēmu (izvērtēt dezadaptācijas iemeslus). 4.2. Noteikt adaptācijas vai attīstības veicināšanas programmas mērķi un plānu. 4.3. Sadarboties ar citiem programmā iesaistītajiem speciālistiem. 4.4. Realizēt programmu. 4.5. Novērtēt izmaiņas.
5. Psiholoģiskā rehabilitācija pēc traumas un krīžu gadījumos **	5.1. Izvērtēt traumas un/vai krīzes psiholoģiskās sekas un noteikt rehabilitācijas mērķus. 5.2. Izvēlēties atbilstošas rehabilitācijas metodes. 5.3. Sadarbībā ar citiem speciālistiem veikt rehabilitācijas pasākumus. 5.4. Novērtēt izmaiņas.
6. Profesionālā izaugsme	6.1. Piedalīties zinātniskajās un zinātniski praktiskajās konferencēs, semināros,ursos, treniņos. 6.2. Sekot jaunumiem profesionālajā literatūrā. Piedalīties pārraudzības (supervīzijas) nodarbībās un personīgajā psihoterapijā.
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), izlasi un izstrādāt plānu. 7.5. Ievākt datus. 7.6. Apstrādāt, analizēt un interpretēt datus. 7.7. Rakstiski noformēt 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 brīvprātības principu, sagatavot psiholoģiskās izpētes materiālus Latvijas kopīgo datu bāzu veidošanai (piemēram, testu standartizācijai).

*šis pienākums ir vairāk raksturīgs skolu un klīniskajiem psihologiem

** šis pienākums ir raksturīgs tikai klīniskajiem psihologiem

Darba vidi raksturojošie īpašie faktori

Organizatoriskie faktori – darbs tiek veikts individuāli, pāri vai darba grupā. Psihologs ir psihologa asistenta darba vadītājs.

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

- Fizikālie - nav
- Bioloģiskie – nav
- Ķīmiskie - nav

Īpašas prasības uzdevumu veikšanai

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

Prasmes

Kopīgo un specifisko prasmju dalījuma veidošanas princips:

- *kopīgās prasmes* ir prasmes, kas tiek lietotas vairākās psiholoģijas jomās (skolu, klīniskajā, 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 līdzīgas vairākām psiholoģijas nozarēm, bet pēc satura ir specifiskas, atbilstošas šo psiholoģijas nozaru teorētiskajiem pamatiem, praksei un klienta veidam.

<i>Kopīgās prasmes nozarē</i>	<i>Specifiskās prasmes profesijā</i>	<i>Vispārējās prasmes / spējas</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • izvēlēties atbilstošu saziņas veidu ar dažāda 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 pamatotām 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 • 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 • veikt klienta psiholoģisko izpēti /izvērtēšanu • pārrunāt un izskaidrot psiholoģiska rakstura informāciju klientam saprotamā veidā • izvēlēties psiholoģiskās konsultācijas metodes atbilstoši klienta risināmajai problēmai • sniegt klientam psiholoģisku konsultāciju • novērtēt psiholoģiskās konsultācijas rezultātu • veikt klienta psiholoģisko rehabilitāciju ** • pamatot psiholoģiskās izpētes, konsultēšanas un rehabilitācijas** metožu izvēli • izstrādāt klienta adaptācijas vai atbilstības programmu sadarbībā ar citiem speciālistiem un to realizēt • novērtēt klienta psiholoģiskās izmaiņas • izvērtēt savu profesionālo kompetenci konkrētu uzdevumu veikšanai 	<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 • lietot informācijas avotus un to atlasē līdzekļus • noformēt, sistematizēt un glabāt lietišķos dokumentus • jaunrades un pētniecības prasme • risināt konfliktsituācijas • ievērot vispārīgos ētikas principus • ievērot darba drošības un higiēnas prasības • spēt sazināties latviešu valodā un apgūtā svešvalodā • pilnveidot profesionālās zināšanas un prasmes tālākizglītības procesā • pieņemt lēmumus un uzņemties atbildību • prezentēt informāciju par noteiktu tematu, izskaidrot to citiem (mutiski un rakstiski) • lietot datoru informācijas glabāšanai un apstrādei

* *klients var būt indivīds, grupa vai organizācija*

** *rehabilitācijas metodes lieto klīniskajā 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)			
Psihes 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			
Klīniskā/ patopsiholoģija			
Veselības psiholoģija ^c			
Ģimenes psiholoģija ^c			
Psiholoģiskā konsultēšana			
Psihometrika			
Psiholoģiskās izpētes un izvērtēšanas metodes			
Zinātnisko rakstu darbu izstrāde			
Svešvaloda			
Informātikas pamati			
Darba likumdošana ^b			
Ekonomikas pamati ^b			
Cilvēktiesību pamati			
Filozofijas pamati			
Citu psiholoģijas nozaru kursi ^d			

^a šīs zināšanas ir vairāk nepieciešamas skolu psihologiem

^b šīs zināšanas ir vairāk nepieciešamas organizāciju/darba psihologiem

^c šīs zināšanas ir vairāk nepieciešamas klīniskajiem un skolu psihologiem

^d šīs zināšanas ir vairāk nepieciešamas tiem psihologiem, kuri strādās specifiskās psiholoģijas nozarēs (juridiskajā, vides, sporta psiholoģijā u.c.)

Papildprasība profesijas standarta apguvei

Profesijai atbilstošo zināšanu un prasmju apguvei nepieciešami ne mazāk kā 6 gadi, tai skaitā 40 kreditu^c apjomā jāietver viena gada pārraudzības (supervīzijas) prakse. Tā rekomendē Eiropas Psihologu asociāciju federācijas izstrādātie vadošie norādījumi Eiropas psihologa diplomam, un to atzīst kā atbilstošu prasību šī Latvijas psihologa profesijas standarta izstrādes grupa.

Psihologa asistentam, kurš var strādāt tikai psihologa pārraudzībā, profesijai atbilstošo zināšanu un prasmju apguvei nepieciešami ne mazāk kā 4-5 gadi un ne mazāk kā 50% no kopējā kreditu apjoma pārraudzības (supervīzijas) prakses.

^c Latvijas izglītības sistēmā 40 kr. = 60 - ECTS Eiropas izglītības kreditu transformācijas sistēmā

Psihologa profesijas standarta izstrādes darba grupas sastāvs:

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

Inga Ezera, darba grupas sekretāre, Ma. psych., Latvijas Organizāciju psihologu biedrības deleģētā pārstāve

Ilāna Bistrova, Ma. psych., Latvijas Organizāciju psihologu biedrības valdes priekšsēdētāja

Pāvels Tjurins, Dr. psych., Psiholoģijas augstskolas docents, Valsts policijas Psiholoģiskā dienesta priekšnieks

Ludmila Kaļiņņikova, 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

Geršons Breslavs, Dr. habil. psych., Sociālo tehnoloģiju augstskola, Psiholoģijas katedras vadītājs, psiholoģijas profesionālās studiju programmas direktors

Guntis Tomsons, Starptautiskā Praktiskās Psiholoģijas institūta vicerektors

Tamāra Čaikovska, Starptautiskais Praktiskās Psiholoģijas institūts, Praktisko psihologu asociācijas deleģētā pārstāve

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

Anda Kauliņa, Ma. psych., RPIVA psiholoģijas profesionālās studiju programmas direktore

Inese Platpīre, Ma. psych., Latvijas Skolu psihologu asociācijas deleģētā pārstāve, Rīgas Kultūras skolas psiholoģe

Ingūna Upzare, Ma. psych., Latvijas Skolu psihologu asociācijas priekšsēdētāja, Rīgas Skolu valdes Psiholoģiskā dienesta psiholoģe

Evija Strika, Ma. psych., Klīnisko psihologu asociācijas deleģētā pārstāve, BOV SIA "Psihiatrijas centrs" vecākā psiholoģe

Anda Fenogenova, Ma. psych., Latvijas Universitātes Pedagoģijas un psiholoģijas fa-

kultātes Psiholoģijas nodaļas psihologa asistenta profesionālās programmas direktore.

Profesionālās izglītības un nodarbinātības trīspusējās sadarbības apakšpadomes eksperti:

Natālija Bahmačova, “Skalbes” klīniskais psihologs, Ma. psych.

Natālija Ivanova, Rīgas 32. vidusskolas skolas psihologs, Dr. psych.

PROFESSIONAL STANDARD

Profession	Psychologist
Qualification level	5
Job description	A psychologist 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. A psychologist performs psychological assessment, counseling, rehabilitation in crisis and after trauma, promotes psychological adaptation and development, accomplishes 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. A psychologist acquires and uses specified scientifically based assessment and research methods, consulting methods, rehabilitation methods, and development promotional methods in the chosen field, and renders other psychological services in conjunction with the psychologist's work ethic.

<i>Responsibilities</i>	<i>Tasks</i>
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.
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 and 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 specify 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. Conduct the counseling process. 3.5. Discuss and explain counseling process and the results to the client.
4. Promotion of psychological adaptation and development. *	4.1. Define the problem (re-assess the reasons for non-adaptation). 4.2. Set the adaptation or development promotion program goals and plan. 4.3. Co-operate with other specialists in the program. 4.4. Implement the program. 4.5. Appraise the changes.
5. Psychological rehabilitation in crisis and trauma after-effects. **	5.1. Assess the psychological consequences of trauma and/or crisis and set rehabilitation goals. 5.2. Choose adequate rehabilitation methods. 5.3. Perform rehabilitation activities in co-operation with other specialists. 5.4. Appraise the changes.
6. Professional growth.	6.1. Participate in scientific conferences, workshops, courses, training sessions. 6.2. Follow new developments described in professional literature. 6.3. 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. The psychologist is the supervisor of the assistant.

Office equipment – to counsel groups and individuals the psychologist 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 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 of the psychologist 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.

<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. • Choose the method of psychological counseling according to the client's problem. • Provide psychological information to the client. • 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 selection criteria. • 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 mostly for school psychologists

^b mostly for organizational/work psychologists

^c mostly for clinical and school psychologists

^d for psychologists of specific branches of psychology (forensic, environmental, sports., etc. psychology)

Additional Requirements for Professional Standards

There are at least 6 years (40 credits for every year) needed to acquire appropriate knowledge and skills, inter alia, one year of monitored (supervised) practice of 40

credits must be included. This is recommended by the guidelines of the Federation of European Psychologists Association for Diploma of European Psychologist. The working group of the Latvian Psychologists' Professional Standards accepts these standards. Assistant psychologist can work under the supervision of the psychologist only, and he/she needs at least 4-5 years, and at least 50% from the total credits of the supervising psychologist.

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

Psychologists' Professional Standards Development Working Group:

Malgožata Rašcevska, leader of the working group, Dr. psych., assoc. prof., University of Latvia, Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology, director of Psychology Dept.

Inga Ezera, secretary of the working group, MA. psych., delegate of Latvian Association of Organizational Psychologists

Iļāna Bistrova, MA. psych., Latvian Association of Organizational Psychologists, director of the Board

Pāvels Tjurins, Dr. psych., College of Psychology assoc. prof., head of State Police Psychological Services

Ludmila Kajiņņikova, Dr. psych., College of Psychology assoc. prof., chair of the Developmental Psychology Dept., member of the Association of Professional Psychologists

Natālija Šmeļova, lecturer at College of Psychology, head of Psychological and Psychiatric Counseling Services Centre, Psychological and Psychiatric Counseling Centre psychologist

Geršons Breslavs, Dr. habil. psych., College of Social Technologies, chair of Dept. of Psychology, director of Professional Psychology Studies Program

Guntis Tomsons, vice-president of International Applied Psychology Institute

Tamāra Čaikovska, International Applied Psychology Institute, delegate of Applied Psychologist Association

Kristīne Maslovska, MA psych., Association of Latvian Psychologists, chair of the Board, psychologist at State Police Psychological Services

Anda Kauliņa, MA. psych., Rīga College of Pedagogy and Education Management, director of Professional Psychology Studies Program

Inese Platpīre, MA psych., delegate of Association of Latvian School Psychologists, psychologist at Rīga College of Culture

Ingūna Upzare, MA psych., head of the Association of Latvian School Psychologists, psychologist with Rīga School Board Psychology Services

Evija Strika, MA psych., delegate of the Association of Clinical Psychologists, senior psychologist at BOV SIA "Psihiatrijas centrs"

Anda Fenogenova, MA. psych., University of Latvia, Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology, Dept. of Psychology, director of Psychology Assistant Professional Program

OPEN DISCUSSION BY OUR READERS, AUTHORS, AND EDITORS

Question: Which late twentieth century theories, concepts, and research directions could play a particularly significant role in psychology's future development?

Imants Baruss (Professor, Department of Psychology, King's College, University of Western Ontario):

At the end of the twentieth century, psychology has remained multifaceted and I think that that characteristic will continue for many years. The main schism has been between academic, or scientific

psychology, which has sought to abide by the demands of science, and practical psychology, in particular psychotherapy, which has tried to accommodate itself to real-life situations. That schism is not as apparent in the Baltic states where the concerns of practical psychology are studied in academic institutions. In the Western world, academic psychology, which determines the accepted directions in the discipline of psychology, is still largely based on the notion that the human psyche is an information processing device. Thus, human beings are regarded as computers and any features of the psyche that do not fit within the limitations of this notion get downplayed and forgotten. Nonetheless, there are three approaches that have appeared in psychology and one in the broader scientific community that could create a counter-movement.

The first new approach is positive psychology within which are studied a person's positive characteristics. Currently that is done in a narrowly scientific manner, but it is possible that with time, this approach could expand. Well, to tell the truth, there is nothing new about positive psychology in that it reflects some of the issues raised in humanistic psychology which blossomed in the 1950s. Humanistic psychology, which practically disappeared in the 1970s, is itself currently enjoying a rebirth, although it is difficult to know if that rebirth will last. The scope of humanistic psychology is broader than that of positive psychology in that there is an effort in humanistic psychology to encompass the features of the psyche as they are lived. Along with that, within humanistic psychology there have been developed research methods that are more suitable for understanding human experience than those of conventional science.

The third approach that has recently appeared in psychology is to regard spirituality as a specific ability in the same way that intelligence is regarded as an ability. It is not as

though spirituality had been completely neglected. In the psychology of religion, one of psychology's oldest branches, and in transpersonal psychology, which grew out of humanistic psychology in the 1960s, attention was directed specifically at spirituality. But neither the psychology of religion nor transpersonal psychology has been able to influence the main thrust of academic psychology. The concept of spiritual intelligence has not yet lost the ability to have an effect on the future of psychology.

Within science a great deal of interest has been shown concerning consciousness which, itself, has prompted a re-examination of ontological questions. It has been interesting to note that this enthusiasm about consciousness has not affected the discipline of psychology even though the study of consciousness naturally fits within it. Psychology has been isolated from other academic disciplines and, it could be said, has been afraid of incorporating within it what other disciplines may have to offer. That even applies to statistics, for example, which is widely used in psychology often with incorrect procedures because psychologists appear not to pay much attention to statisticians. If the current discussions and research about human consciousness have the power to affect psychologists, then I think that psychology could transform in fruitful directions. It will be interesting to observe what the future will bring.

Juris G. Draguns (Professor, The Pennsylvania State University): *Psychology in the New Millennium: Toward Globalization and Integration.*

Throughout the twentieth century, much of psychology was polarized, notably between the proponents of behaviorism and advocates of phenomenology. With the advent of the new millennium, signs are appearing that this division is being overcome. Cognitive revolution was early harbinger of this trend, even though it brought with it new imbalances, notably in its disregard of unconscious processes and the resulting bias toward human rationality (cf., Mahoney, 1980). An antidote against this distortion is the extension of operationism, falsifiability, and replicability to the entire gamut of human subjectivity, not only in cognition but in affect and motivation. Take for example, the phenomenon of freedom, which as the people in the Baltic countries know, looms large in human conduct and experience. And yet, psychology has so far had little to say about it (cf., Draguns, 1996). Viktor Frankl envisaged height psychology as a counterpart to depth psychology, and it is time to implement his proposal through rigorous qualitative and quantitative research. Beyond it, Staats (1998) has pointed the way toward "weaving psychology's diverse threads into the fabric of unified science."

Another challenge that psychology is facing is globalization, in its two aspects. The first involves making psychology true to the totality of human experience by transcending the constructors proposed and the data gathered at the sites at which psychology originated and developed. Hofstede's (2001) integration of this worldwide research program points the way to this goal by pinpointing the ramifications of the five empirically derived cultural dimensions throughout the various domains of psychology.

The other aspect of globalization with which psychologists (Hermans & Kempen, 1998; Marsella 1998) have begun to grapple revolves around the rapid pace of social change across cultural and national boundaries. Assessing the impact of these pro-

cesses, and of their positive and negative consequences, is a pressing task for psychologists everywhere. It is particularly urgent in the Baltic region, where globalizing trends are likely to mark a new phase in the continuing struggle for preservation of cultural identity.

References

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- Hofstede, G. (2001) *Culture's consequences* (Second edition). London: Sage.
- Mahoney, M.J. (1980) *Psychotherapy process*. New York: Knopf.

Thomas Oakland (Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Florida):

The extent to which theories, conceptions, and research contribute to the development of psychology depends, in part, on psychology's history and current development within a country. Psychology's development typically emerges from biology or philosophy. Countries in which psychology has a stronger biological base tend to favour empirical methods to guide psychology's development while countries in which psychology has a stronger philosophical base initially rely more heavily on non-empirical methods and gravitate toward a blending of theory and empiricism.

The discipline (i.e., a body of scholarly knowledge, including theory, research, and related technology) and professional practice (i.e., applications of the discipline through service) of psychology display uneven development internationally. They are strong and vibrant in some countries, weak but growing in others, and not apparent in some. Thus, the extent to which theories, conceptions, and research contribute to the development of psychology depends, in part, on psychology's history and current level of development.

Theory is important to both a discipline and its practice. Theory often serves as the forerunner for research and practice and provides a unifying scholarly description of evidence. For example, the impact of Freud and his disciples on research and practice is immeasurable. Jung's writings on temperament stimulated much research, lead to the development of tests of temperament for adults and children, and furthered clinical practice.

In countries in which the discipline and professional practice of psychology are somewhat well established, psychology is asked to address practical issues. Some issues are characterized positively (e. g., how best to promote normal growth and development, achievement at schools and work settings, interpersonal relationships, and personal happiness). Other issues focus on chronic problems (e.g., mental illness, mental retardation, learning disabilities, violence, and cognitive decline in the elderly). Psychology in these countries is asked to address the following question: what interventions, delivered to whom and by whom, under what conditions, when and over what period

of time may materially promote and change behavior, if not in this generation then in the next? Answers to this broad question rest heavily on basic and applied research.

A scholar-practitioner model is needed in which scholarship and practice enjoy reciprocal relationships. Each contributes to the other. Research and other forms of scholarship address important practice-related issues and inform psychologists as to the strengths and limitations of various practices. In addition, professional practice identifies critical needs and serves as a field-test for research.

Thus, in my judgment, the development of psychology during the 21st Century will benefit from various theories and concepts. However, its continued growth and social support underscore the importance of instituting a scholar-practitioner model.

Viesturs Renge (Assoc. Professor, University of Latvia):

The future development of psychology will be considerably influenced by achievements in genetic and neurosciences. Already in the next few years the decisive role of the heredity factor in many aspects of human behaviour will be proven. More and more the aspect that parents' treatment of a child determines the child's inherited psychological peculiarities will be confirmed. The cognitive processes will be researched in close connection to neuron activities and biochemical processes in the brain. Thus, psychology will move still closer to the other natural sciences. With this the evolutionary approach to psychology will be strengthened - the formation and functioning of mental characteristics and processes will be examined from the point of view of human evolution. At the same time more attention will be paid to the differences in human psychology determined by culture. Many branches of psychology - developmental psychology, social psychology and others will be re-examined as a result of intercultural research. It is possible that evolutionary and intercultural approaches, mutually supplementing each other, will create some kind of common psychology meta-theory. The cognitive approaches and the dominating role of social learning theory will remain, but there the universally and culturally determined aspects will be separated more clearly. The experiment, the quantitative methods will continue to be the basis of psychological research, and it will be significant in predicting an individual's behaviour, but the importance of qualitative methods will grow in predicting single individual's behaviour. The influence of social constructivism ideas will grow, psychology links to tendencies in modern psychology. The 20th century personality theories from Freud to Cattell will lose their actual meaning and will become objects of historic research. Humanistic psychology will lose the link with science more and more and will claim the status of a "New age" religion. Part of psychoanalysis will continue to integrate into cognitive psychology, part will remain as a part of cultural heritage and will continue to influence psychotherapy practice and methods.

In total, psychology will consolidate as a science, yet at the same time it will be more difficult to grasp it through the prism of everyday concepts and this will increase the popularity of various pseudo-psychologies, which will be able to present to people a seemingly clear and easily perceptible view of oneself and other people.

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Arthur Cropley was born in Australia. After seven years as a school teacher in Australia, England and Canada he attended the University of Alberta, obtaining his Ph.D in 1965. He subsequently worked in several universities, especially the University of Hamburg, before retiring in 1998 and returning to Australia. He is the author of 21 books on creativity, lifelong learning, adaptation of migrants and research methodology that have appeared in English, German, Italian, Spanish, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, and Hungarian. From 1989-1996 he was editor of the *European Journal for High Ability*, now known as *High Ability Studies*, published by the European Council for High Ability. He received the 1997 Creativity Award of the World Council for Gifted and Talented Children. Since 1999 he has spent several months each year as a visiting professor at the University of Latvia.

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