

**A V-A CONFERINȚĂ INTERNAȚIONALĂ DE
PSIHLOGIE APLICATĂ**

**A V-A CONFÉRENCE INTERNATIONALE DE
PSYCHOLOGIE APPLIQUÉE**

**VTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF
APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY**



30.05-03.06 2007
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COMUNICĂRI ÎN EXTENSO

COMMUNICATIONS IN EXTENSO

EXTENSIVE COMMUNICATIONS

AUSFÜHRLICHE VORTRÄGE

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REFERENȚI ȘTIINȚIFICI VOLUM EXTENSO (ord. alfabetică)

prof. dr. **Monica ALBU**
prof. dr. psych. **Bernard GANGLOFF**
prof. dr. psih. **Nicolae JURCĂU**
lect. dr. psih. **Alina MAZILESCU**
prof. dr. psih. **Ion RADU**
dr. **Gernot SCHUHFRIED**
psih. **Gelu V. TODEA**

Coordonator volum - psih. Gelu V. TODEA

Tehnoredactare - **Patricia MUNTEAN**
Coperta - **Carmen Gina RĂILEANU**

Corectură:

Simona POȘIAR (engleză)
Monica M. CONDAN (franceză)
Maria L. CATRINA (germană)
Patricia MUNTEAN (română)

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Tel./Fax: 0256-499.004

E-mail: eurobitsrl@clicknet.ro

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TEMA:
PSIHOLOGIE APLICATĂ & INTERCULTURALITATE
ÎN SPAȚIUL EUROPEAN

THÈME:
PSYCHOLOGIE APPLIQUÉE & INTERCULTURALITÉ
DANS L'ESPACE EUROPÉEN

THEME:
APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY & CULTURAL PLURALISM
IN THE EUROPEAN SPACE



Mesajul “EUΨRO” 2007 Timișoara

Dacă într-un spațiu european există multiculturalitate aceasta nu poate fi viabilă decât prin interculturalitate.

Psihologia aplicată este atât de diversă, pe cât de diversă este multiculturalitatea în care trăiesc, împreună cu noi psihologii, semenii noștri. Umanizarea psihologiei în mileniul III va fi deplină și prin accesul acesteia la interculturalitate.

Trăim în acest spațiu având convingerea că practicienii în psihologie vor fi utili dacă și numai dacă vor face cercetare aplicativă, vor comunica între ei, vor lucra în echipă, totul în slujba semenului nostru.

EUΨRO 2007 sperăm că a fost un prilej științific și cultural spre a ne cunoaște umanele preocupări și pe noi înșine pentru și întru psihologie.

Îi felicităm pe aceia care și-au trimis comunicările „in extenso”, regretăm că unii dintre noi, ori un au participat, ori nu le-au trimis deși au participat, cauze sunt și vor fi întotdeauna. Credem că le vom putea oferi și alte prilejuri.

Sperăm să ne revedem în anul 2009 în România, la Timișoara.

*AΨB, Președinte,
Psih. Gelu V. Todea*

Message de “EUΨRO” 2007 Timișoara

Si dans un espace européen la multiculturalité existe, elle n'est viable que par l'interculturalité.

La psychologie appliquée est aussi diverse que la multiculturalité qui caractérise la vie de nos semblables et de nous-mêmes, les psychologues. Au troisième millénaire, le caractère humaniste de la psychologie recevra de nouvelles valences, justement par l'accès de celle-ci à l'interculturalité.

Nous vivons dans cet espace avec la conviction que les praticiens de la psychologie se rendront utiles si et seulement si la recherche applicative se fera en équipe, en mettant en commun les compétences au profit de nos semblables.

Nous avons l'espoir que EUΨRO 2007 a constitué un évènement scientifique et culturel qui nous a donné l'occasion de nous connaître, en tant qu'individus et en tant que professionnels de la psychologie.

Nous félicitons ceux qui ont participé aux travaux de EUΨRO 2007 et nous ont déjà envoyé leurs communications «in extenso»; nous regrettons que d'autres n'ont pas donné cours à notre invitation ou bien, tout en participant, n'ont pas envoyées leurs articles jusqu'à présent.

Dans l'espoir de nous revoir à Timisoara à EUΨRO 2009, nous vous adressons nos pensées les meilleures.

*AΨB, Président,
Psychologue Gelu V. Todea*

The “EUΨRO” 2007 Timisoara message

If within the European space multiculturalism exists, it can only be made viable through intercultural means.

Applied psychology is as varied as the as the multi-culture divers culture in which people, along with the psychologists, live. In the third millennia the process of making psychology more human will be completed also through the help of this intercultural society.

We believe that those who practice psychology will only be useful if they will conduct applied research communicating with each other, working in teams, all in the interest of man kind.

We hope that EUΨRO 2007 was a scientific and cultural opportunity to get to know our common interest in and for psychology.

We congratulate those who sent they're work “in extenso” and regret that some of us either did not participate or have not sent their papers, whatever the causes. We believe we will be able to offer them future opportunities and hope to see everyone again in 2009 in Romania, at Timisoara.

*AΨB, President,
Psih. Gelu V. Todea*

A V-A CONFERINȚĂ INTERNAȚIONALĂ DE PSIHOLOGIE APLICATĂ

„EUΨRO”

TEMA: PSIHOLOGIE APLICATĂ & INTERCULTURALITATE ÎN SPAȚIUL EUROPEAN

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e-mail: *eupsiro2007@tibiscus.ro*

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Dr. Psychiatre **François ABALAN** - Bordeaux

Designer **Róbert ÁGOSTON** – webmaster *www.eupsiro2007.org*

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Designer **Sorin RĂILEANU** – collaborateur bénévole d' AΨB

Ingénieur **Dorina SCHINTEIE** - assistant manager, *office@expovest.ro* Expovest

Conf. dr. **Constantin ȚĂRAN** – Université "Tibiscus"

Psychologue **Teodora URSU-NEAMȚ** – secrétaire AΨB

e-mail: *eupsiro2007@tibiscus.ro*

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Psih. **Gelu V. TODEA** - member of AΨB – Timișoara

PARTNERS IN ORGANIZATION (in alphabetical order):

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Psih. **Gelu V. TODEA** – president of AΨB

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Conf. dr. **Constantin ȚĂRAN** – ”Tibiscus” University
Psyh. **Teodora URSU-NEAMȚ** – secretary of AΨB

e-mail: eupsiro2007@tibiscus.ro

MESAJUL ADIȚIONAL AL EUΨRO

AΨB și partenerii săi sunt la a V-a Conferință Internațională de psihologie aplicată.

Prima manifestare, numită SNPA, a avut loc în martie 1997, au participat 150 de specialiști, dintre care doar 5 specialiști din străinătate. De menționat că atunci, pe data de 15 martie 1997 la Adunarea Generală a AΨB, desfășurată împreună cu universitari și psihologi din țară, președintele AΨB a propus pentru prima dată într-un cadru organizat redactarea legislației specifice și a unui Cod deontologic al psihologilor autohtoni. Colegii din Cluj au preluat sarcina pentru codul deontologic, iar bănățenii pentru Legea Psihologului.

Al doilea eveniment remarcabil a fost colaborarea cu Uniunea Fundația Augusta (UFA) care a finanțat studenți în anii finali și cadre universitare tinere pentru a participa la eveniment. De atunci durează, de fapt, colaborarea cu această fundație și președintele ei prof. Augusta ANCA.

A doua manifestare a AΨB numită SIPA a avut loc în aprilie 1999 tot la Timișoara, iarăși UFA și-a sprijinit financiar participanții prin aceeași persoană, parcă îndrăgostită de psihologie, prof. Augusta ANCA. Între timp proiectul de lege redactat de AΨB și numit „Lege privind formarea psihologilor, organizarea și funcționarea profesiei de psiholog în România” a ajuns în Parlamentul României înscrisă cu nr. 406/1998, după ce a fost aprobată, la insistențele AΨB, și de Adunarea Generală a Asociației Psihologilor din Romania, București la 15.11.1998

La SIPA au participat deja 11 specialiști străini, din 18, 7 au rămas blocați pe aeroportul din Viena, dat fiind că începuse războiul din Serbia.

Comunicările „in extenso” au fost publicate în 2 volume bilingve la o editură timisoreană, într-un tiraj de 150 de exemplare. Psihologia autohtonă fuse-se criticată la un congres internațional de psihologie de către un psiholog J. Stevens care profesase temporar în Romania anilor '90. A fost un semn ca societatea civilă să reacționeze.

A treia manifestare a fost conferința de la Sinaia - EUΨRO mai 2001, unde deja numărul de participanți străini a ajuns aproape la paritate cu cel al românilor participanți. Aici a început cu adevărat parteneriatul cu UFA și am cunoscut firma austriacă „Dr. G. Schuhfried GmbH” care a expus produsele sale de psihologie, stârnind curiozitatea specialiștilor. Volumul bilingv „in extenso”, de 500 de pagini, a fost editat în anul 2002 cu CIP și ISBN. S-a discutat foarte aprins despre starea psihologiei autohtone și despre ce ar trebui să facem. A se consulta volumul amintit care se găsește la bibliotecile facultăților de psihologie din Romania. Cu sprijinul sponsorilor, am reușit să finanțăm participarea a 14 tineri psihologi. Între timp proiectul de lege era „blocat” pe la comisiile parlamentare deși îl însoțeau avizele favorabile a 5 ministere. No comment!

A patra manifestare a fost conferința de la Timișoara, EUΨRO octombrie 2003, când dr. G. Schuhfried din Austria ne-a devenit partener de organizare, eram deja trei parteneri, conferința a fost o reușită. Două zile de comunicări pe secțiuni, două simpozioane și trei workshopuri pe teme de psihodiagnoză și intervenție specializată. Au participat 165 de specialiști în psihologia aplicată și nu numai. S-a editat iarăși volumul bilingv care a fost distribuit la bibliotecile universitare de psihologie din țară și bineînțeles participanților. S-a tradus simultan pentru cei 24 de specialiști străini.

Între timp, însă, proiectul legii a fost blocat și o nouă formă a apărut centrată pe ceea ce se numește azi „Colegiul Psihologilor din România” și nu spre psihologi.

În anul 2005 nu am organizat conferința EUΨRO 2005 din multe motive pe care acum nu credem că trebuie să le menționăm.

Mai trebuie să menționăm echipa de tineri psihologi care a fost cu noi din 1997 - 2003, atunci studenți și studenți: psih. Mioara Țerovan acum în Olanda, psih. George Luca, acum în



Germania, psih. Sonia Tăuș în Timișoara, psih. Simona Borza acum în Timișoara, psih. Carmen Mircea, acum în Timișoara, dr. Psih. Alina Mazilescu, Robert & Andreea Agoston acum în Alba Iulia, Carmen & Sorin Răileanu tot în Timișoara care lucrează și colaborează cu noi.

Suntem în procesul de formare a unei noi echipe de tineri organizatori.

Pentru EUΨRO mai-iunie 2007 am mai câștigat un partener în persoana d-lui arh. Ion P. Pop patronul de la www.expovest.ro suntem deja patru.

Din păcate nu toți au fost și sunt împreună cu noi, dar îi așteptăm cu dorința de comunicare pe care am avut-o de fiecare dată.

Partenerii EUΨRO 2007 fac o ofertă specialiștilor să vină și să comunice în slujba OMULUI.

De menționat că firma ALCATEL ne ajută deja din 2001, îl felicităm pe d-l manager general Dan Bedros fiindcă a fost și este alături de noi. Așteptăm ca integrarea în U.E. să se realizeze împreună și cu noi psihologii, a căror capacitate aplicative pot fi atât de diverse pe cât de diverse sunt activitățile și stările OMULUI.

Vă așteptăm la Timișoara,

ORGANIZATORII EUΨRO 2007

Iată câteva informații din partea noastră despre ce s-a întâmplat la EUΨRO 2007 și după, până la tipărirea acestui volum.

În primul rând, a trebuit să așteptăm până în trimestrul IV al anului 2007 ca să reușim să adunăm lucrările „in extenso”. Ne-am propus să le tipărim, așa că nu ne-am sfiit să dăm e-mail-uri după e-mail-uri de atenționare. Acum, situația finală în privința autorilor de comunicări este următoarea:

Au extenso doar în limba română, menționăm că și-au prezentat comunicarea în secțiune:

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Plecând de la faptul că o comunicare prezentată la o conferință internațională, unde s-a asigurat și traducerea simultană în română, franceză și engleză, accesul liber la informația științifică fiind asigurat pentru toți participanții, pe lângă faptul că se constituie ca proprietate intelectuală, este cotate în mod onorabil în galeria contribuțiilor științifice cu caracter aplicativ, am decis să tipărim două volume. Unul dintre acestea numai în limba română, circa 400 de pagini și celălalt doar în limbi străine, circa 600 de pagini, ambele cu ISSN și sub egida unor referenți

științifici români și străini. Acestea vor fi trimise gratuit celor care au incluse comunicările în volumul respectiv, vom trimite și la bibliotecile universitare de psihologie.

Am mai decis să publicăm și rezumatele acelor care nu și-au trimis comunicările „in extenso”, la fel și lista celor care nu au venit deși s-au anunțat că vor participa. Nu discutăm motivele acum, însă noi am mizat pe încredere și vom miza în continuare.

Un participant de marcă a întrebat oragnizatorii de ce sunt atâtea conferințe de psihologie în România aproximativ în aceeași perioadă, și de ce nu încercăm să ne unim să facem conferințe de ansamblu cu tematici și mai diverse, respectând voința partenerilor. Poate că ar trebui să-i răspundem acum după ce timpul a mai trecut.

În primul rând noi am propus o organizare comună la Timișoara, în aceeași locație, a „Salonului național de psihologie”, Ed. 2007 și celor de la Cluj care au organizat „Simpozionul de psihologie industrială & organizațională”, d-lui Ovidiu Brăzdău și respectiv d-lui Horia Pitariu, ambele refuzuri au fost diplomatice. Orgolii zonale, organizări zonale poate declanșate și de cele cinci conferințe internaționale timișorene, AΨB-iste: 1997, 1999, 2001 (Sinaia), 2003, 2007.

Ceea ce a fost însă făcut, a rămas făcut. Trebuie să mulțumim „Colegiului Psihologilor din România” care după multe argumentări a cedat și a acordat creditele necesare participanților la EUΨRO 2007 Timișoara.

Partenerul nostru „Expovest” Timișoara, mai bine zis cei care ne-au oferit locația, s-a dovedit a fi o firmă bicefală familială cu decizii inițiale excelente, apoi din ce în ce mai restrânse și cu modificări uneori neașteptate privind sălile, ne referim la ultimele zile pregătitoare când, au apărut „din senin” noi clienți pentru săli. Noroc că permutările s-au făcut la timp cu sprijinul echipei noastre iar participanții au simțit mai puțin direct disfuncțiile.

În legătură cu traducerile simultane, costurile au fost mari din cauza unor firme care contactate din vreme au promis, apoi însă s-au răzgândit. În aceste condiții a trebuit să acceptăm formule de preț nenegociabile atât pentru aparatura de la Cluj, cât și la traducătorii timișoreni care, într-o echipă ad-hoc, au venit și-au făcut treaba bine, dar în același timp au impus prețul. Deși doream să-i mulțumesc încă odată d-rei Petcvoici Tania de la Universitatea „Tibiscus” din Timișoara pentru că s-a implicat în găsirea traducătorilor, a făcut o treabă bună la corectura volumului prezent, pe care i-am solicitat-o, a încercat să impună iarăși un preț care viza o traducere și nu o corectură cum era de fapt solicitarea. Am renunțat și la a-i mulțumi pentru ofertă și la un posibil contract de corectură. Așa este între autohtoni. În schimb, trebuie să-i mulțumim excelentei traducătoare din franceză, care a însoțit grupul premianților și al oragnizatorilor la excursia pe Dunăre în 03.06.07, care nu a cerut nimic deși poate că ar fi meritat, și-a oferit serviciile pe gratis. De o amabilitate cuceritoare și cu o prezență liniștită a încântat invitații prin traducerea simultană făcută și cultura dânssei. Îi mulțumim și îi vom oferi volumele & DVD-ul conferinței gratis. Psihologia umană ne oferă astfel de surprize. Cei ca Petcovici Tania reușesc, cei ca doamna Butan Maria rămân pentru totdeauna.

Mai mult, ne gândim cu mult respect la persoane care au ajutat voluntar la bunul mers al conferinței la care au și participat: d-na Dorina Chis, d-l François Alaban și mulți alții.

Mai jos vă oferim lista câștigătorilor concursului cercetărilor tinerilor participanți, ne referim la primul autor, evaluările le-au făcut moderatorii secțiunilor după criterii ca impactul aplicativ, prezentarea, afilierea la tematica secțiunii și a conferinței. D-na Monica Albu, președinta comitetului științific împreună cu organizatorii, au înmănat aceste premii în obiecte la festivitatea de închidere. AΨB mulțumește sponsorilor pentru că au creat această posibilitate și în 2007.



**Premiul I - LUCAS MOLINA, Beatriz¹, CALDERÓN LÓPEZ Sonsoles²
MENDOZA GONZÁLEZ, Brenda³**

***School ecologies of victimisation and aggression
Les ecologies scolaires dans l'étude de la victimisation et de l'agression***

Universidad Complutense, Departamento de Psicología
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Premiul II - DUCHON Coralie¹, GANGLOFF Bernard²

***Valorisation différenciée des chômeurs selon la raison idéologique ou mercenaire de leur
adhésion versus non adhésion à la norme d'allégeance***

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mercenary reason of their support versus non support for the allegiance norm***

Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et Département de
Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paradiaba (Brésil)

²Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France).

Premiul III - AHMAD S. Salman

***Moving towards client-therapist synergy in psychological assessment, counselling and
therapy***

Orientându-ne spre o sinergie client-terapeut

Senior Lecturer, Institute of Management Technology, Nagpur India

Mențiuni:

1. ANTALAG Sorin Remus

***Cercetare privind utilizarea T.A.G. pentru selecția pentru siguranța circulației feroviare.
Study regarding the utility of T.A.G. for selection in railway safety***

Laboratorul Regional de Examinări Psihologice CFR Timișoara

2. URSU-NEAMȚ Teodora Sonia

***Reprezentarea socială a responsabilității la personalul din siguranța circulației feroviare
Responsability's social representation at people who work in railway safety***

Laboratorul Regional de Examinări Psihologice CFR Timișoara.

Totodată ne bucură faptul că am reușit ca tinerilor studenți din echipa de organizare să le oferim cărți de specialitate, primite ca sponsorizare de la librăria Esotera-Timișoara, un modest feed-back profesional pentru tot ceea ce au făcut.

Ne-au mâhnit cei care ori nu au vrut să ajungă la conferință, ori nu au reușit din motive temeinice, când ne gândim că echipa de psihologi din Spania, deși au avut încurcături pe aeroporturile europene au ajuns cu o zi întârziere, dar în final au fost eficienți.

Sperăm că micile disfuncții să fi fost uitate repede de participanți. Îi felicităm pe colegii psihologi de la DGSPAC București, care sprijiniți de o administrație inimoasă au venit și au trăit o experiență utilă la Timișoara.

Sperând că v-a plăcut, vă mulțumim că ați fost la Timișoara și vă mai așteptăm.

**Președinte AΨB,
psih. Gelu V. TODEA**

MESSAGE ADDITIONNEL D'EUΨRO

AΨB & ses partenaires en sont à la 5ème Conférence internationale de psychologie appliquée. La première, S.N.P.A., a eu lieu en Mars 1997, conférence qui a réuni 150 spécialistes, dont seulement 5 ont été étrangers. On doit mentionner que le 15 mars 1997, à la Réunion Générale de l'AΨB, à laquelle ont participé des cadres universitaires et des psychologues de tout le pays, le président de l'AΨB a proposé pour la première fois dans un cadre organisé, la réalisation d'une législation spécifique et d'un Code déontologique des psychologues autochtones. Nos collègues de Cluj-Napoca se sont assumés la responsabilité de réaliser le code déontologique et nous, de réaliser la Loi du Psychologue. Le deuxième événement remarquable a été la collaboration avec l'Union la Fondation Augusta (UFA), qui a financé les étudiants des années terminales et de jeunes cadres universitaires pour y participer. Cette collaboration avec l'union et avec son président, prof. Augusta ANCA dure encore.

La deuxième manifestation de l'AΨB, nommée S.I.P.A., a eu lieu en Avril 1999, toujours à Timișoara. UFA a financé encore ses participants, prof. Augusta Anca, semble aimer beaucoup la psychologie. Entre temps, le projet pour la loi proposé par l'AΨB «La loi concernant la formation des psychologues, l'organisation et le fonctionnement de la profession de psychologue en Roumanie», est finalement présenté dans le Parlement de la Roumanie, sous le numéro. 406/1998: La loi en projet a été votée le 15.11.1998, aux instances de l'AΨB et de l'Assemblée Générale de l'Association des Psychologues de Roumanie. Au S.I.P.A. ont participé déjà 11 spécialistes étrangers. 7 autres ont été bloqués dans l'aéroport de Vienne, à cause de l'éclat de la guerre en Serbie.

Les communications «in extenso» ont été publiées en deux volumes bilingues par une maison d'édition de Timișoara, en 150 exemplaires. La psychologie autochtone a été critiquée à un congrès international de psychologie par un psychologue, J. Stevens, qui avait travaillé temporairement en Roumanie dans les années '90. Il était temps que la société civile réagisse.

La troisième manifestation a été la conférence de Sinaia, «EUΨRO» mai 2001, où, déjà le nombre de participants étrangers a presque égalisé celui des Roumains. C'est ici qu'a commencé la vraie collaboration avec l'UFA et que nous avons connu la firme Autrichienne «Dr. G. Schuhfried GmbH» qui a présenté aux spécialistes curieux ses produits en matière de psychologie. Le volume bilingue «in extenso», 500 pages, a été publié en 2002. On a parlé longtemps de la psychologie autochtone et de ce que nous devons faire. Dans le volume mentionné au-dessus se trouve un article sur les bibliothèques des facultés de psychologie de Roumanie. Avec l'aide des sponsors nous avons réussi de financer la participation de 14 jeunes psychologues. Entre temps, le projet de la loi était «bloqué» aux commissions parlementaires, quoiqu'il ait déjà ses avis favorables de 5 ministères. No comment!

La quatrième conférence, organisée à Timișoara, «EUΨRO» octobre 2003, quand dr. G. Schuhfried d'Autriche, est devenu notre partenaire. Nous étions ainsi déjà trois partenaires à organiser cette conférence, qui a été d'un grand succès. Deux jours de communications dans différentes sections, deux symposiums et trois ateliers thématiques (psychodiagnostic et intervention spécialisée). Le nombre de spécialistes est arrivé à 165, participant à la psychologie appliquée et pas seulement. On a publié de nouveau un volume bilingue qui a été distribué aux bibliothèques universitaires de psychologie du pays, et bien sûr aux participants. On a offert des traductions simultanées aux 24 spécialistes étrangers.

Entre temps, le projet de la loi a été bloqué et une nouvelle forme est apparue, centrée sur ce qu'on appelle aujourd'hui «Le collège des psychologues de Roumanie» et non pas sur les psychologues

En 2005 nous n'avons plus organisé «EUΨRO 2005» à cause de plusieurs raisons que nous ne voulons pas mentionner. Nous devons mentionner l'équipe de jeunes psychologues qui a été avec nous à partir de 1997 à 2003, à ce temps là, étudiants: psih. Mioara Țerovan qui est en Hollande aujourd'hui, psih. George Luca, aujourd'hui en Allemagne, psih. Sonia Tăuș



- Timișoara, psih. Simona Borza - Timișoara, psih. Carmen Mircea, - Timișoara, dr. Psih. Alina Mazilescu, France et Timișoara, Robert & Andreea Agoston en Alba Iulia, Carmen & Sorin Răileanu – Timișoara, ces deux familles (psychologues et designers) travaillent et collaborent encore volontairement avec nous, comme ils l'ont fait auparavant. Nous sommes en train de former une nouvelle équipe de jeunes organisateurs pour les manifestations scientifiques.

Pour «EUΨRO» Mai -Juin 2007 nous avons acquis un nouveau partenaire, Mr. Architecte Ion P. Pop, le patron du www.expovest.ro, ainsi, nous sommes déjà en quatre. Malheureusement, pas tous sont ensemble à nous, mais, nous les attendons avec le même désir de communiquer, comme toujours.

Les partenaires «EUΨRO 2007» font une offre aux spécialistes, de venir et communiquer!

Il faut aussi mentionner qu'ALCATEL nous aide déjà depuis 2001, nous remercions directeur générale Mr. Dan Bedros d'avoir été et d'être encore avec nous. Nous attendons que l'intégration à l'U.E. se réalise avec nous, des psychologues, dont les capacités applicatives puissent être aussi diverses que les activités et les états de l'HOMME.

Nous vous attendons à Timișoara.

LES ORGANISATEURS EUΨRO 2007

Voilà quelques informations sur EUΨRO 2007.

Tout d'abord on dû attendre la fin de l'année 2007 avant de pouvoir mettre ensemble les communications «in extenso». Puisque notre intention était de les faire imprimer au plus tôt, nous avons utilisé les messages électroniques avec insistance pour solliciter les papiers. À ce moment, la situation de la collecte du matériel se présente ainsi:

Les auteurs suivants ont présenté leurs communications dans la conférence, mais nous ont envoyé «in extenso» seulement la version roumaine:

- BĂRBULESCU Cristina Elena, SECUREANU Oana Cristina;
- COCOȘ Mihaela;
- VELEANOVICI Armand Cătălin, VĂDUVA Mădălina, CRISTESCU Elena Elvira.

Ou bien ils nous ont remis seulement les résumés:

- CERNICOVA Mariana
- DROBOT Loredana
- JACOB Charles
- JURCĂU Nicolae
- KERZIL Jennifer, SOLBES Canales Irene
- KURIANSKY Judy
- LAFORET Caroline
- MANEA Traian, MANEA Mirela
- MENDOZA Gonzales Brenda, DIAZ-AGUADO Maria Jose, CALDERON LOPEZ Sonsoles, LUCAS Molina Beatriz
- OROS Florentina Voichița, ANDREI Valentina
- TISSERANT Pascal, WAGNER Anne Loraine, EL-GELEDI Shaha

Puisqu'une communication présentée à une conférence internationale - où on a assuré la traduction simultanée en roumain, en français et en anglais, donc le libre accès à l'information scientifique - est très honorablement cotée dans la galerie des contributions scientifiques à caractère applicatif, on a décidé de faire imprimer deux volumes. Un volume en roumain, d'environ 400 pages, et un autre, en langues étrangères, comptant environ 600 pages. Les deux volumes disposeront de ISSN et de référents roumains et étrangers. Les volumes seront remis

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



gratuitement aux auteurs publiés et aux bibliothèques universitaires de psychologie.

Nous avons décidé de publier aussi les résumés de ceux qui n'ont pas envoyé leurs communications « in extenso », ainsi que la liste des personnes qui, après inscription, n'ont plus participé à la conférence. Nous ne discutons pas ici les raisons de cette situation, mais nous avons toujours misé sur la confiance réciproque.

Un participant de marque a demandé pourquoi on organise en Roumanie autant de conférences de psychologie dans la même période et pourquoi ne pas essayer d'unir nos forces afin d'organiser des conférences plus larges, avec des thématiques plus diverses, tout en respectant la volonté des partenaires. Il est peut-être le moment de répondre à cette question.

Il faut dire tout d'abord que nous avons proposé d'organiser cette année à Timisoara, dans la même location, une manifestation plus ample réunissant EUΨRO 2007, le Salon national de psychologie et le Symposium de psychologie industrielle et organisationnelle (de Cluj). M. Ovidiu Brazdau aussi bien que M. Horia Pitariu – les organisateurs respectifs – nous ont diplomatiquement refusé. L'orgueil / l'esprit du clocher s'est peut-être fait sentir, devant la réussite des cinq conférences internationales de Timisoara (1997, 1999, 2001-Sinaia, 2003, 2007).

Nous avons donc agi à notre compte. Nous remercions le « Collège de psychologues de Roumanie » qui nous a accordé son aide.

Notre partenaire, "Expovest"-Timișoara (ou plutôt ceux qui nous ont offert la location), s'est avéré une firme familiale bicéphale, dont les excellentes intentions premières ont changé par la suite, parfois soudain, au détriment de notre conférence. Nous pensons surtout aux dernières journées de préparatifs, lorsque de nouveaux clients semblent avoir fait l'apparition, réclamant les salles qui nous étaient destinées. Notre équipe a fait de son mieux pour changer d'emplacement aussi discrètement et efficacement que possible.

Au sujet de la traduction simultanée, il faut mentionner que les coûts ont été élevés. C'est que les firmes contactées à l'avance nous avaient promis leur collaboration, pour changer d'avis par après. Dans cette situation nous avons dû payer le prix de ceux qui avaient accepté de nous aider : les collaborateurs de Cluj qui avaient fourni le matériel électronique et les interprètes de Timisoara, dont la prestation a été excellente. Je voulais remercier encore une fois Mlle Tania Petcovici, de l'Université « Tibiscus » - Timisoara, qui nous a aidé – avec beaucoup de succès – à trouver les interprètes nécessaires. Au moment où nous lui avons demandé de prendre en charge la révision du volume en langues étrangères, elle a encore une fois voulu imposer son prix. Nous avons donc renoncé à l'offre et au contrat de révision. C'est ainsi que ça se passe entre les autochtones... Par contre, nous remercions l'excellente interprète de français, Mme Maria Butan. Après la conférence, le 03.06.07, elle a accompagné le groupe de participants à l'excursion sur le Danube, sans demander de rémunération pour ses services. Elle a impressionné les invités par son amabilité, sa tranquillité souriante, sa culture et par la qualité de son interprétation. Nous pensons aussi lui offrir les volumes de la conférence en signe de considération. La psychologie humaine nous offre parfois de telles surprises agréables !

Nous mentionnons aussi, avec beaucoup de respect, des personnes qui ont apporté leur aide volontaire aux travaux de la conférence, tout en y participant: Mme Dorina Chis, M. François Alaban et beaucoup d'autres.

AΨB remercie les partenaires qui ont assuré le parrainage de notre conférence de 2007 et ont rendu possible cet événement.

Vous pouvez trouver plus bas la liste des gagnants de notre concours ouvert aux jeunes chercheurs participants. C'est toujours le premier auteur qui a été primé. L'évaluation a été faite, dans chaque cas, par les modérateurs des sections, selon des critères tels l'impacte applicatif, la présentation, l'affiliation à la thématique de la section et de la conférence. Mme Monica Albu, la présidente du comité scientifique, et les organisateurs ont remis les prix, durant la festivité de clôture.

Nous sommes heureux d'avoir pu offrir aux étudiants de l'équipe d'organisateur plusieurs livres de spécialité, offerts par la librairie Esotera-Timișoara, une modeste récompense pour leurs efforts.



Nous regrettons que certains collègues n'aient pas pu ou voulu participer à notre conférence, d'autant plus que l'équipe de psychologues d'Espagne, malgré leurs mésaventures sur les aéroports, sont arrivés tout de même. Nous pensons aussi aux psychologues de DGSPAC București, qui, soutenus par une administration généreuse, ont donné cours à notre invitation.

Tout en espérant que les participants garderont de beaux souvenirs de cet événement, nous vous adressons nos remerciements, nos pensées les meilleures et nous vous attendons à la prochaine conférence.

**Premiul I - LUCAS MOLINA, Beatriz¹, CALDERÓN LÓPEZ Sonsoles²
MENDOZA GONZÁLEZ, Brenda³**

School ecologies of victimisation and aggression

Les ecologies scolaires dans l'étude de la victimisation et de l'agression

Universidad Complutense, Departamento de Psicología

Evolutiva Y De La Educación, Madrid, España

Premier prix - DUCHON Coralie¹, GANGLOFF Bernard²

Valorisation différenciée des chômeurs selon la raison idéologique ou mercenaire de leur adhésion versus non adhésion à la norme d'allégeance

Differential valorization of the unemployed person according to the ideological or mercenary reason of their support versus non support for the allegiance norm

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²Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France).

Deuxième prix - AHMAD S. Salman

Moving towards client-therapist synergy in psychological assessment, counselling and therapy

Orientându-ne spre o sinergie client-terapeut

Senior Lecturer, Institute of Management Technology, Nagpur India

Troisième prix:

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**Président AΨB,
psychologue Gelu V. TODEA**

ADDITIONAL EUΨRO MESSAGE

AΨB & and its partners are at the 5th International Conference of Applied Psychology. The first conference, named S.N.P.A., was organized in March 1997. 150 specialists participated, 5 of which were from abroad. We have to mention that on the 15th of March, 1997, at the General Assembly of AΨB attended by several university staff and psychologists from the entire country, the president of AΨB proposed for the first time in an organized meeting, the editing of a specific law and a deontological code for the autochthon psychologists. Our colleagues from Cluj assumed the task of editing the code and, we, the Banat psychologists, conceived the Psychologist's law.

The second remarkable event was the collaboration with the Augusta Foundation Union (AFU) which financed some of the students in their final years of studies and young university staff in order to participate at this event. The collaboration with the foundation and its president, prof. Augusta Anca, lasts ever since.

The second conference of the AΨB, named S.I.P.A. took place in april 1999, still at Timisoara. AFU assumed again the financial support of the participants, in view of the fact that Mrs Augusta Anca seems to feel affection for psychology. Meanwhile, the law project edited by the AΨB under the name "Law regarding the formation of psychologists, the organization and functioning of the psychologist's profession in Romania" finally arrived in the Romanian Parliament, recorded as law number 406/1998, after beeing approved on the 15.11.1998, at the insistences of the AΨB and the General Assembly of the Psychologists Association from Romania, Bucharest.

11 foreign specialists out of 18 have participated at the S.I.P.A. 7 have been blocked at the Vienna airport because of the war in Serbia.

The "in extenso" communications were published in two bilingual volumes by an editor from Timisoara, in 150 copies. The autochthonous psychology was criticized at the international congress of psychology by a certain psychologist, named J. Stevens, who once worked on temporary bases in Romanian during the '90s. It was a sign that the civil society should react.

The third manifestation was the conference of Sinaia, named EUΨRO, in May 2001, The number of foreign participants was quite equalled by the Romanian participants. It was here, that the real partnership with AFU began, and we encountered the Austrian firm "Dr. G. Schuhfried GmbH", who presented its products in psychology to the enquiring specialists. The bilingual volume "in extenso", containing 500 pages, was edited in 2002. There were a lot of discussions about the state of the autochthonous psychology and about what could be done in the given context. Concerning that, you can see the book mentioned above, which can be found in all the libraries of the psychology faculties from Romania. We succeeded to finance, with the help of our sponsors, the participation of 14 young psychologists. Meanwhile, the law project was "stuck" at the parliamentary commissions, although it had the approval of 5 ministries. No comment!

The forth manifestation was the conference in Timisoara, « EUΨRO » October 2003, when Dr. G. Schuhfried from Austria became a partner in organising the conference. We had already been three partners and the conference was a big success: two days of communications in several sections, two symposiums and three workshops on psychodiagnosis and specialized intervention. 165 specialists attended with specialized in the field of applied psychology and not only. Another bilingual volume was published, that was distributed to all the universities throughout the country, and of course, to the participants. We had simultaneous translation for the 24 foreign specialists. Meanwhile, the law project was still "stuck" and a new form appeared, centred on what we call today "The Romanian Psychologists' College" and not on psychologists.



We did not organize the « EUΨRO 2005 » conference, out of reasons we abstain to mention here.

We have to point out the team of young psychologists (students by that time), that were with us from 1997 to 2003: Psych. Mioara Țerovan now in Holland, Psych. George Luca, now in Germany, Psych. Sonia Tăuș - Timisoara, Psych. Simona Borza - Timișoara, Psych. Carmen Mircea, - Timișoara, Dr. Psych. Alina Mazilescu, France & Timisoara, Robert & Andreea Agoston now in Alba Iulia, Carmen & Sorin Răileanu – Timișoara, these two families (psychologists and designers) still work and collaborate voluntarily with us, just as they did before.

We are about to form a new team of young organisers for scientific manifestations.

For « EUΨRO » May - June 2007 we won another partner, Mr. Architect Ion P. Pop, the owner of the www.expovest.ro. We are already four.

Unfortunately, not all were and are together with us, but we are looking forward to communicating with them, as we did every time.

The partners of « EUΨRO 2007 » make for the specialists an offer, to come and communicate in name of and serving the HUMAN BEING.

We have to mention also, that ALCATEL has been helping us from 2001. We congratulate Mr. General manager Dan Bedros for being with us. We hope that the integration in the E.U. takes place along with us, psychologists' whose applicative capacities are as varied as the HUMAN activities and states.

We are waiting for you in Timisoara!

THE ORGANIZERS OF EUΨRO 2007

Here are a few information from us, about what happened at EUΨRO 2007 and afterwards, until this volume was published.

First of all, we had to wait until the IV th trimester of 2007 in order to manage to gather all the papers "in extenso". Our goal was to publish them, so we did not shy to send attentioning e-mail after e-mail. Now, the final situation towards the communication authors is the following: ***They have an extenso only in Romanian***, we mention that they presented their paper in the section:

- BĂRBULESCU Cristina Elena, SECUREANU Oana Cristina;
- COCOȘ Mihaela;
- VELEANOVICI Armand Cătălin, VĂDUVA Mădălina, CRISTESCU Elena Elvira.

They have only SUMMARIES we mention that they presented their paper in the section:

- CERNICOVA Mariana
- DROBOT Loredana
- JACOB Charles
- JURCĂU Nicolae
- KERZIL Jennifer, SOLBES Canales Irene
- KURIANSKY Judy
- LAFORET Caroline
- MANEA Traian, MANEA Mirela
- MENDOZA Gonzales Brenda, DIAZ-AGUADO Maria Jose, CALDERON LOPEZ Sonsoles, LUCAS Molina Beatriz
- OROS Florentina Voichița, ANDREI Valentina
- TISSERANT Pascal, WAGNER Anne Loraine, EL-GELEDI Shaha

Starting from the fact that a presented rapport at an international conference, where the simultaneous Romanian, French and English translation was provided, the free access to the scientific information for all participants, after the fact that it was built as an intellectual property, was honorably noted in the gallery of scientific contributions with an applicable character. We decided to print two volumes. One of these is only in Romanian and has about 400 pages and the other one is only in foreign languages, about 600 pages, both ISSN and under the aegis of some scientific Romanian and foreign researchers. The latter shall be sent for free to the ones that have included papers in that specific volumes. We shall also send copies to the university's psychology libraries.

We have also decided to publish the summaries of the ones that have not sent their papers "in extenso", as well as the list of those who did not come, although they announced they would. We are not discussing now the reasons, but we bet on trust and will continue to do so.

An important participant asked the organisers why are so many psychology conferences in Romania approximately in the same period and why we do not try to unite and make global conferences with different themes and more diverse respecting the wish of the partners. Perhaps we should answer him now, after time has passed.

First of all, we proposed a joined organization in Timisoara, at the same location, the National Salon of Psychology, 2007 Ed., and of the ones in Cluj that have organized the psychology Symposium of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, to Mr. Ovidiu Brăzdău și Mr. Horia Pitariu, both denials have been diplomatic. Local vanities, local organizations started perhaps also by the five international conferences from Timisoara, AΨ B : 1997, 1999, 2001(Sinaia), 2003, 2007.

What was done, remains done. We must thank "The College of Psychologists from Romania", that after many arguments has given in and gave the necessary credits to the EUΨRO 2007 Timișoara participants.

Our partner "Expovest"-Timișoara, better said the ones that used our location, proved to be a bicephalous firm, familiar to initial excellent decisions, than tighter and with sometimes unexpected alterations regarding the auditoriums, we are referring to the last preparing days, when "ou of the blue" new clients for the auditoriums appeared. Lucky for us that the changes were made in time with the help of our team, and the participants felt the disfunctions less directly.

Regarding the simultaneous translations, the costs were very high due to some companies, which contacted from time promised, but afterwards changed their minds. Taking into consideration all these conditions we should accept the price formulas non-negotiable for the Cluj installation, but also for the translators from Timisoara who, in a ad-hoc team came, did their job well, but at the same time established the price. Although I wanted to thank once again Mrs. Petcovici Tania from Tibiscus University – Timișoara for having been involved in finding the translators, has done a good job, at the correction for the current volume, which I have asked her, has again tried to impose a price that was in connection to a translation and not a correction, as the application originally was. I gave up even to thanking her for the offer and a possible contract for the correction. This is the procedure between locals. In exchange, we must thank the excellent French translator that has accompanied the group of the awarded and the organisers in the trip on the Danube on 03.06.07 that has not not asked nothing although perhaps she would have deserved, and offered her services for free. Of an overwhelming kindness and a quiet presence had delighted the guests through the simultaneous translation made and her knowledge. We thank her and we will offer her the volumes and the DVD of the conference for free. Human psychology offers many surprises like this one. The ones like Petcovici Tania succeed, the ones like Butan Maria stay forever.

Moreover, we respectfully think of persons that voluntarily helped at the well being of the conference, at which they have also participated: Mrs. Dorina Chis, Mr. François Alaban and many more.



We offer you below the list of the winners of the contest of the researches of the young participants, we make a reference to the first author, the evaluations that the moderators of the sections have made after criteria like the applicative impact, the presentation, the thematic belonging of the section and the conference. Mrs. Monica Albu, the president of the scientific committee, together with the organisers have handed prizes in objects at the closing festivity.

AΨB thanks the sponsors for having created this possibility in 2007, as well.

**I st Prize- LUCAS MOLINA, Beatriz¹, CALDERÓN LÓPEZ Sonsoles²
MENDOZA GONZÁLEZ, Brenda³**

School ecologies of victimisation and aggression

Les ecologies scolaires dans l'étude de la victimisation et de l'agression

Universidad Complutense, Departamento de Psicología

Evolutiva Y De La Educación, Madrid, España

II nd Prize - DUCHON Coralie¹, GANGLOFF Bernard²

Valorisation différenciée des chômeurs selon la raison idéologique ou mercenaire de leur adhésion versus non adhésion à la norme d'allégeance

Differential valorization of the unemployed person according to the ideological or mercenary reason of their support versus non support for the allegiance norm

Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et Département de

Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paradi'ba (Brésil)

²Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France).

III rd Prize - AHMAD S. Salman

Moving towards client-therapist synergy in psychological assessment, counselling and therapy

Orientându-ne spre o sinergie client-terapeut

Senior Lecturer, Institute of Management Technology, Nagpur India

Honorable Mentions:

1. ANTALAG Sorin Remus

Cercetare privind utilizarea T.A.G. pentru selecția pentru siguranța circulației feroviare.

Study regarding the utility of T.A.G. for selection in railway safety

Laboratorul Regional de Examinări Psihologice CFR Timișoara

2. URSU-NEAMȚ Teodora Sonia

Reprezentarea socială a responsabilității la personalul din siguranța circulației feroviare

Responsability's social representation at people who work in railway safety

Laboratorul Regional de Examinări Psihologice CFR Timișoara.

At the same time, we are glad that we succeeded to provide the young students from the organizing team with books in the domain of practice, received as a sponsorship from Esotera-Timișoara library, a professional modest feedback for all that we have done.

We were sad by all that did not want to arrive at the conference, or could not from reliable reasons, when we think that the psychology team from Spain, although having had troubles on European airports, have arrived a day later, but were finally efficient.

We hope that these few problems to have been forgotten quickly by the participants. We congratulate our fellow psychologists from DGSPAC Bucharest, who supported by a benevolent administration, came and lived a fruitful experience in Timisoara.

Hoping that you enjoyed yourselves, we thank you for being in Timisoara and we are waiting for you again.

**AΨB President,
psychologist Gelu V. TODEA**

EINLEITUNG EUPSIRO

Guten Morgen, meine Damen und Herrn,

es ist mir eine große Freude, an der Eröffnung der fünften Konferenz EUPSIRO teilnehmen zu können. EUPSIRO hat sich einen festen und anerkannten Platz unter den psychologischen Tagungen gesichert.

Ich finde es auch richtig, daß die Konferenz hier in Temeschburg stattfindet. Temeschburg ist aus Tradition ein Treffpunkt verschiedener Kulturen.

Vom Beitritt zur EU werden besonders die Regionen westlich der Karpaten profitieren. Auch aus diesem Grund ist Temeschburg ein gut gewählter Platz. Schon jetzt fehlen in verschiedenen Gebieten qualifizierte Arbeitskräfte. Unsere Kompetenz zur Auswahl und zur Entwicklung von Mitarbeitern wird benötigt werden.

So ist es auch konsequent, daß die Tibiscus Universität und die Firma SCHUHFRIED ihre jahrelange Zusammenarbeit intensivieren. Während des Kongresses werden wir einen Vertrag zur wissenschaftlichen Zusammenarbeit abschließen.

Die wichtigsten Punkte dieses Vertrages sind:

Einrichten eines Testzentrums

Gemeinsam wird ein ein Forschungslabor mit fünf computergestützten Arbeitsplätzen eingerichtet.

Wissenschaftliche Zusammenarbeit

Wir werden auf allen Gebieten der psychologischen Diagnostik zusammenarbeiten. Anfangs werden wir uns auf Fragen der Verkehrspsychologie, der Personalauswahl und Personalentwicklung konzentrieren.

Normieren von Tests

Wir werden gemeinsam rumänische Normen für computergestützte Tests erheben. Damit werden computergestützte Tests mit allen ihren Vorteilen auch in Rumänien allgemeiner.

Wissenschaftlicher Austausch

Unsere Firma wird Master Kurse auf dem Gebiet computergestützter psychologischer Diagnostik und computergestützter cognitiver Therapie abhalten oder unterstützen.

Meine Damen und Herrn,

ich bin sicher, daß auch EUPSIRO 2007 – so wie die früheren Konferenzen - interessante wissenschaftliche Ergebnisse bringen wird.

Bedanken möchte ich mich bei allen, die in so vielen Arbeitsstunden dafür gesorgt haben, daß EUPSIRO 2007 zum Erfolg wird.

Dr. Gernot Schuhfried



INTRODUCERE EUΨRO

Bună dimineața, doamnelor și domnilor,

îmi este o mare bucurie să pot participa la deschiderea celei de a cincea conferințe EUΨRO. EUΨRO și-a asigurat un loc recunoscut și sigur printre celelalte conferințe de psihologie.

Mi se pare de asemenea corect, ca această conferință să aibe loc aici, în Timișoara. Timișoara este prin tradiție un loc de întâlnire al diferitelor culturi.

Îndeosebi regiunile din vestul Carpaților vor profita de aderarea la UE. Timișoara este și din acest punct de vedere un loc bine ales. Încă de pe acum lipsește, în diferite zone, mâna de lucru calificată. Este nevoie de competența noastră pentru selecția și dezvoltarea de personal.

Universitatea „Tibiscus” și Firma SCHUHFRIED nu fac altceva decât să rămână consecvente prin intensificarea colaborării lor de ani de zile. În timpul congresului vom încheia un contract de colaborare științifică.

Cel mai important aspect al acestui contract este:

Crearea unui centru de testare. Împreună vom dota un laborator de cercetare cu cinci posturi de lucru.

Colaborarea științifică

Împreună vom acoperi toate domeniile psihodiagnosticului. Pentru început, ne vom ocupa de psihologia aplicată în traficul rutier, selecția și dezvoltarea de personal.

Normarea testelor

Împreună vom obține o normare românească pentru testele aplicate pe calculator. Acestea vor fi generalizate cu toate avantajele care decurg din acest fapt și pentru România.

Schimbul științific

Firma noastră va susține cursuri de master în domeniul psihodiagnosticului și terapiei cognitive asistate de calculator.

Doamnelor și domnilor, sunt sigur că „EUΨRO 2007” va aduce – precum conferințele anterioare – rezultate științifice interesante.

Doresc să mulțumesc tuturor celor care au asigurat, prin multe ore de lucru, succesul „EUΨRO 2007”.

Dr. Gernot Schuhfried

CUVÂNT DE DESCHIDERE - MESAJUL ȘTIINȚIFIC AL CONFERINȚEI

conf. dr. ALBU Monica

Universitatea „Tibiscus” din Timișoara, Timișoara
albu.monica@rdslink.ro

Pentru toți cei implicați în desfășurarea ei, o manifestare științifică este un spectacol. Un spectacol unic, pentru existența căruia organizatorii – acești inimoși oameni din umbră, adesea necunoscuți sau ignorați de participanți – trudesc multe luni, cu răbdare și însuflețire, pregătind în detaliu decorurile, stabilind ordinea și direcția de mișcare în scenă a protagoniștilor.

Actorii, care spre deosebire de vedetele spectacolelor de divertisment, plătesc o taxă pentru a se putea prezenta în fața publicului, joacă roluri pe care le-au scris și regizat singuri. Roluri create doar pentru această ocazie.

Emoțiile care însoțesc susținerea comunicărilor sunt mari, întrucât în fața ascultătorilor nu se prezintă discursuri concepute în grabă, sortite a fi uitate rapid, ci se supun evaluărilor critice concluziile unor activități intense în care autorii lor s-au implicat sufletește.

În spatele unei comunicări care acoperă 10 sau 15 minute se găsesc sute sau poate mii de ore de muncă asiduă, multe tentații cărora cercetătorul le-a rezistat pentru a-și economisi timpul, energia și, uneori, banii spre a-și putea desfășura activitatea de căutare a noului, menită să-i satisfacă dorința de cunoaștere. Și, din păcate, la capătul drumului anevoios al cercetării nu îl așteaptă totdeauna o descoperire, o invenție sau, măcar, confirmarea propriilor ipoteze.

Autorii comunicărilor prezentate la o manifestare științifică sunt cercetătorii victorioși, cei care, reușind să depășească numeroase greutăți, au avut ocazia să trăiască bucuria de a-și finaliza cu succes munca.

Îi felicităm pe acești învingători care și-au anunțat participarea cu comunicări la EUΨRO 2007. Îi așteptăm cu drag la Timișoara să ne împărtășească din experiențele și cunoștințele dobândite în cercetările lor, să ne bucurăm împreună cu ei de rezultatele obținute.

Monica ALBU



OPENING WORD - THE SCIENTIFIC MESSAGE OF THE CONFERENCE

For all those implied in its process, a scientific manifestation is a show. An unique show, for which's existence the organizers - those brave individuals from the shadow, often unnamed or ignored by the participants - work hard for many months, showing patience and being wholehearted in preparing in a detailed manner the setting, the timetable and the scenario.

The actors that, in difference from the movie stars, they pay a tax for presenting to the public, they play unique roles that they have written and directed by themselves.

There are huge amounts of emotions as the actors cannot present to the auditorium some papers written in the rush of the moment and meant to be rapidly forgotten, but conclusions of intense activities within the authors have been emotionally implied.

Hidden under a 10 or 15 minutes presentation, there are hundreds or thousands of hardworking hours, many temptations as time, energy and money, all ignored for the interest of the research, knowledge or novelty. There are times when at the end of the way there isn't always a discovery, a piece of novelty, sometime not even a confirmation of their own hypothesis.

Those who arrive to present their work at a scientific manifestation, they are the victorious researchers, those who, managing to pass over various barriers they have the opportunity to enjoy for the results of their efforts.

We congratulate the winners who decided to present their results at EUΨRO 2007. We welcome them in Timișoara, being also glad that they want to share with us their experiences, the knowledge and the results.

Monica ALBU

PAROLES DE BIENVENUE - LE MESSAGE SCIENTIFIQUE DU CONFERENCE

Pour tous ceux qui y participent, une manifestation scientifique est un spectacle. Un spectacle unique, pour le déroulement duquel les organisateurs – ces gens passionnés qui travaillent dans l'ombre, souvent méconnus ou ignorés par les participants – ont travaillé depuis des mois, avec tellement de patience et d'enthousiasme, mettant au point tous les détails de la mise en scène, l'ordre et l'évolution des protagonistes. Les acteurs de ce type de spectacle, à la différence des vedettes du divertissement, paient une taxe pour avoir le privilège de se produire devant le public et jouent des rôles écrits par eux-mêmes et créés pour cette occasion spéciale.

Les émotions qui accompagnent la présentation des communications scientifiques sont très grandes, car devant un public de spécialistes on ne présente pas de discours conçus à la hâte, vite faits et vite oubliés, mais on soumet aux évaluations critiques les conclusions d'une activité intense où les auteurs se trouvent totalement impliqués.

Une communication de dix ou de quinze minutes renferme des centaines ou même des milliers d'heures de travail assidu, beaucoup de tentations auxquelles le chercheur a dû résister, pour économiser son temps, son énergie et parfois même son argent, afin de pouvoir mener à bien sa recherche et satisfaire son désir de connaître. Malheureusement, à la fin d'un si difficile parcours le scientifique n'est pas même sûr de pouvoir faire une découverte, une invention, ni de pouvoir confirmer ses hypothèses.

Les auteurs des communications présentées au cours d'une manifestation scientifique sont les chercheurs victorieux, ceux qui, dépassant les difficultés, ont eu le bonheur de vivre le succès de leur travail.

Nous félicitons ces vainqueurs qui sont décidés nous rejoindre à EUΨRO 2007. Nous les attendons à Timișoara pour nous faire connaître leurs expériences ainsi que les connaissances acquises et pour partager la grande joie des résultats fructueux des recherches.

Monica ALBU

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



ABALAN François



ABDELAOUI Sid



AGAPE Ana



AGOSTON Andreea



AGOSTON Robert



AHMAD S. Salman



ALBU Monica



ANCA Augusta



ANISESCU Cristina



ANDREI Valentina



ANNAU Marinela



ANTALAG Sorin Remus



AVRAM Gheorghe



BĂRBULESCU Cristina



BĂTRĂNUȚ Daniela



BEDROS Dan



BOICI Gherghina



BRADEA Sorina



BRAGADIREANU Adriana



BRASSAI Ladislau



BUTAN Maria

BUTTU ALEXEANU
Coralia Ana

CACOVEANU Elena

CATRINA
Maria LăcrămioaraCATRINA Mihaela
Elodia

CĂTĂU Simona

CERNICOVA-BUCĂ
Mariana

CHIHAE Mariana



CHIȘ Dorina



CIORBĂ Sebastian



CIUCUR Daniel



CIUHANDU Gheorghe

COCOȘ LUSAPER
Mihaela

CONSTANTIN Doru



CORDOȘ Ioana

CRISTESCU
Elvira ElenaDA SILVA
Nelson Alexio JUNIOR

DIACONESCU Olimpia



DIMITRIU Odette



DINU Alice Georgiana



DINU Cristina Elena



DINU Ionuț Ciprian



DOLOG Aurel



DOLOG Carmen



DRAGOESCU Andrea



DRAGOȘ Dorina



DUCHON Coralie



ENACHE Coca Mihaela



ERDEI Ildiko



FRĂTESCU Eugenia



GANGLOFF Bernard

GEAMĂNU Florin
AristideGEANÎM Monica
Mariana

GHIRAN Marieta



GOZO Zeno



HARANGUȘ Cornel

HARDY MASSARD
Sandrine

HERBEI Carina



HOLDEVICI Irina Alice



HRABONSKI Marius

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



HRISTEA Adrian



HUI Petru



IBOILA -BERAR Elena



ILIE Daniela



IVANOFF Ivan Vasile



JAIME Martin Alcazar

JEBEREANU
Dănuț MarcelJURCĂ Eugen
Constantin

JURCĂU Nicolae

JURUBIȚĂ
Laura Mădălina

KRISTON Andrea



LADARI Eugeniu



LAZĂR Rodica



LEGHEZEU Jamina



LUCA Ioana



LUCAS Beatriz Molina

MAGERIU
Florin Gheorghe

MANEA Traian



MARCUS Radiana

MARCUS VĂLEANU
Mirona Ioana

MARINESCU Claudia



MARTIN Gema Seoane



MATUȘ Vasile



MAZERA Mihaela

MAZILESCU
Alina CrisantaMENDIAC
Alina Maria

MITAR Emilia



MITRESCU Simona



MITRESCU Sorin



MUNTEAN Patricia



OLTEANU Dorel



OROS Ioana Daniela



OROȘ Florentina



PANAIT Luminița



PARASCHIV Ana

PARASCHIVESCU
Claudia CorinaPASCU Simona
Florentina

PASQUIER Daniel



PĂDUREANU Miron



PĂUNESCU Adriana



PETCOVICI Tania



PITAR Mariana



PÎRVUȚ Augustina



POȘIAR Simona



PRUNĂ Cristina Carmen



PULIDO Rosa Valero



RADU Ion



RĂDUCAN Ramona



RĂDUCAN Radu



RĂILEANU Carmen Gina



RĂILEANU Sorin



RĂȘCANU Ruxandra



ROMENCI Raluca Diana



ȘCHIOPU Dorel



SCHUHFRIED Gernot

SECUREANU
Oana

SILIȘTE Delia



SIMACHE Daniela



SIMINA Elena

SOLONARU
Silvica Lilliana

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



STAN Alina



STOIAN Florentina



STRĂUȚ Ozana



TISSERAND Pascal



TODEA V. Gelu



TRANDAFIR Vasilica



ȚĂRAN Constantin



ȚEPURLUI Petrișor

URSU - NEAMȚ
Teodora Sonia

VĂDUVA Mădălina

VELEANOVICI
Armand Cătălin

VLAI Luminița



VOICU Laura Daniela



WISKY Mihaela

AGOSTON Timi
- mascota -LĂZĂRESCU Ilie
căpitan navă Dunăre

marinar



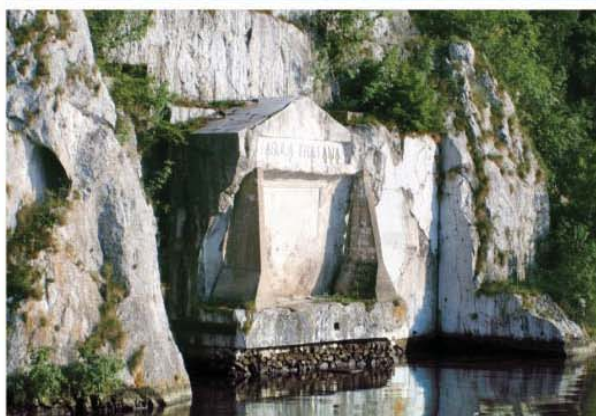
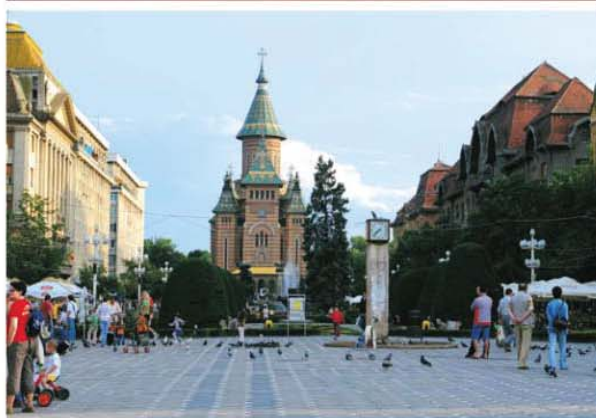
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CONTENTS

Communications “in extenso” (ordre alphabétique).....	1
Papers “in extenso” (alphabetical order).....	1
François ABALAN	
Les facteurs de survie dans les camps de concentration nazis	1
Survival factors in nazi concentration camps.....	7
Sid ABDELLAOUI, Bernard PERSONNAZ et Raymonde GERMAIN	
Facteurs identitaires et jugements socio-moraux des adolescents.....	12
Identity factors and socio-moral judgements of teenagers.....	19
Sid ABDELLAOUI, Bernard PERSONNAZ, Marcel LOUREL & Benjamin AUBRY	
L'influence des valeurs de tolérance sur les relations entre équipes de travail	26
The influence of the values of tolerance on the relations between working teams	32
Salman S., AHMAD	
Moving towards client-therapist synergy	38
Monica ALBU	
Social representation of scientific research at psychologists.....	46
Cristina ANISESCU	
History of romanian applied psychology. Nicolae Mărgineanu, a professional model pre-eminently	54
Sorin Remus ANTALAG	
Study regarding the utility of T.A.G. For selection in professional environment with risk	60
Gherghina BOICI, Jamina LEGHEZEU, Mihaela Adela MAZERA	
Integration of children with disabilities – by questions and answers.....	68
Sorina BRADEA	
Multiculturalism in companies case study: The Thomas behavior evaluation system.....	74
Laszlo BRASSAI	
The protective factors of health-enhancing behavior.....	77
Maria L. CATRINA	
The perception of the hospital organization at tenant physicians	86
Dorina CHIȘ	
La traduction – entre fidélité et créativité	94



Nelson Aleixo DA SILVA JUNIOR, Maria Jose LAURINDO SOUZA, Walmir RUFINO DA SILVA et Bernard GANGLOFF

Stress professionnel chez les policiers brésiliens.....	100
Professional stress among the brazilian policemen	108

Nelson Aleixo DA SILVA JUNIOR , Maria Joacineide LIA FOOK, Walmir RUFINO DA SILVA et Bernard GANGLOFF

Travail et souffrance dans le secteur des transports publics collectifs brésiliens.....	117
Work and suffering in the sector of the brazilian collective public transports.....	128

Odette DIMITRIU

Empathy in psychotherapy	139
--------------------------------	-----

Loredana DROBOT

The importance of the anamnesis in psychological examination to obtain the gun license	145
--	-----

Coralie DUCHON, Bernard GANGLOFF

Désirabilité sociale estimée de l'acceptation des injustices professionnelles: une étude sur des chômeurs.....	151
Estimation of the social desirability of the acceptance of injustice at work : a study on the unemployed	161

Coralie DUCHON, Bernard GANGLOFF

Valorisation différenciée des chômeurs selon la raison idéologique ou mercenaire de leur adhésion versus non adhésion à la norme d'allégeance	171
Differential valorization of the unemployed according to the ideological or mercenary reason of their support versus non-support for the allegiance norm	177

Ildikó ERDEI

Elements of organizational culture specific to schools teaching in minority languages.	183
--	-----

Bernard GANGLOFF dit Popeye le Ladero

Esquisse d'une théorie de l'allégeance et de ses normes ordinaires de pérennisation des injustices librement consenties.....	192
Outline of a theory of allegiance and of its ordinary norms of maintenance of the agreed freely injustices.....	200

Bernard GANGLOFF

Normativité de l'acceptation des injustices professionnelles via le paradigme du législateur: une étude sur des recruteurs	208
Normativity of the acceptance of professional injustices via the legislator's paradigm: a study on recruiters	219

Bernard GANGLOFF, Coralie DUCHON

Quand un idéologue et un mercenaire rencontrent un allégeant et un rebelle: étude de la désirabilité sociale estimée de leurs conduites.....	229
When an ideologist and a mercenary meet an allegiant and a rebel: a study on the estimated social desirability of their conducts	240

Bernard GANGLOFF, Luisa MAYORAL, Maria del Carmen ROMERO

- Les conséquences du statut professionnel des chômeurs argentins sur l'allégeance de leurs conduites et sur la perception de la valorisation sociale de l'allégeance 250
 The consequences of the professional statute of the Argentinean unemployed persons on the allegiance of their conducts and on the perception of the social valorization of allegiance 259

Bernard GANGLOFF, Alina MAZILESCU

- Agréabilité et utilité sociales de la terminologie dite descriptive d'autrui..... 268
 Social desirability and utility of the so-called descriptive terminology of others 286

Bernard GANGLOFF dit Popeye le Ladero et Daniel PASQUIER

- Quand la psychologie des traits préserve l'ordre social: une mise à l'épreuve de la théorie du Big Five via la théorie du cube attributionnel de Kelley 303
 When personality traits psychology preserves the social order : an implimentation on the Big Five theory via the attributional cube theory of Kelley 322

Zeno GOZO

- Der Uebergang von der ersten zur zweiten systemischen Theorie..... 341

Sandrine HARDY-MASSARD, Bernard GANGLOFF

- Biais attributifs dans les décisions judiciaires 345
 Attributional biases in the judicial decisions..... 355

Irina HOLDEVICI, Petrișor ȚEPURLUI

- Current tendencies in psychotherapy 367

Ivan Vasile IVANOFF

- The pathology of the public function's exercise..... 377

Eugen JURCA

- „L'obédience” spirituelle et l'écoute thérapeutique..... 386

Beatriz Lucas MOLINA , Irene Solbes CANALES

- Ecologías escolares de la victimización y agresión 394
 School ecologies of victimisation and aggression 405

Florin-Gheorghe MAGERIU

- Psychological mechanisms of meditation in Goju-Kensha Karate-Do 414

Mirona Ioana MARCU, Ruxandra RĂȘCANU, Ionel CIRCO

- Bronchial asthma – A psychosocial approach 427

Gema Martín SEOANE; Rosa Pulido VALERO

- Diferencias de género en la adolescencia: superando estereotipos 432
 Gender differences in adolescence: overcoming stereotypes 442

Alina MAZILESCU, Bernard GANGLOFF

- Typologies dimensionnelles évoquées dans l'auto et l'hétérodescription spontanées.... 453

**Alina-Maria MENDIAC, Gelu V. TODEA (coord.)**

Traits psychologiques des personnes avec des amputations des membres inferieurs 473

Daniel PASQUIER, Bernard GANGLOFF

De l'effet du contexte sur la variabilité intra-individuelle des réponses au Big Five 480

Rosa Pulido VALERO; Gema Martín SEOANE

Perfil psicosocial de los adolescentes españoles: Enfoque ecológico 490

Psychosocial characteristics in spanish adolescents: an ecological approach 502

Radu RĂDUCAN, Ramona RĂDUCAN

Human resources – a determining factor of scientific progress promotion 513

Ruxandra RĂȘCANU, Alexandru Octavian BRUMARU, Mirona Ioana MARCU, Ofelia POPESCU, Radu VULCU

Resocialization and recuperation of the patients with a mental illness – an integral part of the adaptation process (of people with disabilities) 523

Gernot SCHUHFRIED

Test IBF Intelligenz Basis Faktoren ein Screening Verfahren zur Intelligenzmessung... 532

Gernot SCHUHFRIED

Grundlagen Computergestützter psychologischer Diagnostik..... 546

Delia Maria SILIȘTE

L'éducation interculturelle et l'apprentissage des langues dans l'espace européen..... 557

Daniela SIMACHE

The role of communication at the beginning of the therapy of the drug addict 563

Gelu V. TODEA

Perception through culture and evaluation 571

Constantin ȚĂRAN

The existence of the middle class, a reality of the Post Decembrist Romania 589

Teodora Sonia URSU – NEAMȚ

Responsability's social representation at people who work in professional environment with risk..... 597

Autre communications, seulement en résumé 606

The rest of communication, only in abstract 606

Salman S. AHMAD

Towards a meaningful existence 606

Spre o existenta cu sens 606

Mariana CERNICOVA

- Universitatea ca spațiu al educației pentru multiculturalitate 607
 University as a space of education for multiculturalism 607

Charles JACOB*

- The development of self-compassion: helicopter parenting and the common humanity subscale 608
 Dezvoltarea autocompasiunii: stilul parental aderent și scala umanității comune 608

Loredana DROBOT, Ileana ROTARU*

- Sănătatea organizațională - premisă a succesului..... 609
 The organizational health - a premiss for succes 609

Nicolae JURCĂU

- File din istoria psihologiei clujene 610
 Cluj's school of psychology..... 610

Jennifer KERZIL*, Irene SOLBES CANALES

- Evaluer le niveau de tolérance envers la diversité humaine chez les enfants scolarisés:
 un pré requis indispensable pour l'Education Interculturelle..... 611
 Evaluating the level of tolerance of human diversity in school children: an
 indispensable requirement to Intercultural Education 611

Judy KURIANSKY*

- A toolbox of techniques for healing, resilience and trauma recovery using integrated
 east and west approaches..... 612
 O trusă de tehnici pentru vindecare, readaptare și recuperare din traumă, folosind abordări integrate
 estice și occidentale 612

Caroline LAFFORET*

- Organizational commitment, job satisfaction and recognition at work of employees
 of merged companies 613
 Implication organisationnelle, satisfaction et reconnaissance au travail des employes d'entreprises
 fusionnees 613

Mirela MANEA, Traian MANEA*

- Măsurarea motivației psihosociale 614
 Measuring of psychosocial motivation..... 614

Traian MANEA*, Mirela MANEA

- Măsurarea nevoilor psihosociale la personalul aeronautic..... 615
 Psihosocial needs at aeronautical personnel..... 615

Brenda MENDOZA GONZALEZ*, María José DIAZ-AGUADO JALON*, Sonsoles CALDERON LÓPEZ*, Beatriz LUCAS MOLINA*

- Types of Adolescents that are involved in school violence..... 616
 Types d'adolescents qui prennent part aux situations de violence dans le contexte
 scolaire 616

Florentina Voichița OROS, Valentina ANDREI

- Tipul de atașament – premisă importantă pentru succesul terapeutic 617
 Le type d'attachement – une prémisses importante du succès thérapeutique 617

**RĂȘCANU Ruxandra**

Psihologia Aplicată versus Fenomenul tranziției.....	618
Applied Psychology versus The Transition Phenomenon.....	618

Pascal TISSERANT*, Paul Verlaine WAGNER, Shaha EL-GELEDI

Discriminations raciales au travail et orientation d'acculturation	619
Racial discriminations and acculturations orientations.....	619

Participants à ateliers & sections, crédités à "Euψro" 2007 625***Participants workshops & sections, credited at "Euψro" 2007.....*** 625***Table alphabétique*** 630***Alphabetical index*** 630

LES FACTEURS DE SURVIE DANS LES CAMPS DE CONCENTRATION NAZIS

François ABALAN

Psychiatre des Hôpitaux

Hôpital Charles Perrens, 121, rue de la Béchade, 33076 Bordeaux Cedex, France

fabalan@ch-perrens.fr

RÉSUMÉ

Les facteurs d'adaptation et de survie dans le système concentrationnaire nazi sont les suivants (revue de la littérature): 1) Des facteurs externes au sujet : une catégorie de déportation plus favorisée, des conseils à l'arrivée donnés par d'anciens détenus, la réception de colis, le hasard de ne pas tomber sur un Kapo particulièrement cruel, dans un camp extrêmement dur, un âge jeune, et l'affectation à un métier non épuisant tel cuisinier, médecin, interprète. 2) Des facteurs internes au sujet: l'existence de convictions religieuses ou politiques (résistants), l'existence d'une raison de vivre (pour se venger, témoigner, aider une personne, aider les autres), l'habitude de la lutte, la capacité à s'endurcir, un caractère fort (un « Moi » fort), le désir de survivre, la capacité à rester optimiste et à voir des aspects positifs à la réalité, l'espoir ou la conviction de survivre. C'était aussi la capacité à sentir l'humeur des Kapos et des SS, à avoir des réactions rapides et adaptées et de la perspicacité, à ne pas se faire remarquer et à se fondre dans la masse, à avoir une communication non-verbale qui ne déclenchait pas le sadisme des SS et Kapos. Pour certains auteurs, la survie dépendait aussi de la force de l'instinct de conservation ou de la « Pulsions de vie ». L'absence de système de valeurs était défavorable à la survie. 3) L'appartenance à l'intérieur du camp à un groupe formé de 2 personnes ou plus dont les membres s'entraidaient était un facteur important de survie.

Mots clés: *Camp de concentration, Adaptation, Psychologie, Psychiatrie, Thérapie cognitive et comportementale.*

ABSTRACT

Survival and adaptation factors in nazi concentration camps were the following (literature review). 1) External factors: a less underprivileged internment category; advice given on arrival by senior prisoners; the receipt of parcels; the chance not to fall into particularly cruel Kapo hands, in an extremely harsh camp; a young age; and the assignment to a not exhausting job such as cook, doctor, interpret. 2) Internal factors: religious or political convictions (members of the Resistance movement) ; a motive to survive (to have one's revenge, to testify, to help somebody, to help the others); to be accustomed to fight ; the ability to become hardened; strength of character (a strong «Ego»); the desire to survive, the ability to remain optimistic and to see positive aspects to the reality, the hope or the conviction to survive. It was also the ability to feel SS's and Kapo's mood, to react quickly and in the right way, to be perspicacious, not to attract attention and to melt into the mass of the interned, and to have a non verbal communication which did not trigger SS's and Kapos' sadism. For some authors, survival was also linked to the strength of the instinct of preservation or of the « Life pulsion». Not to have a set of values was unfavourable to survival. 3) To belong within the camp to a group of two or more people in which members helped one another was an important survival factor.

Key words: *Concentration camp, Adaptation, Psychology, Psychiatry, Behaviour and cognitive therapy.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Dans le système concentrationnaire nazi, la mortalité était de plus de 15 % à 100 % selon les camps, les populations déportées, les périodes et d'autres facteurs.

A côté de facteurs de survie non maîtrisables par l'individu, il existait des facteurs de survie qui pouvaient être maîtrisés partiellement ou totalement, par l'individu.

2. LE SYSTEME CONCENTRATIONNAIRE NAZI

2.1. Historique

Trois phases peuvent être distinguées dans l'histoire des camps de concentration:

- De 1933 à 1939, c'est la période d'élaboration du système concentrationnaire nazi. Les camps sont créés dès l'arrivée des Nationaux-Socialistes au pouvoir.

- De 1939 (occupation de la Pologne) à la fin de 1944, c'est la phase d'internationalisation du système concentrationnaire. Celui-ci se développa (les camps augmentèrent en nombre et en taille) pour trois raisons essentielles: terroriser les opposants au régime, fournir une main d'oeuvre très bon marché à la machine de guerre allemande, et exterminer les opposants au régime et les "races" dites "dégénérées" (Juifs et Tziganes en particulier) dans le cadre de la "Solution Finale".

- De janvier à mai 1945, c'est la phase d'effondrement du système concentrationnaire.

2.2. Géographie

Il y eut près d'un millier de camps de concentration dans l'Europe occupée. Dépendaient des grands camps des milliers de lieux extérieurs de travail appelés "Kommandos".

2.3. Types de camps

Il y avait différents types de camps.

- Les camps tels Buchenwald, Dachau, étaient des camps de travail et des centres industriels; la durée moyenne de vie y était de quelques mois.

- Dans les camps d'extermination des Juifs tels Treblinka I, Auschwitz-Birkenau, des milliers de personnes étaient gazées quotidiennement; la durée moyenne de vie des déportés non exterminés dès leur arrivée au camp était de quelques mois.

- Dans les camps de représailles contre les Aryens tels Neue-Bremm, il n'y avait pas de travail, mais les prisonniers étaient torturés en groupe et la durée de vie était de trois semaines en moyenne.

2.4. Structure des camps

Les camps comprenaient trois zones: le camp à l'intérieur des barbelés électrifiés, la zone de l'administration SS, et les cités SS (à quelques kilomètres du camp).

Les grands camps contenaient de 10.000 à 100.000 prisonniers.

À Buchenwald par exemple, le camp à l'intérieur des barbelés électrifiés couvrait 40 hectares et l'enceinte des barbelés avait un périmètre de 3,5 kilomètres. Oranienburg couvrait en 1945, avec les usines qui lui étaient rattachés, 388 hectares.

2.5. Exécutif des camps

Les SS étaient aidés par des détenus qui assuraient les fonctions de chef de camp, de chef de bloc, de chef d'équipe de travail ("Kapos") etc. C'étaient le plus souvent des détenus de droit commun, dont le sadisme et la cruauté à l'égard des autres détenus ont été maintes fois soulignés.

2.6. Statistiques

Les statistiques précises sont difficiles car les archives ont été en partie détruites ou n'ont pas existé. On peut évaluer le nombre total de déportés à 6.000.000.

2.7. Conditions de vie dans les camps

Décrire les conditions de vie dans les camps, c'est décrire un appareil de destruction en masse de l'homme. Seront tout d'abord examinées les conditions générales de détention, puis

les conditions spécifiques des différents groupes de déportés.

2.7.1. Les conditions générales de vie dans les camps.

Le transport vers les camps se faisait dans l'immense majorité des cas dans des wagons à bestiaux. Il durait plusieurs jours. L'eau et les vivres qui manquaient, le froid en hiver ou la chaleur en été, l'encombrement extrême, faisaient de nombreuses victimes dont les cadavres restaient dans les wagons.

À leur débarquement du train et sur le chemin du camp, les déportés étaient en général battus. Les coups et les humiliations entre la gare et le camp avaient pour but de briser le caractère et d'humilier.

À leur arrivée au camp, les déportés étaient dépouillés de leurs objets personnels et vêtements. Puis le déporté était examiné nu, "comme du bétail", était entièrement rasé, et badigeonné au Grésyl. Les vêtements qui lui étaient ensuite donnés, pantalon et veste de bagnard, chaussures, étaient peu solides. Ils portaient le numéro du prisonnier et la marque de couleur qui précisait la catégorie de déportation (Politique, Juif, Droit commun, etc.). Le logement des prisonniers se faisait dans des baraquements. L'encombrement était parfois tel qu'il était impossible de dormir autrement qu'assis.

Il régnait dans les baraquements une demi-obscurité et une odeur d'excrément, d'humidité et de cadavre, mêlées à l'odeur des crématoires.

La malnutrition était la première cause de morbidité et de mortalité, juste avant la tuberculose.

La quantité de nourriture resta toujours insuffisante, mauvaise, avariée.

La malnutrition conduisait à la mort en quelques mois dans un état de cachexie.

Le travail était épuisant et se combinait à un repos insuffisant, qui entraînaient une fatigue importante. La journée de travail durait de 10 à 12 heures.

Le froid continental était intense en hiver (-20 à -30° C). Il n'y avait pas (ou il était insuffisant) de chauffage et l'eau était froide. Les vêtements et les chaussures peu épais, de mauvaise qualité, et souvent abîmés, ne protégeaient que peu.

L'hygiène était très mauvaise. Les camps étaient d'une saleté repoussante. Les besoins naturels devaient souvent se faire en public, humiliation supplémentaire.

Une ambiance de terreur, accompagnée d'humiliations et de mesures avilissantes, était entretenue en permanence. Les déportés étaient insultés, battus, punis, en permanence. L'insécurité était constante.

Les conditions humiliantes et dégradantes de la vie des camps enlevaient souvent tout respect de soi-même.

Les maladies infectieuses sévissaient, favorisées par la malnutrition et la promiscuité. Les puces, les poux de corps, les punaises et la gale étaient fréquentes. Le revier (hôpital ou infirmerie) à l'intérieur du camp avait des moyens dérisoires. Néanmoins, médecins et infirmiers déportés réussirent au revier à sauver des vies humaines.

Tous les témoignages confirment ces conditions de vie, qui entraînaient "l'état de misère physiologique", "la misère physiologique chronique progressive des camps" (Richet).

2.7.2. Les conditions des différents groupes de déportés différaient sur certains points

2.7.2.1. Les déportés Juifs. De la fin de l'année 1941 à mi-1942 environ, ils furent systématiquement exterminés dès leur arrivée dans les camps.

À partir du milieu de l'année 1942, les impératifs de production de guerre ou non, obligèrent les Nazis à utiliser leur force de travail. Les Juifs échappèrent ainsi à l'extermination immédiate pour tous et entrèrent dans le cycle concentrationnaire suivant: les Juifs "improductifs" (femmes enceintes, nourrissons etc.) furent systématiquement exterminés dans les chambres à gaz dès leur arrivée au camp; les autres sujets déportés étaient exterminés une fois leur force de travail épuisée, après quelques mois en général.



A partir de la fin janvier 1945 -libération d'Auschwitz-Birkenau par les Russes-, les déportés Juifs subirent d'une façon générale le sort des autres déportés.

Les Juifs subirent une persécution d'intensité extrême (destruction des communautés et des familles à l'arrivée au camp, traitements particulièrement cruels). Sur les 4.000.000 de Juifs assassinés dans les camps, 2.000.000 furent gazés à Auschwitz. Seuls quelques centaines de milliers de Juifs survécurent à la déportation. Les Tziganes furent proportionnellement exterminés en aussi grand nombre que les Juifs.

2.7.2.2. Les autres groupes de déportés étaient les Résistants des pays occupés, des otages, des prisonniers de guerre Soviétiques, des Polonais, etc. Ils n'étaient pas systématiquement exterminés: ils moururent d'abord de la famine; puis des infections dont la dissémination était favorisée par la malnutrition, l'encombrement, l'hygiène déplorable; enfin ils moururent du froid, des coups, des tortures et exécutions. Des 1.500.000 déportés non-raciaux, 600.000 moururent.

2.8 Quels furent les Modes adaptatifs à la vie concentrationnaire et l'évolution du psychisme du déporté ?

2.8.1. L'arrivée au camp représentait un véritable choc. Elle entraînait des réactions de détresse et de désespoir et une angoisse intense. Des réactions d'indignation et d'agressivité pouvaient se voir. De nombreuses personnes ont rapporté une sensation d'irréalité (déréalisation). Ces réactions duraient de quelques jours à quelques semaines selon les personnes.

2.8.2. Cette phase de choc était suivie d'une période durant 5 à 6 mois, mais aussi parfois moins, caractérisée par un état dépressif, avec ralentissement psychomoteur, anorexie et nostalgie du passé, avec évocation de la famille et des bons repas. Parallèlement se développait une insensibilité devant les horreurs de la vie du camp et une indifférence aux règles morales usuelles. Cette dernière était nécessaire à la survie et pour pouvoir se procurer de la nourriture. Certains développaient aussi un humour cynique. Kogon (1) a pu dire de l'Univers concentrationnaire:

“C'était un monde en soi, un Etat en soi, un ordre sans Droit, dans lequel on jetait un être humain qui, à partir de ce moment, en utilisant ses vertus et ses vices...ne combattait plus que pour sauver sa misérable existence, simplement pour survivre.” Les déportés développaient en général très vite une insensibilité, un intérêt exclusif pour la nourriture; apparaissaient une diminution du sens moral avec vols, en particulier de nourriture, une irritabilité avec tendance aux querelles, un sentiment de méfiance. Leur activité s'orientait vers la lutte pour la vie, était égocentrique, et réduite à l'instinct de conservation.

2.8.3. Dans une troisième phase, la résistance du déporté s'émoissait peu à peu et celui-ci paraissait “abrutit”, “hébété”, perdait tout sens moral (le vol, en particulier de nourriture, était courant) et toute affectivité vis-à-vis de ses compagnons. L'évolution de cet état se faisait vers l'apathie, l'adynamie, et la mort.

2.8.4. Néanmoins certains déportés s'effondrèrent très vite, ne surent pas s'adapter et défendre leurs droits en utilisant la brutalité parfois indispensable, «ne cessèrent de se lamenter»; ceux-là moururent très vite en quelques semaines ou peu de mois. D'autres surent s'adapter en s'endurcissant en quelques mois (Richet).

En quelques mois le déporté, mourait ou s'était adapté. Dans ce dernier cas, le processus d'adaptation se poursuivait encore pendant 6 mois à deux, à trois ans.

3. LES FACTEURS DE SURVIE

Les facteurs de survie dans le système concentrationnaire nazi qui ont été repérés (à la suite d'une revue de la littérature aussi complète que possible: plus de 200 références ont été examinées) (1) peuvent être répartis en trois groupes que j'ai appelés: les facteurs externes

au sujet, les facteurs internes au sujet, et l'appartenance à l'intérieur du camp à un groupe ou non.

Les auteurs les plus importants ayant particulièrement examinés cette question sont (1): Cohen EA(1953), Frankl V (1946), Helweg-Larsen et Coll. (1952), Kogon E (1946), Kral VA (1951), Niederland WG (1964), auteur du concept de Syndrome du Survivant, Richet C (1956), le premier à avoir décrit les séquelles de la déportation, et Thygessen P et Coll.(1970).

3.1. Les facteurs favorables à la survie que j'ai appelés externes au sujet étaient les suivants:

- la déportation pour des raisons autres que la race (les Juifs eurent à faire le deuil de leur famille exterminée et furent particulièrement maltraités) et la déportation dans un statut autre que celui de «Nacht und Nebel» -«NN»: en effet ce statut était une condamnation à mort quasi-certaine. Les déportés NN devaient disparaître sans que l'on puisse retracer ce qu'il était advenu d'eux.

- les conseils à l'arrivée donnés par d'anciens détenus,
- la réception de colis de la Croix Rouge (Déportés Danois et Norvégiens par exemple en recevaient),
- le hasard de ne pas tomber sur un Kapo particulièrement cruel, dans un mauvais Kommando, dans un camp extrêmement dur, etc.
- un âge jeune,
- un bon état de santé antérieur, mental et physique,
- l'affectation à un métier non épuisant tel cuisinier, médecin, interprète,
- l'exercice d'un métier altruiste tel médecin, infirmière....

3.2. Les facteurs favorables à la survie que j'ai appelés internes au sujet étaient les suivants:

- l'existence de convictions religieuses, humanitaires ou politiques (résistants),
- l'absence de sentiments moraux chez les criminels qui favorisait les comportements utiles à la survie (agression, vol, etc.)
- l'existence d'une raison de vivre (pour se venger, témoigner, aider une personne, aider les autres),
- l'habitude de la lutte,
- la capacité à s'endurcir,
- un caractère fort (un « Moi » ou « Soi » fort),
- le désir de survivre,
- la capacité à rester optimiste et à voir des aspects positifs à la réalité,
- un bon moral,
- l'espoir ou la conviction de survivre,
- la capacité à sentir l'humeur des Kapos et des SS, et à s'adapter à celle-ci
- avoir des réactions rapides et adaptées et de la perspicacité,
- ne pas se faire remarquer et à se fondre dans la masse,
- avoir une communication non-verbale qui ne déclenchait pas le sadisme des SS et Kapos.
- avoir une communication non-verbale qui déclenchait des relations d'aide.

Pour certains auteurs, la survie dépendait aussi de la force de l'instinct de conservation ou de la «Pulsion de vie».

Pour Helweg-Larsen, l'absence de système de valeur était défavorable à la survie (les sujets déportés pour vagabondage et mendicité en particulier avaient une mortalité supérieure à celle des Résistants Danois).



A Theresienstadt, où les conditions de déportation étaient particulières (c'était un camp vitrine pour la Croix Rouge) Kral souligna la bonne adaptation des sujets religieux ainsi que celle des sujets «jeunes, honnêtes, ayant de bonnes relations avec les autres» et capable de contrôle émotionnel.

3.3 L'appartenance à l'intérieur du camp à un groupe formé de 2 personnes ou plus dont les membres s'entraidaient était un facteur important favorable à la survie.

Ce groupe pouvait être formé sur des bases religieuses, politiques ou d'entraide par exemple, les «Vieux concentrationnaires» avaient plus de chance de survivre: ils s'étaient adaptés

4. REFLEXIONS

Ainsi, à côté de facteurs de survie non maîtrisables par l'individu, il existe des facteurs de survie qui peuvent être maîtrisés partiellement ou totalement, par l'individu: ce sont:

- les facteurs que j'ai appelés «Internes»
- et la capacité à créer dans le camp un groupe de 2 ou plusieurs personnes s'entraidant.

Le 20^{ème} siècle, et notamment le continent européen, a produit de nombreux systèmes concentrationnaires (nazi, japonais, soviétique, coréen, etc.). L'humanité n'est pas immunisée contre l'émergence de nouveaux systèmes concentrationnaires et le 21^{ème} siècle et les siècles suivants produiront peut-être d'autres systèmes concentrationnaires si des systèmes politiques totalitaires réussissent à prendre le pouvoir.

Connaître quels sont les facteurs de survie dans le système concentrationnaire nazi peut nous aider à survivre si nous sommes personnellement un jour confrontés à un internement en camp de concentration.

Nous ne pouvons que conclure avec ce qu'a dit Eitinger : "...Les conséquences de la déportation... existent là où des camps de concentration existent, c'est à dire là où les valeurs humaines, la dignité de la personne, et la liberté... sont considérées comme moins importantes que les doctrines d'un état totalitaire. Cela place la question des camps de concentration dans une perspective plus large... et... nous donne la responsabilité de prévenir l'existence des camps de concentration".

5. REFERENCES

1. Une liste de plus de 200 références peut-être fournie sur demande par François ABALAN.

SURVIVAL FACTORS IN NAZI CONCENTRATION CAMPS

1. INTRODUCTION

In the nazi concentration camps, mortality ranged from more than 15 % to 100 %, depending on camps, internment category, the war periods and other factors.

Concurrently to uncontrollable factors of survival by the individual, there were survival factors which could be controlled partially or totally by the individual.

2. NAZI CONCENTRATION CAMPS

2.1. History

Three phases can be distinguished:

- From 1933 to 1939, it is the building up period of the nazi concentration camps. The camps were created as soon as the Nationals-Socialists were in power.

- From 1939 (Poland occupation) to the end of 1944: it is the phase of internationalization of the concentration camps. The concentration camps increased in number and in size for three main reasons: to terrorise the opponents, to provide a very cheap labour force to the Germans and to exterminate the opponents and the “races” named as «degenerated» (Jewish and Tzigane in particular) within the framework of the «Final Solution».

- From January to May 1945, it is the collapsing phase of the concentration camps.

2.2. Geography

There were nearly a thousand concentration camps in occupied Europe. Thousands of outside work places named “Kommandos” depended of large camps.

2.3. Types of camps

There were various types of camps.

- The camps such as Buchenwald, Dachau, were work camps and industrial centres. Mean life span was three months.

- In Jewish wiping out camps such as Treblinka I, Auschwitz-Birkenau, thousands of people were gassed daily. Harsh life of the internees who were not exterminated when they arrived in the camp was of a few months.

- In the camps of reprisal against Aryans such Neue-Bremm, there was no work, but the prisoners were tortured in group and the life span was three weeks on average.

2.4. Structure of the camps

The camps had three zones : the camp inside the electrified barbed wire, the zone of the SS administration, and SS cities (some kilometres away).

The large camps contained from 10.000 to 100.000 prisoners.

In Buchenwald for example, the camp inside the electrified barbed wires had a surface of 40 hectares and the enclosure of the barbed wires had a perimeter of 3,5 kilometres. Oranienburg, with the factories which were connected to it, had in 1945 a surface of 388 hectares.

2.5. Executive of the camps

The SS were helped by internees who served in the capacity of camp chief, block chief,



work group chief (“Kapos”) etc. They were generally ordinary criminals whose sadism and cruelty for the other prisoners has been underlined many times.

2.6. Statistics

Precise statistics are difficult because the files were partly destroyed or did not exist. One can evaluate the total numbers of deportees to 6.000.000.

2.7. Living conditions in the camps

To describe the living conditions in the first there will be camps is to describe an apparatus of mass destruction of people. There will be examined first the general conditions of detention, and then the specific conditions of the various groups of deportees.

2.7.1. The general conditions of life in the camps

The transport towards the camps was in the majority of the cases in cattle-trucks. It lasted several days. The water and the food which were missing, the cold in winter or the heat in summer, the considerable overcrowding, made many victims whose corpses remained in the cattle-trucks.

During the unloading of the train and on the way to the camp, the deportees were in general beaten. The purpose of the blows and humiliations between the station and the camp was to break the character and to humiliate.

On their arrival within the camp, the deportees were stripped of their personal objects and clothing. Then the deportee was examined naked, «like cattle», was shaved entirely and whitewashed with gresyl. Clothing which was then given to the deportee - convict's jacket and trousers, shoes - was not solid. Clothing was marked with the prisoner's number and the mark of colour which specified the category of deportation (Political, Jewish, Criminal, etc.) The lodging was in huts. The overcrowding was sometimes so important, that it was impossible to sleep in another position than seated.

Huts were half-obsured and smelled excrements, moisture and corpses. These odours were mixed with the odour of the crematoria.

Malnutrition was the first cause of morbidity and mortality, right before tuberculosis. The quantity of food remained always insufficient. Food was bad and damaged. Prisoners were dying of malnutrition in a few months in a state of cachexy.

Work was exhausting and combined with an insufficient rest was inducing an important tiredness. The work lasted 10 to 12 hours each day.

The continental cold was intense in winter (-20 to -30° C). There was no heating (or if it existed it was insufficient) and the water was cold. Clothing and shoes which were not very thick, were of bad quality and were often only little damaged protected.

Hygiene was very bad. The camps were of a pushing back dirtiness. Defecation and urination had often to be done in public which was an additional humiliation.

An environment of terror, accompanied by degrading humiliations was maintained permanently. The deportees were insulted, beaten, punished permanently. The insecurity was constant.

The humiliating and degrading conditions of the life in camps often removed self-respect.

The infectious diseases prevailed, favoured by malnutrition and promiscuity. The fleas, the lice of body, the bugs and the scabies were frequent. The revier (hospital or infirmary) inside the camp had ridiculous means. Nevertheless, deported doctors and nurses could in the revier save human lives.

All testimonies confirm these living conditions, whose consequence was “l'Etat de

misère physiologique” (“the debility state”), “la misère physiologique chronique progressive des camps” (Richet).

2.7.2. The conditions of the various groups of deportees differed on certain points

2.7.2.1. Jewish deportees. From the end of 1941 to the approximately of mid 1942, they were systematically exterminated when they arrived in the camps.

From the middle of the year 1942, the requirements of the war production or not obliged the Nazis to use their labour force. The Jewish thus avoided the immediate extermination for all and entered in the following cycle: the “unproductive “ Jews (pregnant women, babies, etc.) were systematically exterminated in the gas chambers at their arrival in the camp; the others were exterminated once their labour force exhausted, after a few months in general.

After the end of January 1945 –liberation of Auschwitz-Birkenau by the Russians, the deported Jews generally suffered the fate of the other deportees. The Jews suffered a persecution of an extreme intensity (destruction of the communities and of the families on arrival in the camp and particularly cruel maltreatments). Of the 4.000.000 Jews assassinated in the camps, 2.000.000 were gassed in Auschwitz. Only a few hundreds of thousands survived the deportation. Tziganes were proportionally assassinated in as great number as the Jews.

2.7.2.2. The other groups of deportees were the “Résistants” (members of the Resistance movement) of the occupied countries, the hostages, the Soviet prisoners of war, the Poles, etc. They were not systematically exterminated: they died at first of famine; and next of infections whose dissemination was favoured by malnutrition, overcrowding, and very bad hygiene; finally, they died of the cold, the blows, the tortures and executions. Of the 1.500.000 which were not deported for racial reasons, 600.000 died.

2.8 Adaptive patterns to the concentration camp life and evolution of the deportee’s psychism

2.8.1. The arrival to the camp was a true shock. It generated reactions of distress and despair and an intense anguish. Reactions of indignation and aggressive reactions could also be seen. Many people have reported a feeling of unreality (“derealisation” -strangeness of the reality around oneself -). These reactions lasted few days to few weeks according to the individuals.

2.8.2. This phase of shock was followed by a period lasting 5 to 6 months, but sometimes less, characterised by a depressive state, with psychomotor retardation, anorexia, and nostalgia of the past; with evocation of the family and of the good meals. In parallel, they developed an insensibility to the horrors of camp life and an indifference to the usual moral rules. For the latter it was necessary to survive and to get food. Some developed also a cynical humour.

Kogon (1) could say of concentration camps : “It was a world in itself, a State in itself, an order without law, in which an human being was thrown, who, since the moment it was thrown in it, using his virtues and its defect ... was fighting only to save his unfortunate life, simply to survive.” The deportees in general developed very quickly an insensitivity and an exclusive interest for food; a reduction of moral sense with robberies, of food in particular, appeared; appeared also an irritability with a tendency to quarrels and a feeling of mistrust. Their activity was directed towards the struggle for life, was egocentric, and reduced to the instinct of self-preservation.

2.8.3. In a third phase, the resistance of the deportee, was blunting little by little and he appeared “stunned”, “flabbergasted”, he was losing any moral sense (the robbery, of food in particular, was frequent) and any affectivity towards his comrades. The evolution of this state was towards apathy, adinamy and death.



2.8.4. Nevertheless certain deportees broke down very quickly, could not adapt and could not defend their rights using the sometimes necessary brutality, they «did not cease deploring»; these died very quickly in a few weeks or months. Others could adapt in some months while becoming hardened (Richet) (1).

In some months the deportee had died or had adapted. In the last case the process of adaptation was still lasting 6 months to 2 to 3 years.

3. SURVIVAL FACTORS

The survival factors in the Nazi concentration camps which have been reported (literature review as complete as possible: more than 200 references have been examined)(1) can be divided into three groups which I have named: the external factors, the internal factors, and the membership in the camp to a group or not.

The most important authors who have particularly examined this subject are the following (1): Cohen EA(1953), Frankl V (1946), Helweg-Larsen et Coll.(1952), Kogon E (1946), Kral VA (1951), Niederland WG (1964) who has described the Survival syndrome, Richet C (1956) who has been the first to describe the deportation sequels, and Thygessen P and al.(1970).

3.1. The factors favourable to survival which I named external factors to the subject are as follows:

- deportation for reasons others than race (the Jews had to mourn their exterminated family and were particularly maltreated); not to be deported as «Nacht und Nebel» - «NN»: indeed to be deported as NN was a nearly certain death sentence. NN deportees had to disappear with no one knowing what had happen to them.

- Were also favourable to survival advise given on arrival by senior prisoners,
- the receipt of parcels (Danish and Norwegians deportees for example received Red Cross parcels),

- the chance not to fall into particularly cruel Kapo hands, in a hard Kommando, in an extremely harsh camp, etc.

- a young age,

- a former mental and physical good health,

- the assignment to a not exhausting job such as cook, doctor, interpret, etc.,

- an altruistic job such as doctor, nurse, etc.

3.2. The factors favourable to survival that I named internal to the subject are the following:

- religious, humanitarian, or political (members of the Resistance movement) convictions,

- the lack of moral feelings in criminals: it favoured behaviours useful to survival (aggression, robbery, etc.)

- a motive to survive (to have one's revenge, to testify, to help somebody, to help the others)

- to be accustomed to fight,

- the ability to become hardened

- strength of character (a strong "Ego" or "Self")

- the desire to survive

- the ability to remain optimistic and to see positive aspects to the reality,

- a high spirit,

- the hope or the conviction to survive.

It was also the ability:



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

- to feel SS' and Kapos' mood and to adapt to their mood.
- to react quickly and in the right way and to be perspicacious
- not to attract attention and to melt into the mass of the interned,
- to have a non-verbal communication which did not trigger SS' and Kapos' sadism
- to have a non-verbal communication which triggered help behaviours by others

For some authors, survival was also linked to the strength of the instinct of preservation or « Life pulsion ».

For Helweg-Larsen (1), not to have a set of values was unfavourable to survival (the individuals deported for vagrancy and begging in particular had a higher mortality than that of Danish members of the Resistance movement).

In Theresienstadt, where the conditions of deportation were particular (it was a camp which was shown to the Red Cross), Kral (1) underlined the good adaptation of the religious individuals, of the “young, honest, having good relation with others” individuals and of the individuals capable of emotional control.

3.3 To belong within the camp to a group of two or more people in which members helped one another was an important survival factor.

This group could be built for example on religious, political or mutual aid bases.

The “Old deported” had more chances to survive: they had adapted.

4. THINKING OVER

Thus, beside non-controllable factors of survival in concentration camps by the individual, there are factors of survival which can be controlled partially or completely by the individual. There are:

- the factors that I named “Internal”
- and the ability to create in the camp a group of 2 or more which members helped one another

The 20th century, and in particular the European continent, produced many concentration camps systems (Nazi, Japanese, Soviet, Korean, etc.) Humanity is not immunised against the emergence of new concentration camps systems and perhaps the 21st century and the following centuries will produce other concentration camps systems. If totalitarian political system succeed in seizing the power, we should know which are the factors of survival in Nazi concentration camps that can help us to survive if we are personally one day interned in a concentration camp.

We can only conclude with what Eitinger (1) said : “ The concentration camps exist where human values, the dignity of the person and freedom... are regarded as less important than the doctrines of a totalitarian state... . That gives us the responsibility to prevent the existence of the concentration camps.”

5. REFERENCES

A list of more than 200 references can be sent on request by François ABALAN.

FACTEURS IDENTITAIRES ET JUGEMENTS SOCIO-MORAUX DES ADOLESCENTS

Sid ABDELLAOUI, Bernard PERSONNAZ et Raymonde GERMAIN

Université de Rouen
siduniversite@yahoo.fr

RÉSUMÉ

Si de nombreuses études existent sur la production des transgressions, plus rares sont celles qui portent sur la manière dont les filles et les garçons les jugent. Souvent, ces jugements s'inscrivent dans des relations entre groupes de genre et de milieux sociaux différents mettant en jeu des rapports intergroupes inégalitaires (Lorenzi-Cioldi, 2002). Nous savons que la catégorisation entraîne un biais de favoritisme intragroupe (Tajfel, 1982). Lorsque ces relations mettent en jeu des groupes de statuts différents, la discrimination envers le groupe dominant n'apparaît pas forcément chez les groupes dominés. Les hommes seraient davantage caractérisés en termes instrumentaux et les femmes par des traits expressifs (Broverman et al., 1972, Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1994). Ces résultats s'expliquent en référence à la désirabilité et à l'utilité sociales principalement déterminées par le pouvoir masculin dominant (Kirchler, 1993) ou plus généralement à la reproduction du système social (Masson-Maret & Beauvois, 2000). Notre recherche distingue trois registres de transgressions (individuel, conventionnel et moral) tirés du modèle de Turiel et Nucci (1983). Le but est de procéder à l'analyse des facteurs identitaires liés à la menace identitaire, au genre, au milieu social et à l'orientation scolaire des élèves sur les jugements socio-moraux de filles et garçons, à propos de transgressions commises par des garçons. Il ressort que les jugements socio-moraux portant sur les transgressions peuvent fluctuer différemment selon l'appartenance identitaire des sujets sur certaines modalités d'appréciation de ces jugements. Sous l'angle de l'application, la façon de juger apparaît liée à la valorisation identitaire selon les contextes.

ABSTRACT

If many researches study the production of transgressions, fewer are those which relate to the way girls and boys judge them. Often, these judgements concern gender intergroup relations and social backgrounds concerning asymmetric intergroup relations (Lorenzi-Cioldi, 2002). We know that categorisation involves ingroup favouritism bias (Tajfel, 1982). However, when these relations imply groups from different status, discrimination towards the dominant group does not inevitably appear for the dominated groups. Men would be more characterized by instrumental terms and women by expressive features (Broverman et al., 1972, Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1994). These results are explained by social desirability and utility mainly determined by the dominant power of men (Kirchler, 1993) or more generally to reproduction of social system (Masson-Maret & Beauvois, 2000). Our research distinguishes three registers of transgressions (individual, conventional and moral) resulting from the model of Turiel and Nucci (1983). The goal is to carry out the analysis of the identity factors related to identity threat, gender, social background and school orientation, on socio-moral judgements of girls and boys, about transgressions made by boys. It arises that socio-moral judgements relating to transgressions can fluctuate differently according to membership identity of the subjects on some modalities of appreciation of these judgements. About applied psychology, the ways of judging could be related to the identity valorisation according to the context.

De nombreuses études de sociologie criminelle montrent que la masse de la criminalité est le fait d'adolescents et de jeunes adultes (Roché, 2001; Mendras, 2003). Le phénomène apparaît vers 8 ou 10 ans, s'accélère à l'adolescence (12-13 ans) et atteint son maximum vers 15-16 ans, puis décroît jusqu'à disparaître autour des 30 ans. Il ressort également de ces études que les garçons des classes populaires sont pratiquement les seuls à avoir à faire avec la police.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Les filles font beaucoup moins de délits. Dans les classes moyennes et supérieures, la famille, le plus souvent, parvient à sortir l'adolescent des mains de la police, à le raisonner et à masquer le délit (Mendras, 2003). Au regard de ces quelques tendances majeures, nous avons choisi d'orienter notre recherche sur les facteurs identitaires intervenant dans les jugements des comportements de transgression commis exclusivement par des sujets hommes. Dans ce sens, il est régulièrement observé que, selon le type d'acte et le degré de violence de cet acte, les hommes sont quatre à huit fois plus nombreux que les femmes à commettre des actes de délinquance répertoriés ou autorévélés (Roché, 2001). Si de nombreuses études existent sur la perception des actes commis et de leurs auteurs, plus rares sont celles qui portent sur la manière dont filles et garçons les jugent. Ainsi, les jugements portés sur les comportements de transgression commis par des hommes diffèrent-ils selon qu'ils sont jugés par des hommes ou des femmes? Nous avons cherché à savoir dans quelle mesure les facteurs identitaires relatifs à l'appartenance de genre affectent les jugements socio-moraux concernant des actes de transgression ainsi que leurs auteurs. Dans cette perspective on peut noter que ces jugements s'inscrivent dans des relations entre groupes de genre différents mettant en jeu des rapports intergroupes inégalitaires (Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1988, 2002). Dans ce cadre, les travaux sur les relations entre groupes (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel, Billig, Bundy & Flament, 1971) montrent que la catégorisation sociale entraîne la manifestation d'un biais de favoritisme intragroupe et de discrimination de l'hors groupe. Cependant, lorsque ces relations intergroupes mettent en jeu des groupes de statuts différents, comme c'est le cas pour les hommes (dominants) et les femmes (dominées), la discrimination envers le groupe dominant n'apparaît pas forcément chez les groupes dominés. De même, les groupes dominés peuvent être amenés à se favoriser permettant aux individus de maintenir ou de rechercher une identité sociale positive selon le degré de menace identitaire dans le contexte (Deschamps & Personnaz, 1979; Germain & Personnaz, 2003; Personnaz & Germain, 2006). Par ailleurs, de manière générale les hommes seraient davantage caractérisés en termes instrumentaux alors que les femmes seraient davantage associées à travers des traits expressifs (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz, 1972) centrés sur la relation ou liés à la sphère affective (Deaux, 1985; Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1994). Ces résultats peuvent être expliqués en référence à la désirabilité et à l'utilité sociales principalement déterminées par le pouvoir masculin dominant (Kirchler, 1993). Ces travaux font également référence aux rôles sociaux (Eagly, 1987) ou plus généralement à ceux sur la reproduction du système social (Masson-Maret, 1997; Masson-Maret & Beauvois, 2000) ou sur la justification du système social ou l'idéologie (Jost & Hunyadi, 2002). En matière d'orientation scolaire et professionnelle, les certaines filières sont inégalement saturées du point de vue de l'appartenance sexuelle, les différences pouvant être expliquées aussi bien en terme de motivations et de représentations qu'en terme de déterminants culturels et socio-éducatifs (Chouinard, 2002). Il est souvent démontré que les filles au sortir de l'école secondaire s'engagent dans des formations et des métiers moins prestigieux et moins rentables (Felouzis, 1993). Ainsi, s'agissant de l'engagement dans la filière scientifique, les filles manifesteraient moins d'attentes de succès que les garçons et éviteraient les filières scientifiques. Au contraire, leurs attentes seraient plus favorables pour les habilités verbales, ce qui les pousseraient davantage à poursuivre une filière littéraire (Cooper, 1987; Eccles, 1983; Duru-Bellat, 1990; Relich, 1996). Comme cela a pu être évoqué précédemment, le poids des attentes de rôle un élément non négligeable mais selon Chouinard et ses collaborateurs, ceci serait notamment à mettre en relation avec la nature particulière de la perception de soi et des patrons attributionnels des filles, en particulier au début de l'adolescence (1999). Selon plusieurs auteurs, les filles seraient plus susceptibles d'attribuer un lieu de contrôle externe pour expliquer les événements qui les concernent alors que le lieu de contrôle des garçons serait généralement plus interne (Chouinard, 1996; Duru-Bellat, 1990; Dubois, 1987; Dweck, Davidson, Nelson et Enna, 1978). Les élèves des deux sexes se distinguent ensuite en ce qui

concerne le lieu de contrôle des événements qui les concernent et les attributions inférées pour expliquer ces événements. Ainsi, indépendamment des résultats scolaires, les filles, plus que les garçons, ont tendance à percevoir les événements comme étant déterminés par des facteurs externes comme la chance ou le hasard tandis que ces derniers ont tendance à considérer ce qui leur arrive comme le résultat de leur propre comportement ou de leurs caractéristiques personnelles. La responsabilité des individus dans ce qui affectent leur existence serait donc différemment appréciée selon la catégorie d'appartenance sexuelle, sans doute renforcée par l'insertion au sein de l'une ou l'autre des filières scientifiques et littéraires.

En ce qui concerne la manière dont les hommes et les femmes jugent les actes de transgression, un grand nombre de travaux s'inscrit dans une approche cognitivo-développementale du jugement moral. En se référant au modèle tripartite de Turiel (1983) et Nucci (1981, 1982), les transgressions relèvent de 3 registres de valeurs (individuel, conventionnel et moral). A partir de ce modèle, dans notre étude la transgression concernera soit une valeur sociale considérée comme utile au fonctionnement d'un groupe social ou d'une communauté, soit une valeur morale dont le respect est obligatoire, universel et donc sensé être indépendant des particularités d'un contexte social. Elle peut aussi être perçue comme telle lorsqu'il s'agit d'un comportement atypique, elle traduit alors l'expression d'une valeur strictement personnelle et n'est généralement pas stigmatisée. S'agissant de la manière dont les filles et les garçons jugent les transgressions et leurs auteurs, plusieurs travaux montrent qu'ils ne développeraient pas la même orientation ou du moins en privilégieraient une différente (cf. pour une revue complète Tostain, 1999). En effet, Gilligan défend l'idée selon laquelle, les filles, développeraient une morale de la sollicitude alors que les garçons manifesteraient plutôt une morale de la justice, basée sur l'application de critères et de règles stricts (1987). Ces résultats ont toutefois été remis en question notamment par Walker (1984, 1986, 1991). L'auteur ne trouve aucune différence statistiquement significative après avoir réalisé une synthèse de 80 recherches portant sur près de 10000 sujets et dans lesquelles a été utilisé le test de Kohlberg. Enfin, précisons que la nature des contenus peut être un facteur de différenciation entre filles et garçons. Selon que l'acte de transgression implique directement une personne ou le fonctionnement d'un système social, des différences peuvent apparaître quant au type de conception morale qui serait mobilisée (p. 185, Tostain, 1999). La distinction entre les faits relevant des valeurs morales et impliquant nécessairement l'intégrité d'une personne et ceux relevant des valeurs sociales, devrait permettre d'en constater quelques effets.

OBJECTIFS

Le but est de procéder à l'étude de certains facteurs identitaires liés à la menace identitaire, au genre et au milieu social sur les jugements socio-moraux d'adolescents, filles et garçons, à propos de transgressions commises par des garçons. Ces facteurs identitaires devraient agir différemment sur la production des jugements socio-moraux selon le type de transgression.. L'impact de ces facteurs devrait également varier en fonction de l'orientation scolaire des élèves.

MÉTHODOLOGIE

L'expérience portait sur une population composée de 234 lycéens, dont 145 filles et 89 garçons, issus soit d'un lycée favorisé soit d'un lycée défavorisé. Les sujets étaient en terminales correspondant à une filière soit littéraire soit scientifique. Dans un premier temps, nous leur

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



avons présenté soit un message de dévalorisation de la catégorie des jeunes (condition 1), soit un message de valorisation de la catégorie des jeunes (condition 2), soit un message neutre (condition 3). Ensuite, les participants ont rempli une échelle (échelle ABB96) de mesure des jugements socio-moraux (Abdellaoui, Beauvois & Blatier, 1996), une échelle d'estime de Soi (Rosenberg, 1979) et une échelle d'internalité (Abdellaoui, 2000).

L'étude correspond au plan expérimental suivant : 3 (Message identitaire : Dévalorisant vs Valorisant vs Neutre) X 2 (Genre : Filles vs Garçons) X 2 (Filière : Littéraire vs Scientifique).

RÉSULTATS

En matière d'internalité et plus spécifiquement de besoin de contrôle, aucune différence significative n'est relevée sur l'ensemble des facteurs étudiés. Quel que soit le sexe, la filière scolaire choisie ou le type de message transmis à l'origine de la passation, les sujets apparaissent comme manifestant un même besoin de contrôle interne. Aussi, l'analyse de cette dimension ne révèle aucune interaction significative entre ces différents facteurs.

Par ailleurs, le traitement des données montre que globalement, l'estime de soi des filles ($m= 5,38$) est significativement inférieure à celle des garçons ($m=7,92$) ($F(1, 233) = 9,79$ $p<.01$). Nous remarquons également que le niveau d'estime de soi n'est pas affecté par la présentation préalable d'un des trois types de message. Le niveau d'estime de soi apparaît davantage lié au genre des participants qu'aux autres facteurs. Toutefois, l'interaction Genre X Filière scolaire apparaît de façon significative ($F(1, 233)=4,73$ $p<.05$). Plus précisément, on observe que les filles ont une estime de soi plus faible que celle des garçons et ce d'autant plus qu'elles sont dans une filière littéraire (Figure 1).

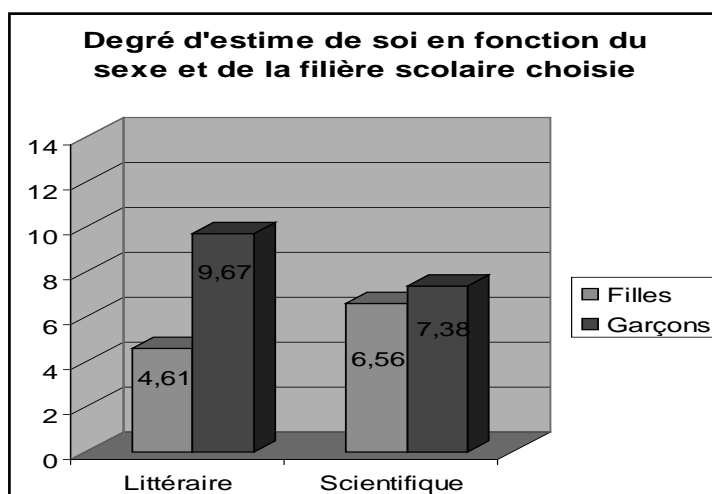


Figure 1

Concernant les jugements socio-moraux, les résultats montrent que la manière de juger les transgressions et les comportements atypiques diffère selon l'appartenance sexuelle des sujets à l'exception des transgressions d'ordre moral. Les sujets féminins sont aussi sévères à l'égard des actes de transgressions morales et de leurs auteurs que le sont les sujets masculins ($F(1, 233)=1,28$ ns). Par contre, contrairement aux garçons, les filles sont significativement moins indulgentes à l'égard des transgressions conventionnelles ($F(1, 233)=8,77$ $p<.01$) alors qu'elles le sont nettement plus s'agissant des conduites atypiques ($F(1, 233)=7,06$ $p<.01$) (Figure 2).

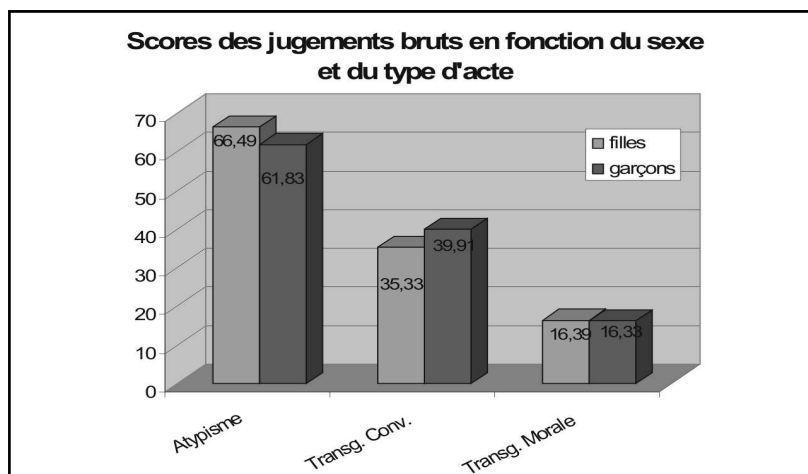


Figure 2

La filière suivie apparaît également comme étant à l'origine des différences de jugements au sein de notre population d'étude. Il ressort de l'analyse que, s'agissant des transgressions conventionnelles, les élèves de la filière littéraire ont des scores de jugement brut significativement plus indulgents ($m=38,32$) que ceux des élèves ($m=35,98$) qui suivent la filière scientifique ($F(1,234)=7,37$ $p<.05$). Cette différence est également observée s'agissant des transgressions d'ordre moral ($F(1,234)=4,34$ $p<.05$). En effet, les élèves de la filière littéraire attribuent moins de jugements négatifs ($m=17,84$) que les élèves de la filière scientifique ($m=15,18$). S'agissant des atypismes, on ne relève pas de différence significative entre les élèves des deux parcours scolaires ($F(1,234)=2,82$ $p=.09$).

Les facteurs type de message transmis et type de milieu ne donnent lieu à aucune différence significative. Enfin, précisons qu'aucune interaction significative n'est observée et ce, quel que soit, les facteurs considérés.

Toutefois, s'agissant de l'étendue des jugements, qui correspond à l'écart entre les jugements portés sur les actes les moins répréhensibles et ceux portés sur les actes les plus répréhensibles, l'analyse de variance révèle une interaction entre les facteurs Genre X Message. En situation de valorisation identitaire les filles présentent une étendue de leur jugement plus grande que les garçons ($F(2, 233)=4,12$ $p<.05$). De ce fait, elles font davantage de différences entre les types de transgressions lorsqu'elles viennent d'être valorisées alors que l'on observe aucun effet chez les garçons (Figure 3).

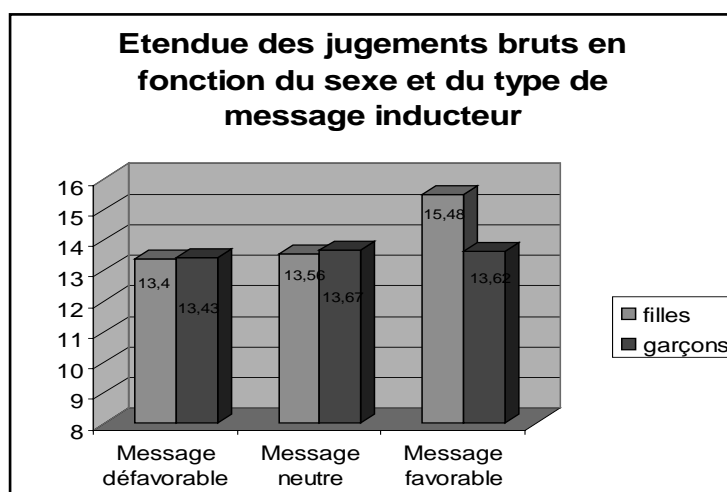


Figure 3

En matière de tolérance globale, on ne constate aucun effet principal des différents facteurs hormis celui relatif au milieu social des sujets ($F(1,234)=9,26$ $p<.05$). Toutefois, l'ANOVA permet de relever plusieurs interactions significatives entre Message X Filière Scolaire ($F(2; 233)=3,03$ $p<.05$), Sexe X Message ($F(2,233)= 3,23$ $p<.05$).

Concernant cette dernière interaction, on constate que les garçons sont nettement moins tolérants à l'égard des transgressions en général en situation de valorisation identitaire ($m=-10,89$) qu'en situation de message dévalorisant ($m=-3,75$) ou neutre ($m=-3,74$), alors que l'on n'observe aucune différence chez les sujets filles quelle que soit la valeur du message. Les résultats indiquent une tendance chez les garçons à manifester un biais de favoritisme intragroupe en situation de transgression et ce biais s'estompe lorsque ce groupe vient d'être valorisé.

CONCLUSION

En conclusion, il ressort qu'en terme d'internalité, contrairement à ce que l'on attendait, les résultats ne montrent aucune différence significative entre filles et garçons. Toutefois, les deux groupes de sujets se distinguent nettement en ce qui concerne leur estime de soi et ce quel que soit le niveau de valorisation du message transmis préalablement. Cela est plus nette encore s'agissant des filles qui poursuivent une filière littéraire, ce qui confirme les postulats théoriques développés par certains auteurs (Chouinard, 2002, ...) que les jugements socio-moraux portant sur les transgressions peuvent fluctuer différemment selon l'appartenance identitaire des sujets sur certaines modalités d'appréciation de ces jugements. La façon de juger apparaît liée au besoin de valorisation identitaire selon les contextes comme l'indiquent en particulier les résultats concernant les transgressions les plus graves.

En ce qui concerne les jugements sociomoraux, l'analyse montre que les élèves de la filière littéraire sont globalement plus indulgents que ceux de la filière scientifique tant sur le plan des transgressions conventionnelles que morales. Les résultats montrent également des différences significatives entre filles et garçons des différences s'agissant des atypismes et des transgressions conventionnelles. Les filles sont moins indulgentes s'agissant du non respect des normes et des règles sociales. La théorie de l'identité sociale, il s'avère bien que les filles seraient davantage enclines à se conformer aux règles sociales que ne le font les garçons. L'intériorisation des règles sociales, la protection d'un certain ordre social établi, l'adhésion aux stéréotypes sociaux ont souvent été considérées comme étant des caractéristiques de groupes dominants (Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1988, Bouchard, St-Amant et Gagnon (2000). Or, on constate ici que les filles, réputées comme étant socialement dominées, chercheraient davantage à protéger les normes sociales que ne le feraient les garçons. Notre analyse est étayée par le fait qu'en situation de valorisation, l'étendue des jugements chez les filles est significativement plus importante que chez les garçons. Leur capacité à différencier les transgressions en fonction des situations s'avère beaucoup plus nette. Ce qui tend à montrer que, contrairement aux garçons, les filles ne manifesteraient pas cette prédominance à défendre systématiquement les règles et valeurs mises en jeu dans les situations de transgression. Ce résultat contre-intuitif nous pousse à devoir distinguer ce qui relève de la transgression d'une norme de ce qui relève de son intériorisation. Autrement dit, il est possible que les filles, tout en refusant de faire valoir cette norme, cherchent à contenir tout ce qui irait dans le sens d'une dérive sociale de type anémique, sans référence directe à une approche constructive du changement social. Les items de l'échelle mettent davantage l'accent sur l'acte de transgression que sur les motivations réelles. Il peut être intéressant d'explorer l'impact de ce type d'acte sur les jugements en fonction de la nature constructive ou destructrice des motivations du passage à l'acte.



Enfin, on ne constate aucune différence entre les deux groupes s'agissant des transgressions morales. L'éthique de sollicitude n'est donc pas plus manifestée par les filles que par les garçons, ce qui irait dans le sens des analyses de Walker (1991), remettant ainsi en question les travaux de Gilligan à propos d'une prédominance de l'éthique de sollicitude dans le jugement moral des filles.

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Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

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IDENTITY FACTORS AND SOCIO-MORAL JUDGEMENTS OF TEENAGERS

Many studies in criminal sociology show that the majority of the criminal nature is that of teenagers or young adults (Roché, 2001; Mendras, 2003). That phenomenon appears around 8 or 10 years, becomes faster at youth (12-13 years) and reaches his maximum around 15-16 years, then decreases until disappearing around 30 years. It also appears from these studies that boys from the masses are practically the only ones to have something to do with the police. Girls make much less offences. In the middle and upper classes, the family much often arrives to get out the teenager from the hands of the police, to reason him and to conceal the crime (Mendras, 2003). All major tendencies considered, we decided to make a research on the identity factors involved in the judgments of transgression committed behaviors exclusively by men. In this perspective, it was observed that, depending on the type of act and the degree of violence of that act, men are four to eight times more than women to commit delinquency behaviours listed or self-revealed (Roché, 2001). If many studies exist on the perception of committed behaviours and their perpetrators, fewer are those which concern the way girls and boys judge them. Thus, judgements related to transgression behaviors committed by men are judged differently depending on whose judging them: men or women ? We try to understand on which level the identity factors related to the gender can affect the social and moral judgements concerning the transgressions and their perpetrators. In this perspective we can observe that these judgements are part of relations between gender groups that's set in action unequal ingroup relations (Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1988, 2002). In this optic, intergroup relations studies (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel, Billig, Bundy & Flament, 1971) emphasize that, social categorization produces a ingroup favouritism bias and discrimination for outgroup. Nevertheless, when those inter-group relations concern different status groups, as we can see between men (dominant) and women (dominated), the discrimination towards the dominant group does not necessarily appear in the dominated groups. Likewise, dominated groups can be induced to favour themselves permitting persons to maintain or to look for a positive social identity according to the identity threat in the context. (Deschamps & Personnaz, 1979; Germain & Personnaz, 2003; Personnaz &

Germain, 2006). Moreover, men would generally be characterized by instrumental terms while women who would be more associated through expressive features (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz, 1972) adjusted to the relation or linked to the affective sphere (Deaux, 1985; Lorenzi-Ciold, 1994). These results can also be explained by the social desirability and the social utility primary determined by the dominant male power (Kirchler, 1993). These studies also refer to the social roles (Eagly, 1997) or more generally to the social system reproduction (Masson-Maret, 1997; Masson-Maret & Beauvois, 2000) or to the social system justification or the ideology (Jost & Hunyadi, 2002). Concerning professional and scholar orientation, some academic sections are unequally sexually saturated. Those differences can be explained as well in terms of motivations and representations than socio-educative and cultural determinants (Chouinard, 2002). It is often demonstrated that girls having just left secondary school enter in less prestigious and less paying formations and professions (Felouzis, 1993). Thus, girls engaged in the scientific section, would show less success expectations than boys and would avoid the scientific sections. On the contrary, their expectations would be more favorable for the verbal abilities, so that they would induce them to enter in a literary section (Cooper, 1987; Eccles, 1983; Duru-Bellat, 1990; Relich, 1996). As said before, the weight of role expectations is an element non negligible but according to Chouinard and his collaborators, that weight of role expectations could be put in relation with the particular nature of the girls self perception and attributional patterns, in particular at the beginning of adolescence (1999). According to many authors, girls would be more open to attribute an external control locus to explain the issues that affect them, while the boys control locus would be generally more internal (Chouinard, 1996; Duru-Bellat, 1990; Dubois, 1987; Dweck, Davidson, Nelson et Enna, 1978). Then the feminine and masculine students distinguish themselves on the events of control locus concerning themselves and the inferred attributions to explain those events. Thus, independently of the scholar results, girls more than boys are inclined to perceive the events like being determined by external factors like chance or hazard while the last one are be inclined to consider what happens to them as the result of their own behavior or their personal dispositions. The responsibility of persons in what affect them would be differently appreciated according to the sexual membership category, no doubt reinforced by the insertion in the one or the other of the scientific or literary sections.

Concerning now the way men and women judge transgression behaviors, many studies are explained in a cognitivo-developmental approach of the moral judgement. Referring to the tripartite model of Turiel and Nucci (1983), transgressions can concern values on three registers (individual, conventional and moral). Using this model, in our study the transgression will either concern a social value considered useful for a social group or a community life, or a social value where respect is mandatory, universal and thus supposed to be independent from the particularities of the social context. It can also be perceived like this when it concern atypical behavior, it then explains the expression of a value strictly personal and is generally not stigmatized. For the manner that girls and boys judge the transgressions and their authors, many studies show in which they would not develop the same orientation or at least would prefer a different one (For a complet review see Tostain, 1999). In this optic, Gilligan defends the idea that girls would develop a morality of solicitude while boys would rather manifest a morality of justice based on the application of strict criteria and rules (1987). Those results, however, have been questionned particularly by Walker (1984, 1986, 1991). This author do not find any statistically significant difference, after having done a synthesis of 80 researches with about 10 000 participants in which the test of Kohlberg has been used. Finally, we want to note that the nature of the contents can be a factor of differentiation between boys and girls. Depending

that the transgression act directly imply a person or the social system working, differences can appear concerning type of the moral conception that would be mobilized (p. 185, Tostain, 1999). The distinction between facts concerning moral values and necessarily implying the integrity of the person and those concerning social values, would allow to observe some effects.

OBJECTIVES

The aim is to proceed to the study of some identity factors linked to the identity threat, the gender and the social class on the teenagers' socio-moral judgements, girls and boys, with regards to transgressions perpetrated by boys. Those identity factors should work differently on the socio-moral judgements production according to the transgression type. The influence of these factors should also vary depending on the students' academic orientation.

METHOD

Participants were a population of 234 students, 145 girls and 89 boys, coming from either a privileged or underprivileged high school. Participants were in their last school year corresponding to a literary or scientific academic section. At first, we presented them either a depreciation message about the youth category (condition 1), a appreciation message about the youth category (condition 2), or a neutral message (condition 3). Then, participants were asked to fill out a measuring scale (scale ABB96) of socio-moral judgements (Abdellaoui, Beauvois & Blatier, 1996; Abdellaoui et coll. 2007), a self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1979) and an internality scale (Abdellaoui, 2000).

The study correspond to an experimental design: 3 (Depreciation vs Appreciation vs Neutral identity message) X 2 (Girls vs Boys) X 2 (Literary vs Scientific academic section).

RESULTS

For the internality scale and more specifically for the need to control, no significant difference is found for the overall studied factors. Whatever the sex, the place, the school orientation or the type of message transmitted at first, participants appear to have the same need of internal control. The analysis of this dimension does not reveal any significant interaction between those different factors.

Furthermore, the data analysis reveals that globally, girls self-esteem ($m = 5.38$) is significantly lower to boys self-esteem ($m = 7.92$) ($F(1, 233) = 9,79$ $p < .01$). We also note that the self-esteem level is not affected by the presentation of one of the three types of message. The self-esteem level is more linked to the participant's gender than to the other factors. Nevertheless, the interaction Sex X School orientation is significant ($F(1,233) = 4.73$ $p < .05$). More exactly, we observe that girls have a lower self-esteem than boys even more if they are in a literary academic section (cf. Figure 1).

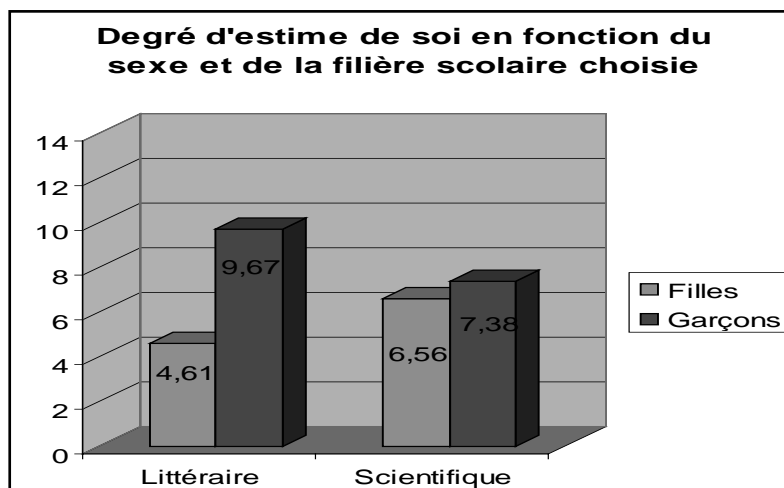


Figure 1: Self esteem level according to sex and academic section choice

Concerning socio-moral judgements, the results reveal that the way transgressions and atypical behaviors are judged, they differ according to the subject gender, except for the moral transgressions. Female subjects are as severe towards moral transgressions and their perpetrators as male subjects ($F(1, 233) = 1.28$ ns). On the other hand, opposed to boys, girls are significantly less indulgent for conventional transgressions ($F(1, 233) = 8,77$ $p < .01$) even though they are more indulgent for atypical behaviors ($F(1, 233) = 7,06$ $p < .01$) (cf. Figure 2 below).

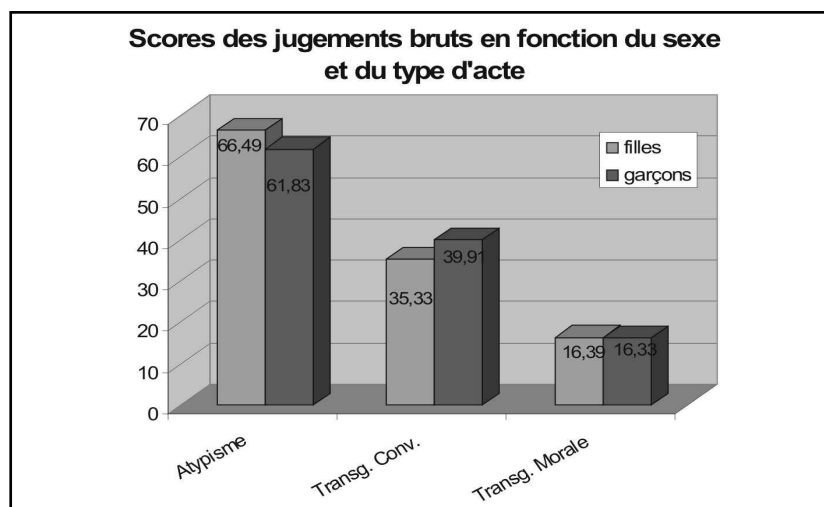


Figure 2: Primary judgments scores according to sex and type of act.

The academic section factor also appears to be the reason for different judgements between our study population. The analysis emphasizes the fact that concerning the conventional transgressions, students from the literary academic section have significant more indulgent judgement scores ($m = 38,32$) than those who follow the scientific academic section ($m = 35,98$) ($F(1, 234) = 7,37$ $p < .05$). That difference is also observed for moral transgressions ($F(1, 234) = 4,34$ $p < .05$). Indeed, students from the literary academic section attribute less negative judgements ($m = 17,84$) than the one from the scientific academic section ($m = 15,18$). For atypical behaviors, there is no significant difference between students from both academic sections ($F(1, 234) = 2,82$ $p = .09$). The type of message transmitted and the type of social class factors do not reveal significant differences. Finally, we note that no significant interaction is observed regardless of the factors considered.

However, concerning the judgements' extent, corresponding to the variation between the judgements towards less reprehensive actions and those towards more reprehensive actions, the analysis of variance reveals an interaction between Sex X Message factors. When girls are in an identity appreciation situation they show a bigger judgement than boys ($F(2, 233) = 4,12$ $p < .05$). Consequently, they make more difference between transgression types when they have just been enhanced, when no differences are observed for boys (cf. Figure 3).

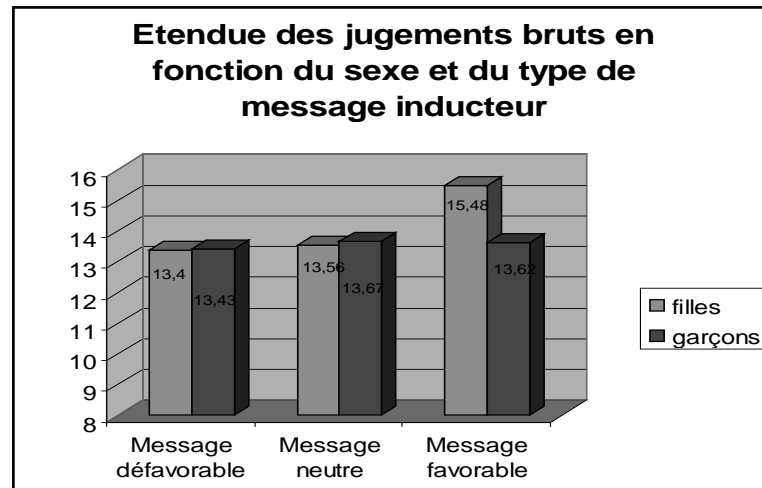


Figure 3: Primary judgments range according to sex and type of inductive message

Concerning global tolerance, no main effect from the various analysed factors appear except the one related to the participants' type of social class ($F(1, 234) = 9,26$ $p < .05$). However, an ANOVA shows significant interactions between Message X Academic section ($F(2, 233) = 3,03$ $p < .05$), Sex X Message ($F(2, 233) = 3,23$ $p < .05$).

In that last interaction we can see that boys are clearly less tolerant towards transgressions in general in an identity appreciation situation ($m = 10.89$) than in a depreciation message situation ($m = -3.75$) or neutral ($m = -3.74$), while we do not observe any difference for female participants whatever the message value is. Results show a tendency for boys to reveal ingroup favouritism bias in transgression situation and that bias disappears when the group has just been enhanced.

Conclusion

In conclusion, for the internality, it appears that contrary to our expectations, results do not reveal any significant difference between boys and girls. However, the two groups of participants clearly distinguish themselves for their self esteem and the level of message enhancement previously transmitted. This is more clear for girls that carry on a literary section so that it confirms the theoretical assumptions developed by some authors (Chouinard, 2002) that socio-moral judgments concerning transgressions can differently fluctuate according to the identity membership of the participants on certain appreciation modalities on those judgments. The way it is judged seems to be linked to the need of identity valorisation depending on the context as particularly indicate the results concerning the more severe transgressions. Concerning the socio-moral judgments, analysis reveals that the students from the literary section are globally more indulgent than those from the scientific section as much on the conventional than morals transgressions. The results also show significant differences between girls and boys on atypical behaviors and conventional transgressions. Girls are less indulgent for the non respect of norms and social rules. According to the social identity theory, girls would be more inclined to conform themselves to the social rules than boys. The interiorisation of social rules, the protection of a certain social order, adhesion to social stereotypes have often been considered

to be characteristics of dominant groups (Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1988; Bouchard, Saint-Amant et Gagnon, 2000). Then, we observe that the girls considered to be socially dominated would search more protect social norms than the boys. Our analysis is supported by the fact that in a valorisation situation, the girls range of the judgments is significantly more important than the boys. Their capacity to differentiate the transgressions according to the situations appears much clearer. So that girls, opposed to boys, are inclined to demonstrate that they would not show that predominance to systematically defend the rules and values setting up in the transgressions situations. That counter-intuitive results make us distinguish between norm transgression and its interiorisation. Otherwise said, it is possible that girls, in the same time, refuse to valorise that norm and also search for everything that would match with a sense of social anomic type drift without a direct reference to a constructive approach of social change. Scale items concern much more transgression acts than real motivations. It could be more interesting to study the influence of that type or act on the judgments according to the motivation constructive or destructive nature of passing to act.

Finally, we observe no difference between the two groups concerning the moral transgressions. Ethics of solicitude is not more revealed by the girls than boys so that it would fit with the analysis of Walker (1991), questioning then the studies of Gilligan concerning the predominance of solicitude ethics in girls' moral judgment.

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**Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie**

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L'INFLUENCE DES VALEURS DE TOLÉRANCE SUR LES RELATIONS ENTRE ÉQUIPES DE TRAVAIL

Sid ABDELLAOUI*¹, Bernard PERSONNAZ*, Marcel LOUREL* & Benjamin AUBRY²**

Université de Rouen
sid.abdellaoui@univ-rouen.fr

RÉSUMÉ

La recherche concerne les mécanismes impliqués dans les phénomènes de discrimination au travail à partir de l'étude des facteurs psychosociaux susceptibles de diminuer le risque de conflit entre équipes. Plusieurs recherches montrent l'impact de facteurs individuels dans la détermination des comportements de discrimination ou de violence. Aussi, la culture d'entreprise et le style d'organisation peuvent générer des effets néfastes sur le travailleur, sur l'efficacité du travail (Maslet, 2000). De plus, un climat défavorable affecte l'équilibre des relations au travail (Courcy et coll, 2003) et l'implication du salarié vis-à-vis de l'organisation (Lourel et Guéguen, 2007). Selon la théorie de l'identité sociale (Tajfel, 1974), l'individu recherche une identité positive à travers les comparaisons entre groupes. Lorsque son groupe est perçu comme réussissant mieux qu'un autre permettant une comparaison intergroupe, l'estime de soi des membres se trouve confortée. Personnaz et Personnaz (1992) montrent différentes stratégies identitaires impliquées en contexte d'influence intergroupales. L'étude explore l'impact d'informations prosociales diffusées à des équipes ingénieurs. L'expérience consiste à analyser les comportements des équipes d'ingénieurs confrontées à d'autres équipes, devant un problème à résoudre après avoir mobilisé une réflexion autour du respect d'autrui. Ainsi, l'activation au préalable du registre des valeurs prosociales suite à l'émission de message de tolérance diminue-t-elle l'activation des processus de discrimination entre groupes en compétition, devant une tâche résoudre? Les résultats soulignent un effet des messages sur l'évaluation du hors groupe modulé par la réussite ou l'échec de l'endogroupe à cette tâche. L'ensemble des résultats est discuté dans la perspective d'une articulation théorique et appliquée entre stratégies identitaires et principes de tolérance.

Mots clés: tolérance, cohésion d'équipe, compétition/coopération, influence, stratégies identitaires

ABSTRACT

Research relates to the mechanisms implied in discrimination at work by studying the psychosocial factors involved a reduction in the risk of conflict between teams. Many researchs show the impact of individual factors in the determination of the behaviors of discrimination or violence. Also, the culture of company and the style of organization can generate bad effects on the worker, on the effectiveness of work (Maslet, 2000). Moreover, one unfavourable climate affects the balance of the relations to work (Courcy and coll, 2003) and the implication of worker in the organization (Lourel and Guéguen, 2007). According to the theory of the social identity (Tajfel, 1974), the individual seeks a positive identity by social comparisons between groups. When its group is perceived like succeeding better than another allowing a comparison joint committee, the self-esteem of the members is better. Personnaz and Personnaz (1992) show various identity strategies implied in context of influence between groups. The study explores the impact of information about tolerance transmitted to engineers teams. The experiment allows analyzing the behaviors of the teams of engineers confronted with other teams and having to solve a problem after having mobilized a thought about the respect of others. Thus, does the activation as a preliminary of the register of the positives social values after transmitting a message of tolerance decrease the activation of the processes of discrimination between groups in competition, having to solve a task? The results underline an effect of the messages on the evaluation of outgroup modulated by the success or the failure of the ingroup to this task. All results are discussed from the point of view of a theoretical and applied articulation between identity strategies and principles of tolerance.

Keys words: tolerance, cohesion of team, competition/cooperation, influence, strategies of identity

1 Enseignants-chercheurs à l'Université de Rouen.

2 Psychologue du travail

INTRODUCTION THÉORIQUE

Les situations de conflit interpersonnel ou intergroupe dans l'organisation sont régulières. Elle résulte notamment du fait que les membres impliqués ont des buts différents (Deutsch, 1973), un intérêt commun pour des ressources rares (Rojot, 1994), des représentations divergentes (Bartunek, Reid, 1992). Par ailleurs, le style d'organisation peut en lui-même générer des effets néfastes sur le travailleur, sur l'efficacité (Karasek et Theorell 1990) et se traduire par des conduites violentes (Soares, 2002). Aussi, un climat relationnel défavorable met davantage en péril l'équilibre des relations au travail (Courcy, Savoie et Brunet, 2003). Des auteurs ont relevé un lien direct entre menace identitaire et dévalorisation des groupes d'une part et discrimination et actes de violence d'autre part. Ainsi, existe-il une racine commune à toutes ces sources de conflit permettant d'en avoir un regard explicatif plus générique ? Selon Tajfel et Turner (1979), les conflits intergroupes résultent d'une distribution inégale des ressources accentuant le clivage entre groupe valorisé et groupe dévalorisé, groupe dominant et groupe dominé. Abdellaoui et Pittolo (2000) met l'accent sur les processus d'identification aux membres de son propre groupe. Deschamps (1991) et Personnaz et Personnaz (1992) mettent en évidence différents processus et stratégies identitaires mis en jeu dans les contextes de comparaisons ou d'influence intergroupales. D'autres travaux ont permis d'élaborer un modèle théorique d'explication des différenciations évaluatives entre groupes lié au degré de contact entre groupes (Brown, Condor, Matthews, Wade et Williams, 1986). Globalement, ces travaux soulignent les fluctuations possibles de la différenciation dans les évaluations intra et intergroupes.

OBJECTIFS

L'étude présentée ici, vise à explorer l'impact d'informations prosociales diffusées à des individus appartenant à des équipes de travail différentes, placées en situation d'échec ou de réussite, sur le type de stratégies identitaires en situation de compétition. Plus particulièrement, nous cherchons à étudier les effets de l'activation des valeurs de tolérance sur les évaluations intergroupes et les jugements à propos de la réalité sociale.

HYPOTHÈSE

L'hypothèse centrale porte sur les effets de l'activation préalable du registre des valeurs prosociales à partir de l'émission d'un message de tolérance dans les relations entre groupes. On s'attend en particulier à ce que cette activation module la mise en jeu des processus de discrimination entre groupes selon que ces derniers se trouvent en situation d'échec ou de réussite.

POPULATION D'ÉTUDE ET PROCÉDURE

L'expérience Elle porte sur l'étude de comportements d'équipes de travail lorsque celles-ci doivent résoudre un problème confrontées à d'autres équipes après avoir mobilisé ou non une réflexion autour des valeurs de tolérance et du respect d'autrui. Ils se trouvent en tant que membres d'une équipe en situation d'échec ou de réussite après avoir pris connaissance de leurs résultats à cette tâche de résolution de problème.

Les sujets, 110 élèves ingénieurs (âgés en moyenne de 22 ans), étaient réunis par petits



groupes de 8 à 10 dans une salle de travail. Chaque groupe recevait ou non un message de type prosocial. Celui-ci consistait en la lecture de plaidoyers de grands personnages historiques tels que Ghandi, Martin Luther King, Mandela,..., portant sur la tolérance et le respect d'autrui. À l'issue de la tâche de résolution de problème, induisant une compétition entre équipes, l'expérimentateur leur annonçait aléatoirement qu'ils avaient échoué ou réussi cette tâche.

Deux questionnaires ont ensuite été présentés aux sujets concernant :

- la perception des relations intergroupes. Nous leur avons soumis l'échelle de Bazoumana et Belle (Beauvois & Bazoumana, 1988) composée de 27 termes pouvant caractériser les relations entre groupes d'individus. Les sujets devaient choisir les 4 qui caractérisaient le mieux les relations entre leur groupe d'appartenance et le hors-groupe présent dans la salle.

- La perception des personnes appartenant au hors-groupe. Les sujets devaient choisir à partir d'une autre échelle de Bazoumana et Belle composée de 16 adjectifs (8 positifs et 8 négatifs), les 4 qui caractérisaient le mieux les personnes appartenant au hors-groupe.

LES VARIABLES

Les variables indépendantes concernent principalement le message, et le type de feed-back:

V.I.1 Message de tolérance vs non message

V.I.2. Feed-Back: Echec vs Réussite

Notre analyse portera sur deux variables dépendantes:

V.D. 1: Perception des relations entre groupes

Le score résulte de la somme de chacune des valeurs associées aux mots choisis par le sujet, censés caractériser le mieux les relations entre les groupes.

V.D.2: Perception de l'exogroupe

Le score résulte de la somme de chacune des valeurs associées aux adjectifs choisis par le sujet, censés caractériser le mieux les personnes du hors-groupe.

RÉSULTATS:

Les données de chaque VD ont été traitées par ANOVA selon le plan 2 (Message de tolérance vs non message) X 2 (Feed-back: Echec vs Réussite).

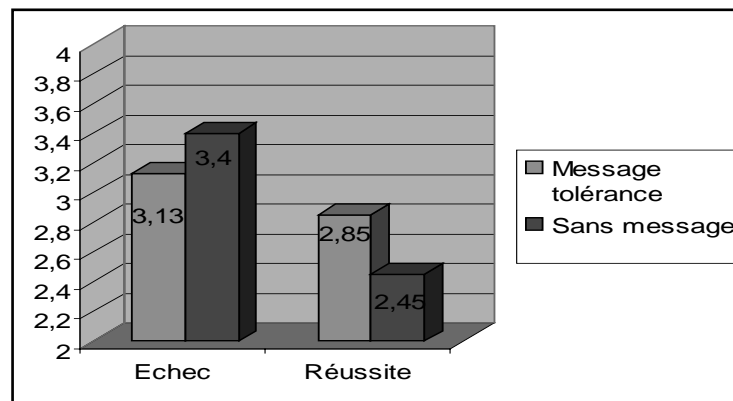
A/ PERCEPTION DE L'EXOGROUPE

Traits négatifs attribués à l'exogroupe

Les résultats portant sur les traits négatifs enregistrés dans l'évaluation de l'exogroupe (Figure 1) indiquent un effet principal du facteur Feed-back: Echec vs Réussite : $F(1,106)=17,32$, $p<.001$, mettant en évidence une plus forte discrimination en situation d'échec, ainsi qu'un effet d'interaction $F1$ Message x $F2$ Feed-back: $(F(1,106)=5,38$, $p<.05$).

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Figure 1: Moyenne des traits négatifs attribués à l'exogroupe selon les conditions Feed-back Échec vs Réussite et Présence vs Absence du message de tolérance



Un score plus élevé indique une évaluation plus négative de l'exogroupe

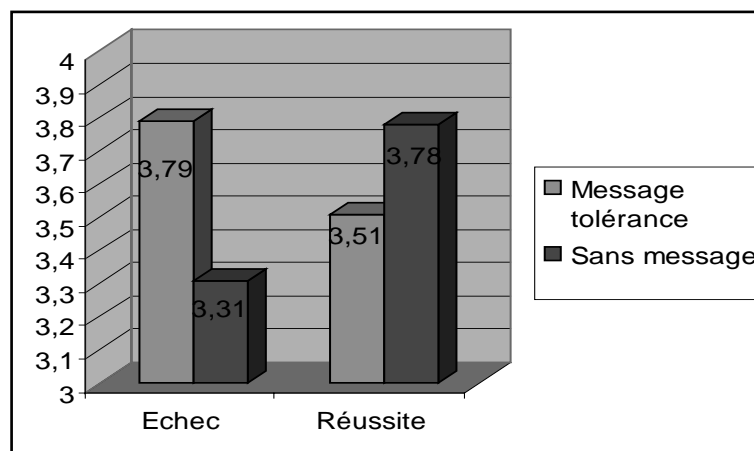
Si en l'absence de message de tolérance les participants évaluent plus négativement l'autre groupe en condition d'échec qu'en condition de réussite: $F(1,106)=22.34$, $p<.001$, cette différence disparaît lorsqu'ils ont lu au préalable le message de tolérance: $F(1,106)=1.60$, ns.

Ces résultats montrent que la situation d'échec conduit à une discrimination plus élevée de l'exogroupe que la situation de réussite. Par contre, cet effet n'est pas observé en présence du message de tolérance. L'activation au préalable de valeurs prosociales à partir du message de tolérance conduit à réduire la mise en jeu de la discrimination entre groupes validant notre hypothèse.

Traits positifs attribués à l'exogroupe

Les résultats portant sur l'évaluation positive de l'exogroupe (Figure 4) indiquent un effet d'interaction $F1$ Message X $F2$ Feed-back: $F(1,106)=12,86$, $p<.001$.

Figure 2: Moyenne des traits positifs attribués à l'exogroupe selon les conditions Feed-back: Échec vs Réussite et Présence vs Absence du message de tolérance.



Un score plus élevé indique une évaluation plus positive de l'exogroupe

En l'absence de message, les participants évaluent moins positivement l'autre groupe en condition d'échec qu'en condition de réussite: $F(1,106)=10.40$, $p<.01$, alors qu'en présence du message de tolérance cette différence a tendance à s'inverser ($p<.10$).

En situation d'échec le message visant au respect d'autrui conduit à une perception de l'autre groupe plus positive qu'en absence de ce message: $F(1,106)=12.29$, $p<.001$.

En résumé, nous observons qu'en l'absence de message la situation d'échec conduit à une moindre évaluation positive de l'exogroupe que la situation de réussite alors que le message de tolérance, en accord avec notre hypothèse, conduit à moduler cet effet. Les résultats permettent de souligner également que l'évaluation positive de l'exogroupe est plus élevée en situation d'échec en présence du message de tolérance.

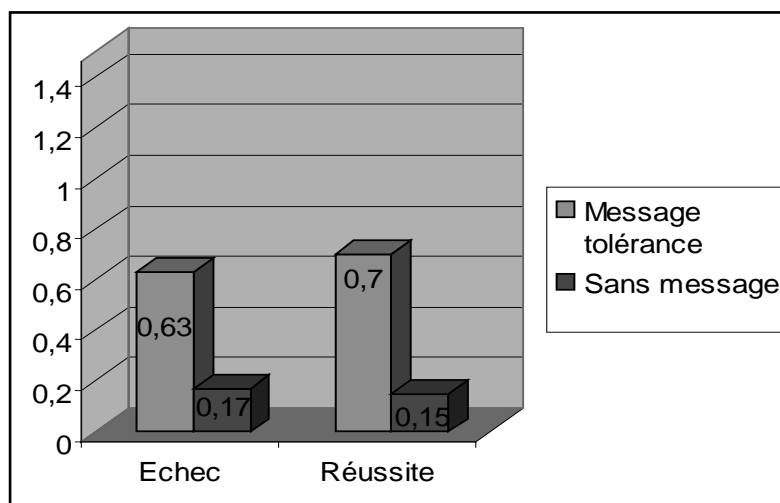
B/ PERCEPTION DES RELATIONS ENTRE GROUPES

Les résultats portant sur les relations entre groupes (Figure 5) indiquent un effet principal du facteur message: $F(1,106)= 10,34$, $p<.01$.

Les participants évaluent plus positivement les relations entre leur propre groupe et l'autre groupe lorsqu'ils ont été exposés à un message de tolérance aussi bien en condition de réussite: $F(1,106)= 4.89$, $p<.05$ qu'en condition d'échec: $F(1,106)= 5.47$, $p<.05$.

En résumé, ces résultats nous permettent de constater, en accord avec notre hypothèse générale, que le message de tolérance conduit à une perception plus positive des relations entre groupes. Aussi, la situation d'échec ou de réussite n'intervient pas dans cette perception.

Figure 3: Moyenne des scores portant sur la perception entre groupes selon les conditions Feed-back échec vs réussite et Présence vs absence du message de tolérance.



Un score plus élevé indique une évaluation plus positive des relations entre groupes

DISCUSSION-CONCLUSION

Cette étude permet de souligner que les mécanismes psychosociaux intervenant dans les phénomènes de discrimination entre groupes en situation de travail peuvent être modulés par l'activation de valeurs de tolérance et de respect d'autrui mais également par l'échec ou la réussite dans la tâche de travail préalable. Ce constat valide globalement notre hypothèse générale. Les résultats observés indiquent que si la situation d'échec amène à une plus forte

discrimination de l'exogroupe que la situation de réussite, le message de tolérance, d'une part, réduit cette différence de discrimination et, d'autre part, conduit à une évaluation plus positive de l'autre groupe lorsque les participants sont placés en contexte d'échec. La perception des relations entre les groupes est, par ailleurs, évaluée plus positivement lorsque les participants ont été amenés à lire ce type de message.

Par conséquent, en situation d'échec, le message de tolérance contribue sans doute à relativiser l'impact en terme de menace identitaire. Le respect des valeurs humaines trouve également sa source dans les ambiances socialisantes mais également dans la nature des messages véhiculés. Ces messages invitent le plus souvent à dépasser le simple niveau des identités respectives au profit d'un niveau de type supra-ordonné atténuant au moins en partie l'activation du biais de favoritisme intragroupe et donc de rejet du hors-groupe. Cela peut, au moins en partie, étayer l'un des principaux postulats de la théorie de l'identité sociale lequel prévoit que les individus cherchent à valoriser leur estime de soi à travers notamment la positivité de leur appartenance. Tout laisse penser que ce besoin de valorisation n'est pas insensible aux caractéristiques cognitives et motivationnelles agissant sur la gestion des relations à autrui. Ceci vaut notamment selon la situation et le degré de menace identitaire qui pèse sur le groupe d'appartenance.

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THE INFLUENCE OF THE VALUES OF TOLERANCE ON THE RELATIONS BETWEEN WORKING TEAMS

THEORETICAL INTRODUCTION

The situations of interpersonal conflict or intergroup in the organization are regular. They are notably a result that the implied members have different purposes (Deutsch, 1973), a common interest of rare resources (Rojot, on 1994), divergent representations (Bartunek, Reid, 1992). Besides, the style of organization can in itself generate fatal effects on the worker, on the efficiency (Karasek and Theorell on 1990) and be translated by violent drivings (behaviours) (Soares, on 2002). So, an unfavourable relational climate more in dangers the balance of the relations in the work (Courcy, Savoy and Brunet, on 2003. According to Tajfel and Turner (1979), the conflicts intergroups result from an uneven distribution (casting) of the resources stressing the split (cleavage) between valued group and depreciated group, dominant group and dominated group. Authors found a direct link between identical threat and depreciation of the groups on one hand and discrimination and acts of violence on the other hand. So, there is a root common to all these sources (springs) of conflict allowing to have a more generic explanatory glance of it?

Abdellaoui and Pittolo (2000) emphasizes the processes of identification to the members of his (her) own group. Deschamps (1991) and Personnaz and Personnaz (1992) brings to light various processes and identical strategies involved (put at stake) in the contexts of comparisons or influence intergroup. Other works allowed to elaborate a theoretical model of explanation of the evaluative differentiations between groups bound to the degree of contact between groups (Brown, Condor, Matthews, Wade and William, on 1986). Globally, these works underline the possible fluctuations in the differentiation in the evaluations intra and intergroup.

OBJECTIVES

The study presented here, aims at investigating the impact of prosocial information diffused to individuals belonging to different working teams, placed in situation of failure or success, on the type of identical strategies in situation of competition. More particularly, we try to study the effects of the activation of the values of tolerance on the intergroups evaluations and judgments about the social reality.

HYPOTHESIS

The central hypothesis concerns the effects of the preliminary activation of the register of the prosocial values from the emission of a message of tolerance in the relations between groups. We expect in particular that this activation modulates the involvement of the processes of discrimination between groups as these last ones are in situation of failure or success.

POPULATION OF STUDY AND PROCEDURE

The experiment concerns the study of behaviour of working teams when these have to resolve a problem confronted with the other teams, having mobilized or not, a reflection about the values of tolerance and the respect for others. They are as members of a team in situation of failure or success having acquainted with their results, in this task of resolution of a problem.

The experiment was conducted on 110 apprentice engineers (22-year-old on average) who were gathered in small groups from 8 to 10 in a working room. Every group received or not a message of prosocial type. This one consisted of the reading of pleas of historic great men such as Ghandi, Martin Luther King, Mandela, concerning the tolerance and the respect for others. At the conclusion of the task of resolution of problem, leading a competition, the experimenter announces to them by chance that they failed or made a success of this task.

Two questionnaires were then presented to the concerning subjects:

- The perception of the intergroups relations. We subjected them the scale of Bazoumana and Belle (Beauvois and Bazoumana, 1988) consisted of 27 terms which can characterize the relations between groups of individuals. The subjects had to choose 4 which characterized best the relations between their group of affiliation, group in the room and the except group.
- The perception of the persons belonging to except group: the subjects had to choose from another scale of Bazoumana and Belle consisting of 16 adjectives (8 positive and 8 negative), 4 which characterized best the persons belonging to the except group.

Variables

The independent variables concern mainly the message, and the type of feedback:

- V.I.1.: Message of tolerance vs no message.
- V.I.2.: Feedback Failure vs Success

Our analysis will concern two dependent variables:

- V.D. 1: perception of the relations between groups. The score results from the sum of each of the values associated with the words chosen by the subject, supposed to characterize best, the relations between the groups.
- V.D.2: perception of the exogroup. The score results from the sum of each of the values associated with adjectives chosen by the subject, supposed to characterize best, the persons of the except group.

RESULTS

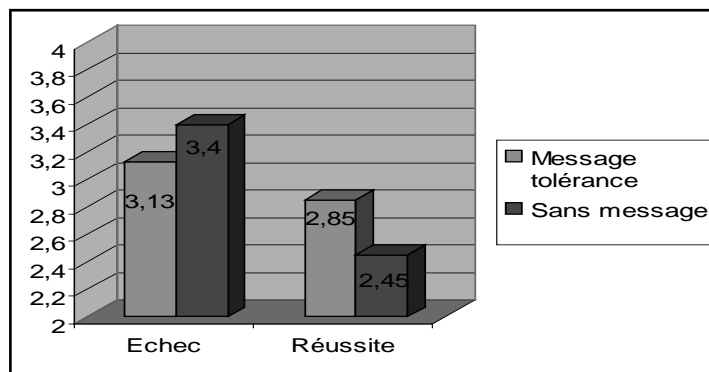
The data of every VD were treated by ANOVA according to the plan 2 (Message of tolerance vs no message) X 2 (Feedback: Failure vs success).

A/ PERCEPTION OF THE EXOGROUP

Negative features attributed to the exogroup

The results concerning the negative features recorded in the evaluation of the exogroup (Figure 1) indicate a main effect of the Feedback Failure vs Success factor: $f(1,106) 17,32, p < .001$, bringing to light a stronger discrimination in situation of failure, as well as an effect of interaction F1 Message x F2 Feed-back: $(f(1,106) 5,38, p < .05$.

Figure 1. Average of negative features attributed to the exogroup according to the conditions of Feedback failure vs success and Presence vs absence of the message of tolerance



A higher score indicates a more negative evaluation of the exogroup

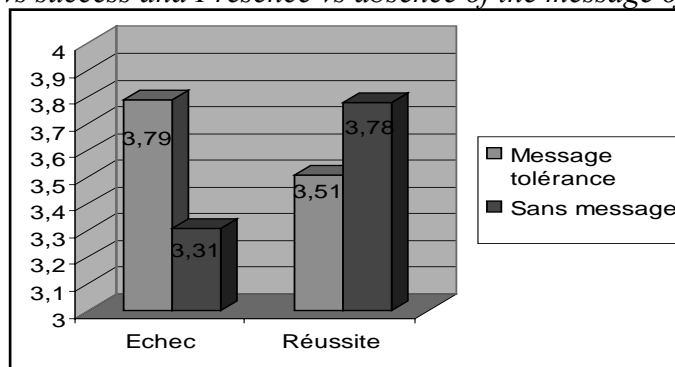
If in the absence of the message of tolerance the participants estimate more negatively the other group in condition of failure than in condition of success: $f(1,106) 22.34, p < .001$, this difference disappears when they read beforehand the message of tolerance: $f(1,106) 1.60, ns$.

These results show that the situation of failure leads to a higher discrimination of the exogroup than the situation of success. On the other hand, this effect is not observed in the presence of the message of tolerance. The activation beforehand of prosocial values from the message of tolerance leads to a reduction of the involvement of the discrimination between groups validating our hypothesis.

Positive features attributed to the exogroup

The results concerning the positive evaluation of the exogroup (Figure 4) indicate an effect of interaction F1 Message X F2 Feed-back: $f(1,106) 12,86, p < .001$.

Figure 2. Average of positive features attributed to the exogroup according to the conditions of Feedback failure vs success and Presence vs absence of the message of tolerance



A higher score indicates a more positive evaluation of the exogroup

In the absence of a message, the participants estimate less positively than the other group in condition of failure than in condition of success: $f(1,106) 10.40, p < .01$, while in the presence of the message of tolerance towards this difference tends to be reversed ($p < .10$).

In situation of failure the message aiming at the respect for others leads to a perception of the other group more positive than in absence of this message: $f(1,106) 12.29, p < .001$.

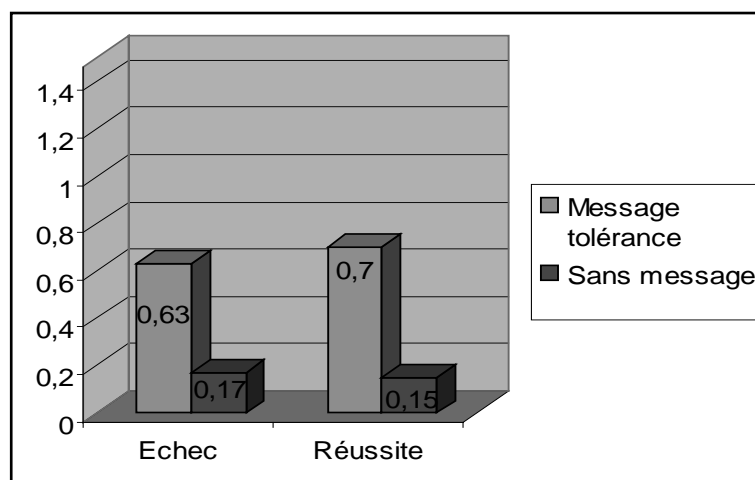
To sum up, we observe that in the absence of a message, the situation of failure leads to a lesser positive evaluation of the exogroup than the situation of success while the message of tolerance, in agreement with our hypothesis, drives to modulate this effect. The results allow to underline also that the positive evaluation of the exogroup is more brought up in situation of failure in the presence of the message of tolerance.

B/ Perception of the relations between groups

The results concerning the relations between groups (Figure 5) indicate a main effect of the message factor: $f(1,106) = 10,34, p < .01$. The participants estimate more positively the relations between their own group and the other group when they were exposed to a message of tolerance as well in condition of success: $f(1,106) = 4.89, p < .05$ that in condition of failure: $f(1,106) = 5.47, p < .05$.

In summary, these results allow us to notice, in agreement with our general hypothesis, that the message of tolerance leads to a more positive perception of the relations between groups. Therefore, the situation of failure or success does not intercede in this perception.

Figure 3. Failure vs. success and Presence vs. absence of the message of tolerance average scores concerning the perception between groups according to the conditions Feedback.



A higher score indicates a more positive evaluation of the relations between groups

DISCUSSION-CONCLUSION

This study allows to underline that psycho-social mechanisms occurring in the phenomena of discrimination between groups in working situation can be modulated by the consecutive activation of tolerance and respect values for others but also by the failure or the success in the task of preliminary work.

This report confirms globally our general hypothesis. The observed results indicate that if the situation of failure brings to a stronger discrimination of the exogroup than the situation of success, the message of tolerance, on one hand, reduces this difference of discrimination and,



on the other hand, leads to a more positive evaluation of the other group when the participants are placed in a context of failure.

The perception of the relations between the groups is estimated, besides, more positively when the participants were brought to read this type of message. Consequently, in situation of failure, the message of tolerance contributes without a doubt to the impact in terms of identical threat. The respect for the human values also finds its source in the socializing atmospheres but also in the nature of the conveyed messages. These messages generally invite to go over the simple level of the respective identities for the benefit of a level of the supra-ordered type easing at least partly the activation of the skew of intragroup favouritism and thus of rejection of the out-group. It can, at least partially, support one of the main postulates of the theory of the social identity which foresees that the individuals try to value their self-respect through notably the positivity of their membership.

Everything makes us think that this need of valuation is not insensible in the cognitive characteristics and motivationnel acting on the management of the relations to others. This is worth in particular according to the situation and the degree of identity threat which weighs on the group of membership.

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MOVING TOWARDS THE CLIENT-THERAPIST SYNERGY

Salman S., AHMAD

Institute of Management Technology - Nagpur, India

S.SalmanAhmad@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Recent years have seen a surge in the narrative paradigm in psychology built upon the model of the narrative construction of self and identity. There is also an emerging voice for the collaboration between therapist and client in psychological assessment, counselling and therapy giving more genuineness and meaning to the process. Built upon this perspective of meaning in narration of lived experience and a view of the client as the expert, the paper demonstrates the application of the Phenomenological Analysis of Selfhood method in psychological assessment and the therapeutic process. Using both qualitative and quantitative strategies, the method provides the possibilities of assessment at various points of time in the therapeutic process as well as providing content for the process as illustrated through actual cases from therapeutic situations. Clients' lived experiences are examined both at the beginning and at the end of the therapeutic process making it possible to study the transformations in lived experiences that constitute selfhood. It is also an illustration of how the process of psychological assessment as well as therapy can progress more genuinely not just with the active participation of the client but by giving more responsibility of assessment to the client, using the client's phenomenological frame of reference as the starting and ending point of the therapeutic process.

INTRODUCTION

Exploration into the experience of selfhood over the last couple of decades has adopted an increasingly subjective, phenomenological flavour, perhaps as a reaction to the overly mechanistic and reductionistic approach of mainstream psychological research which is held by many as alienating from real human experience, particularly when dealing with issues of the development of meaning central to the establishment of a sense of selfhood. There has been thus a renaissance of interest in the phenomenological paradigm, particularly where study of the self is concerned (Gergen, 1985; Burch, 1990; Ricoeur, 1991a&b; Merleau-Ponty, 1994; Harré, 2000).

Phenomenology, Selfhood and Narrative

Phenomenology means a return to the immediacy of experience and its source in the self (Wenkart, 1964). Its approach is mainly reflective, evidential, and descriptive to both encountering and objects as encountered. Phenomenologists tend to recognise the role of description in universal, *a priori*, or 'eidetic' terms as prior to explanation by means of causes, purposes, or grounds (Burch, 1990). The locus of phenomenological reflection, its beginning and end, is the intelligibility of '*lived experience*'. In the first instance, the expression signifies in strictly ontological terms human experience as such, the original way in which human beings exist in the world as selves, and it implies that the essence of this experience lies precisely in its 'lived' character. Moreover, the term suggests that this lived character consists not simply in what is felt or undergone by sentient beings in the passage of time but of what from this passing sentience is meaningfully singled out and preserved. For it is that which is singled out and preserved that constitutes our selfhood. The full meaning of experience is not simply given in the reflexive immediacy of the lived moment but emerges from explicit retrospection where meaning is recovered and re-enacted and the chief way that people seem to do this is through remembrance and narrative.

The narrative method of studying the self sees self-identity as a function of narrative where the 'I' is both the author and the narrator of the saga of 'Me' the protagonist. In this way, both the lived dimensions of selfhood – reflexive immediacy and explicit reflection – come together in the dance of life, of a life lived in the story told through which human beings try to draw out the significance of their experiences. Thus, one of the unique aspects of human self-consciousness or personhood is our ability to connect the distant past through the present and into the distant future through narrative, in particular through a narrative of our own lives. As many recent theorists (Carr, 1986; McAdams, 1990; Dennett, 1992; Hermans, Kempen & van Loon, 1992) have come to realise, it is through such story-making or story-telling that we actively create or constitute our selfhood, for it is through such narratives that we rationalise the meaning of our lives.

Assessment in Psychology

Most of the assessment approaches used in psychology inspired by the mainstream positivist, reductionistic philosophies, whilst collecting the data from the subject, analyse the data in isolation from the subject, implying implicitly a superior position of the investigator to the subject. The popular questionnaires in psychology present stimuli to the subject, the subject's responses are collected and then analysed by the investigator according to a pre-existing framework without the active participation of the subject in the various stages of the process. However, the phenomenological approach largely posits the 'subject-as-expert' and as such involves a focus on conscious, individual experience - taking the individual's own perspective, introspection as a means to generate accounts of experience, a holistic, qualitative, idiographic approach to research and a complete description (as against and prior to interpretation) of human existence and experience.

Also, in the mainstream, popular psychological questionnaires, the stimuli presented to the subject is pre-manufactured reflecting general traits to which individuals have to express their agreement/disagreement and does not present the richness, variation and uniqueness of individual experience. A further position of the phenomenological approach and the narrative method is that individual selfhood is not a fixed or static existence but a dynamic one. The meaning as reflected in individual self-narratives continually undergoes transformation and metamorphosis. Our understanding of ourselves becomes open for revision, re-evaluation and re-description as we encounter new experiences generating new narratives and revising old narratives. The classic psychological test presents the same stimuli again and again to the subject not taking into consideration not only the richness of the individual's own unique experiences but also the change in these unique experiences inherent in the reconstitution of selfhood as meaning is revised across time.

This paper demonstrates how the above problems with psychological assessment and the hierarchical relation between the investigator and the subject can be overcome by involving the subject in the process of assessment and counselling in a two-way dialogical process. It also demonstrates how this can be done whilst staying within the narrative, phenomenological tradition by retaining the genuineness and uniqueness of the individual's experiences through the use of data from individual lives. This is done so by an illustration of a method developed by the author – the *Phenomenological Analysis of Selfhood (PAS)*.

METHOD

The approach of the PAS is to let the subject do the analysis whilst giving the subject certain outlines. This reflects the emerging trend of collaboration between the investigator and the subject in the collection and analysis of data as well as in the therapeutic situation (Hermans



& Hermans-Jansen, 1995; Neimeyer & Mahoney, 1995). The aim is to develop a close rapport between respondents and investigators, so as to break down (to some extent) the hierarchical relationship between researcher and researched or therapist and client. This also has obvious consequences in the counselling and therapeutic situation as it encourages emotional 'empathic' connection between respondents and the investigator. The analysis also carries more meaning for the subject as he/she is directly and actively involved in the process as against being a passive receptor of the 'expert's' analysis. Consequently, the PAS is seen as not only a tool for gauging the present experience of selfhood but also as a tool for gauging the change in this experience over time particularly in the counselling/therapeutic process. The following are the main objectives of the method:

- Incorporating assessment and therapy together as a part of one holistic process
- Basing the assessment and therapy on the actual life-experiences of the client so that the data has more 'meaning' for the client
- Giving more control to the client in the process of assessment as well as therapy – position of 'client-as-expert'

Dimensions of the PAS

In the PAS method, assessment and analysis of the individual's experience is carried out on the two dimensions of *Affect* (the person's experience of valence towards experiences which could be positive or negative) and *Control* (the attribution of responsibility for the affect generated by the experience which could be internal or external). Miall (1986) argues that though the self may be represented cognitively in the form of schemas, the primary form in which experiences that constitute selfhood appear to be represented is affective. Researchers have found that the subjects' first orientation towards a stimulus is affective (Mohr, 1941) and the dimension of affect to be an important one in personality assessment (Foreman, 1966; Kirchman, 1986; Kaufman, 1989; Dalgleish & Power, 1999). We evaluate each experience with regard to the valence it has for us. And this valuation is largely on the *positive-negative continuum*. This has led various researchers to posit the positive-negative dimension of affect as the most important functional aspect of the self in quotidian experience (Watson & Clark, 1992; Russell & Carroll, 1999; Lonigan, Hooe, David & Kistner, 1999). It should also be noted that in the PAS, the approach to affect is from the *self-relevant* perspective, i.e. subjects are asked to report how the experience makes them feel about themselves as against how the subject experiences the affect towards other people/situations. As Crandall & Cohen (1994) have observed self-relevant affect is an expression of self-esteem. In this way, the dimension of *Affect* in the PAS becomes essentially a measure of how the subject feels towards him/herself in response to life experiences, in other words a measure of the subject's self-esteem. The dimension of control is essentially a measure of attribution of responsibility for a self-experience, i.e. whether the subject considers him/herself or other people/situations responsible for the experience. As such the dimension could basically be considered as an assessment of locus of control. In other words, we ask of the subject - "who is responsible for the affect (positive or negative) of a self-experience?"

Administration and Analysis

The method consists of obtaining from subjects essays on themselves, followed by certain procedures for the analysis of the narrative which are elucidated below. In keeping with the spirit of phenomenology, complete freedom is given to the subjects to produce the responses which to them are pertinent, the assumption being that those experiences which form the individual's selfhood and which constitute the present experience of the subject will spontaneously emerge

in the narrative. As can be seen by the method outlined below, the aim of the method is not just to procure for analysis an account of the individual's experience of selfhood but also to gauge the change in this experience over time (especially through counselling/psychotherapy). The entire process is divided into two phases with two rounds in each phase.

In the first phase, the subject is asked to write an essay on the self. After the essay is obtained, the essay is broken up into separate statements, each statement being a cohesive group of words (sentence or a group of sentences) which carry the same experience and affect. All statements are typewritten on a sheet separately with columns beside the statements to score for affect, intensity (rating) of affect, and control (see Illustration A). This list of statements is presented to the subject and if the subject feels that two or more statements should be combined and scored together to reflect his/her experience more accurately, the subject is asked to do so. Contrariwise, if the subject feels that a statement should be further broken up and scored separately as it reflects different experiences, again the subject is asked to go ahead. Following this, the subject is asked to evaluate each experience according to whether the experience makes the subject feel positive/negative (P/N), the intensity of the affect on a scale of -5 to -1 for negative affect and 1 to 5 for positive affect and whether the subject attributes the control of the experience to the self or to the external world of people and situations. Following this, the subject's responses are scored and the quantitative profile of the subject is drawn up consisting of the percentage of statements with positive/negative affect, the percentage of statements with internal/external control as well as the total positive and negative rating (see Illustration B).

The second phase is held after a suitable amount of time (in this study, after 6 months of the commencement of counselling) of the beginning of the therapeutic process to see the change in the experience of the subject. In this phase, the statements of the 1st phase are presented to the subject again without the scoring for these statements and the subject is asked to go through each statement and decide whether the statement still holds true for the subject and the subject would retain the statement as it is, whether the subject would like to change or modify the statement to reflect current experience more accurately or whether the subject would like to drop the statement completely and substitute it with a new one. The subject is asked to write the modified or changed statement below the old statement in a space provided below each statement on the typewritten sheet (see Illustration C) and is asked to evaluate the new set of experiences in the same manner as phase one. Following this the pre and post intervention profiles can be compared for change in control, affect and intensity of affect (see Illustration D).

In illustration D, one can see that there has been a change in P% from 24% to 48%. There isn't a significant change in the I% and the $Rp-Rn$ (total positive rating minus total negative rating) has come down from -57 to -4. This shows that though the overall rating of affect is still negative, it is significantly lesser so implying a significant improvement in the subject's sense of well-being. In this manner, the subject's experience of self is gauged using data generated by the subject and also the change in the experience of self over time is gauged through the evaluation of the changed experiences through the process of counselling.

Content for the therapeutic process

Apart from the assessment of the individual's experience of self through an analysis of the quantitative profile, the method also generates qualitative data which provides content for the therapeutic process. This is so as in the process of writing, clients express their concerns and conflicts and these can then be taken up for in-depth exploration in the process. For example, in the illustrated case, as can be seen by the experiences the client recalled, the client was having problems in relationships with her parents and her sister accompanied by feelings of



low confidence. Thus, the counselling process focused on a reevaluation of these relationships as well as including exercises and assignments for increasing her self-esteem and confidence, the results of which can be seen in the changed experiences reflected in the changed statements in the post-counselling assessment.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Using both qualitative and quantitative strategies, the PAS method provides the possibilities of assessment at various points of time in the therapeutic process using data generated by clients themselves. It also provides content for the process as illustrated through an actual case from the therapeutic situation. The statements/experiences of the client become the point of departure for the counselling/therapeutic process. As such, clients' lived experiences are examined both at the beginning and at the end of the therapeutic process making it possible to study the transformations in lived experiences that constitute selfhood. A significant feature of the PAS method is that the subject is in charge of the assessment with the counsellor/therapist working as a collaborator not an expert passing judgement on the client's status. Thus, the process not only carries more genuineness and meaning for the client and the therapist but also contributes towards the client's self-confidence as he/she is 'in charge' of his/her own assessment. Another feature of the PAS is that in providing for both quantitative and qualitative analysis, the method demonstrates that these two approaches to research which have been traditionally held as antithetical to each other can be synthesised, retaining the advantages and the wisdom of both approaches – the testability of the quantitative approach and the genuineness of the qualitative approach. As such, the PAS provides for an in-depth exploration of individual uniqueness as well as for the study of generalised traits of human behaviour.

What could perhaps be considered as the most significant aspect of this study is that, the possibility of obtaining and assessing phenomenological content from the subject directly and in total freedom without any imposition of stimuli in the form of pre-manufactured statements of experience or restrictions in the form of fixed alternatives of responses has been demonstrated. Subjects are free to write whatever they want, in how much ever time they want and in whatever way they want and yet the method provides for a meaningful and valid assessment. The method illustrates how the process of psychological assessment as well as therapy can progress more genuinely not just with the active participation of the client but by giving more responsibility of assessment to the client, using the client's phenomenological frame of reference as the starting and ending point of the therapeutic process.

PICTURE A

Sample statements from the pre-intervention evaluation sheet of a subject

Statements	A	R	C
I never shouldered responsibilities, I always looked at her for help.			
I sort of lost confidence, bravery, intelligence, smartness in the later years (intermediate).			
My parents no more looked for help from me.			
They started disliking my mannerisms, my rude behaviour.			
All their hopes found an outlet now in my sister			
My behaviour towards them became worse. I was too arrogant, stubborn, strong-headed.			
And when at times I felt that I was in wrong company I couldn't correct myself.			
In a way I became fickle minded. I almost shot the mind and stopped thinking.			
I was never jealous. I felt happy for my little and my sisters great achievements.			
I have experienced that I don't want to shoulder responsibilities,			
I act foolishly most of the time,			
I never work towards attaining my goals,			
I lack confidence,			
I feel I'll never be able to achieve higher things in life,			
I doubt my calibre,			
I act cowardly at times.			

PICTURE B

The following is an example of a subject's pre-intervention quantitative profile

	P	N
I	5	20
E	2	2

Total number of statements = 29

Ratio of positive to negative statements (P:N) = 7:22

Ratio of internal to external control statements (I:E) = 25:4

Ratio of sum positive rating to sum negative rating (Rp:Rn) = 32:89

P% = 24 N% = 76

I% = 86 E% = 14

Rp-Rn = -57

PICTURE C

Sample statements from the post-intervention evaluation sheet of a subject

Statements	A	R	C
<p>I never work towards attaining my goals, <i>I work towards attaining my goals but I am very bad at keeping up to my decisions & resolutions</i></p> <p>I feel I'll never be able to achieve higher things in life, <i>I think I'll achieve great things and I'll be doing a good job</i></p> <p>I am quite emotional and worried about my parents <i>I am quite emotional but now I feel positive towards life and my parents</i></p> <p>I just enjoy my life and never even bother to think of my family problems. <i>I do think about my family members despite enjoying my life. I don't rebel but accept.</i></p> <p>I know my parents are unhappy with me and my ways, I feel bad about it but never take the pain of correcting myself. <i>My parents are happy with me, few things irritate them but I guess it's because I act foolishly</i></p>			

PICTURE D

Comparison of pre and post-intervention profile of a subject

	Pre-intervention	Post-intervention
P%	24	48
I%	86	77
Rp – Rn	-57	-4



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SOCIAL REPRESENTATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH AT PSYCHOLOGISTS

Monica ALBU

Faculty of Psychology, "Tibiscus" University, Timișoara, România
albu.monica@rdslink.ro

ABSTRACT

Within a previous research I tried to identify the social representation of the scientific research at students in psychology. At that time I had discovered that the social representation's structure was continuously modifying during the years. At the beginning of the first year, the central core was given by knowledge being replaced in time with data analysis and hypothesis testing.

In the present research I have studied the social representation of the scientific research at psychologists, to see if the central core changes after the graduation.

I had 70 subjects, psychologists in Banat County that activate in various parts of the psychology field but they do not work in any university or research institutes. Their age was between 22 and 45 years.

I have split the main group into two subgroups: those that never had a scientific research after graduation (N=31) and those who had at least one scientific research after the graduation (N=39).

I have observed that there were differences on the social representations of the two subgroups. While in the first subgroup, the central core was the term documentation, in the second subgroup, the central core was hypothesis testing.

REZUMAT

Într-o cercetare anterioară am încercat să identific reprezentarea socială a cercetării științifice la studenți de la facultăți de psihologie și am constatat că structura reprezentării sociale se modifică pe parcursul anilor de studii. La începutul anului I nodul central este format din termenul cunoaștere, dar în anii următori este înlocuit cu termenii analiza datelor și testare de ipoteze.

În această cercetare am investigat reprezentarea socială a cercetării științifice la psihologi, pentru a vedea dacă nodul central se schimbă după absolvirea facultății.

Subiecții utilizați au fost 70 de psihologi din Banat, care activează în diverse domenii ale psihologiei, dar nu lucrează în institute de învățământ superior sau în institute de cercetare. Ei aveau vârsta cuprinsă între 22 și 45 de ani.

Am împărțit subiecții în două grupe: persoane care după absolvirea facultății nu au realizat nicio cercetare științifică (N=31) și persoane care după terminarea facultății au efectuat cel puțin o cercetare științifică (N=39).

Am constatat că există deosebiri între reprezentările sociale ale celor două grupe. În primul caz, nodul central este format din termenul documentare, iar în al doilea caz, din termenul testare de ipoteze.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Definitions of scientific research

Both dictionaries, and the papers that deal with scientific research define the terms **research** and **scientific research** in such a way that the differences between them are difficult to notice. We will illustrate this point by a few examples.

According to *Dictionarul explicativ al limbii romane (the Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian Language)* (1998), and to one of the meanings noted in *Mic dictionar enciclopedic (the Small Encyclopedic Dictionary)* (2005), **research** represents the "action of researching and its result", and **to research** means to examine carefully, to notice, to control, to study, to

consult, to gather information, to ask, to try to find out, to investigate. We could conclude that research is an action that leads to obtaining knowledge, independently of the field it refers to.

We also find this meaning in the definition given by *Noul dictionary explicativ al limbii romane (the New Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian Language)* (2002): **research** is “a thorough study conducted systematically with the purpose of knowing something”.

Scientific research is similarly defined by David (2006): “it is a sub-category of research, which has the purpose of producing knowledge”. The idea is resumed in the same paper, and revised: “**Scientific research** has the purpose of producing knowledge necessary to solve some problems.” By *problem*, David (2006) understands “a discrepancy between a present state (what we know) and a purpose-state (what we want to know).”

Thus given, the definition focuses and combines the meanings given in various papers to the two branches of scientific research: fundamental research and applicative research. For example, in *Decision no. 57 of August 16, 2002 concerning scientific research and technological development* the following definitions are included:

1. **Fundamental research** – the activity developed in order to acquire new knowledge regarding phenomena and processes, and to formulate and check hypotheses, conceptual models, and theories.

2. **Applicative research** – the activity mainly aimed at using scientific knowledge to perfect or develop new products, technologies, and services.”

The two definitions appear to be taken from the definition given in *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language Unabridged* (1993) to a particular meaning of the word **research** (without mentioning that it concerns scientific research): “an exhaustive and critical investigation, or an experiment that has the purpose of discovering some new facts and interpreting them correctly, reviewing the conclusions, theories and laws accepted in the light of the discovered facts, or practically applying the conclusions, theories, and new or revised laws”.

However, the definition of fundamental research given by Decision no. 57/2002 may generate some confusion: the formulation and checking of hypotheses are activities which are not developed in parallel to the ones by which we obtain knowledge and independently of these, but with the purpose of acquiring new knowledge; and the respective knowledge is used to formulate and check some laws and theories.

The presented definitions allow us to notice the common feature of *research* and *scientific research*: both operate with **knowledge** (they obtain them, produce them, or use them for solving some problems).

What seems to differentiate *scientific research* from *research* is the specific manner in which the knowledge is obtained (hypotheses testing, by experiments), and the purpose of their use (of formulating and checking some laws or theories).

1.2. Social representations

Claude Flament (1997, apud Laus, 2005) considers that social representation is an organized assembly of cognitions related to an object, shared by the members of a population that is homogeneous as far as this object is concerned.

Any social representation is the representation of *something*, by *someone*. On one hand, social representation is defined by a **content** (information, images, opinions, attitudes, etc.), which relate to an **object** (work to be accomplished, an economic event, a social character, etc.). On the other hand, it is the social representation of a **subject** (individual, family, section, class), being tributary to its position in society, economy, culture, etc. (Jodelet, 1990). From the point of view of internal organization, social representations are structured in a **central core** and **peripheral elements**.



The central core is the essential element of any representation. It is the common part of the representations of group members. It is stable and resistant to change. It is related to and determined by historical conditions, being relatively independent of the immediate social and material context. (J.C. Abric, 1994, apud Laus, 2005). The central core determines the significance and internal organization of representation.

The peripheral elements are suppler, more flexible than the central core. They constitute the mobile part of social representation, the interface between the central core and the concrete situation in which social representation is elaborated. They are influenced by the experience of the group members and by the current context.

The analysis of a social representation requires the knowledge of three of its essential components: representation content, its internal structure, and its central core. Currently there is no technique that would allow us to find out the three elements at the same time. That is why we cannot study social representation by using only one method (J.C. Abric, 1994, apud Vladut, 2001).

3.3. The reason for conducting the research

In a previous research we tried to identify the social representation of scientific research at thorough students (the ones that regularly attend the courses and seminars) of the Psychology Faculty at "Tibiscus" University of Timisoara. The purpose that we followed was that of knowing the impact that various didactic activities have on the students activities in which scientific research is presented or in which they are asked to conduct scientific research.

In the research there were 74 students included: 35 from the 1st year, at the beginning of the school year (in October 2006), 10 from the 1st year, at the end of the school year (in June 2006), 14 from the 3rd year and 15 from the 4th year (in November 2006).

We noticed that the structure of the social representation of scientific research modifies along the study years. At the beginning of the faculty (in the 1st semester of the 1st year), the central node is formed by the term *knowledge*, that indicates the purpose of the scientific research. By the end of the 1st and the 3rd year, the central node is made of the term *hypotheses testing*, and by the 4th year, on the position of the central node appear two terms that designate means of conducting scientific research: *hypotheses testing* and *data analysis*.

We assumed that these modifications are caused by the fact that when the conducted research is assessed by the students it is especially followed the correctness of the formulation and hypotheses testing and analysis methods of the used data. Too little importance is given to the contribution of the respective research to the knowledge enrichment.

We wondered if the graduates from the faculty of psychology, when considering scientific research, have in mind firstly its purpose or the means of creating it. In order to answer, we tried to identify the central node of the social representation of scientific research at psychologists.

2. THE DESCRIPTION OF THE CONDUCTED RESEARCH

2.1 The subjects

In the research there were included 70 psychologists from Banat who activate in various fields of psychology but do not work in institutes of higher education or research institutes. They were divided in two samples:

- *Sample A*, made of 31 psychologists who did not conduct any scientific research after faculty graduation.
- *Sample B*, made of 39 psychologists that conducted at least one scientific research after faculty graduation.

The features of these samples are presented in table 1.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Table 1. Features of the samples included in the research

Variable	Sample	Minimum	Maximum	m	σ
Age (in full years)	A	22	45	29,68	5,78
	B	24	42	31,87	5,16
Time passed since faculty graduation (in full years)	A	1	12	4,58	3,01
	B	0	11	5,79	2,88
Number of scientific research conducted after faculty graduation	A	0	0	0	0
	B	1	12	2,32	1,90

The two samples are similar as far as age is concerned and the passed time since faculty graduation. The average of the two variables does not significantly differ, at the threshold $p=0,05$, between the psychologists that conducted scientific research and the ones that did not conduct scientific research after faculty graduation.

2.2 The stages of research

Step 1: Establishing the content of social representation

The content of social representation was determined through the method of free associations.

The specific feature of this method consists of the fact that it allows the subjects to generate spontaneous less controlled and, thus, authentic verbal expressions. The method has the advantage that it is easy to apply: the subjects are given a stimulus word, and they are asked to associate all the terms (nouns, adjectives, or expressions) that come to their mind in connection to this word. The words suggested more often form the content of the social representation of the object designated by the stimulus word.

In the research that we conducted the stimulus word used was “scientific research”. 15 psychologists answered. They provided 47 verbal expressions. The majority were suggested by one person, and the others by 2 or 3 persons. All the terms suggested by at least two students (16 verbal expressions) are part of the content of the social representation of scientific research at students.

We assumed that the psychologists provided fewer terms than the students due to the fact that their number was smaller than the one of the students (15 as opposed to 29). For this reason we included in the content of the social representation of scientific research at psychologists all 27 terms that formed the content of social representation of scientific research at students: *data analysis, article, computer, expenses, curiosity, knowledge, data, deceptions, discovery, documentation, team, education, sample, experiment, information, interdisciplinarity, laboratory, diploma paper, methods, work, observation, purpose, symposium, theory, ground, hypothesis testing, and utility.*

Step 2: Determining the terms that form the content of social representation, by a variant of the method of word association

The method of word association is used to decipher the way in which the terms of a social representation are grouped into categories. The application of such an analysis relies on the hypothesis that the subjects answer the questionnaires and interviews by comparing words and grouping them into classes (Doise, Clemence, Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1992). It is assumed that the entire investigated population has a unique social representation of the object or, at least, a strong common base (Doise, Clemence, Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1992).

The starting point within the method of word association is a list of terms, selected by the researcher either from the data collected as a result of an investigation on the theme of the

object of social representation, or from reference texts. The subjects are required to choose a term (called **inductive term**) from the given list, and to associate to it as many words as they want. The totality of the distinct words attached to an inductive term constitutes the **dictionary of the term**. The method of word association processes the obtained dictionaries. With their help it calculates similarity indices between the inductive terms, and builds a matrix of similarities, which is the object of cluster analysis. The resulted dendrogram visualizes the term categories.

Each subject was required to choose three terms from the list obtained at Step 1, and to describe in as many details as possible the way in which, in his opinion, it is related to the term of “scientific research”.

The majority of received answers were short, such as: “Scientific research processes data.” (for the inductive term *data*), or “Scientific research requires thorough documentation.” (for the inductive term *documentation*). Many subjects wrote down the three terms chosen from the list, but they did not provide any commentaries.

In this research, at all subject groups, for each inductive term, the dictionary was void, or consisted of 1 to 3 terms from the list drawn up at Step 1.

We calculated the similarity index for two terms, T_i and T_j (i, j belong to $\{1, 2, \dots, 27\}$), using the formula:

$$s_{i,j} = \frac{n_{i,j} + n_{j,i}}{N_i + N_j}$$

where:

s_{ij} = the similarity index for terms T_i and T_j ;

n_{ij} = the frequency with which the term T_j was mentioned when choosing the inductive term T_i ;

n_{ji} = the frequency with which the term T_i was mentioned when choosing the inductive term T_j ;

N_i = the frequency with which the inductive term T_i was chosen;

N_j = the frequency with which the inductive term T_j was chosen.

If $N_i = 0$ and $N_j = 0$, then $s_{ij} = 0$

The value of the similarity index thus defined varies between 0 ($s_{ij} = 0$, when the term T_j was never associated to the inductive term T_i , and the term T_i was never associated to the term T_j), and 1 ($s_{ij} = 1$, if every time the inductive term T_i was chosen the term T_j was associated to it, and every time the inductive term T_j was chosen the term T_i was associated to it).

When applying cluster analysis, we considered that the similarity between the two clusters equals the highest of all the similarity indices calculated between a term from a cluster and a term from the other cluster:

$$s(A, B) = \max \{s_{i,j} \mid T_i \in A, T_j \in B\}$$

where $s(A, B)$ is the similarity index between the clusters A and B .

We also noticed how often each term was chosen as an inductive term.

Step 3. *The identification of the place each term holds within the content of social representation, by the method of term ordering*

By this method was also intended to determine the central core of the social representation.

Each subject was asked to read the list obtained at Step 1, and order the terms, considering how suitable he or she finds each term in terms of what he or she feels and thinks when coming

across the expression “scientific research”. The most adequate term was placed on the 1st position, and the less adequate on the 27th position.

We calculated the frequencies of the positions on which each term was placed.

Then a score for each term was calculated, using the formula:

$$p = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{27} f_i(28-i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{27} f_i}$$

where:

p = the score of the term;

f_i = the number of subjects who placed the term on position i , $i=1,2,\dots,27$.

A hierarchy of terms was established in each subject group based on the scores, the term that obtained the highest score being placed on the 1st position, and the one with the lowest score on the 27th position.

3. RESULTS

Table 2 synthesizes the main results obtained as a result of data processing by the methods given above. In order to build it, we took the following steps for each subject group:

a. We calculated the scores of the 27 terms; we ordered the terms in descending order according to the scores; and we kept the terms whose scores were higher than the ones of the following terms.

b. We calculated the frequency with which every term was placed on one of the first three places at Step 3. Then we selected the terms that were distributed on the first three places with a higher frequency than the other terms.

c. We calculated the frequency with which each term was written by the subjects among the three terms chosen at Step 2. We kept the terms whose frequency was higher than those of the others.

d. We built the dendrogram of the 27 terms, and we selected the cluster made up of the highest number of terms, supposing that it contained the central core, and its closest elements. We considered that the central core of a social representation is the term that appears in table 2 in most of the columns. It was written in bold letters.

The terms close to the central core are the ones that are part of the same cluster as the central core, and appear next to it in many columns of table 2.

We obtained the following central cores:

- at Sample A: *Documentation*
- at Sample B: *Hypotheses testing*

Table 2. The results used at the identification of the central core of representation

Subject Sample	The terms with higher scores than the others (in descending order of the scores)	The terms that appear more frequently than the others on the first three positions (with the frequency of their positioning on one of the first three places)	The terms that appear more frequently than the others among the three chosen terms (with the frequency of their choosing)	The terms contained in the cluster with the most terms (in alphabetical order)
A (N=31)	Documentation (20,17) Theory (19,63) Information (19,00)	Documentation (10) Purpose (7) Knowledge (6) Discovery (6) Information (6) Theory (6)	Documentation (9) Sample (8) Hypotheses testing (8)	Computer, Data, Documentation , Ground, Information, Theory
B (N=39)	Documentation (20,58) Hypothesis testing (19,78) Data analysis (19,17)	Hypotheses testing (13) Data analysis (12)	Hypotheses testing (12) Sample (11) Data analysis (10)	Article, Computer, Data, Data analysis, Documentation, Experiment, Hypotheses testing , Information

4. DISCUSSIONS

The social representation of scientific research at psychologists that did not conduct any scientific research after faculty graduation has as central node the term *documentation*. It is a synonym of the words *research* and *informing* (Iconaru, 2003; Paun, 2005), frequently used with these meanings in common speech. In the activity of scientific research, the documentation is a beginning stage, absolutely necessary, independent of the methods used further. It serves at the gathering of information for theory knowledge that will lie at the basis of research. We assume that most of the psychologists from sample A attributed this interpretation to the term *documentation*, that of stage of scientific research, because in its vicinity, in the social representation, the terms *information* and *theory* are found.

For the psychologists that achieved scientific research after faculty graduation the central node is formed by the term *hypotheses testing*. It names a very difficult stage of the activity of scientific research, probably the stage that generated many difficulties to the psychologists from the sample in the achieved research. In the vicinity of the central node, in social representation, lies the term *data analysis*. It designates an activity that accompanies the hypotheses testing and is, also, very difficult.

In both social representations the terms *curiosity*, *team* and *laboratory* appear through the peripheral elements.

The result is not surprising, because the majority of the psychologists that do not work in research institutes or in higher education institutes (but not only they!) conduct scientific research not in order to satisfy a curiosity or to solve an actual problem, but to enrich their activity memoir, to the purpose of occupying a better position, or to make themselves known by publishing articles. (Otherwise, the term *article* lies in the same cluster as the central node.) An argument to support this statement is the fact that the terms *knowledge* and *utility* are not found near the central node, which suggests that research is not achieved in order to know more or to gain useful results. It could be explained, thus, the reduced degree of novelty of many communications presented at the scientific manifestations and of a large number of articles published in Romania in the field of psychology.

Following only the achievement of a personal interest through the conducted research, the psychologists work, in general, alone, not in a team.

There are few cases when practicing psychologists have at their disposal a well equipped laboratory, in which to conduct scientific research.

These would be possible explanations of the peripheral position of the terms *team* and *laboratory*.

5. THE UTILITY OF RESEARCH

The analysis of the social representations of scientific research at psychologists suggests an action direction that considers the increase of the number of valuable scientific papers, that serve the enrichment of knowledge.

We consider that during the faculty, when scientific research papers are discussed with students, not only the technical aspects of research should be analyzed, but also the objectives followed by the authors of the papers, their importance and the extent to which they were accomplished, as well as the utility and novelty of the achieved results.

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HISTORY OF ROMANIAN APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY. NICOLAE MĂRGINEANU, A PROFESSIONAL MODEL *PRE-EMINENTLY*

Cristina ANISESCU

Consiliul Național pentru Studierea Arhivelor Securității- Direcția Cercetare
crissanisescu@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

It's a retrench synthesis about a personality so complex, professor Nicolae Mărgineanu. The complexity is emphasized through the nature of involvement for the human being's understanding, through growing diligenge and pleasure as an expert in psychology, gaining from all possibilities to continue his post-university education in the most important psychological laboratories and universities from all over the world, through his performances in specialized publications and the great number of studies and researches and, last but not least, through his fineness morality and love towards Truth and Justice.

REZUMAT

O sinteză restrânsă pentru a contura personalitatea atât de complexă a profesorului Nicolae Mărgineanu. Complexă prin natura angajării în studierea ființei umane, prin sârguința și plăcerea de a se forma ca specialist, beneficiind de posibilitatea unei pregătiri post-universitare în cele mai performante laboratoare de psihologie și universități din lume, prin performanțele editoriale și mulțimea studiilor și cercetărilor pe care le-a inițiat și, nu în ultimul rând, prin frumusețea morală și dragostea de adevăr și dreptate.

Motto: „Psychology is only science, not a trick”¹.



If we talk about contemporary psychology, we shall actually take part again at its history. Therefore, we reveal a complex personality of the romanian school of psychology - Nicolae Mărgineanu². He was considered „the most productive and important psychologist who reprezents Romanian culture”³, „...a psychologist with the exhaustive international grounding”⁴, who had enriched and became before he was 30 years old, according to G.W. Allport, „the ambassador of european psychology in America”.

For all who knew him, the arguments would be unnecessary. But, for all of us who still believe in *Paidea* formula or in *continuity* and *completedness* of the scientific growing and maturation process, the folowing words keep the meaning of this sense.

Nicolae Mărgineanu learned and educated at the *University of Cluj*, department of psychology, which had already had the great notoriety and prestige because of the activity of praiseworthy professor Florian Ștefănescu-Goangă. That's why, with a great mentor and initiated in the performant psychological laboratory⁵, Nicolae Mărgineanu valorified efficiently all personal resources; therefore, he was named tutore of *Psychology Institute of th University of Cluj* in the second year of faculty, licentiated at 22 years, doctor in philosophy, main training psychology with „magna cum laude”⁶ at 26 years and assistant-researcher at the *Intitute of Psychology of University from Cluj*. His mentor, professor Fl. Ștefănescu-Goangă encouraged

and recommended him for post-university academical and practical probation at the most famous universities and laboratories of psychology from Europe at that time. He studied at the *University of Vienna*, where he was guided by Karl Bühler, Egon Brünswick și Paul Lazarsfeld; in the Offices of professional orientation from Germany - Berlin, Hamburg, München, Leipzig and in the railways psychology laboratories from Berlin, Dresda and München (1928); at the *University of Leipzig* (1929), in Wundt's Laboratory of experimental psychology⁷, supervised by Felix Krueger, Wirth and Klemm⁸; at the *University of Hamburg*, studying with William Stern and Ernst Cassirer; at the *University of Berlin*, where he attended research program with professor W. Koehler about intelligence aspects, with Max Wertheimer about problems of perception and efficient thought, with K. Lewin about configuration psychology - *GestaltPsychologie*, with Ed. Spranger and professor Rupp (president of German Association of Psychotechnic).

N. Mărgineanu reevaluated all knowledges which were acquired during scientific development in european universities and used them in psychotechnical, experimental psychology and psychometrical writing works like: „Psychology of Exercise”, 1929; „Psychotechnics in Germany”, 1929; „Configuration Psychology”, (with L. Rusu, A. Roșca, D. Tudoranu), 1929; „Contemporary German Psychology”, 1930; „Learning Psychology – transfer aspect and educational value of disciplines”, 1931; „Evolution Problem”, 1931.

Stern, Koehler and Kittredge (chief *Department of Social Science of Rockefeller Foundation from Paris*) were very impressed about his abnegation and intelligence and proposed him to represent the European Psychology in America. Therefore, N. Mărgineanu had a Rockefeller scholarship for two years in great U.S.A. universities.

- The first post-university application as a scholar (*Research Fellow*) of Rockefeller Foundation began at the *University of Harvard* (1932), where he was involved into project-researches co-ordinated by G.W. Allport, the chief of *Psychological Laboratory* from Emerson Hall and the future director of Institute of Human Sciences and Behaviour. In the Laboratory from Emerson Hall, Nicolae Mărgineanu studied experimental psychology with professor Boring⁹, logical and philosophy of science with A.N. Whitehead. After that, during academical prepering, N. Mărgineanu specialized in human psychopathology in *Clinic of Psychology* leaded by H. Murray.

- The next training up destination as specialist (*Research Fellow*) was University of Yale, where he attended academical programs of *Institute of Human Relations*, co-ordinated by Watson, Hartstone și May; he learned „the experimental methodology of character valuation”. In adding, we mention: Clarck Hall's courses, with whom Nicolae Mărgineanu studied thoroughly mathematical logic applications of learning aspects, with Gesell's researches in the *Clinic of Child Psychology* and with professors Yerkes, S. Britt and H. Laswell - the specialists of public opinion methodology.

- Nicolae Mărgineanu was trained for eight months as *Visiting Fellow* at *University of Chicago*; he studied thoroughly and improved multiple factorial analysis of social attitudes measurement with L.L. Thurstone, who invited him to collaborate for studying public opinions toward the New Deal of Fr. D. Roosevelt President. Thurstone's courses were developed later in his book: „The Analysis of Psychic Factors” (1938), which had a real success in the country and Europe. During this academical probation, he collaborated with Hadley Cantril (White House counsellor of four presidents: Roosevelt, Truman, Eisenhower și Kennedy), maintaining the professional and personal correspondence with him.

- At *University of Columbia*, as a *Research Fellow*. Nicolae Mărgineanu had the advantage to study and work Woodworth, Thorndicke and McDougall.

All of these representative american psychologists and political men exerted a great influence of him, especially through american model of democracy - which „did as possible free and well consenting the social order”, concerning with the liberty promotion of expression,

the tolerance, the ethical and social spirit, a pragmatic and progressist style in all social fields. That's why, after 10 years, in 1945, Nicolae Mărgineanu had the initiative to re-create *The Friends of America Society* (in close co-operation with prof. D. Gusti, prof. C.I. Parhon, prof. E. Petrovici, etc.) and *The Romanian - U.S.A. Association from Transilvania* (with Ionel Pop, Al. Borza, E. Petrovici, Ioan Lupaș, Silviu Dragomir, Romulus Căndea, Lucian Blaga, D.D. Roșca), aiming to plead of integral retrocession of North - Ardeal.

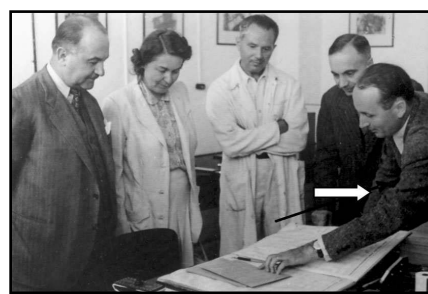
He returned in Europe where he continued his specialization at *University of London* with Ch. Spearman (concerning with statistical procedures of factor analysis and *ars combinatoria*) and with professor Hall, the official of Rockefeller Foundation for Social Sciences in England and at the *University of Sorbona and Collège de France*, where he had been included in the programme co-ordinated by P. Janet and H. Piéron. He published, to H. Piéron's proposal, the first studies of factorial analysis in „L'Année Psychologique”.

When he came back in Romania, he was named as lecturer of *Psychology Institute of the University of Cluj*, and after, lecturer at *Faculty of Philosophy and Letters* from the *University of Cluj*, psychological department, maintaining as this position till the 1st of September 1947, when he was dismissed.

In 1934, he established *Psychotechnical Institute*, with the territorial representation through the *professional orientation agencies* from Cluj, Arad, Brașov, Oradea, Sibiu and Timișoara; he acquired financial support by Ministry of Labour to manage the *Laboratory of Industrial Psychology* of Aeroplane, Waggon and Armament Factory from Brașov (1936) and the *Psychotechnical Laboratories* from Reșița Factory and from the Astra Oil Exploitation Society from Câmpina and Ploiești, Reșița, Arad, Brașov and Cluj-Napoca. Also, he worked as psychotechnical counsellor to U.D.R. Reșița in 1939, 1940, 1941-1947.



Nicolae Mărgineanu and his colleagues in Psychotechnical Laboratory of Sibiu, with occasion of the first publication of „Psihotehnica” Review (1943)



Nicolae Mărgineanu in Psychotechnical Laboratory of Reșița (1946-1947)

All these activities and achievements prove that Nicolae Mărgineanu is, we may say, the pioneer of labour and applied psychology in the human resources management in enterprises (like Reșița, Hunedoara, Brașov, Cluj-Napoca, Baia de Arieș, Pitești, Baia Mare), using „accurately and assiduously” the modern and scientific working principles of professional selection and orientation. As a result, he managed many psychological examinations in Siderurgical Factory from Hunedoara, Metal-Chemical Factory from Ploiești, Textiles Industry (București) ș.a. He founded Technical and Experimental Schools from Reșița, Brașov and Ploiești, preferring the opportunities to develop middle technical education. And also, he projected the design-plan of the *Industrial Psychology Laboratory of Malaxa Factory*, joining with professor Gh. Zapan (University of Bucharest).

After the assassin attempt upon Fl. Ștefănescu-Goangă (the 9th of November 1938) Nicolae Mărgineanu, was appointed as the director of *Psychology Institute*, turned at *Psychotechnical Institute of Cluj*, with centre of Sibiu (1941-1943)¹⁰. His academical activity was restricted by legionary government and was limited as substitute professor of psychology at the Faculty



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

of Philosophy and Letters from the University of Cluj (1938-1947) and a psychotechnical counsellor.

We also mention his contribution as a founder of the *Psychometrika International Association*, joining with L.L. Thurstone¹¹; he was an important member of *American Association for Scientific Progress*, editor of „Psychology Review” and correspondent of „Psychological Abstracts” review for Romania.

In order of all those efforts and achievements, he published a lot of psychological studies and books in connection with experimental and applied psychology and other theoretical workings and methodologies of applied psychology in industry, education and clinic¹². We may mention some of these: „Contemporary French Psychology”, 1938; „Elements of Psychometry”, 1938; „The Analysis of Psychic Factors”, 1938; *Human Psychology*¹³, 1941 (ediția a II-a, 1944); *Psychotechnic in Great Industry*, 1942; „Psychotechnic” 1943; „Experimental Technical School of Astra –Brasov Factory”, 1943. Almost „1000 (one thousand) of pages written about labour psychology, pleading for human condition of work...”¹⁴ - N. Mărgineanu declared this in the last day as a political prisoner, on 27 of June 1964.

Surely, we may considered that Nicolae Mărgineanu was a *Man of City*, not only a great psychologist and teacher. He extended laboratory boundaries and scientific lectures towards social space, having an extraordinary ability to feel pulse of community, of cultural life and socio-political dynamic and changes, writings about that in tens articles in newspapers and reviews („Societatea de Măine”, „Revista de Filozofie”, „Arhiva pentru Științe și Reforma Socială”, „Gând Românesc”, „Revista Fundațiilor Regale”, „Viața Românească”, „Steaua”, „Tribuna”, „Contemporanul”, „Ramuri”, „Familia”, „Astra”, „Revista Societății Româno-Americane”, „Saeculum”, „Luceafărul” and others). Briefly, he lived and involved in the City life.

After the setting up of the communist (bolshevik) regime in Romania (1945), he became a potential danger for this totalitarian form of government, not only on account of an active role for consolidating the cultural relationships with America, France, Great Britain and Germany, or for his activity as part of *Friend of America Society*, or for good relationships with diplomatic missions in Romania with a view to integral retrocession of North – Ardeal or for pleading of Mihail Ralea’s agreement as Minister of Washington. Without any egocentric wishes or benefits, N. Mărgineanu signed in this way an important history file of Romania. Instead of it, he signed other-some thousands- of declarations files in communist prisons, as a political prisoner (in Sibiu, Aiud, Jilava, Gherla, Pitești, Dej or Cluj) in conditions of extreme oppression, for an imaginary facts plotting by communist authorities and by Securitate. In this case, all these may be considered anguishing history files, which were produced and applied by the totalitarian regime¹⁵.

On 14th of April 1948, his destiny was put into shade and also that of his family members. From that moment, professional career and personal life were modified profoundly, then 16 years of total absence from public life, 16 years of imprisonment¹⁶. 16 years, in the most terrible and humiliating conditions, 16 years of physical and psychological torture, trembling with cold, starvation and pain, only for a fabricated fault, which was generated and amplified just by his university colleagues. Imprisonment „experiment” had been endured as a real lesson of resistance, survival and understanding human nature in the critical situations. He wrote about this „unique experience for a psychologist”¹⁷, after many years, in the memories book, „Amphitheatres and Prisons”, republished with the title „Testimonies about a Tumultuous century”.

After the day of liberation from prison (the 27th of June 1964), Nicolae Mărgineanu, the famous psychologist who had received from G.W. Allport the important mission to militate for the „internationalism in psychology” many years ago, fond with a lot of job application a documentarist position at the Library of Academy of Cluj branch. He weight anchor the research

activity at *Institute of Pedagogical Sciences* as main scientific researcher, second grade (1969-1971). Returning to chair of Psychology at the Faculty of History and Philosophy of the „Babeș-Bolyai” University from Cluj as a substitute professor, with attributions of scientific research, was been possible with Mircea Malița’s support, who was Minister of Education (1971-1980). Instead of it, he was warmly invited as a guest professor at the *University of Köln, University of Bonn (1971), University of Hamburg (1972)*.

In 1968, four years later from setting at liberty, he published „*Nature of Science*” and next two years, „*Psychology and Literature*” and „*Being kind-hearted*”; in 1973, he published „*Human Condition. Her Bio-Psycho-Social and Cultural Aspect*” and in 1975, a remarkable book, „*Logical and Mathematical Psychology*”.

In 1979, Nicolae Mărgineanu came back to America, as a Guest of the *Rockefeller Foundation*, for the second time and the last. He wrote „*Depth and Height Psychology*” in 1979-1980; this book was to have published to an American publishing house. Unfortunately, he returned to Romania when American doctors confirm he had cancer. He died on 13th of June 1980, in Cluj.

The last and unfinished working, „*Depth and Height Psychology*”, proposes a mature reconciliation with traumatic past – with 16 years of political imprisonment - leaving an explicit and testamentary message for future generations of psychologists:

„As one who joined their fights and sacrifices for leading principles of Humanity during 16 years of imprisonment, I am under the moral obligation to submit their message to the World’s consciousness. This message is that no human sacrifices are too great for the triumph of the leading principles, that have made human beings continue to improve their human, social, cultural nature”¹⁸.

Notes and references:

¹ Nicolae Mărgineanu - view Voicu Lăscuș, *Natura umană și condiția ei social-culturală. Dialoguri cu Nicolae Mărgineanu*, Cluj- Napoca, Editura Genesis, 1997, p. 98.

² Nicolae Mărgineanu was born in a reliable and pious middle peasant family (22th of June 1905), in the village Obreja (Alba). He „enriched himself and reorganized” the personal system of reflection and interpretation of the reality through a continuous thirst for culture and knowledge; in this way „he overcame from peasant son to university professor”.

³ In Andrei Marga’s commemorative discourse, organized by Babeș-Bolyai University and „Memoria” Foundation, which was dedicated to Nicolae Mărgineanu, (Andrei Marga, *Nicolae Mărgineanu, o recuperare științifică și morală*, în Nicolae Mărgineanu, *Mărturia asupra unui veac zbuciumat*, București, Editura Fundației Culturale Române, 2002, p. 12.).

⁴ According to the founder of personality psychology, G.W. Allport (G.W. Allport’s letter to Nicolae Mărgineanu, Mărgineanu’s archive family and www.maragineanu.ro – Correspondance Pages).

⁵ The Laboratory was equipped with Zimmerman apparatus, similar to the contemporary laboratories from Europa.

⁶ Doctorate working was been co-ordinated by his mentor, the professor Florian Ștefănescu Goangă; the objective of this working aimed at the exercise effects of individual differences about the aptitudes development. A lot of remarks and reviews of his disertation was published by professor Engelman, from Psychotechnic Institute of Charlottenburg, in the „*Industrielle Psychotechnik*” Review and by professor Rupp, from Berlin, in „*Psychotechnisch Zeitschrift*” Review.

⁷ Stanley Hall, John McCattell, Charles Spearman, Constatin Rădulescu-Motru, Florian Ștefănescu-Goangă, Dimitrie Gusti and other were instructed in Wundt’s Laboratory.

⁸ Professor Klemm managed the professional orientation and applied psychological researches of Working Offices – *Arbeitsamt*; he followed Wundt’s experimental methodology through tests, not through exhaustive using instrumental and apparatus.

⁹ The chief of Psychology Department at that time.

¹⁰ University of Cluj was moved to Sibiu during the Vienna Dictate period (1940-1944).

**Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie**

¹¹ In 1938, L.L. Thurstone was the president of American Psychology Association.

¹² N. Mărgineanu's „List of titles and studies” indicates the important works of psychological methodology (communications, methods, tests, questionnaires and observation cards), for example: *The Attitude toward the New Deal of Fr. D. Roosevelt President*, supervised by L.L. Thurstone, 1933; *Psychology as Science*, 1933; *La theorie des facteurs*, L'Année Psychologique, 25, 1934, *Les facteurs psychologique*, *idem*, *Professor's Lewin Conception of Laws*, Journal of General Psychology, 12, 1935; *Statistic Nature of Scientific Law*, 1936; *La nature de la loi scientifique et ses conditions d'exactitude* în „Hommage à Pierre Janet”. F. Alcan, Paris, 1936; *Psychology and mathematic. The problem of factors analysis*, Revista de Filosofie, 22, 3, 1937. *La mesure des attitudes sociales*, 1939; *Social Attitudes Measurement. Instructions*, 1938; *Temperamental and Characterial Traits Measurement*, 1938; *Temperament and Character Test*, 1938; *Social Attitudes Measurement*, Revista de Psihologie, 1, 1938; *Applied Psychology Filed*, Revista de Psihologie, 2, 1, 1939; *Generality and Specificity*, Revista de Psihologie, 3, 1940; *Technical Aptitudes Measurement. Instructions and Tests*, 1941; *Mathematical Aptitudes Measurement. Instructions and Tests*, 1941; *Unic Test for Workers Selection in Mettallurgical Industry*, 1942; *Observation Cards for great industrial workers*, 1942 etc.

¹³ The book manuscript was supervised by: E.L. Thorndicke, G. Murphy, P. Symons and G. Watson from University of Columbia, Marc May and M. Hartshorne from University of Yale, L.L. Thurstone from University of Chicago, McDougall from Duke University, John Anderson from University of Minnesota and L. Terman from Stanford University; „Personality” was the first title of this book.

¹⁴ Arhiva Consiliului Național pentru Studierea Arhivelor Securității, fond informativ, dosar 163325, vol. 3, f 20 (verso) – *Declarație*, 27 iunie 1964.

¹⁵ Cristina Anisescu (edit.), Adrian Neculau (preface), *Nicolae Mărgineanu – un psiholog în temnițele comuniste*, Iași, Editura Polirom, 2006.

¹⁶ George Bontilă, a great romanian psychologist, was condemned for 16 years to prison, in the similar conditions and in the same group of convict („Marii Finanțe”/ „Great Finance”) – view Cristina Anisescu, *Psihologul George Bontilă – completare la destin. Fragment biografic*, „Arhivele Securității” nr. 1, București, Editura PorHistoria, 2002.

¹⁷ Daniela Mărgineanu-Țăranu, „Reîntâlnirea cu tatăl meu, profesorul Nicolae Mărgineanu, după 16 ani de detenție politică” în *Analele Sighet*, anii 1961-1972, nr. 9, Fundația Academia Civică, 2001, p. 370.

¹⁸ Nicolae Mărgineanu, *Depth and Height Psychology*, Editura Presa Universitară Clujeană, 1998, p. 172.

STUDY REGARDING THE UTILITY OF T.A.G. FOR SELECTION IN PROFESSIONAL ENVIRONMENT WITH RISK

Sorin Remus ANTALAG

Spitalul Universitar C.F.R. Timișoara, Laboratorul regional de examinare psihologice C.F.R. Timișoara, România
sorinram@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

This paper's purpose is to determine general and specific aptitudes necessary to accomplish certain functions in C.F.R. We tried to adjust T.A.G. Test (General Aptitude Test) on specific population (C.F.R.). The most delicate problem in using T.A.G. is not to know the performance but to surprise its signification in a specific activity. In this sense it is recommended quality analysis of solved items and their correspondence with the mentioned activity.

Our study used a group of 99 subjects, 61 C.F.R. specific population and 38 students. From the specific population we have enumerated a few functions: engine driver, school for engine driver, technical functions for carriage; students are provided from Politehnica University from Timisoara, Mechanical Faculty and Railway Rolling Stock and Transport Engineering specialties. Student's age is between 21 to 31 and specific population is from 19 to 50 years old. As study level, all subjects from C.F.R. are high-school graduates. The group from C.F.R. is not representative by its size, but we used it just for orientation; some hypothesis will be verified in a more developed thesis.

T.A.G. Test can be used for people's selection professional environment with risk. As utility of our paper with that end in view is that we draw up standards for C.F.R. specific population, this thing being also the purpose of this study.

REZUMAT

Lucrarea de față are drept scop decelarea unor aptitudini generale și specifice necesare exercitării anumitor funcții din ramura C.F.R. Am încercat să adaptăm testul T.A.G. (Test de Aptitudini Generale) pe populație specifică (C.F.R.). Cea mai delicată problemă în utilizarea T.A.G. nu constă în stabilirea performanței, ci în surprinderea semnificației acesteia în contextul unei activități specifice. În acest scop se recomandă analiza calitativă a itemilor rezolvați și corespondența lor cu activitatea considerată.

Cercetarea noastră a utilizat un lot format din 99 subiecți, 61 populație specifică C.F.R. și 38 studenți. Din populația specifică C.F.R., principalele funcții testate au fost: școală mecanici locomotivă, mecanici locomotivă, revizor tehnic vagoane și lăcătuș montator; studenții provin de la Universitatea Politehnică din Timișoara, Facultatea de Mecanică, specializările Material Rulant de Cale Ferată și Ingineria Transporturilor. Studenții au vârsta cuprinsă între 21 și 31 de ani, iar populația specifică C.F.R. între 19 și 50 de ani. Ca nivel de școlarizare, toți subiecții din C.F.R. au liceul. Eșantionul nu este reprezentativ pentru întreaga populație C.F.R., dar el ne-a servit doar pentru a formula unele ipoteze, care vor fi verificate într-o cercetare mai amplă.

Testul T.A.G. se poate aplica în selecția personalului din mediul profesional cu risc. Ca utilitate pentru acest specific a fost întocmirea de etaloane pentru populație specifică C.F.R., acest lucru constituind și scopul cercetării de față.

APTITUDES

Aptitudes' roll in people's activity had generated an interest due to these personality particularities since ancient times. Even in the most primitive forms of social organisation of life and activities people were not identic in fights, hunt, and inventivity and talented in making tools. Practicly, even in these societies we can talk about determination and develop specific

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



physical and psychological abilities, of specific aptitudes and personality particularities (Roșca, Zorgo, 1972).

Showing the diversivity of aptitudes became important once with continuous work division. In modern age, with new technologies, profession multiply and creates the necessity for professional orientation and selection bases on scientific knowledge of social needs in every professional field, psychological specific requirements, aptitudes and personality particularities. Due to profession diversity men alone, without help can not manage to find the wright profession for him, in witch to be maximum of efficiency.

Scientific knowledge of aptitudes is important from professional orientation and selection and also to find the most efficient way to develop them. In psycologic diagnosis technique, in professional orientation activity, also in aptitude's definition, valid results can be realized only if this practical activity is well founded theoretically. Theoretical foundation must have at base dialectical principles wich reflect the real dynamic of aptitude structuration and development. **Any static conception about psychotechnical aptitudes, any superficial, only descriptive approach is in detriment for any branch of applied psychology.**

APTITUDE'S STRUCTURE

Intellectual aptitudes

The problem of aptitudes must be approached first analytical (Faverge, 1967), than synthetic. Question: how memory, attention, imagination, sensitive discrimination or other aptitude is a part of intelligence and how these can appear out of intelligence.

An important contribute to aptitude's knowledge was brought from the beginning of last century factorial analysis which is based on correlations between performances obtained from several different tests.

Psychomotrical and sensorial aptitudes

For sensorial and perceptive aptitudes it wasn't possible to develop such systemic skills as for intellectual one. Although there is a general factor of sensorial discrimination split into optic and auditory branches.

Several researches are made through psychomotrical saptitudes to determine the system of factors, bunt no concludent results obtained. The results permit a discrimination of factors:

- a) force (general force, body force, limbs force);
- b) impulsivity (reaction time, tapping);
- c) rapidity, the speed of hands movements, the speed of finger movements;
- d) static precision, static poise, hand's resting;
- e) dynamic precision, dynamic poise, precision in hand's movement;
- f) coordination, global coordination, abilities or precision in hands and finger's movements;
- g) mobility, body fiability, feet's mobility.

APTITUDE'S VARIETY

Aptitudes can be defined as stabile physical attributes, a necessary condition to have success in some activities.

After H. D. Pitariu, 1994, **aptitudes are those physical, general, special attributes that ensure professional success, in other words practicing successfully a specific profession.**

Aptitude is a product which express the personality in its totality, life experience,



informational equipment of person and he's ontelective capacity, skill system, interests, work models, person's biography (Alexandrescu, 1981). The correlation between personality and aptitude must be taken as a report from whole to part. Although, personality is not a sum of abilities because a whole is not a sum of its parts but a system of relations. Aptitude is one of main elements of activity which help personality to adapt to environment and it's built in according to its specific.

Trough general ang specific aptitudes there are some special. Example: musical aptitude, graphical aptitude, technical, mathematical, pedagogical and scientific aptitudes (coord. Radu, 1991).

APTITUDE'S DETECTION AND DEVELOPMENT

After H. D. Pitariu, 1983, intelligence tests are applied often with the specific purpose to determine general level of intellectual development for people; these tests are used before the examination of special aptitudes. Differential approach in aptitudes detection and practical application of factorial analysis in present psychology determine the idea that we need a specific aptitude profile to practice a profession. These considerations brought us to develop factorial test batteries structured with destination to completely inform about the aptitude's structure of a person. The highest circulation rate is *The General Aptitudes Tests Battery*, a very good counseling tool in professional orientation, being used successfully in industry and army. When we use professional performance criteria, **GATB** can be applied in industrial selection and repartition, with good validity coefficients.

After F. Turcu, 1975 starting from factorial analisys, several researchers tried to determine structural / fundamental factors of technical aptitude. Researchers from Minessota University consider important for this aptitude manual dexterity, spatial perception, technical thinking.

In our country technical aptitude was studied by psychotechnicians, as important this aptitude is in professional orientation and selection, their main goal. In 1936 appear first laboratories at national company of railway where they examined locomotives drivers, ther functions of this system and even car drivers.

To determine specific exigenceces necessary to acomplish different functions in railway sistem, our goal in this research, we exactingnesses pointant some general and specific aptitudes (Todea, 1999):

A. General aptitudes:

- Intelligence
- Memory
- Attention

B. Specific aptitudes:

- Social and verbal intelligence;
- Technical intelligence (concrete);
- Specific actions made rapidly;
- Distributive attention;
- Verbal mnesic capacity (written, spoken, details);
- Efficient and rapid concentration in a medium with perturbing stimuli;
- Rapidity in perception;
- Coordination in eye – hand movements;
- Estimation of shape, weight, speed and distance;
- Attention's concentration and distribute into an disturbing environment;
- Memory for details, numbers, words, sounds;
- Rapidity in global perception of situations;
- Rapidity of perception (visual and hearing);

- Correct estimation of speed, distance, volume;
- Estimation of object's dimensions and spatial visualization;
- Exact perception of object's shapes.

METHODOLOGY

Research's hypothesis

Trying to adjust T.A.G. Test (General Aptitude Test) on specific population (National Society of Railway – C.F.R.) we have some hypothesis:

1. At performance level there are differences between students and specific population.
2. There are correlations between performances at T.A.G. and performances obtained in professional evaluation for our two samples.
3. T.A.G. can be used for selection of personnel who work for and from railway safety.

Subjects presentation

Our research use a group of 99 subjects, 61 specific population C.F.R. and 38 students. From specific population we have a few functions: engine driver, school for engine driver, technical functions for carriage; students are provided from Politehnica University from Timisoara, Mechanical Faculty, and Railway Rolling Stock and Transport Engineering specialties. Student's age is between 21 to 31 and specific population is from 19 to 50 years old. As study level is concerned all subjects from C.F.R. are high-school graduates. The group from C.F.R. is not representative by its size, but we used it just for orientation; some hypothesis will be verified in a more developed thesis.

Instrument's description

To verify our hypothesis we follow next: first we administrated T.A.G. to specific population and students than we collected information about professional and school performances. For students we took total of credits obtained and for specific population we took marks for theory and practice (professional characterization).

The most delicate problem in using T.A.G. is not to know the performance but to surprise its signification in a specific activity. In this sense it is recommended quality analysis of solved items and their correspondence with mentioned activity. Because determining critical cotes for professional selection and repartition is a problem tied to activities specific rates we next:

- We selected an representative group from specific population (C.F.R.);
- We selected a group of students;
- We calculated the mean and standard deviation for these two groups;
- We made correlations between professional performances and the test's results;
- We made selection standard units for people who work in railway safety.

General Aptitude Test is an adaptation of Wonderlich Personnel Test made by H. T. Pitariu, 1985 and consists in translating and rewriting some items, study of predictive validity of academic success and making an etalon for population with high studies (realist orientation).

T.A.G. was created for selection in psychological examination for different professions. It can also be used in school for professional orientation and selection and in clinic activity to determine intelligence's level. The test has 50 items and that refers to: analogies, geometrical analysis, arithmetic, finding words sense, deductive or inductive logic, and evaluation of spatial relations etc. Items involve:

- The capacity to understand and think in verbal and critical terms;
- The capacity to think in terms of symbols and ideas.



T.A.G. is an "omnibus" test (Landy, 1985). The examination can be done individually or in group using the test and an answer paper.

Instructions

The test itself is preceded by carefully instruction of every person. The test begins only when the subject had already solved the exercises. The instructions are written at the beginning of the test. It is also specified the fact that the final mark depends on total correct solved items, that's why is not recommended to stay too much on a single item.

Results and its analysis

First hypothesis: *at performance level there are differences between students and specific population* we obtained the results:

At the total correct answers on tests items our two groups (students and specific population) obtained a mean of 34.526 and a standard deviation of 4.584 for students and mean 30.918, standard deviation 5.803 for specific population C.F.R. From their compare does not result significant differences (see table 1):

Table 1. Compare means at total correct answers

	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	P	t
SUDENTS	38	34.526	4.584	.067	3.251
SPECIFIC POPULATION CFR	61	30.918	5.803		

We can explain this psychologically by the fact that students are at the specializations involving railway safety and specific population from our group is close by technical fields, example technical functions for carriage, locomotive drivers and almost not at all from traffic field, close by verbal aptitude items.

At total time needed to solve the test, our two groups have mean 2489.000, standard deviation 358.346 for students; mean 3125.557 and standard deviation 639.012 for specific population. As we can see in table 2 the differences between means at total time are significant.

Table 2. Compare means at total time

	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	P	t
SUDENTS	38	2489.000	358.346	.000***	-5.609
SPECIFIC POPULATION CFR	61	3125.557	639.012		

Those differences can be explained trough age, smaller for student than specific population C.F.R.

For correct items solved in 12 minutes the two groups have a mean 17.973 and standard deviation 5.558 for students a mean 13.786, standard deviation 4.336 for specific population. From table 3 results that there are no significant differences between our two groups.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Table 3. Compare means at correct solved items in 12 minutes

	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	P	t
SUDENTS	38	17.973	5.558	.755	4.187
SPECIFIC POPULATION CFR	61	13.786	4.336		

For items seen in 12 minutes the groups have mean 22.500 and standard deviation 5.787 for students; mean 17.786 and standard deviation 4.344 for specific population C.F.R. from table 4 we can see that there are no significant differences between the two groups.

Table 4. Compare means at seen items in 12 minutes

	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	P	t
SUDENTS	38	22.500	5.787	.692	4.612
SPECIFIC POPULATION CFR	61	17.786	4.344		

The results we have by comparing means for our two groups at the performances obtained at general aptitude test reveals significant differences only for total time needed to solve the test. **This thing confirms partially our first hypothesis.**

Second hypothesis: *there are correlations between performances at T.A.G. and performances obtained in professional evaluation for our two samples.* Results:

Table 5. Correlations between performances at test and marks (students)

	TBS	TS	IRCS12	IPS12	COS
TBS	1.000	-.009	.651**	.420**	.027
	.	.958	.000	.009	.874
	38	38	38	38	38
TS	-.009	1.000	-.375*	-.509**	.131
	.958	.	.020	.001	.432
	38	38	38	38	38
IRCS12	.651**	-.375*	1.000	.925**	.079
	.000	.020	.	.000	.637
	38	38	38	38	38
IPS12	.420**	-.509**	.925**	1.000	.012
	.009	.001	.000	.	.944
	38	38	38	38	38
COS	.027	.131	.079	.012	1.000
	.874	.432	.637	.944	.
	38	38	38	38	38

LEGEND:

TBS = total correct students

TS = time needed to solve the test (students)

IRCS12 = correct solved items in 12 minutes (students)

IPS12 = seen items in 12 minutes (students)

COS = total credits obtained (students)



Table 6. Correlations between test's performances and theoretical / practice performances for specific population C.F.R.

	TBCFR	TCFR	IRCCFR12	IPCFR12	CFRMP	CFRMT
TBCFR	1.000 .61	-.067 .61	.695** .61	.290* .61	.132 .61	.090 .61
TCFR	-.067 .61	1.000 .61	-.372** .61	-.594** .61	-.230 .61	-.057 .61
IRCCFR12	.695** .61	-.372** .61	1.000 .61	.802** .61	.021 .61	-.081 .61
IPCFR12	.290* .61	-.594** .61	.802** .61	1.000 .61	-.018 .61	-.177 .61
CFRMP	.132 .61	-.230 .61	.021 .61	-.018 .61	1.000 .61	.674** .61
CFRMT	.090 .61	-.057 .61	-.081 .61	-.177 .61	.674** .61	1.000 .61

LEGEND:

TBCFR = total correct specific population

TCFR = time needed to solve the test (specific population)

IRCCFR12 = correct solved items in 12 minutes (specific population)

IPCFR12 = seen items in 12 minutes (specific population)

CFRMP = total credits obtained (specific population)

Regarding our students group we correlated total answers at the test, time needed to solve the test, correct solved items in 12 minutes, seen items in 12 minutes with total credits obtained by students. In other words we tried to see if there is a relation between performances at aptitude test and school performances.

We did the same way for the other group (specific population C.F.R.) by correlating total answers at the test, time needed to solve the test, correct solved items in 12 minutes, seen items in 12 minutes with latest marks obtained at professional theoretical test and marks obtained for practice. These are obtained from characterizations from units.

For both groups we have no correlations between performances at test and school or professional performances (see table 5 and 6). This leads to infirm our second hypothesis.

On contrary we have correlations for both students and specific population C.F.R. groups between total correct answers, total time, correct items solved in 12 minutes, seen items in 12 minutes. We have also on specific population correlations between marks at theory and practice, this thing indicating a correct subject's evaluation by their instructors and superiors.

To confirm the second hypothesis we need another paper when both groups can be extended and we will make an item analysis because it is possible that only some items to correlate with professional performances specific to some functions.

For our third hypothesis: *T.A.G. can be used for selection of personnel who work for and from railway safety* we suppose that for people who work in railway safety is a normal, homogeneous one, this thing being confirmed trough psychological examination and work specificity. So, based on our group's performances we made T.A.G.'s etalon for people who work in railway safety. We consider that is not appropriate to expose this etalon into a public paper, this aspect is due to confidentiality specific of information used for personnel evaluation for and from railway safety.

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions extracted from this paper cannot be extended to an entire specific population C.F.R. our conclusions are hypothesis for another paper. Main conclusions:

1. Concerning the first hypothesis we have significant differences between our two groups just for total time means, so it is partially confirmed.

2. Second hypothesis was totally infirmed and it will be studied in another paper with a numerous group, an item analysis and correlations only between specific matters, representatives for the field where the subjects provide.

3. As a utility for railway safety was making standards for a for specific population, this being also the purpose of this paper.

4. The inexistence of significant differences between students and a specific population can be explained by the fact that students are at specific trainings for railway safety, most of them will work in railway safety.

5. TAG can be used for personnel selection in railway safety.

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INTEGRATION OF CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES – BY QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Gherghina BOICI, Jamina LEGHEZEU, Mihaela Adela MAZERA

Centrul de Educație Incluzivă „Primăvara”, Caras Severin, Reșița, România

spring_resita@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

The presentation is based on questions and answers and it is addressing to specialists and teachers involved in the integration of pupils with special educational needs and/or disabilities in public schools process.

The concepts explanations, the answers to the questions are based on both international definitions and practical approaches experienced by „Primavara” Center.

The authors propose a working methodology realized by an integration team (psychologists, family members, school representatives) whose focus is “the child” unique, different, with developmental potential.

REZUMAT

Lucrarea, concepută pe bază de întrebări și răspunsuri privind integrarea, se adresează specialiștilor și cadrelor didactice implicate în procesul de integrare în școala obișnuită a elevilor cu cerințe educaționale speciale și/sau dizabilități.

Explicarea conceptelor, răspunsurile la întrebări sunt bazate pe definiții internaționale, dar și pe abordări practice experimentate deja de Centrul Primăvara.

Autorii propun o metodologie de lucru realizată de o echipă de integrare din care fac parte psihologii, familia, reprezentanții școlii și care au în centrul atenției copilul, unic, diferit, cu potențial.

What is the purpose of education?

What are the available learning opportunities and desired outcomes of participation in the public schools?

How is an educational system deemed to be effective?

... the purpose of public education is to help all individuals acquire knowledge, skills, and positive attitudes toward self and other that will enable them to solve problems, think creatively, continue learning and develop maximum potential for leading productive, fulfilling lives in a complex and changing society.

The student population in regular classrooms is becoming more heterogeneous.

As a result, teachers are confronted with the task of adapting their classroom to accommodate a wide diversity among students in physical, intellectual, psychological and social characteristics.

Ecological perspective emphasizes the interactive process between students and teachers, including the impact that families and communities have on classroom functioning. All teachers at one time or another have implicitly acknowledged that the students in their classrooms are individuals and are different from one another in characteristic ways.

The issue of managing and instructing diverse children is even more complicated by the fact that the concept of educational management is itself somewhat murky.

Duke (1979) defined educational management in terms of those activities teachers engage in to establish and maintain an environment conducive to instruction and learning.

Learning reflects the **instructional** function of teaching, while order manifests the **managerial** function. Both may occur simultaneously.

Learning forces a focus on the individual, order is concerned with the social system of the class and group processes.

How, then can a teacher begin to cope with this complex set of circumstances?

What decisions and how does one make them?

One way to formulate an answer to these questions may be found by considering Murray's book *Personality*:

“Every person is like every other person in some ways.
Every person is like some other persons in some ways.
Every person is like no other person in some ways.”

These three sentences capture the essence of most decisions confronting the classroom teacher. They tell teachers that their students are alike and different at the same time and that it is their task to determine in what ways these likeness and differences reveal themselves.

The teacher needs to be able to “read” students and “flex” to them. Students are not constant or static, but dynamic. For any sort of learning, from swimming to reading, some children learn with almost no help and other children need a great deal of help...why they need such help is opened to all sorts of explanations. But, instead of reopening this issue, we simply accept the fact that children vary greatly in how much help they need and way. (Bereiter, 1985)

Adaptive instruction has a dual focus: it modifies the learning environment to accommodate to unique learning characteristics and needs of individual students, and it provides direct or focused intervention to improve each student's capabilities to successfully acquire subject matter knowledge and higher-order reasoning and problem-solving skills, to work independently and cooperatively with peers and to meet the overall intellectual and social demands of schooling.

The adaptive instruction approach has a number of distinguishing features, including:

- instruction based on the assessed characteristics and capabilities of each student,
- the availability of a variety of materials and alternative learning sequences,
- instructional procedures that permit mastery of subject-matter content at a pace suited to individual abilities and interests,
- students taking on increasing responsibility for planning and monitoring their own learning.

Adaptive instruction is grounded in the assumption that every class contain students with different interests, needs, and talents and that the whole class instruction geared to the “average” student is bound to be too difficult for some learners and too easy for others.

An important premise in the design of adaptive instruction programs is that the teacher's major task is to identify and provide instructional support that are needed by individual students to efficiently master intended learning objectives.

One of the basic premises of effective adaptive instruction programs is that a variety of



educational objectives, instructional materials, and learning tasks is needed; success in achieving instructional objectives requires a wide selection of teaching and learning strategies.

The **Adaptive Learning Environments Model** is a comprehensive educational system designed with the overall goal of enhancing schools' capabilities for creating environments that provide for student differences.

The program's design is based on the premise that students learn in different ways and at different rates, and that adapting instruction to individual differences is feasible and effective alternative for maximizing learning.

The program's approach to accommodating student differences involves a variety of instructional methods and learning experiences that are matched to the learning characteristics and needs of individual students, as well as explicit interventions that increase each student's ability to profit from available instructional and learning alternatives.

To these ends, the curriculum in this program combines prescriptive or teacher-directed, instruction that has been shown to be effective in ensuring mastery of basic academic skills with aspects of informal, or open, education that are conducive to generating attitudes and processes of inquiry, self-management, responsibility for learning and social cooperation

Another model (Gilkeson, 1981) is designed to create classroom environments that support student's achievements in four types of competencies: affective, intellectual, physical, and social.

Teachers use information from diagnostic tests and from profiles of student interests, learning styles, motivation and social skills to prescribe and provide instruction that is appropriate to each student.

The expected outcomes for students are development of a positive self-concept, self-control over learning (self-initiative) and positive relation with peers and adults.

A model analyzed by Bloom (1968) sustains the fact that instruction and learning are based on the contention that every student can be successful in learning, so long as he or she is provided with sufficient help when learning difficulties are first encountered.

These adaptive models facilitate the gain of academic and social competence, which can result in attitudinal and personal growth.

Simply placing the students in heterogeneous class arrangements is not enough. Within these classes all students, whether considered disabled or not, should be provided educational programs geared to their unique interests, needs and capabilities, and challenged to be the best they can be.

To accomplish this, the most instructional practices for dealing with students diversity in a classroom must be identified and implemented in today's classroom and schools.

The diversity of learners in a teacher's classroom today is but one manifestation of the pluralism in our society.

WHAT is integration?

For Primavara Center, integration as an opposite notion to segregation means the physical and social access at the highest level of the person possibilities, for an active participation to the social, cultural life and to activities in daily life activities of the society.

Integration – all the measures which are applicable to diverse categories of population and which objective is to avoid segregation with all its aspects.

TO WHO is integration addressing?

- Socially marginalized children
- Children with disabilities



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

- Abandoned children

Indirect beneficiaries:

- Parents
- Other children
- Teachers
- Local community
- Society as a whole

WHY is integration necessary?

- Participation of persons with disabilities to the social life raises the self confidence.

RESULTS:

Reducing criminality

Improving the communication abilities

Reducing segregation

- The person with disabilities, professionally integrated contributes to economical activities development.

RESULTS:

Is no longer financially supported by the society

Is more efficient from an economically point of view. The investment is lower, the earlier the intervention is made and the better the results are.

WHO is doing integration?

- Decision level: legislation – in Romania there are laws concerning integration of persons with disabilities (adults, abandoned children or children at risk, children with disabilities.

- Coordination level: county resource centers and educational assistance, community centers for child protection.

- Implementation level: school centers for inclusive education, special schools, NGOs.

WHERE are we doing integration?

- In family: own family, foster, adoptive family

- In school, kindergarten: in classroom as educative group, in team which develops extracurricular activities;

- In community: professional groups, participation to social, cultural activities

HOW do we do integration?

We'll present our modality, experience which offered, besides other two projects organised by Ministry of Education and Research and RENINCO, a methodology which was included in the legislation in the field.

General objective:

Primavara Center will militate for the right of the child with disabilities and its family for integration.

Integration is a *process* which is realized in stages:

1st Stage: building up the integration team

from the school, teacher, educator A permanent and necessary member is the parent.

The director of the school will be involved in the coordination team as a guarantee for finalization of this process, and from the school, teacher, educator.

A permanent and necessary member is the parent.

The director of the school will be involved in the coordination team as a guarantee for finalization of this process.

2nd Stage: preparing the classroom.

This preparation is realized through visits in both institutions, some activities together.

In the same time the parents and the teacher are informed, they are persons who can



influence pupil's attitude

3rd Stage: establishing the priority needs of the child (assessment)

- curriculum adaptation – which has to be flexible
- environmental adaptation – furniture
- daily program individualized
- specific therapy – specified in Individualized Intervention Program
- parents and teacher advise

4th Stage: Assessment of the child progress, of the program, of the process

5th Stage Monitoring the integrated child, partial support, intervention

6th Stage: File closing

SWOT analysis

STRENGTHS:

- Equal access of the pupils to the resources and facilities.
- Fighting against segregation.
- Reflexive teaching
- Identify (modify) the ethos of the school
- Differentiate teaching
- Teaching in partnership
- Pupils are willing to help their mates
- No label
- Challenges for teachers
- Starting in preschool age chances for success are bigger
- Reduces the school abandonment
- Pupils learn easily: raise the self esteem, self trust and modify its status and role in

classroom

- The school is changing, become more opened to community
- Is the first step to the inclusive school
- The mass media is interested to present such experiences.

WEAKNESSES:

- There are still some barriers in learning process:
 - against an active participation (integration/inclusion)
 - in curriculum
 - school rules
 - national evaluation
- Insufficient preparation of the school to host the children with special education needs
 - specialized teachers
 - teachers' attitude
 - material support is not flexible
 - special support doesn't exist
- Parents' attitude towards school and education
 - lack of interest
 - preference for special school
- Possible resistance to changing

OPPORTUNITIES:

- Existence of the law framework
- The increasing interest of parents that their children should attend public schools
- The increasing interest of teacher for this activity because their final evaluation
- The necessity of changing in the international school framework
- Pupils' number decreasing in the public school because of low natality

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



• Including in the initial training program of teachers a subject concerning inclusive education

THREATS:

- The children can be only physically integrated
- Some teacher just tolerate the child in its classroom
- The parents do not accept the child difficulties
- Few teachers trained to work with such children
- The authorities are not interested in this process
- The teachers at the gymnasium level are not sufficient trained

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MULTICULTURALITY IN COMPANIES

CASE STUDY: THE THOMAS BEHAVIOR EVALUATION SYSTEM

Sorina BRADEA

Thomas International, Oradea

THE FRAME

- Multinational company, industry
- Top management: Romanians, Mexicans, Italians, Germans, Americans, French, Croatians (12 persons)
- 36,000 employees all over the world (1,500 in Romania)
- Spoken languages: English, French, Italian, Croatian

ASSUMPTIONS!

- Due to different countries, team members are very different!
- The fact that no common language is used represents a barrier
- The GM managerial style is not appropriate for the team
- The directors are not compatible with their jobs

INITIAL SITUATION

- No common language
- Different perceptions about the necessary leadership style
- Refuse to adapt and to understand the local conditions
- Different priorities for the top management team members
- Results below expectations for the top management team, even if their teams are performing
(Internal HR point of view)

TOOLS FOR THE DIAGNOSE

- Questionnaires focused on specific cultures
- Thomas analysis in order to identify the behavior profiles
- Interviews with each member of the team management

CONCLUSIONS:

- Team members have very similar behavior profiles: results oriented, competitive, with a natural need to be successful, direct and sometimes aggressive in crisis situations but also pay attention to the quality of the results, reserved in personal relations, maintain the distance when approaching others
- Each team member is focused on his/her own success
- The team members are not interested in cooperating, except the situations when this will help them achieve their own success
- They are not people oriented
- Mostly compatible with the culture of the organization they are part of

**Solutions:**

- To identify the common goal for the top management team - brainstorming
- Workshop – real us!
- Open discussion about expectations, strengths, limitations (using Thomas information)
- Discuss and exercise the observable behaviors in order to improve the cooperation among team members (both vertical and horizontal teams)
- Teambuilding

OBSERVABLE BEHAVIOUR

APPROACH

HANDSHAKE

OFFICE

DRESS

MANNERS

EYE CONTACT

BODY LANGUAGE

HANDLING CONFLICT

Observable behaviour high “D”

- running late
- can be rude and blunt
- will interrupt
- office and desk disorganised
- impatient and restless
- strong handshake
- steady eye contact
- emphasises by challenging
- tries to dominate
- may take over
- not interested in dress
- tackles conflict head on (win/lose)

Observable behaviour high “I”

- ego throughout the office
- certificates, pictures, trophies
- exceptionally enthusiastic
- seems very interested
- fashionable dress
- very friendly and sociable
- much hand and body movement
- tells stories and anecdotes
- shares feelings
- friendly handshake
- inattentive to details
- appears impulsive
- looks for win/win solutions

***Observable behaviour high “S”***

- pictures of possessions and family
- desk well organised (piles)
- appears easy going
- a good listener
- positive handshake
- may have a slow pace
- strives for status quo
- displays certificates of competence
- questions for clarification
- makes tentative statements
- slow but firm voice
- may appear convinced
- comfortable dress
- smooths the situation

Observable behaviour high “C”

- neat and orderly office
- punctual and prepared
- unhurried and organised
- courteous and diplomatic
- smart, conservative dress
- precise and detailed
- loose, brief handshake
- little direct eye contact
- may not share feelings
- limited body language
- defensive when threatened
- yields position to avoid controversy
- nervous laugh, cough or pause

THE GOLDEN RULE OF BEHAVIOR IS ...**THE PLATINUM RULE!**

- Behave with others the way **they** expect you to behave, not the way **you** expect them to behave with you!

THE PROTECTIVE FACTORS OF HEALTH-ENHANCING BEHAVIOR

Laszlo BRASSAI

Psycho pedagogical Consulting Center, Covasna county, Romania
520004 Sf. Gheorghe, jud. Covasna, Str. Victor Babeş 15/C
brassail@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Health-related behaviors and their protective factors, represent a primordial preoccupation concerning prevention during adolescence. Among health-enhancing behaviors the mostly studied topics are: physical activity and attention according nutrition. The present research is focalized on these health-enhancing behaviors and their relation to protective factors, among a number of 1977 students in the 9th grade to grade 12th in Mureş and Covasna county of Romania. The dates were collected in spring of 2006 with questioners. Founding look significant gender differences among prevalence and frequency of health-enhancing behaviours, as well as the means of protective factors, reconfirmed by regressive models of health-enhancing behaviours. In this relationship gender differences are influenced by socio-cultural factors. Suggestions in the perspective of prevention is presented in the final conclusion.

Keywords: *health-enhancing behaviors, protective factors, adolescence*

REZUMAT

Comportamentele preventive și factorii preventivi ai acestora în adolescență constituie o preocupare primordială din perspectiva prevenției. Dintre comportamentele pentru sănătate cele mai frecvent studiate la vârsta adolescenței, sunt activitatea fizică și atenția acordată alimentației. Cercetarea de față se focalizează tocmai asupra studierii acestor comportamente pentru sănătate și asupra relațiilor acestora cu factorii protectivi pe un eșantion de 1977 elevi ai claselor IX-XII din județele Mureș și Covasna. Datele au fost colectate în primăvara anului 2006 prin metoda chestionării. Rezultatele ne arată diferențe semnificative de gen al prevalențelor și al frecvențelor comportamentelor pentru sănătate, precum și al mediilor factorilor protectivi, reconfirmate și de modelele de regresie ale celor două comportamente pentru sănătate. În acest raport diferențele de gen par a fi marcate de factori socio-culturali. În urma constatărilor finale, lucrarea cuprinde o serie de concluzii în privința prevenției.

Cuvinte cheie: *comportamente pentru sănătate, factori protectivi, adolescență*

Health in general and related behaviors in special is important aspects for psychosocial development in adolescence. The importance of health-related behavior in adolescence is accentuated because, crystallization of these behavior, which are probably the most important in the perspective of healthy lifestyle in adulthood, are realized just in this developmental period.

In opinion of Matarazzo (1994) health-related behavior is of two kinds: health-risk behaviors (substance use, unprotected sexual activity, sedentary behavior, aggressive behavior) and preventive behaviors (physical activity, healthy eating, protected sexual behavior, seat belt use, and brushing teeth), named health-enhancing behaviors. Health-enhancing behavior means more than absence of health-risk behaviors. In this developmental period immediate behaviors outcomes are more important faces to future consequences (Rolison & Scherman, 2002), but health-enhancing behaviors demonstrate contrary.

In adolescence physical activity and nutrition behavior represents key elements of health-enhancing behavior.

The Benefic effects of moderate physical activity after the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services in Report of the Surgeon General (1996) are: reducement of mortalities rate both

young and older adults, decreases in the risk of cardiovascular disease, decreased risk of colon cancer, associated with low risk of developing non-insulin-dependent diabetes, mellitus, necessary for maintaining normal muscle strength, joint structure, and joint function, is essential for normal skeleton development during childhood and adolescence and for achieving and maintaining peak bone mass in young adults, may favorably affect body fat distribution preventing obesity and appears to improve health-related quality of life by enhancing psychological well-being and by improving physical functioning in persons compromised by poor health.

Persons with regular physical activity manifested, emotional stability, well functioning of cognitive system and high performances (Brown 1990). Epidemiologic research among men and women suggests that physical activity may be associated with reduced symptoms of depression (Camacho et al. 1991), anxiety (Steptoe et al., 1989), and improvements in general well-being (Cramer, 1991). McAuley (1995) concluded that a positive association exists between physical activity habits and self-esteem in both young adults and children.

About 14 percent of young people report no recent vigorous or light-to-moderate physical activities. Inactivity is higher among females than males and is increased by age (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1996). In other foundlings (Eaton et al, 2006) 75.8% of boys and 61.7% of girls are moderated physical activity, at lat 5 days during a week.

Health in adolescence is strongly interrelated with nutrition behavior. Quantity and quality of nutrition in these developmental period are important in perspective of maintaining health and in perspective of successful psychosomatic development. At the same time, were exists a strong correlation within healthy nutrition and prevention of some cardiovascular and cardio respiratory disease (McVey et al, 2002). Conner et al (2002) considers that consciousness is related to healthy nutrition. Neumark-Sztainer et al (1997a) demonstrated that eating behaviors are loaded in the construct of health-promoting behaviors with brushing teeth and seat belt use. Other foundlings (Neumark-Sztainer et al, 1997b) suggest the presence of both common and unique etiological factors in different health-compromising behaviors (e.g. substance abuse, delinquency, suicide risk, sexual activity) and unhealthy weight loss behaviors among youth.

European (Eaton et al, 2006) and USA (Larson et al, 2007) epidemiological dates lock a pessimist perspective related to quality of nutrition and nutrition habits. Last week just 30% among adolescents consumed fruits and vegetables, and just 20% among them consumed these foods daily. Girls, in general, consume more fruits and vegetables and fewer fast foods, but in these time more sweets (Neumark-Sztainer et al, 1998; Sweeting et al, 1994). Foundlings show high level of melt and animal fat eating among boys (Eaton, 2006).

As health-related behaviors, influenced factors are two kinds: risk and protective (Decovic, 1999; Donovan & Jessor, 1985). These factors acts in personal, interpersonal and transpersonal levels (Reininger et al, 2005). Some researchers argues for the importance of protective factors (Adelmann, 2005; Jessor, 1993; Olsson et al, 2003). Protective factors ensures resiliency in front of negative circumstances or influences (Rutter, 1987). On the other hands, protective factors play a central role in buffering youth from risk (Blum & Ireland, 2004).

Self-efficacy is a crucial socio-cognitive predictor for health-enhancing behavior (Motl et al, 2002). Reflects an optimistic belief in own capacity to determine successes of behavior outcomes (Bandura, 1997). Are associated with physical activity (Barr-Anderson et al, 2007) and nutrition behavior (Glynn & Ruderman, 1996).

Self-regulated behavior is used to refer to any effort that an individual makes to alter his or her own responses, overriding impulses, and to substituting them with another response that leads the person's behavior towards a selected aim (Tice & Bratslavsky, 2000). Some authors (Karoly, 1993) suggest that self-regulation appears to be the stable element that guides behavior to a directed aim or goal. Experimental studies support the assumption that the ability to self-regulate negative emotions is a crucial factor in the efficient performance of cognitive tasks (Baumann & Kuhl, 2002).

Time perspective or future orientation can also play a crucial role in motivating people to engage



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

in health-promoting behaviors (Maddux et al, 1995). Specifically, the motivation to perform health-promoting behaviors is determined by cognitive representations of future states (Bandura, 1997), and in opinion of other researchers (Shapiro et al, 1998), health-risk behavior are directly influenced by decisional processes associated by future. The future projected character of this behavior supposes detain of satisfaction these aspect of future orientation explains association with health-enhancing behaviors (Luszczynska et al, 2004).

There is some evidence that life meaning is a strongest predictor of self-reported health (Cotton et al, 2005; Wong et al, (2006). Researchers (Croll et al, 2002) have also found consistent gender differences in adolescent health-related behavior. In opinion of some researchers (Slater et al, 2001) gender role is so much important that it creates a reason for different etiology of health-related behaviors. Recent empirical results in West and Eastern Europe (Eaton et al, 2006; Fairclough & Stratton, 2005, Mathieson & Koller, 2006) reconfirmed the existent opinion that boys are engaged most frequently in regulated physical activity, and healthy nutrition. Neumark-Sztainer et al (2002) founded ethno-cultural differences in attitudes faced to physical activity, and Stevens et al (1997) faced to body image perception. Reitz (2005) argued for masculine and feminine category of health-related behaviors, first included externalized problem behaviors (substance use, risky sexual behavior, antisocial, aggressive, norm-violating tendencies), and second included internalized (e.g., depression, anxiety, suicide ideas) problem behaviors

In addition to discovering some gender differences in psychosocial susceptibility to practice, health-enhancing behavior have been examined. The reasons are multiple. Some research (Anson et al, 1993; Macintyre et al, 1996) explained gender differences with differences appear in health perception, influenced by social representation health. Boys and girls encounter very dissimilar socio-cultural, psychological demands and messages at each developmental stage (Turner et al, 1995). For girls the task of individuation is relational, whereas for boys it is more instrumental. Mastery for girls is defined in terms of the range and affective quality of interpersonal relationships, whereas mastery for boys is defined in terms of physical and intellectual tasks and competencies (Miller, 1986).

The main goals of this present study are to determine prevalence of health-enhancing behaviors and structure of predictors influenced them.

METHODS

Participants and procedure

Data were collected from high school students, using randomly selected classes from to Tg. Mures and Covasna country, in Romania. The total number of students sampled was 2000, and after the response, we included in analyzing, 1977 questionnaires. The age range of the respondents was between 14–20 years (mean of sample 16.7); 48.1% (n = 950) of the sample by using a questionnaire was male and 51.91% (n = 1027) was female. The data were collected in spring of 2006, using a self-administered questionnaire. The parents were informed about the study, and the questionnaires administration was realized to trained high school teachers. The cover page of questionnaire content the objectives of study, the instructions on how to fill out the questionnaire, and notice in relation with anonymous and confidential character of data collection. The time needed for completing the questionnaire is 40–50 minutes.

Measures

The data obtained from the adolescent survey included health-enhancing behaviors and related protective factors. For the assessment of physical activity, students answered the question, “How many times in the last three months have you exercised (i.e., played a sport, “worked out,” etc.) for at least a half hour?” again followed by a scale from none (1), sometimes (2), monthly 2–3 times (3), weekly 1–2 times (4), weekly 3 or more times (5). Regarding nutrition behavior,

participants were asked, “To what extent in the last three months have you watched what you have eaten (tried to eat a healthy diet)?” followed by response categories none (1), sometimes (2), occasionally (3), most times (4), every times (5). These two scales are validated by Gerard et al, 1996, and reconfirmed in transcultural comparison with Luszczynska et al (2004).

The present study includes a set of protective factors in personal, attitudinal and spiritual levels such as: self-efficacy, self-regulated behaviors, future orientation and life meaning.

Perceived self-efficacy was measured by means of the General Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1995). The scale measures a generalized sense of self-efficacy that refers to global confidence in one’s coping ability across a wide range of demanding or novel situations (e.g., “I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough”). It consists of 10 items, with a response range from 1 to 4.

For measures the self-regulated behavior was used Self-regulation Scale by Luszczynska et al, (2003). The scale includes 7 items and the answers ranged from 1 (not at all true) to 4 (completely true).

To assess future orientation, a modified version of the Consideration of Future Consequences (CFC) Scale (Strathman et al., 1994) was used. The revised scale consists of five items (e.g., “I often engage in a particular behavior in order to achieve outcomes that may not result for many years”), with responses ranging from 1 (extremely uncharacteristic) to 5 (extremely characteristic).

The life meaning was assessed by Life Meaning subscale of Rahe’s Brief Stress and Coping Inventory (Rahe & Tolles, 2002) The scale contain seven affirmation (e.g., “I feel my life is part of a larger plan”) with three alternative response: “no”, “sometime”, “frequently”. The life meaning score was distributed in a score scale to 0, to 16. Cronbach alfa confidence coefficients for self-efficacy scale was 0.86, for self-regulation scale was 0.78, for future orientation was 0.66 and for life meaning was 0.85 (see table 2).

RESULTS

Prevalence of health-enhancing behaviors

Table 1 represents frequency of health-enhancing behaviors among whole sample, and for boys and girls. Monthly prevalence of physical activity in whole sample is 90.3%, respectively for boys 93.9%, and for girls 87.1%. Monthly prevalence of attention according nutrition in whole sample is 93.9%, for boys is 80.7% and for girls is 86,8%.

Table 1: Gender differences in health-enhancing behavior

Health-enhancing behaviors	Whole (n=1977)	Boys (n=950)	Girls (n=1027)
Frequency of physical activity in the last 30 days (%) ***			
<i>None</i>	9.7	6.1	12.9
<i>Sometimes</i>	31.7	23.1	39.6
<i>Monthly 2–3 times</i>	8.8	8.1	9.4
<i>Weekly 1–2 times</i>	27.3	28.7	26.0
<i>Weekly 3 or more</i>	22.4	33.9	11.8
Attention according nutrition in the last 30 days (%) ***			
<i>None</i>	16.1	19.3	13.2
<i>Sometimes</i>	27.1	24.6	29.3
<i>Occasionally</i>	30.0	26.0	33.7
<i>Most times</i>	18.6	19.6	17.7
<i>Every times</i>	8.0	10.3	5.8

*** P < .001, chi-square test.

Chi-square test demonstrate significant gender differences, both health-enhancing behaviors are higher among boys. In perspective of physical activity the differences contoured



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

in the case of weekly frequency of physical activity. In perspective of nutrition control the differences are among most times and every times response categories.

Table 2 show descriptive statistics of health-related factors, focalized by gender differences. Gender differences are evidencing in case of three variables, namely self-efficacy; self-regulated behavior and future orientation, in each cases means are higher among boys.

Table 2: Gender differences in health-related variables

Health-related behaviors	Whole (M/SD/α)	Boys (M/SD)	Girls (M/SD)
Perceived self-efficacy ***	18.63(5.31)(0,86)	19.22(5.65)	18.08(4.97)
Self-regulated behavior*	11.74(3.92)(0,78)	11.92(4.20)	11.57(3.64)
Future orientation*	12.81(4.27)(0,66)	13.01(4.26)	12.62(4.27)
Life meaning	8.77(2.20)(0.85)	8.69(2.27)	8.78(2.12)

Independent-sample t test; * $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$

Tables 3 and 4 represent regressive models for both studied health-enhancing behaviors. In case of physical activity significant predictors for boys were perceived self-efficacy, and for girls all four studied factors. For attention according nutrition, except future orientation all variables including in study were predictors in total sample and in case of girls sample in the same way. Among boys predictor were evidenced future orientation and life meaning. Among girls. The R^2 change was significant in both models. The variables explained 25% of the total variation in physical activity scores for boys and 43% from girls, respectively 60% of the total variation in attention according nutrition from boys and 54% from girls.

Table 3: Standardized regression estimates in predicting physical activity (β regression coefficients)

Predictors	Whole (n=1977)	Boys (n=950)	Girls (n=1027)
Perceived self-efficacy	0.140*** ^(a)	0.137***	0.085*
Self-regulated behavior	0.079**	0.045	0.121***
Future orientation	-0.038	-0.10	0.078*
Life meaning	0.016	0.013	0.084*
Constant	2.860***	2.439***	2.068***
$R^{2(b)}$	0.036***	0.060***	0.054***

a, Standardized regression coefficients; b, R^2 change is based on hierarchical F-test of significance

Table 4: Standardized regression estimates in predicting attention according nutrition (β regression coefficients)

Predictors	Whole (n=1977)	Boys (n=950)	Girls (n=1027)
Perceived self-efficacy	0.072** ^(a)	0.064	0.082*
Self-regulated behavior	0.062*	0.055	0.068*
Future orientation	0.040	0.088*	-0.010
Life meaning	0.148***	0.140***	0.161***
Constant	2.286***	2.439***	2.068***
R^2	0.055***	0.060***	0.054***

a, Standardized regression coefficients; b, R^2 change is based on hierarchical F-test of significance

CONCLUSIONS

While prevalence of physical activity was higher for boys, the prevalence of attention according to nutrition was higher for girls. The frequency of physical activity is higher among boys, and in same way the frequency of nutrition control. The founding is in consents with epidemiological dates (Eaton et al, 2006; Mathieson & Koller, 2006) and with other research result in related field (Fairclough & Stratton, 2005; McVey et al, 2002; Piko, 2006a; Piko et al, 2004).

As same as health-enhancing behaviors, protective factors denote a higher gender differences (Haugland, 2001; Hassmén, 2000; Piko, 2005; Reitz, 2005; Rootman, 2001; Wills & Stoolmiller, 2002; Wills et al, 2006). The international results are reflected in our Transylvanian sample. The case of related protective factors remarked a masculine dominance, self-efficacy, self-related behavior and future orientation were characteristic for boys.

The gender differences are presents in level of structure of predictors (Griffin et al, 2005). In opinion of some researchers (Slater et al, 2001) gender role are so much important that create a reason for different etiology of health-related behaviors. Among Transylvanian adolescents linear regression analysis evidentiate gender-specific predictors. In case of physical activity, among boys just self-efficacy was predictor, while among girls al those four health-related factors were predictors. In case of nutrition control among boys were predictors two, and among girls were predictors' three from four related factors. In perspective of power of predictors among physical activity most important are the individual factors, and among nutrition control the spiritual factors.

Although, the present results in generally support a differentiate approach of health-related behaviors in adolescence. Physical activity and nutrition behavior are influenced by different factors. Physical activity is influenced in principle by personal, but nutrition behavior by spiritual factor, this second health-enhancing behavior suggesting a more complex emotional-cognitive-behavioral control mechanism.

Other important conclusion refers to gender differences in health-enhancing behavior. Many researchers according attention to socio-cultural influence of health-perception (Anson et al, 1993; Macintyre et al, 1996, Turner et al, 1997), health attitude (Neumark-Sztainer et al, 2002) in general, and of health-enhancing behavior (Grieser et al, 2006; Croll et al, 2002; Neumark-Stanier, 2002; Sherwood & Neumark-Stanier, 2001; Stevens et al, 1997), in particular. In perspective of both health-enhancing behaviors, in the Transylvanian sample, in case of girls found a higher complexity of predictors. Maybe the boys in our culture from the psychosocial perspective of health-related behavior are much easier to practice preventive health behaviors, than the girls? With other worlds, the access for some preventive behaviors (e.g., physical activity) among girls are restricted comparative to boys; thereby masculine domination of psychosocial representation of these behaviors?

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THE PERCEPTION OF THE HOSPITAL ORGANIZATION AT TENANT PHYSICIANS

Maria L. CATRINA

„Tibiscus” University of Timisoara, Psychology Faculty, Romania

mcatrina_li@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Is it possible to have an overarching organizational control with continuous situation focused systemic interactions?! My dissertation accounts for this possibility.

The initial organizational diagnosis determined the problematic areas of the organizational process and implicated persons. Starting from these crucial points, I hauled out the organizational structure using the “Stress Scale”, the analysis and synthesis procedure.

The obtained organizational structure represents a reflection of the organizational actor as part of the organizational process and as autonomous individual. The tenant physician becomes therewith the systems interfaced. The problem of the investigated private person with the tenant physician’s status dwells in the extern (private - organizational) and intern (formal - informal) organizational rapport.

The overall organizational structure cannot satisfy all the specific needs of such persons. Therefore I established a hierarchy of unsatisfied stimulation needs of tenant physicians and I extracted from it the tensions capable to generate organizational change. By offering this feedback to the system, I could discover the functional alternatives of the organization.

The final motivational diagnosis enabled me to conclude about the continuous system adapted motivation needs of the physicians.

We can establish a motivational optimum for the hired physician if we can assure a consensually system. I named its functional model: The System Synergy Model. This first approach of a Romanian hospital as an organization links the singular hospitals to the general hospital pattern by organizational diagnosis of the problem areas and malfunctions, while keeping in mind all the time, that the people within represent the interface of both systems.

REZUMAT

Este posibil un control organizațional cu interacționări sistemice continue focalizate pe situație?! Lucrarea mea de disertație investighează această posibilitate.

Prediagnosticul organizațional determină ariile problematice ale procesului organizațional și persoanele implicate. Pornind de la aceste arii problematice, externalizez structura organizațională folosind „Scala de stres” și diada analiză - sinteză.

În consecință, se obține o structură organizațională care reflectă actorul organizațional în dublă ipostază, ca parte a procesului organizațional și ca individ autonom. Astfel, medicul rezident devine interfața sistemului. Problema persoanei private cu statut de medic rezident subzistă în raportul organizațional extern (privat-organizațional) și intern (formal-informal).

Structura generală a organizației nu poate satisface nevoile specifice ale acestor persoane. Din această cauză, am stabilit o ierarhie a nevoilor de stimulare nesatisfăcute ale medicilor rezidenți, din care am extras tensiunile generatoare de schimbare organizațională. Diagnoza motivațională finală mi-a permis să concluzionez asupra nevoilor motivaționale continue și adaptate sistemului ale medicilor rezidenți.

Putem stabili un optim motivațional pentru medicii angajați, în măsura în care putem asigura consensualitatea sistemului. Modelul funcțional corespunzător l-am numit: Modelul de Sinergie a Sistemului. Această primă abordare a spitalului din România ca organizație, face legătura între spitalele individuale și modelul general al spitalului din țara noastră, prin diagnoza organizațională a ariilor problematice și disfuncționalităților, ținând cont tot timpul de faptul că oamenii din interior reprezintă interfața ambelor sisteme.

INTRODUCTION

The Romanian Health system passed through different organization models during the economic transition period of the country. Until now, there remains an open question: *Is it possible to have an overarching organizational control with continuous situation focused systemic interactions?* This study analyses the overarching paternalistic system of the Romanian hospital organization in light of the management reform proposed by the Romanian Health Ministry.

The originality of approaching the hospital as an organization combines two conceptions that were strictly separated in practice: an overarching organizational control model efficiently linked through systemic interactions to a distinct hospital organization as individual organism, capable of adapting itself situation driven.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Organizational practice refuted the general theoretical assumption (*The Theory of Human Relations*, W. Ouchi, 1981; McGregor, 1960) that alleges the possibility of overarching organizational control by means of dominating the framework of human expression. The personal free will and dignity of organizational actors claims a dissimilar approach, that is mindful of private the need for stimulation, autonomy and satisfaction. A general control is needed at the level of structural unity for the assurance of organizational coherence in a national system, but there are situational factors to be taken into consideration at the particular level of each organization and individual actors are the ones confronting such circumstances. One has to take both into account: individual responsibility and decisional participation.

Each stage of the organizational process can be designed only by relying on the individual feedback and social behaviour patterns. The technology of an organization is based upon a criterion that generates different variables characterizing organizational behaviour patterns: flexibility, structure, cooperation.

Context driven organizational characteristics like environmental change/stability determine organic/mechanical organizations (*Contingency Theories*, Burns & Stalker, 1959) which make overall control with middle management decisions possible.

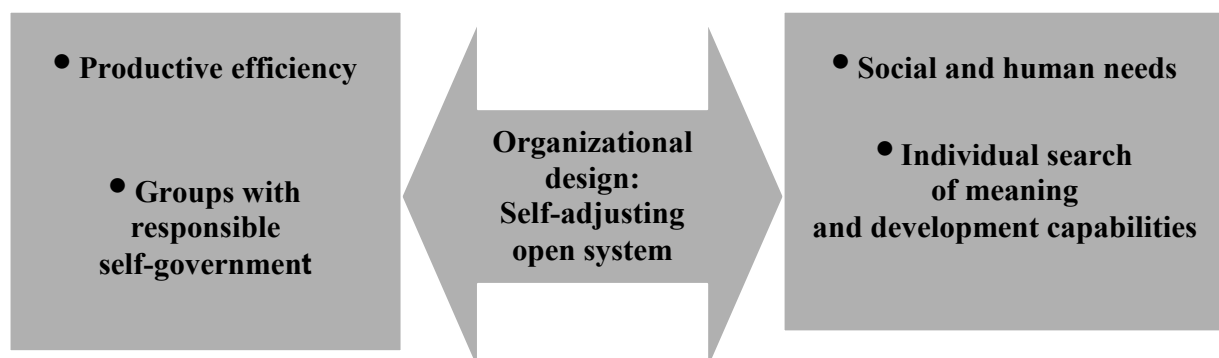


Figure 1. Organizational design

Hypothesis

I could structure the following hypothesis for my prospected work relying on experimental field experience and theoretical background (there is a note of the ulterior confirmation/refutation of the singular hypothesis attached):

- The individual need of conscience determines collective stress engendered by professional failure or miscarriage. (YES)
- The need of autonomy determines conflicts with colleagues, superiors, subordinates. (NO)
- The need of performance presents a significant correlation with the possibility of professional and personal satisfaction and development. (NO)
- The need of domination correlates with the fact that the hospital director generates stress, the discontent generated by the superiors understanding and their incorrect decisions. (YES, YES, NO)

Objectives

By determining the process and person driven problematic areas and extracting the organizational structure through analysis, synthesis and critical reflection I want to discover the *functional alternatives of the organization*.

The test sample

This study uses a random sample of 30 male and female tenant physicians, 24-32 years of age, with an employment history from under a month up to 4 years, spot-checked from the hired population of the Municipal Clinical Emergency Hospital 1-3 "St. Rozalia" from Timișoara.

Psychological Instruments

- The initial organizational diagnosis uses the „Contingency Questionnaire” method (focus on process: problematic areas) for organizational diagnosis (Gelu V. Todea, Mioara Țerovan, Monica Bocșa and Dorina Dragoș constructed 2002)
- The extraction phase uses the „Stress Scale” (adapted after the "Social Readjustment Rating Scale“, Thomas Holmes&Richard Rahe) as critical reflection of the two-state person in a continuous process (interface)
- The *S.M.P. Personality Questionnaire* for motivational diagnosis (Leopold Cesare&S. Marke, constructed 1976; translated and adapted by Gelu Todea 1993-1996) reveals the tensions capable to generate organizational change (person) by supplying with a hierarchy of unsatisfied stimulation needs of tenant physicians.

Stages of the Organizational Diagnosis AND SYSTEM DEVELOPMENT

The phases of the organizational diagnosis comprise as follows: 1) initial *organizational diagnosis* described above and move on to 2) the problem of the investigated private person with tenant physician status that dwells in the *extern* (private - organizational) and *intern* (formal - informal) *organizational rapport*.

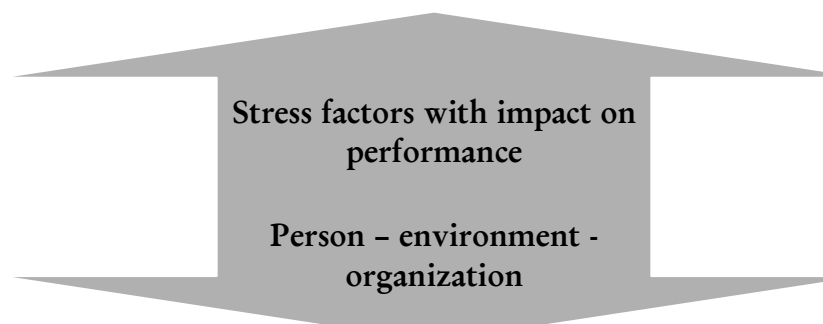


Figure 2. *Organizational interface*

The obtained organizational structure represents a reflection of the organizational actor as part of the organizational process and as autonomous individual. The tenant physicians become therewith the systems interface. By constructing a 3) *hierarchy of their unsatisfied stimulation needs* I obtain the tensions capable to generate organizational change and I 4) *feed this output back into the system* as possible reform starting points.

1. Organizational Diagnosis Design

The initial organizational diagnosis of this study implied the determination of the process and person driven problematic areas problematic. Starting from these crucial points, I hauled out the organizational structure using the “Stress Scale”, critical reflection and the analysis/synthesis procedure. The proposed aim was discovering the functional alternatives of the organization.

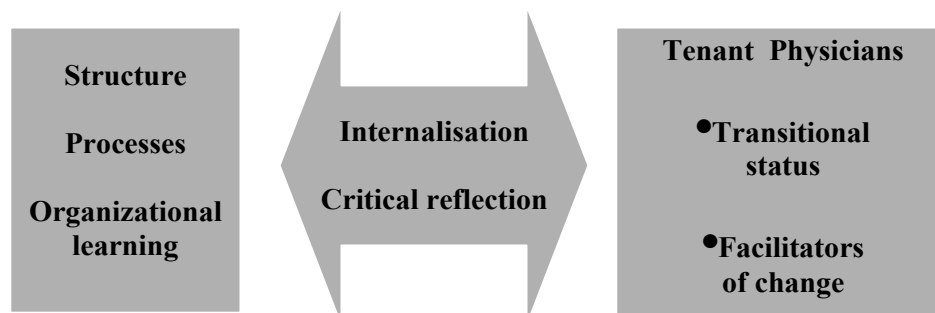


Figure 3 Tenant physicians – organization interaction

Considering the continuous interactive process of the hospital, I choose a systemic situational approach of the organization and started from a “Black-box” presumption of the tenant physicians perception, since they are the person-organization interface that can help streamlining the traditional organizational relationships and account for institutional enthusiasm.

2. Extern – Intern Organizational Rapport

The qualitative and quantitative analysis of the *Contingency Questionnaire* results reveals the following states of affair:

- Tenant physicians between 24-26 years of age accept change and are more flexible.
- Salary is no more a motivational factor, with growing professional experience.
- The family-group perception of the hospital at the beginning of one’s career lowers the perception of stress and failure.
 - An informal structure with lenient rules is preferred to the detriment of a well-organized group that is perceived as stressed by the superior.
 - The leadership stile is polarized between democratic (43,5%) and dictatorial (30,4%) intermediated by the authoritarian (17,4%).
- Tenant physicians approve of the hospital leadership system that is perceived as more understanding at career start (26-29years of age).
 - Personal satisfaction implies professional satisfaction (mutually dependent with the professional engagement decision) and is influenced by the formal-informal cut-off at problem level. The same parting line isn’t maintained at personal decision level.
 - The discontent with the direct, authoritarian superior is generated mainly by incorrect decisions and provokes conflicts. The direct superior is the leader of a specialized hospital section, not the hospital manager, i.e. we refer to middle management.
 - There exists an overall satisfaction with the director that is also perceived as direct superior. This indicates a tendency to cumulate the general managers’ position with the direct superiors’ position on ground of dissatisfaction with the last mentioned leader.

▪ There are problems at medium decisional level regarding the leadership stile, not the implicated persons. The leadership stile perception ranges between: dictatorial (30,4%), uncoerced (8,7%), authoritarian (17,4%), democratic (43,5%). The study indicates authority needs of domination and aggression. The domination need correlates with: a hospital under the stress of the superior and the discontent with the superiors understanding, but it doesn't correlate with incorrect decisions.

Table 1. Leadership stiles

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	uncoerced	2	8,7	8,7	8,7
	dictatorial	7	30,4	30,4	39,1
	authoritarian	4	17,4	17,4	56,5
	democratic	10	43,5	43,5	100,0
	Total	23	100,0	100,0	

3. Organization and Stress

The overall organizational structure cannot satisfy all the specific needs of tenant physicians such. Therefore I established a hierarchy of unsatisfied stimulation needs and extracted from it the tensions capable to generate organizational change. By offering this feedback to the system, I could discover the functional alternatives of the organization.

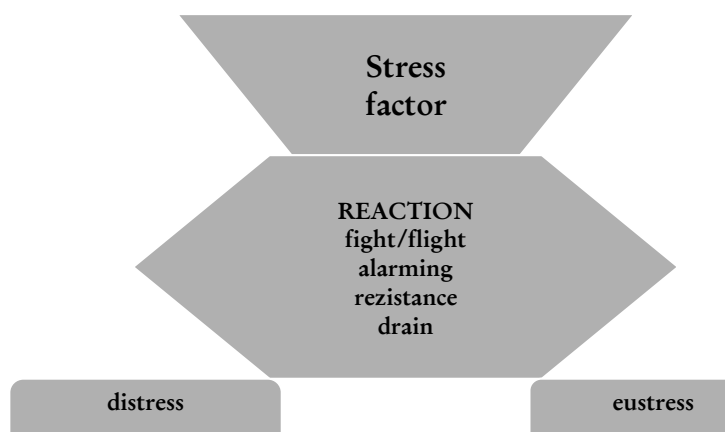


Figure 4. Stress mechanism

In using the Stress Scale I considered the stress factor through the triggered reactions as source of distress and eustress at tenant physicians: „Stress is the body's non-specific response to a requirement" (Selye,1974).

The salary and work conditions presented themselves as relevant distress sources with conflict potential. By means of transferring private states into organizational patterns one can provoke conflicts between private person and employee status or self-induct conflicts of role ambiguity. A blurred reaction-feedback network dislocates the position structure in the organization system. Family conflicts become for example sources of financial tension (loans) and can end with dismissals; loosing someone and separation can relocate formal positions through informal relationships.

By synthesizing and interpreting the Stress Scale results I obtained an organizational structure that represents a reflection of the organizational actor as part of the organizational process and as autonomous individual. The tenant physician becomes therewith the systems interface.

4. *Motivational diagnosis*

The continuous, adapted stimulation needs of the tenant physicians must accord at system level with the motivational optimum formally established for employees.

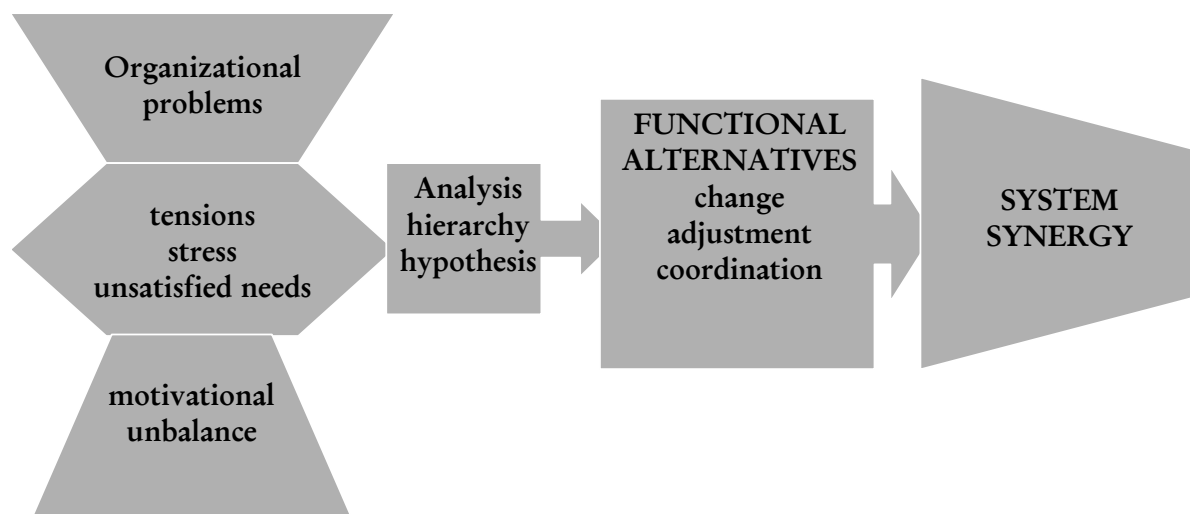


Figure 5. Motivational analysis

The tensions caused by distress and unsatisfied needs of tenant physicians generate motivational unbalance and herewith organizational dysfunctions. The *Motivational Hierarchy* of this unfulfilled needs indicate system adjustment requirements and the possibilities of achieving it through organizational change and a different coordination style.

Motivational Hierarchy

VALUES OVER THE AVERAGE	VALUES UNDER THE AVERAGE
Performance Affirmation	Protection (status dignity): the subjects are not assuming their faults, they are reticent towards change.
Aggressiveness nervousness goal driven behaviour	Conscience: no rational processing of their actions insensibility towards failure
Domination, power, leadership, Critical rational sense: the subjects calculate means and costs of success.	Caring: coldness, indifference
Ostentation role play self-admiration	Help/compassion: subjects are driven by anxiety and pride.
Autonomy (free will): tenant physicians rely on the law of their own ideas.	Self justification after failure: positivist self perception and careless position towards others.
	Aggressive nonconformity: compromises are made for the sake of self affirmation independent of the organization.
	Passive dependence: the subjects mention low security need in view of decisional independence.

The final motivational diagnosis enabled me to conclude about the continuous system adapted motivation needs of the physicians that also underline the systems malfunctions.

4. The System Synergy Model

We can establish a motivational optimum for the hired physician if we can assure a consensually system. I named its functional model: *The System Synergy Model*.

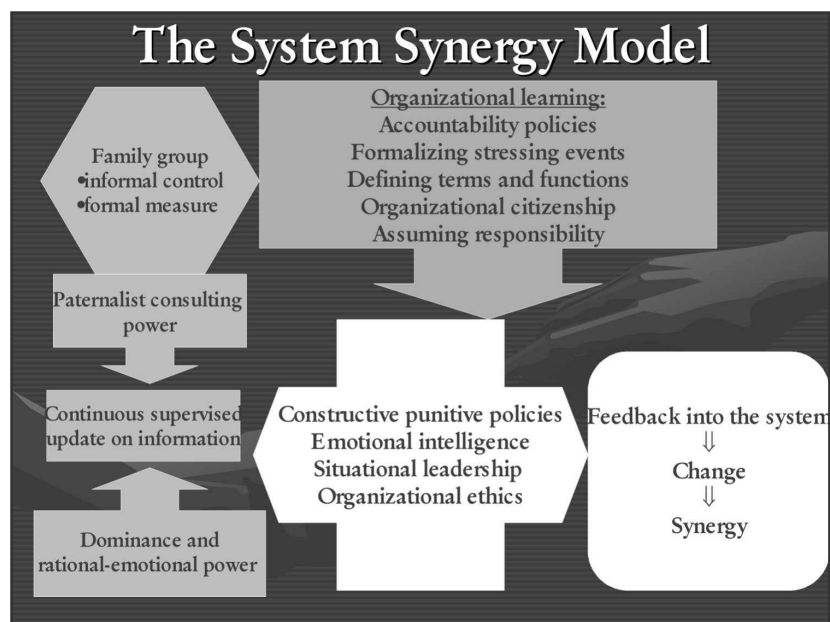


Figure 6. System Synergy Model

This first approach of a Romanian hospital as an organization links the singular hospitals to the general hospital pattern by organizational diagnosis of the problem areas and malfunctions, while keeping in mind all the time, that the people within represent the interface of both systems.

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**Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie**

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LA TRADUCTION – ENTRE FIDÉLITÉ ET CRÉATIVITÉ

Dorina CHIȘ

Universitatea „Tibiscus” din Timișoara

dorina_chis@yahoo.com

RÉSUMÉ

Depuis des siècles les traducteurs balancent entre la tendance de suivre fidèlement le texte source et celle de s'en éloigner, afin d'en rendre le contenu de meilleure manière. L'objectivité absolue du traducteur est tout à fait impossible. Les différences culturelles (auteur/ traducteur/ public), les différences de conceptualisation du réel d'une langue à l'autre, d'une part et l'exigence d'obtenir le même effet que l'original sur le public, d'autre part, imposent l'interprétation du texte source afin d'obtenir une traduction de qualité. Le développement actuel de la science – notamment de la psycholinguistique et de la linguistique cognitive – nous offre des arguments pour soutenir que la fidélité et la créativité dans le processus de traduction ne s'excluent pas, bien au contraire. De cette perspective, la créativité est appréciée et, dans la didactique de la traduction, on essaie de la stimuler, comme facteur d'augmentation de la qualité

Mots clés: traduction, fidélité, créativité, adaptation.

REZUMAT

De secole, traducătorii oscilează între a urma fidel textul sursă și a se îndepărta de el pentru a-i reda mai bine înțelesul. Obiectivitatea absolută a traducătorului nu poate fi atinsă. Diferențele culturale (autor / traducător / public), diferențele de conceptualizare a realului de la o limbă la alta, pe de o parte, și exigența de a obține același efect ca și originalul asupra publicului, pe de altă parte, impun interpretarea textului sursă în vederea obținerii unei traduceri de calitate. Dezvoltarea actuală a științei – în mod special a psiholingvisticii și a lingvisticii cognitive – oferă argumente pentru susținerea ideii că fidelitatea și creativitate în procesul de traducere nu se exclud, dimpotrivă. Din această perspectivă, creativitatea este apreciată și, în didactica traducerii, se încearcă stimularea ei, ca un element de creștere a calității.

Cuvinte cheie: traducere, fidelitate, creativitate, adaptare

Le long du temps les traducteurs ont toujours été partagés entre la tendance de respecter fidèlement le texte de départ et celle de donner libre cours à leur créativité. Il s'agit, en fait, d'un faux dilemme, qu'on peut résoudre en précisant ce que signifie la fidélité vis-à-vis de l'original. Au moment où il devient tout à fait clair que, dans la traduction, ce qui importe n'est pas de rendre fidèlement l'expression, la forme littérale du texte, mais surtout son sens et sa fonctionnalité, la créativité, loin d'y être exclue, devient un élément primordial dans l'obtention d'une haute qualité.

1. Opinions pro et contra

Une des premières (sinon la toute première) prises de positions dans ce problème semble être celle de Philon d'Alexandrie, qui recommandait la fidélité extrême dans la traduction des écrits saints. Il considérait que ceux-ci – le sens et la forme – étaient dus à l'inspiration divine et, par conséquent, le respect qu'on leur devait n'aurait permis qu'une traduction littérale.

Saint Jérôme, père et patron des traducteurs, recommandait, lui aussi, la traduction littérale des écrits religieux, puisque les gens ne devaient pas s'éloigner des paroles du Dieu. Il appréciait que dans ces écrits, même l'ordre des mots était dû au mystère de la révélation. Pour ce qui est des traductions laïques, il affirmait pourtant clairement la primauté de l'esprit sur la lettre : *Non verbum sed sensum exprimere de sensu.* (apud Oseki-Dépré, op.cit.).

Pourtant, des voix se sont élevées contre la fidélité excessive des traductions religieuses, qui produisait des textes obscurs, déconcertants pour les lecteurs. Saint Thomas a accusé les productions des traducteurs littéralistes de se trouver à l'origine du schisme.

Malgré le succès de la traduction fidèle à la lettre, depuis l'antiquité, des gens de culture (tel Cicéron) l'ont combattue, montrant qu'il fallait s'efforcer à rendre le sens et non pas l'expression du texte source. Partant de ce principe tout à fait raisonnable, on est arrivé à des licences extrêmes: au XVIIIe siècle, Nicolas Perrot d'Ablancourt et ses disciples cultivent en France les soi-disant *belles infidèles*, traductions pour lesquelles le texte original n'est qu'un point de départ et une source d'inspiration du traducteur qui donne libre cours à son imagination, adaptant le sujet et l'expression à la culture locale du moment. La même conception est mise en pratique de nos jours, aux Etats-Unis, dans les *Translation and Writing Workshops* (université de Iowa, par exemple). Les éléments du texte source y sont constitués de simples indicateurs qui doivent inspirer le traducteur et diriger son travail. On est arrivé de la sorte à ce que les Américains appellent *manipulation school*. La doctrine de cette école est centrée sur l'idée que toute traduction est déjà une manipulation du texte d'origine. Il suffirait donc que le traducteur déclare son œuvre comme traduction, pour que les ajouts, les omissions, les modifications de toute sorte du texte source, selon sa propre inspiration, ne comptent plus.

Ces deux orientations extrêmes – fidélité rigoureuse et la liberté totale – se retrouvent le long des époques dans toutes les cultures, prenant les formes les plus variées.

2. La créativité

Dans les dictionnaires généraux de langue la créativité est définie comme la capacité de l'individu d'imaginer, de réaliser, de créer quelque chose de nouveau, comme un processus mental qui engendre des concepts nouveaux, d'idées originelles ou de nouvelles associations entre des idées existantes.

La créativité a fait l'objet de nombreuses études théoriques et empiriques, menées surtout dans le domaine de la psychologie. Son apparition est attribuée à des processus cognitifs spécifiques, à l'influence milieu social et à des particularités de la personnalité. Elle constitue un élément essentiel du processus d'innovation et d'invention, quel que soit le domaine d'application. L'acte créatif dépend de l'emploi des informations stockées non seulement par la mémoire logique, mais aussi par celle irrationnelle, ainsi que de leur réorganisation sous l'impulsion de l'imagination, de l'instinct, de l'inspiration, des émotions, etc.

La lecture, comme toute autre activité qui impose un effort d'imagination, peut stimuler la créativité. L'imagination, la spontanéité, la sensibilité, attributs de l'enfance, sont généralement associées à la créativité. Elle appartient à l'expérience individuelle et non pas à la connaissance partagée, étant souvent considérée un attribut du génie. On considère pourtant qu'on peut, plus ou moins, enseigner la créativité, par l'acquisition de certaines techniques.

On peut parler de créativité réelle seulement lorsqu'elle trouve sa concrétisation dans une œuvre quelconque. Dans ce cas il s'agit d'un acte créatif, autrement ce n'est qu'un acte d'imagination.

Si la psychologie dispose de méthodes éprouvées et de techniques normalisées d'étude, d'analyse et d'évaluation des traits du psychique humain, l'évaluation de la créativité est réalisée par des moyens plutôt empiriques.

3. La créativité dans la traduction

Le processus de traduction comprend, lui aussi, des moments de créativité dans la solution des problèmes de traduction. Le problème de traduction apparaît au moment où le traducteur ne peut pas trouver spontanément l'équivalence recherchée, devient conscient de cette incapacité et en cherche la solution.

La créativité dans le processus de traduction se manifeste dans la capacité du traducteur de trouver une solution nouvelle, originale du problème apparu, par des ressources propres et non pas nécessairement à la suite d'une recherche documentaire. Cette aptitude s'oppose à l'automatisme, à la réponse réflexe due à l'expérience acquise dans le travail de traducteur. Elle peut se manifester aussi bien dans la compréhension du texte source, que dans la reformulation dans la langue cible.

Certains traducteurs (par exemple Irina Mavrodin op.cit.) associent aujourd'hui la créativité surtout à la mémoire involontaire.

4. Fidélité et créativité dans la traduction technique

Les théories contemporaines de la traduction relèvent une nouvelle perspective aussi bien sur le sens et l'individualité du texte source, que sur la production d'équivalences et rédaction du texte cible.

Le texte n'est plus conçu comme une suite de mots, ayant chacun son sens précis, mais plutôt comme une entité dont le sens global dépasse la somme des sens des unités individuelles. De plus, le sens global est dynamique et dépend, dans une certaine mesure, de la perception personnelle du récepteur. C'est ainsi qu'un même texte peut bien donner naissance à d'interprétations différentes, selon son récepteur.

Dans cette perspective, la créativité du traducteur devient doublement importante: il est en même temps un des récepteurs, et sa manière de percevoir le texte source est originale, reflétant sa propre personnalité, et un (re)producteur du texte. La créativité du traducteur intervient donc dès le moment de la lecture du texte source. Au niveau de la rédaction du texte cible elle devient encore plus évidente. La théorie du *skopos* (K. Reiss, op.cit.) pose sur le premier plan la finalité de la traduction, son but, sa mission, ainsi les attentes du public. Le traducteur ne doit pas perdre de vue ces éléments, ce qui n'exclue pas la créativité, bien au contraire, car une traduction mécanique rendrait seulement la lettre du texte, risquant de rater sa mission et de trahir sa fonctionnalité.

D'habitude, les licences créatrices sont admises et même appréciées lorsqu'il s'agit de traductions littéraires et, surtout, poétiques, mais elles sont regardées avec plus de réserve lorsqu'il s'agit de traduire des textes pragmatiques. Dans ce dernier cas, le processus de réexpression et les paramètres de fidélité ne diffèrent certainement pas tellement des standards généraux, mais les contraintes de toutes sortes mènent à un plus haut degré de fidélité. La fidélité ne concerne pas seulement le contenu informatif, mais aussi la terminologie propre au domaine, le niveau de langue, les traits syntaxiques, etc.

Le respect des équivalences terminologiques est, certes, un impératif, mais cela ne veut pas dire recherche mécanique de celles-ci. Il faut bien comprendre le texte, sa logique intérieure, l'argumentation développée, assimiler les informations qu'il recèle... afin de pouvoir les rendre fidèlement. La traduction parvient à se constituer à la suite d'une combinaison d'équivalences de transcodage et d'équivalences dynamiques. Il n'y a presque jamais de traduction unique, mais plusieurs variantes possibles, en fonction de la subjectivité et de la créativité de chaque traducteur, dans ce mouvement dynamique, oscillant entre contrainte et liberté qui mène à la réexpression du sens. Le principal impératif du traducteur est de rendre les informations sans en omettre quoi que ce soit et sans rien y ajouter.

On classe les textes techniques, selon leur nature, dans des catégories telles: textes informatifs (compte rendu, note...), textes explicatifs (comme, par exemple, les textes de vulgarisation), textes injonctifs (mode d'emploi, notice signalétique) et ainsi de suite. Une telle classification, bien que de grande utilité didactique, reste artificielle. Outre sa fonctionnalité déclarée, un texte porte, généralement, d'autres messages aussi, souvent moins évidents, mais tout aussi importants.

Le rapport annuel d'une société commerciale, par exemple, pourrait être considéré comme un texte informatif. Il est vrai qu'il a le rôle d'informer le public à propos des résultats de celle-ci, mais, en même temps, il doit transmettre aux actionnaires un signal d'encouragement, les assurer qu'ils ont fait un bon placement, et, d'autre part, en attirer d'autres. À première vue ce n'est qu'un document financier. En réalité, il en est bien plus que cela, il est aussi un document commercial avec une évidente valeur publicitaire. Il doit illustrer une certaine image de l'entreprise, en accord avec sa dynamique/ son développement et avec les valeurs promues par celle-ci.

Toute documentation afférente à un produit est, en même temps, un support de l'image de marque. Si elle est bien structurée, bien présentée et facilement consultable, elle fera passer une image positive de l'entreprise et contribuera à l'augmentation des ventes.

Pour le traducteur il est très important d'identifier dès le début, avant de commencer le travail, la fonctionnalité du texte à traduire. Par la suite, tout en tenant compte, il fera appel à sa créativité pour trouver les meilleures équivalences.

La théorie interprétative de la traduction identifie plusieurs étapes de ce processus : la compréhension, la déverbalisation, le transfert de l'information, la reverbération dans la langue cible. Le traducteur comprend le message, puis il retient le sens de celui-ci et non pas nécessairement les mots : c'est le moment de la déverbalisation. Le message est ensuite transféré et reverbération dans la langue cible. A degré de compréhension égal, la meilleure traduction sera donnée par le traducteur qui est meilleur rédacteur, qui non seulement est créatif, mais sait valoriser cette créativité. On a souvent observé qu'un traducteur médiocre se trouve dans l'embarras devant un texte original de mauvaise qualité ou qui contient des fautes, tandis qu'un bon traducteur est capable de l'améliorer, d'en corriger la structure et de mettre en valeur de meilleure manière ses informations.

Les objectifs de la traduction technique sont la transparence, l'efficacité et la fonctionnalité. Ils doivent être atteints quelle que soit la qualité du texte original.

La traduction des modes d'emploi, par exemple, doit permettre la mise en fonction de l'engin respectif. Pourtant, tout matériel documentaire traduit en même temps un acte de marketing. Si la mission du texte est uniquement d'informer, le traducteur va offrir une rédaction claire, précise, neutre. Si le texte doit, en plus, convaincre, l'expression adoptée mettra en valeur l'argumentation. Voilà un exemple de présentation réalisé différemment, en fonction du but proposé :

- Formule neutre: *Pour exécuter la fonction X, presser le bouton A et puis le bouton B.*
- Formule positive: *Pour exécuter la fonction X, il suffit de presser le bouton A et puis le bouton B.*
- Formule négative: *Pour exécuter la fonction X, vous devez non seulement presser le bouton A, mais de presser aussi par la suite le bouton B.*

Un autre élément important dans l'appréciation de la qualité d'une traduction – et où la créativité trouve sa place – est le traitement des différences culturelles, l'adaptation de la traduction à la culture de la langue cible.

Les différences d'une langue à l'autre dans la conceptualisation du réel, les différences culturelle (auteur/ traducteur/ public), d'un côté et le devoir d'obtenir le même effet que l'original sur le public, d'autre côté, imposent l'interprétation du texte source en vue de l'obtention d'une traduction de qualité. Pour rendre fidèlement le message, le traducteur doit adopter une démarche adaptée au matériel respectif et aux problèmes de traduction qu'il soulève. La fidélité envers la langue cible implique le choix des solutions en accord avec son esprit et avec la culture dont elle est l'expression. La distance culturelle entre les peuples peut constituer une difficulté supplémentaire pour le traducteur. Il doit connaître les « non équivalences » d'ordre culturel

ainsi que la manière dont la société respective perçoit les éléments culturels étrangers. Il doit réaliser une médiation entre deux cultures et recourir à l'adaptation pour rendre le message claire et acceptable. Les solutions à choisir varient en fonction du destinataire et de la nature du texte. Ainsi, il n'est pas recommandable de traduire littéralement l'expression *blanche comme neige* dans la langue d'un pays où il ne neige jamais ; pour la traduction de la prière *Notre Père*, dans une langue asiatique, remplacer *notre pain quotidien* avec *le bol quotidien de riz* apparaît comme une solution parfaitement justifiée.

L'intervention des traducteurs est nécessaire chaque fois qu'une firme pénètre sur un marché étranger. Il ne s'agit pas de traduire seulement la documentation nécessaire, mais aussi les messages publicitaires, le slogan... Il arrive que le nom d'un produit doive être changé, pour ne pas venir en contradiction avec les éléments de la culture locale. L'aide d'un bon traducteur est indispensable dans un tel cas.

En s'implantant dans un pays étranger les entreprises doivent, par exemple, respecter certaines règles dans le choix de leur nom: il faut éviter les syllabes *alla* dans les pays musulmans, *kali* et *rama*, dans les pays hindous, car leur sens renvoie à la divinité. En japonais *shi* signifie "mort", il est donc à éviter, tandis que *o* initial est un préfixe honorifique qui ne convient pas aux noms des produits destinés aux jeunes. Le même *o* est un préfixe négatif dans les langues scandinaves. *SPID*, l'homonyme de l'anglais *speed*, est le sigle russe pour SIDA et les exemples peuvent continuer.

Il est bien difficile de repérer toutes les connotations négatives d'un mot, surtout s'il est utilisé dans le langage familier ou même argotique. C'est ainsi que de grandes entreprises se sont vues obligées de changer les noms (choisis ou créés) de certains produits de succès, parce que la signification de ces noms dans la langue d'un nouveau marché n'était pas du tout convenable. En voilà quelques exemples: Renault a renoncé au nom *Clio* sur le marché finlandais, où le mot signifie "je gratte", et les autos sont nommées seulement *Renault Symbole*, tandis que sur le marché japonais elles sont commercialisées sous le nom de *Lutecia*; Ford a abandonné le nom *Pinto* sur le marché brésilien (où, en argot, le mot signifie "organe sexuel masculin minuscule") et l'auto respective a reçu le nom de *Corcel* ("cheval"); pour des raisons très semblables *Mitsubishi Pajero* se vend dans les pays hispanophones et au Brésil sous le nom *Mitsubishi Montero* ; une importante compagnie nipponne de tourisme, *KINKI*, a dû choisir un autre nom pour sa filiale aux Etats-Unis, après avoir reçu d'innombrables demandes de tourisme sexuel, à cause du sens que prend en argot le terme homophone anglais.

Le contact des entreprises européennes et américaines avec le marché asiatique a soulevé un problème pas du tout facile: trouver un nom acceptable dans la langue du marché. En Chine, par exemple, Coca-Cola a eu une première tentative de transposer son nom en chinois: *Ke-ku-ke-la*. Apprenant que cela signifiait en chinois, entre autres, "jument farcie de cire", les spécialistes de la firme ont en trouvé un autre, *Ko-ku-ko-le*, équivalent approximatif de "bonheur dans la bouche". La firme française Carrefour a réussi, paraît-il, un choix beaucoup plus inspiré : 家乐福 Le premier de ces caractères signifie "prospérité", "bonheur". C'est un signe qui apparaît surtout sur les objets décoratifs, sur les invitations, sur les cartes de vœux et même sur les portes des maisons pour la Nouvelle Année chinoise. Le nom a été si bien choisi que les consommateurs chinois (selon le site de l'ambassade de France en Chine) perçoivent le supermarché comme une firme autochtone. On cite même des réactions des touristes chinois en France qui se réjouissaient de retrouver un magasin chinois en Europe.

Conclusions

Le degré zéro de créativité est constitué par la traduction automatique. Le sujet humain ne peut pas et ne doit pas l'atteindre. La réalisation d'une copie demande de la rigueur, de la minutie, de la préoccupation, le travail de création engendre des circuits originaux des neurones,

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



de nouveaux schémas heuristiques, de nouvelles approches interculturelles et donne naissance à de nouvelles réalités.

Les préceptes inscrits dans la *Charte du traducteur*, document de la Fédération internationale des traducteurs, résument le problème de la fidélité en traduction :

- Toute traduction doit être fidèle et rendre exactement l'idée et la forme de l'oeuvre originale - la fidélité constituant pour le traducteur à la fois un devoir moral et une obligation de nature juridique.

- Il ne faut pas confondre cependant traduction fidèle et traduction littérale - la fidélité de la traduction n'excluant pas une adaptation nécessaire pour rendre la forme, l'atmosphère, la signification profonde de l'oeuvre, sensibles dans une autre langue et un autre pays.

- Le traducteur doit posséder une bonne connaissance de la langue à partir de laquelle il traduit, mais surtout la maîtrise de celle dans laquelle il traduit.

- Il doit posséder également une culture générale et connaître suffisamment la matière qui fait l'objet de la traduction et s'abstenir d'entreprendre une traduction dans un domaine qui sort de sa compétence

Dans une acception plus large, qui dépasse la création artistique, on considère la créativité comme la capacité d'apporter ou de trouver de nouvelles solutions, originales, aux problèmes d'adaptation auxquels tout être humain est confronté. Une société qui se contenterait de copier, sans innover, sans créer, risquerait de perdre son identité.

L'acte de création, oeuvre de l'esprit, est protégé par les lois de la propriété intellectuelle.

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STRESS PROFESSIONNEL CHEZ LES POLICIERS BRÉSILIENS

Nelson Aleixo DA SILVA JUNIOR¹, Maria Jose LAURINDO SOUZA², Walmir RUFINO DA SILVA³ et Bernard GANGLOFF⁴

¹Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et Université d'Etat de Paraíba (Brésil).

nelsonaleixo2000@yahoo.com.br

²Université d'Etat de Paraíba (Brésil).

³Département de Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

walmiruf@uol.com.br

⁴Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et Département de Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

RÉSUMÉ

Le présent travail a eu comme objectif de mesurer le degré de stress professionnel des policiers de la ville de Campina Grande, la plus grande ville de l'intérieur du nord-est du Brésil.

Nous avons, dans cette étude exploratoire et descriptive, suivi une approche quantitative à l'aide de l'Inventaire Symptômes de Stress pour Adultes (ISSL) de Lipp et Gueverra (1994), inventaire constitué de 45 questions permettant d'identifier les symptômes physiques et psychiques d'un éventuel stress au cours de 3 moments différents: lors des dernières 24 heures, lors des dernières semaines, et lors des derniers mois. L'échantillon, issu des 1160 policiers du 2^{ème} Bataillon de Police à statut militaire de Campina Grande (qui est le seul bataillon de police de l'armée de Campina Grande), est constituée de 94 policiers, tous masculins (échantillon représentatif avec une marge d'erreur de 10% et un coefficient de confiance de 95, 5%).

Les résultats montrent que ces policiers (dont 58,5% ont entre 31 et 40 ans), travaillent pour 63,8% d'entre eux 1 jour sur 2 (soit 12 heures de travail puis 36 heures de repos), et que 43,6% effectuent des heures complémentaires (dont 61% au moins 10 heures complémentaires par semaine). En ce qui concerne le stress, 20,2% de l'échantillon en font état, dont 15,8% en phase d'alerte (phase la plus basse) et 84,2% en phase de résistance (phase intermédiaire), mais aucun n'est en phase de résistance (phase la plus haute). Ce stress se caractérise, dans 36,8% des cas par des symptômes psychiques, et dans 57,9% des cas par des symptômes physiques. Il apparaît ainsi, en conclusion, que la majorité des policiers du 2^{ème} Bataillon n'est pas en situation de stress et que le taux de l'incidence peut être considéré comme peu élevé comparativement à ce qui a pu être observé dans d'autres villes de la même taille que Campina Grande. Des études complémentaires sont alors nécessaires pour expliquer cette différence.

Mots clefs: travail, stress, police

ABSTRACT

We wanted here to measure the degree of professional stress of the policemen of the city of Campina Grande, biggest city of the Brazilian interior northeast.

We have, in this exploratory and descriptive study, used a quantitative approach with the aid of the Inventory Symptoms of Stress for Adults (ISSL) of Lipp and Gueverra (1994), constituted of 45 questions permitting to identify the physical and psychic symptoms of a possible stress during 3 different moments: at the time of the last 24 hours, at the time of the last weeks, and at the time of the last months. The sample, coming from the 1160 policemen of the 2nd police battalion with military statute of Campina Grande (who is the only police of the army in Campina Grande), is constituted of 94 policemen, all masculine (representative sample with a margin of error of 10% and a confidence coefficient of 95%).

The results show that these policemen (of which 58,5% have between 31 and 40 years), work for 63,8% among them 1 in 2 days (i.e. 12 working hours then 36 hours of rest), and that 43,6% perform complementary hours (of which 61% at least 10 complementary hours a week). With regard to stress, 20,2%



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

of the sample mention it, of which 15,8% in phase of alert (lowest phase) and 84,2% in phase of resistance (intermediate phase), but no one is in phase of resistance (highest phase) This stress is characterized, in 36,8% of the cases by psychic symptoms, and in 57,9% of the cases by physical symptoms. Thus, it appears, in conclusion, that the majority of the policemen of the 2nd battalion is not in situation of stress and that the impact can be considered little elevated compared to what we observed in other cities of the same size than Campina Grande. Some complementary studies are then necessary to explain this difference.

Words keys: work, stress, police

Estresse e Atividade Policial no Brasil

I – INTRODUÇÃO

O estresse tem sido apontado como o grande mal de nossa época. Ele pode ser entendido como uma reação do organismo com componentes psicológicos, físicos, mentais e hormonais, que ocorre quando surge a necessidade de adaptação à um evento ou situação de importância, ou seja, se produz quando o indivíduo não é capaz de responder de forma ‘adequada’ às demandas ambientais. O estresse tanto pode ser negativo quanto positivo. Negativo, quando a pessoa ultrapassa seus limites e sua capacidade de adaptação se esgota, ou seja, é o estresse em excesso. Já o positivo, ocorre em sua fase inicial, a de alerta. O organismo produz adrenalina, provocando ânimo, vigor e energia, fazendo com que a pessoa produza mais, seja mais criativa, e tome iniciativas positivas. É a fase da produtividade. Muito embora, essa fase de alerta não possa durar por muito tempo, pois o estresse pode se tornar excessivo, transformando-se em negativo.

Além de ocasionar transtornos psicológicos, o estresse tem repercussões fisiológicas, uma vez que, aumentando a fadiga física e psíquica, conseqüentemente, baixa as defesas do indivíduo e este fica exposto ao surgimento de doenças somáticas, tais como a hipertensão, ataques cardíacos, apoplexias, úlceras e muitas outras, podendo em casos extremos, provocar a morte.

Portanto, os efeitos podem ser tão nocivos quanto menor for a capacidade do indivíduo em lidar com os agentes estressores, adaptar-se a eles e desenvolver mecanismo internos de defesa. A incidência de estresse tem aumentado de forma ininterrupta em decorrência do surgimento de ambientes de apreensão, conflitos e transtornos na vida das pessoas, mudanças bruscas e inexoráveis e intensas pressões no mundo do trabalho, devido a uma realidade cada vez mais competitiva e excludente. Esse quadro tem provocado conseqüências cada vez mais graves, apresentando um grupo complexo de sintomas que exige a apreciação de uma equipe multidisciplinar.

Essa é uma realidade bastante visível atualmente no mundo profissional. Embora a vida cotidiana sempre tenha um certo grau de tensão, o impacto e o controle do estresse na vida da organização tem sido alvo de atenção e preocupação, decorrentes das conseqüências negativas e dispendiosas que o mesmo provoca, os quais estão refletidos nos números crescentes dos acidentes de trabalho, rotatividade e absenteísmo, no aumento dos custos de assistência médica, na queda da quantidade e qualidade da produção e dos serviços e, principalmente, refletido na qualidade de vida dos trabalhadores e de suas famílias.

Segundo Frankenhaeuser & Gardell (apud De Souza, 2003), os fatores de estresse no trabalho estão associados à presença de sobrecarga / subcarga quantitativa e qualitativa, onde a carga quantitativa representa o volume de trabalho mental exigido dentro de determinada unidade de tempo enquanto que a carga qualitativa se refere a complexidade do trabalho e a possibilidade de aplicação, pelo trabalhador, de suas capacidades e experiências. Neste sentido, de acordo com Karasek apud Sato (1998), é a capacidade que o trabalhador tem de minimizar

este nível de tensão, a partir de suas possibilidades de tomadas de decisões e controle sobre o seu trabalho, que vai determinar se o trabalhador caminhará mais no sentido da doença ou da saúde no trabalho.

Nesse sentido, a organização do trabalho de forma rígida, onde a existência de um único modo de operação prescrito e imposto, deixa poucas margens ao gerenciamento do sofrimento mental e à adaptação, são extremamente nocivas, podendo levar à paralisação da atividade psíquica espontânea, à repressão do funcionamento psicológico, portanto esse bloqueio contínuo do funcionamento mental poderá levar ao aparecimento de doenças somáticas. Porém, o estresse não chega de forma abrupta. Após o aparecimento do estressor, ele se estabelece, podendo desaparecer em pouco tempo ou aprofundar sua presença, dependendo do período que perde a situação estressora.

Segundo Selye (1965), no confronto inicial com o estressor, há uma reação de alerta e organismo se prepara seja para lutar ou para fugir. Quando o estressor permanece por pouco tempo essa fase termina algumas horas após a eliminação da adrenalina e a restauração da homeostase, havendo um reestabelecimento do organismo sem que tenha havido nenhum dano. Esta é a fase da ação. Nesta, a pessoa aumenta sua produtividade, e quando o estresse é bem administrado, pode ser usado como um motor da motivação, do entusiasmo e da energia. No entanto, caso o estressor perdure ou se ele for de uma intensidade excessiva, mas não-letal, o organismo, por meio da sua ação reparadora, tentara restabelecer seu equilíbrio interno, estabelecendo-se à fase de resistência ao estresse. Nessa fase, a pessoa automaticamente utiliza toda a energia adaptativa para se reequilibrar. Quando consegue, os sintomas iniciais desaparecem e a pessoa tem a impressão de que está melhor. Dois sintomas aparecem de modo bastante freqüente nessa fase: a sensação de desgaste generalizado sem causa aparente e dificuldades com a memória. O organismo está enfraquecido e muito mais suscetível a doenças, porém se a pessoa utiliza técnicas de controle do estresse ou se o estressor é eliminado, ela pode voltar ao normal, sem seqüelas.

Contudo Lipp (2000a), observando esta fase percebeu uma nova fase, a de quase-exaustão, pois esta fase se encontra entre a fase de resistência e de exaustão. Esta nova fase caracteriza-se por um enfraquecimento da pessoa que não mais está conseguindo adaptar-se ou resistir ao estressor. As doenças começam a surgir, porém ainda não são tão graves como na fase de exaustão. Embora apresentando desgaste e outros sintomas, a pessoa consegue trabalhar e “funcionar” na sociedade até certo ponto. Neste sentido, a fase de resistência por ser muito extensa e apresentar dois momentos distintos caracterizados pela quantidade e intensidade de sintomas, foi dividida em duas partes: a primeira refere-se ao conceito de resistência de Selye, e a segunda parte refere-se a fase de quase-exaustão.

A referida autora afirma, ainda, que quando o estressor perdura mais, ou quando outros estressores ocorrem simultaneamente, o processo de estresse evolui e a exaustão psicológica ocorre, chega-se, então, a fase de exaustão. Quando ocorre a exaustão, ou quando ela está próxima, as doenças surgem com muita freqüência, tanto no aspecto psíquico como no somático. Naturalmente, o estresse não é o elemento patogênico dessas doenças, ele leva a um enfraquecimento do organismo de tal modo que aquelas “patologias programadas” geneticamente se manifestam devido ao estado de exaustão presente.

Concernente ao trabalho do policial militar, os estudos relacionados às questões de saúde vem se destacando tanto no âmbito da organização policial, quanto nas universidades brasileiras, motivados pelas peculiaridades de uma função que possui características, consideradas do ponto de vista da saúde física e psíquica, “perigosas”. Por outro lado, existe todo um momento histórico, no qual, questões relacionadas à prática policial vem sendo colocada em discussão pela sociedade, não só brasileira, mas também de outros países (Amador & Spode 2002). No momento existe uma preocupação, e uma necessidade, de tornar a ação da polícia

mais institucional, educadora e humana, principalmente nas suas abordagens cotidianas nas comunidades, mas sem perder o foco de suas ações contra o crime organizado. Assim, o policial está todo o tempo em contato com uma realidade onde ele precisa distinguir, claramente, quem está do outro lado. Neste contexto, as relações perdem a naturalidade, se revestindo de medo e de receio do erro e de tudo que este pode acarretar, pois, ainda segundo a autora, existe uma forte pressão sobre o indivíduo, visando a coesão do grupo, utilizando-se do regulamento disciplinar, através do Código Penal Militar e todos os documentos doutrinários e normativos.

Partindo desse pressuposto, vários estudos com base na perspectiva do estresse, vêm sendo realizados, analisando os impactos deste trabalho, tão específico, sobre a saúde dos policiais. O conteúdo do trabalho policial, o contato rotineiro com a morte, a violência e a constante pressão das responsabilidades são consideradas elementos do cotidiano do trabalho causadores de danos à saúde dos policiais (Amir apud Amador, 2002).

A partir dessa conjuntura vivenciada pelo policial militar, pode-se sugerir que estresse policial é a incapacidade do policial de reagir adequadamente aos estímulos externos. Estes, podem se apresentar em termos de ameaças imaginárias ou reais, característica da própria profissão. Estas “ameaças” provocam reações fisiológicas e emocionais, que preparam o organismo para enfrentar o perigo. O fato do policial simplesmente estar de serviço, gera um estado de alerta que o prepara a agir prontamente aos estímulos ameaçadores. Se esta situação permanece por longo período, provoca uma espécie de exaustão orgânica, que somada a outros problemas de ordem financeira, pessoal ou psicológica, enfraquece mais ainda o organismo dando lugar às doenças psicossomáticas (PMERJ 1994) .

Por esse motivo, o estresse é uma realidade na atividade policial, pois toda situação que exija dele a resolução de conflitos ou a manutenção da ordem, produzirá tensões e, na maioria dos casos, o estresse positivo. No entanto, se esse estado de tensão se repete várias vezes em um mesmo dia ou torna-se comum no cotidiano do policial, e este não dispõe de oportunidades para exercitar outras dimensões da vida, é bem provável que tenha como conseqüência a passagem do estresse da fase de alerta para as fases de resistência e até mesmo de exaustão. Assim, esse profissional que coloca muitas vezes sua própria vida em risco, passa a enfrentar um desequilíbrio biológico com componentes físicos e psicológico que podem vir a afetar não só a ele próprio, mas também a organização e a comunidade, através de absenteísmo, alcoolismo, problemas emocionais, mudanças inexplicáveis na eficiência, desempenho irregular, impaciência e outros erros sérios (Romano apud Lipp, 1996).

Nesse sentido, o presente trabalho teve como objetivo, identificar a existência, ou não, de estresse entre policiais do 2º Batalhão de Polícia Militar sediado na cidade de Campina Grande, bem como, os fatores psicossociais do estresse presentes no trabalho destes, no intuito de contribuir, a partir de um trabalho científico, para um melhor esclarecimento a respeito do processo saúde/doença no trabalho da polícia militar, o que podera subsidiar ações por parte do comando militar, ou mesmo por parte do sindicato, no sentido de evitar, prevenir ou tratar as vítimas do estresse. Além disso, a partir desse estudo, espera-se também estar contribuindo no processo de construção do conhecimento do campo da saúde do trabalhador e, mais especificamente, entre policiais militares.

II – MÉTODO

Esse estudo foi realizado no Brasil, mais precisamente na cidade de Campina Grande a segunda maior cidade do Estado da Paraíba e uma das maiores do interior do nordeste brasileiro, com uma população de aproximadamente 400 mil habitantes. Campina Grande é uma cidade de forte comércio, tradição no setor industrial de couros e calçados e conta atualmente com duas universidades públicas e duas universidades privadas.



A pesquisa envolveu os policiais militares do 2º Batalhão de Polícia Militar que tem sede na cidade. Tratou-se de um estudo *exploratório descritivo*. Exploratório, porque objetivou aproximar o pesquisador do tema escolhido oportunizando maior familiaridade com o fenômeno a ser estudado; e *descritivo*, porque visou à descrição das características componentes do problema, através do *levantamento* dos dados, ou seja, da pesquisa direta, onde se pode estabelecer maior interação, ainda que breve, com o grupo de interesse. O estudo teve como abordagem o método *quantitativo*, por contribuir com maior poder de generalização dos achados científicos, bem como, pela necessidade de um diagnóstico inicial da situação e assim contribuir com subsídios que possam melhorar as condições de trabalho e de saúde mental do Policial Militar.

2.1 – Sujeitos

O Estado da Paraíba apresenta um total de 7.754 Policiais Militares efetivos. Destes, 1.160.PMs vinculados ao II Batalhão (unico batalhão responsavel pelo policiamento da cidade e de sua região), constituíram o universo da pesquisa, sendo que 94 Policiais Militares compuseram a amostra, considerando um intervalo de confiança de 95,5% e uma margem de erro aceitável de 10% (Arkin & Colton apud De Filippe Junior, 1995). De acordo com as características sócio-demográficas e econômicas dos policiais militares constatou-se que 58,5% tinham uma media de idade entre 31 a 40 anos, o que denota ser uma corporação ainda jovem, e que 70,2% eram casados. A religião predominante foi à católica por tradição com 52,1% e, em seguida os protestantes com 25,5%. No que se refere a renda familiar, 71,3% ganham entre 2 e 4 salários mínimos. Quanto ao sexo, todos os respondentes são do sexo masculino, pois a presença das mulheres na polícia era insuficiente, do ponto de vista estatístico, para determinar sua participação na amostra. Assim, não se determinou quantos componentes deveriam ser de um ou do outro sexo, mas essa questão ficou em aberto, podendo-se aplicar o questionario ao policial encontrado no momento da coleta dos dados, independente do sexo.

2.2 - Instrumento para Coleta de Dados

Utilizou-se como instrumento de coleta dos dados um questionário, com questões objetivas sobre as condições Sócio-demográfica e Econômica (idade, religião, estado civil, e renda familiar), Profissional (tempo de trabalho, atividades extras, tempo para as atividades extras), e Familiar (estabilidade e segurança na família, explosão de raiva com os familiares, conflitos familiares relacionados ao ter). Outro instrumento utilizado foi o Inventário de Sintomas de Stress para Adultos (Lipp, 2000b), que objetiva detectar a pessoa estressada, a fase do estresse na qual ela se encontra e a prevalência de sintomas físicos ou psicológicos. Considerando os sintomas das últimas 24 horas como indicativos para a fase de alerta, da ultima semana para a fase de resistência e os sintomas do último mês como indicativos da fase de exaustão. A partir de 07 respostas positivas, no indicativo das últimas 24 horas a pessoa possivelmente encontra-se estresada na fase de alerta, a partir de 04 respostas positivas no indicativo da última semana a pessoa encontra-se na fase de resistência, e com 09 respostas positivas, ou mais, no indicativo do último mês encontra-se na fase de exaustão.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Quadro 1 – Fases e Sintomas do Estresse do Inventário de Sintomas de Estresse para Adultos

Fases do Estresse	Sintomas Físicos	Sintomas Psicológicos
Alerta	mãos / pés frios, boca seca, nó no estomago, aumento de sudorese, tensão muscular, apertar ou ranger dentes, roer unhas, diarreia passageira, insônia ou dificuldade de dormir, hiperventilação, hipertensão arterial súbita e passageira, mudança de apetite.	aumento súbito de motivação, entusiasmo súbito e vontade súbita de iniciar projetos.
Resistência	problemas com a memória, mal estar generalizado sem causa específica, formigamento das extremidades, sensação de desgaste físico constante, mudança de apetite, aparecimento de problemas dermatológicos, hipertensão arterial, aparecimento de úlcera. Tontura/sensação de estar flutuando.	Sensibilidade emotiva excessiva, dúvidas quanto a si próprio, pensar constantemente em um só assunto, irritabilidade excessiva e diminuição da libido.
Exaustão	diarreia freqüente, dificuldades sexuais, insônia, náusea, tiques, hipertensão arterial continuada, problemas dermatológicos prolongados, mudança extrema de apetite, excesso de gases, tonturas freqüentes, úlcera, enfarte.	impossibilidade de trabalhar, pesadelos, sensação de incompetência em todas as áreas, vontade de fugir de tudo, apatia, depressão ou raiva prolongada, cansaço excessivo, pensar/falar constantemente em um só assunto, irritabilidade sem causa aparente, angústia ansiedade diária, hipersensibilidade emotiva, perda do senso de humor.

2.3 Procedimentos de Coletas dos dados

Para o processo de obtenção das informações, foram feitas várias visitas ao batalhão de polícia de interesse da pesquisa e solicitado a formação de grupos de policiais, aos quais foram entregues os questionários, prestadas as informações sobre os mesmos, para em seguida solicitar que respondessem ao instrumento da forma mais sincera possível.

III- RESULTADOS

Com relação aos dados profissionais dos pesquisados, verificou-se que 70,2% estavam trabalhando à mais de 11 anos na polícia militar, o que denota estabilidade profissional em uma época de profundas incertezas no mundo do trabalho. Isso é importante para que o policial possa desempenhar suas funções com autonomia e imparcialidade, ao mesmo tempo que lhe permite um melhor planejamento profissional, seja para carreira militar ou em outros campos de trabalho. Essa possibilidade é reforçada quando percebe-se que 63,8% trabalhava num regime de 12 por 36 horas, o que lhes permitia um bom tempo de descanso e reposição de energias para a próxima jornada, bem como investimentos na sua educação e qualificação. Entretanto, não é bem isso que acontece, pois 43,6% dos pesquisados revelaram que mesmo não sendo permitido

pelo regulamento da atividade policial, utilizavam esse tempo de descanso para realizarem serviços extras, sendo que, dentre estes, apenas 24% afirmaram aproveitar esse tempo para estudar, enquanto 63% desenvolviam atividades como segurança, comércio ou outros serviços que surgissem no cotidiano, dedicando a estas no mínimo 10 horas semanais de acordo com 61% dos respondentes. Porém, quando indagados se tinham problemas relacionados ao “ter” 76,6% informaram que não, o que é uma incoerência, pois se não tivessem tais conflitos não precisariam de uma renda extra para cobrir suas despesas. Entretanto, essa incogruência pode residir no fato de que culturalmente é valorizado a satisfação com o padrão de vida que se tem (que Deus lhe deu), embora se deva trabalhar para progredir na vida. No entanto, tal valor é colocado a prova quando confrontado com uma realidade difícil, em que os policiais precisam de recursos extras para manutenção da sua família. Essa necessidade é decorrente do fato de que o salário percebido pelo policial não é suficiente para proporcionar uma boa qualidade de vida para sua família, o que inclui boa alimentação, moradia, educação, saúde e lazer. Assim, o policial prolonga essa jornada nos seus momentos de folga não restando-lhe tempo suficiente para o necessário repouso e destensionamento, ao mesmo tempo que dedica pouco tempo a convivência familiar.

Nesse sentido, ao analisar o processo de interação do policial no seio familiar percebe-se que 90,4% sentem-se estáveis e seguros na sua relação com a família. Se por um lado esse dado é reforçado pelo fato de que 61,7% apresentam posturas de serenidade e sensatez na relação familiar, o que demonstra uma postura de equilíbrio para a maioria dos policiais, por outro, é contraditório para os 37,2% que disseram ter explosões de raiva na família, principalmente com esposas e filhos. Uma das hipóteses para essa contradição pode residir no fato de que ao manifestar seu descontrole emocional através de explosões raivosas, o policial não encontra forte reação do outro lado, o que lhe permite sentir-se mais seguro em relação aos familiares, que talvez não questione com veemência suas opiniões (ou talvez suas ordens) exatamente por saber que sua reação seria desproporcional. Mas, é importante destacar que o policial também é uma vítima dessa situação uma vez que desenvolve um trabalho com uma intensa carga psíquica (Dejours 1994), sendo necessária bastante atenção e concentração, principalmente nos momentos de ação, para distinguir claramente quais as situações e pessoas que oferecem riscos das que não oferecem, ao mesmo tempo que precisa enfrentar o medo utilizando-se de seus recursos psíquicos, muitas vezes associado ao que Dejours (2003) chamaria de ‘virilidade’. Assim, após uma jornada de trabalho com essas características o indivíduo precisaria de um determinado tempo para sair desse estado de tensão, descansar e reequilibrar suas emoções. No entanto isso não acontece para uma parcela significativa dos policiais, que precisam realizar algum serviço extra, geralmente relacionado ao seu próprio métier, prolongando dessa forma seu estado de tensão. Neste contexto, o tempo que lhes resta para um reequilíbrio físico e mental é insuficiente, e o indivíduo continua sob estado de tensão não tendo paciência e sensatez suficiente para contornar os problemas comuns da convivência familiar.

Desta maneira, quando indagados diretamente sobre o estresse, 79,8% dos policiais apresentaram um quadro negativo para o estresse enquanto 20,2% apresentavam um quadro positivo. Isto, demonstra uma certa coerência quando se percebe que a maioria dos policiais não realizava trabalhos extras e, ainda, que entre aqueles que afirmaram desenvolver outros trabalhos, muitos dedicavam-se aos estudos e, além disso, a maioria vivia em um bom ambiente familiar. Esses dados diferem, em parte, dos apresentados por Cariri, Aleixo & Da Silva (2006) que utilizando a mesma metodologia, e na mesma época, em uma pesquisa com policiais militares de João Pessoa (Capital do Estado da Paraíba), encontraram um percentual de apenas 58,3% de policiais não estressados enquanto 41,7% encontrava-se em situação de estresse. Essa diferença pode ser explicada, provavelmente, pelas assimetrias existentes entre as duas realidades, pois enquanto o presente estudo foi desenvolvido em um batalhão do interior do Estado o outro foi

com policiais da capital e da região do litoral, onde o ritmo de vida é mais intenso, as pessoas precisam se deslocar por maiores distâncias e o custo de vida é mais elevado.

Em relação aos policiais que afirmaram positivamente ao estresse, pode-se dizer que, a maioria destes, encontrava-se entre aqueles que desenvolviam outras atividades remuneradas, às quais dedicava uma parte considerável do tempo que deveria consagrar ao descanso, ao lazer e a família. Assim, além de uma realidade considerada como penosa e mais vulnerável ao estresse (Menezes 2002), o policial ao dedicar-se a outros serviços potencializa seus riscos, permanece sempre sobre tensão, não interage satisfatoriamente com sua família e, assim, torna o estresse uma consequência cada vez mais provável. Desta maneira, observou-se que 84,2% dos policiais estressados encontravam-se na fase de resistência, sendo que, em 57,9% destes predominava a sintomatologia física enquanto que em 36,8% predominavam os sintomas psicológicos. O presente estudo se aproxima dos achados de Cariri, Aleixo & Da Silva (2006) Quanto a predominância da fase de resistência, entre os policiais estressados, bem como, em relação a maior presença dos sintomas físicos, entre estes. No entanto, difere dos resultados encontrados por Morales, Ferreira & Rocha (2000), que em uma pesquisa com policiais militares do Estado, brasileiro, de Minas Gerais encontraram uma predominância de sintomas psicológicos. Assim, ao situar-se na fase de resistência o organismo luta para reestabelecer o equilíbrio ao mesmo tempo que está mais vulnerável ao aparecimento de doenças. No entanto se ele tem sucesso no controle do seu estresse ou se o próprio estressor é eliminado, pode-se voltar ao normal sem seqüelas. Do contrário, há uma evolução para uma fase de agudização do estresse o que é extremamente perigoso para o policial e para a sociedade. Por outro lado, 15,8% dos policiais encontravam-se na fase de alerta, na qual, a princípio, pode-se ser mais produtivo mas, caso perdure, poderá evoluir para a fase de resistência.

IV- CONCLUSÃO

Apartir do exposto, observou-se a existência de duas realidades. A primeira, e predominante, mostra que mesmo que o Policial Militar não ganhasse um salário que lhe permitisse uma melhor condição de vida, esse rendimento, possivelmente, quando somado aos de outros membros da família, parecia ser suficiente para as suas despesas básicas, não obrigando-o a procurar uma renda extra. Provavelmente, essa característica contribuía para uma boa relação familiar, ao passo que ambas, provavelmente, influenciavam positivamente para que a maioria dos policiais militares não se encontrasse estressada.

Por outro lado, percebeu-se que para pouco mais de dois quintos da amostra, essa realidade era bastante diferente e os obrigava a trabalhar além da sua jornada de trabalho na Polícia, seja desenvolvendo outras atividades remuneradas ou estudando para competir por melhores salários, visto que apenas a remuneração da atividade policial era insuficiente para cobrir suas despesas. Neste sentido, acredita-se que esse prolongamento da jornada de trabalho influenciava negativamente na relação familiar, de parte dos policiais e, por conseguinte, esse quadro, quando somado a outros fatores, contribuía para que uma parcela significativa dos policiais apresentassem os sintomas físicos, principalmente, mas também psicológicos, da fase de resistência ao estresse. Entretanto, é importante observar que, mesmo entre policiais que desenvolviam trabalhos extras ou que tinham dificuldades no relacionamento familiar, o estresse não se estabeleceu, o que indica que essa não é uma relação de causa e efeito, bem como, a necessidade de, em pesquisas futuras, aprofundar a investigação buscando compreender os mecanismos utilizados para enfrentar e superar os estressores e não ser atingido pelo estresse.



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PROFESSIONAL STRESS AMONG THE BRAZILIAN POLICEMEN

Stress and police activity in Brazil

I – INTRODUCTION

Stress it has been pointed as the great evil of our time. It can be understood as a reaction of the organism with psychological, physical, mental and hormonal components, that he occurs when the necessity of adaptation to one event or situation of importance it is appears, or either, if he produce when the individual is not capable to answer of “adequate” form to the ambient demands. Stress can in such a way be negative so much as positive. Negative, when the person exceeds its limits and its capacity of adaptation if she depletes, or either, stress in excess. The positive, occurs in its initial phase, of alert. The organism produces adrenalin, provoking spirit,

vigor and energy, making with that the person produce more, either more creative, and takes initiatives positive. It is the phase of the productivity. Much even so, this phase of alert cannot last for much time, therefore the stress can become extreme, changing itself into negative.

Besides causing psychological disturb, the stress has physiological repercussions, a time that, increasing the physical and psychic fatigue, in consequent, lowers the defenses of the individual and this is displayed to the sprouting of somatic illnesses, such as the arterial hypertension, cardiac attacks, apoplexies, ulcers and others, being able in extreme cases, to provoke the death.

Therefore, the effect can be so harmful how much lesser it will be the capacity of the individual in dealing with the agent of stress, adapting to it and to develop an internal defense mechanism. The incidence of stress has increased of uninterrupted form in result of the sprouting of environments of apprehension, conflicts and has disturbed the life of the people, changes brusque and inexorables and intense pressures in the world of the work, which had to a reality each more competitive and exculpatory time. That picture has provoked more serious consequence each time, presenting a complex group of symptoms that demands the appreciation of a team to multidiscipline.

This is a reality sufficient visible currently in the professional world. Although the daily life always has a certain degree of tension, the impact and the control of stress in the life of the organization have been white of decurrent attention and concern of the negative and expensive consequences that the same it provokes, which are reflected in the increasing numbers of the rotation, industrial accidents and absenteeism, in the increase of the costs of medical assistance, in the fall of the amount and quality of the production and the services and, mainly, reflected in the quality of life of the workers and its families.

According to Frankenhaeuser & Gardell (apud De Souza, 2003), the factors of stress in the work is associated to the presence of quantitative and qualitative overload/subload, where the quantitative load represents the volume of demanded mental work inside of determined unit of time while that the qualitative load relates to the complexity of the work and the possibility of application, for the worker, of its capacities and experiences. In this direction, in accordance with Karasek apud Sato (1998), it is the capacity that the worker has to minimize this level of tension, from its possibilities of taking decisions and control his work, that goes to determine if the worker walks more in the direction of the illness or of he health in his work.

In this direction, the organization of the work of rigid form, where the existence in an only way of prescribed operation and tax, leaves few edges to the management of the mental suffering and to the adaptation, they are extremely harmful, being able to lead to the stoppage of the spontaneous psychic activity, to the repression of the psychological functioning, therefore this continuous blockade of the mental functioning will be able to lead to the appearance of somatic illnesses. However, it stress does not arrive in an abrupt form. After the appearance of the agent of stress, it if establishes, being able to disappear in little time or to deepen its presence, depending on the period that the stress situation lasts.

According to Selye (1965), in the initial confrontation with the agent of stress, it appears an alert reaction of and organism prepared either to fight or to run away. When the stress of the agent remains for little time this phase finishes some hours after the elimination of the adrenalin and the restoration of the homostasis, having a re-establishment it organism without that it has had no damage. This is the phase of the action. In this, the person increases its productivity, and when the stress is well managed, she can be used as an engine of motivation, of enthusiasm and energy. In the meantime, in case that the stress agent of lasts or if it is of an extreme intensity, but however non-lethal, the organism, by means of its action repairman, tries to reestablish its balance internal, establishing it the phase of resistance to stress it. In this phase, the person automatically uses all the energy to rebalance itself. When she obtains it, the initial symptoms

disappear and the person has the impression of that she is better. Two symptoms appear in sufficiently frequent way in this phase: the sensation of consuming generalized without apparent cause and difficulties with the memory. The organism is weakened and much more susceptible to illnesses, however if the person uses techniques of control of stress or if the stress factor is eliminated, it can come back to the normal one, without sequels.

However Lipp (2000a), observing this phase perceived a new phase, of almost-exhaustion, therefore this phase if finds enters the exhaustion and resistance phase. This new phase is characterized for a weakness of the person who more is not obtaining to adapt itself or to resist the stress agent. The illnesses start to appear, however still they are not so serious as in the exhaustion phase. Although presenting consuming and other symptoms, the person manages to work and “to function” in the society until a certain point. In this direction, the phase of resistance for being very extensive and to present two distinct moments characterized by the amount and intensity of symptoms, was divided in two parts: the first one mentions the concept to it of resistance of Selye, and the second part mentions an almost-exhaustion phase to it.

The related author affirms, still, that when the stress of agent lasts more, or when other stress of agents occur simultaneously, the process of stress evolves and the psychological exhaustion occurs, then follows the exhaustion phase. When the exhaustion occurs, or when it is next, the illnesses appear quite frequently, as much in the psychic aspect as in the somatic one. Of course, it stress it is not the pathogenic element of these illnesses, it leads to a weakness of the organism in such way that those “programmed pathologies” genetically are disclosed due to the state of present exhaustion.

In relation to the work of the military policeman, the studies related to the health questions comes in such a way if detaching in the scope of the police organization, how much in the Brazilian universities, motivated for the peculiarities of a function that possesses characteristics, considered of the point of view of the physical and psychic health, “dangerous”. On the other hand, a historical moment exists all, in which, questions related to the practical police woman comes being placed in quarrel for the society, not only Brazilian, but also of other countries (Amador & Spode, 2002). At the moment it exists a concern, and a necessity, to become the action of polices more institutional, educator and human being, mainly in its daily boardings in the communities, but without losing the focus of its action against the organized crime. Thus, the policeman this all the time in contact with a reality where it needs to distinguish, clearly, who this of the other side. In this context, the relations lose the naturalness, if coating with fear and distrust of the error and of that this can cause, therefore, still according to author, exists one strong pressure on the individual, aiming at the cohesion of the group, using itself of the regulation to discipline, through the Criminal Code To militate and all the doctrinal and normative documents.

Leaving of this estimated, some studies on the basis of the perspective of stress it, comes being carried through, analyzing the impacts of this work, so specifies, on the health of the policemen. The content of the police work, the routine contact with the death, the violence and the constant pressure of the responsibilities are considered, causing elements of the daily one of the work of damages to the health of the policemen (Amir apud Amador, 2002).

To leave of this conjuncture lived deeply for the military policeman, it can be suggested that it stress police is the incapacity of the policeman to react adequately to the external stimulats. These can be presented in terms of imaginary or real threats, characteristic of the proper profession. These “threats” provoke physiological and emotional reactions, that prepare the organism to face the danger. The fact of the policeman simply to be off service, generates a state of alert that it prepares it to act readily to the threatening stimulats. If this situation remains for long period, provokes a species of organic exhaustion, that added to other problems of financial, personal or psychological order, more still weakens the organism giving place to



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

the psychosomatic illnesses (PMERJ 1994).

For this reason, the stress it is a reality in the police activity, therefore all situation that demands of it the conflict resolution or the maintenance of the order, will produce tensions and, in the majority of the cases, the stress is positive. However, if this state of tension if repeated, varied in the same day or becomes common in the daily one of the policeman, and this does not make use of chances to exercise other dimensions of the life, is provavel well that it has as consequence the ticket of even though stress it of the phase of alert for the exhaustion and resistance phases. Thus, this profisional that places many times its proper life in risk, starts to also face a biological with physical components and psychological disequilibrium that they can come to not only affect proper it, but the organization and the community, through absenteeism, alcoholism, problems emotional, inexplicable changes in the efficiency, irregular performance, impatience and other serious errors (Roman apud Lipp, 1996).

In this direction, the present work had as objective, that is to identify the existence, or not, of the stress between policemen of II Battalion of Military Policy in the city of Campina Grande, well as, the psychossocialysis factors of stress gifts in the work process, in the intention to contribute, from a scientific work, for one better clarification regarding the process health/illness in the work of polices to military, what it will be able to subsidize action on the part of the military command, or same on the part of the union, in the direction to prevent, to prevent or to deal with victimnes of stress. Moreover, to off leave of this study, one also expects to be contributing in the process of construction of the knowledge of the field of health of the worker and, more specifically, between military policemen.

II - METHOD

This study was carried through in Brazil, more necessarily in the city of Campina Grande the second bigger city of the State of Paraíba and one of the greaters of the Brazilian northeast interior, with a population of approximately 400 thousand of inhabitants. Campina Grande is a city of strong commerce, tradition in the industrial leather sector and footwear and counts currently on two universities publishings and two private universities.

The research involved the military policemen of II Battalion of Military Policy that has headquarters in the city. One was about a descriptive exploratory study. Exploratory, because it objectified to approach the researcher of the chosen subject proportioning bigger familiarity with the phenomenon to be studied; descriptive, because it aimed at to the description of the component characteristics of the problem, through the survey of the data, or either, of the direct research, where if it can establish greater interaction, still that soon, with the group of interest. The study the quantitative method had as boarding, for contributing with greater to be able of generalization of the scientific findings, as well as, for the necessity of an initial diagnosis of the situation and thus contributing with subsidies that can improve the conditions of work and mental health of the Military Policeman.

2.1 - Subjects

The State of the Paraíba presents a total of 7.754 effective Military Policemen. Out of these, 1.160.PMs, tied with the II Battalion (unique battalion responsible for the policing of the city and its region) had constituted the universe of the research, being that 94 Military Policemen had composed the sample, considering a reliable interval of 95,5% and an acceptable margin of error of 10% (Arkin & Colton apud De Filippe Junior, 1995). In accordance with the social-demographic and economic characteristics of the military policemen evidenced that 58.5% had one measured of age enter the 31 40 years, which denotes to be a still young corporation, and that 70.2% were married. The predominant religion was to the catholic for tradition with



52,1% e, after that the protestants with 25,5%. As for familiar income, 71.3% earn between 2 and 4 minimum salary. How much to the sex, all the respondents are of the masculine sex, therefore the presence of the women in polices was insufficient, to the statistician point of view, to determine its participation in the sample. Thus, it was not determined how many component they would have to be of one or the other sex, but this question was in open, being able itself to apply the questionnaire to the policeman found at the moment of the collection of the data, independent of the sex.

2.2 - Instrument for Collection of Data

Was used as instrument of collection of the data a questionnaire, with objective questions on the conditions social-demographic and economic (age, religion, civil state, and familiar income), professional (extra time of work, activities, time for the extra activities), and familiar (stability and security in the family, related explosion of anger with the familiar ones, familiar conflicts when having). Another used instrument was morbidity, related in the Inventory of Symptoms of Stress for Adults of Lipp (2000b), that objective to detect the stress person, that is the phase of it stress in which it meets, and, the prevalence of physical or psychological symptoms.

Tableau 1- Phases and Symptoms of the Stress of Inventory de Symptoms de Stress for Adults

Phase of Stress	Physical Symptoms	Psychological Symptoms
Alert	hands/feet cold, dry mouth, knot in estomago, increase of sudorese, muscular tension, to press or to creak teeth, to gnaw nails, diarrhea passenger, insomnia or difficulty to sleep, hyperventilation, sudden arterial hypertension and passenger, change of appetite.	sudden increase of motivation, sudden enthusiasm and sudden will to initiate projects.
Resistance	problems with the memory, badly to be generalized without specific cause, formicate of the extremities, sensation of constant physical consuming, change of appetite, appearance of dermatological problems, arterial hypertension, appearance of ulcer, giddy/sensation to be floating.	extreme emotive sensitivity, doubt how proper itself, to think constantly about one alone subject, extreme irritability and reduction of the libido.
Exhaustion	frequent diarrhoea, difficulties sexual, insomnia, nausea, twitch, continued arterial hypertension, dermatological problems drawn out, extreme change of appetite, frequent excess of gas, giddiness frequent, ulcer, infarct.	impossibility to work, nightmares, sensation of incompetence in all the sectors, will to run away from everything, apathy, depression or drawn out anger, extreme fatigue, to constantly thinking/speak in one alone subject, irritability without apparent cause, anguish daily anxiety, excessive emotive sensitivity, loss of the mood sense.

Considering the symptoms of last the 24 hours as indicative for the phase of alert, of last week for the phase of resistance and the symptoms of last month as indicative of the exhaustion phase. From 07 positive answers, in the indicative of the last 24 hours the person possibly meets in the phase of alert, from 04 positive answers in the indicative of last week, person meets in the phase of resistance, and with 09 positive answers, or more, in the indicative of the last month she meets in the exhaustion phase.

2.3 Procedures of Collections of the data

For the process of attainment of the information, some visits to the battalion of policy of interest of the requested research had been made and the formation of groups of policemen, to whom the questionnaires had been delivered to, given the information on the same ones, for after that requesting that they answered to the instrument of the most sincere possible form.

III- RESULTS

In relation to the professional data of the searched ones, it was verified that 70.2% were working to more than the 11 years in the military policy, which denotes professional stability at a time of deep uncertainties in the world of the work. This is important so that the policeman can play this functions with autonomy and impartiality, at the same time, it allows one good professional planning, either a military career or in other fields of work. This possibility is strengthened when it perceives that 63.8% worked in a regimen of 12 for 36 hours, which allowed a good time of repose and replacement them of energies for next day, as well as investments in its education and qualification. However, it is not well this that happens, therefore 43.6% of the searched ones had disclosed that they used this time of rest to carry through extra services (what it is not allowed by the regulation), being that, amongst these, only 24% affirm to use to advantage this time to study, while 63% developed activities as security, commerce or other services that appeared in the daily one, dedicating to these minimum 10 weekly hours in accordance with 61% of the policemen. However, when inquired if they had problems related to “having” 76.6% had informed that not, what it is a incoherence, therefore if they did not have such conflicts would not need an extra income to cover its expenditures. However, this inconsistency can inhabit in the fact of that culturally the satisfaction with the standard of living is valued that if has (that God gave to it), even so if it must work to progress in the life. However, such value has placed the test when collated with a harsh reality, where the policemen need extra resources for maintenance of its family. This necessity is decurrent of the fact of that the wage perceived for the policeman is not enough to provide a good quality life for its family, that includes good feeding, housing, education, greets and leisure. Thus, the policeman draws out this day at its moments of recess not remaining to it enough time for the necessary rest and relaxation, at the same time that she dedicates to little time to familiar acquaintance.

In this direction, when analyzing the process of interaction of the policeman in the family, perceives that 90.4% felt steady and safe in its relation with the family. On the other hand this data are strengthened by the fact of that 61.7% present positions of serenity and good sense in the familiar relation, what it demonstrates a position of stability for the majority of the policemen, for another one, is contradictory for 37.2% that they had said to have explosions of anger in the family, mainly with wives and children. One of the hypothesis for this contradiction can inhabit in the fact of that when revealing its uncontrols emotional through raging explosions, the policeman does not find fort reaction of the other side, what it allows it to feel itself safer in relation to the familiar ones, that perhaps does not question with vehemence its opinions (or perhaps its orders) accurately for knowing that its reaction would be disproportionate. But, it is

important to detach that the policeman also is one victim of this situation a time that develops one work with an intense psychic load (Dejours 1994), being would necessary sufficient attention and concentration, mainly at the action moments, to distinguish which clearly the situations and people who offer risks of that they do not offer, at the same time that she needs to face the fear being used itself of its psychic resources, many times associated to that Dejours (2003) would call 'virility'. Thus, after a hours of working with these characteristic the individuo would need one definitive time to leave this state of tension, to rest and to rebalance its emotions. However this does not happen for a significant parcel of the policemen, whom they need to carry through some extra service, generally related to its proper to métier, drawing out of this form its state of tension. In this context, the time that remains to them for a physical to rebalance and mental it is insufficient, and individuo continues under tension state not having patience and good sense enough to skirt the common problems of the familiar acquaintance.

In this way, when inquired directly on it stress it, 79.8% of the policemen had presented a negative picture for stress it while 20.2% presented a positive picture. This, demonstrates certain coherence when it perceives that the majority of the policemen did not carry through extra works e, still, that it enters those that had affirmed to develop other works, many dedicated the studies to it and, moreover, the majority lived in a good familiar environment. These data differ, in part, of the presented ones for Cariri, Aleixo & Da Silva (2006) that using the same methodology, and at the same time, one it searches with military policemen of João Pessoa (Capital of the State of the Paraíba), had found a percentage of only 58.3% of policemen whithout stress, while 41.7% met a situation of stress. This difference can be explained, probably, for the existing difference between the two realities, therefore while the present study was developed in a battalion of the interior of the State; another one was with policemen of the capital and the region of the coast, where the life rhythm is more intense, the people need to dislocate themselves for bigger distances and the cost of living is raised more.

In relation to the policemen whom they had positively affirmed to stress, it can be said that, the majority of these, met enters those that they developed other remunerated activities, to which they dedicated considered part of time that would have to consecrate to the rest, the leisure and the family. Thus, beyond a considered reality as painful and more vulnerable to it stress (Menezes 2002), the policemen when dedicating themselves to other services, enlarge their risks, always remains on tension, not interact satisfactorily with their family and, thus, they become stressed as a consequence each time more propable. In this way, it was observed that 84.2% of the stressed policemen met in the resistance phase, being that, in 57,9% of these the physical symptoms predominated while that in 36,8% the psychological symptoms predominated. The present study approaches to the findings of Cariri, Aleixo & Da Silva (2006). How much the predominance of the resistance phase, between the stressed policemen, as well as, in relation to the biggest presence of the physical symptoms, between these. However, he differs from the results found for Morales, Fereira & Rocha (2000), that in a research with military policemen of the State, Brazilian, of Minas Gerais found a predominance of psychological symptoms. Thus, when placing itself in the resistance phase the organism fights to establish the balance at the same time that this more vulnerable to the appearance of illnesses. However if it has success in the control of its stress or if the stress of agent proper is eliminated, can be come back to the normal one without problem. I oppose it - evolution for a phase of intenseness of stress is extremely dangerous for the policeman and the society. On the other hand, 15.8% of the policemen met in the phase of alert, can be more productive but, in case that it lasts, it will be able to evolve for the resistance phase.

IV- CONCLUSION

From the displayed, it was observed the existence of two realities. First, and the predominant one, sample that exactly like the Military Policeman did not gain a salary that allowed one, better conditions it of life, this income, possibly, when added to the ones of other members of the family, seemed to be enough for its basics expenditures, not compelling to look it to it an extra income. Probably, this characteristic contributed for a good familiar relation, to the step that both, probably, influenced positively so that the majority of the military policemen did not meet with stress.

On the other hand, one perceived that for little more than two fifth of the sample, this reality was sufficiently different and it compelled them to work beyond its hours of working in Police, either developing other remunerated activities or studying to compete for better salary, because the remuneration received for the police activity was insufficient to pay its expenses. This direction, it is given credit that this prolongation of the hours of working influenced negative in the familiar relation, of part of the policemen and, for consecutive, this picture, when added to other factors, contributed so that one parcels out significant of the policemen presented the Physical symptoms, mainly, but also psychologig, of the phase of resistance to it stress it. However, it is impotant to observe that, exactly between policemen that developed extra works or that they had difficulties in the familiar relationship, stress was not established, what she indicates that this is not a relation of cause and effect. But, also, it is important to affirm the necessity of in future research, to deep the inquiry being searched to understand the used mechanisms pair to face and to surpass the stress of agent and to be reached without any stress.

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TRAVAIL ET SOUFFRANCE DANS LE SECTEUR DES TRANSPORTS PUBLICS COLLECTIFS BRÉSILIENS

**Nelson Aleixo DA SILVA JUNIOR¹, Maria Joacineide LIA FOOK²,
Walmir RUFINO DA SILVA³ et Bernard GANGLOFF⁴**

¹ Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et
Université d'Etat de Paraíba (Brésil).

nelsonaleixo2000@yahoo.com.br

² Université d'Etat de Paraíba (Brésil).

joyce@spazzio.com.br

³ Département de Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

walmiruf@uol.com.br

⁴ Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et
Département de Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

RÉSUMÉ

Cette étude a eu pour objectif de mesurer l'éventuelle existence d'une souffrance psychique chez les travailleurs des transports publics collectifs de la ville de Campina Grande, la plus grande ville de l'intérieur nord-est brésilien.

La collecte de données a été réalisée par questionnaire, avec des items socio-démographiques, des questions sur l'organisation du travail, et le Self Report Questionnaire (SRQ-20) de Harding (1980), ce dernier instrument permettant de détecter l'éventuelle existence de troubles psychiatriques légers. La population fut constituée de 83 travailleurs des entreprises de transports collectifs publics de la ville, avec une marge d'erreur de 10% et d'un coefficient de confiance de 95%.

Les résultats obtenus montrent une certaine ambiguïté sur le plan de l'organisation du travail, avec pour certains salariés une situation de satisfaction et de plaisir, mais aussi l'apparition de variables déterminant, chez d'autres salariés, de la souffrance psychique. L'analyse des réponses au S.R.Q-20 montre également une prévalence des troubles psychiatriques légers chez 13.3% des travailleurs, troubles essentiellement caractérisés par le fait de se sentir "tendu, nerveux et inquiet" (30.1%). Si finalement on observe donc un faible niveau de souffrance psychique chez ces travailleurs, on peut cependant se demander, d'après certains indices que nous discuterons, si certaines réponses (par exemple aux dimensions comme «aimer le travail» ou «l'importance du travail») ne sont pas en réalité davantage indicatives de stratégies de défense contre la souffrance que reflétant un véritable ressenti.

Mots clefs: travail, santé mentale, souffrance, transports collectifs

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to measure the possible existence of a psychic suffering among the workers of the collective public transports of the city of Campina Large, biggest city of the Brazilian interior northeast.

The collection of data has been made by questionnaire, with socio-demographic items, questions on the work organization, and the Self Report Questionnaire (SRQ-20) of Harding (1980), this last instrument permitting to detect the possible existence of slight psychiatric disorders. The population was constituted of 83 workers of the collective public transport companies of the city, with a margin of error of 10% and a confidence coefficient of 95%.

The obtained results show a certain ambiguity as regards to the work organization, with a situation of satisfaction and pleasure for some employees, but also the apparition of variables determining, among other employees, psychic suffering. The analysis of the answers to the SRQ-20 also shows slight psychiatric



disorders with 13.3% of the workers, disorders essentially characterized by the fact to feel «tense, nervous and worried» (30.1%). Although one so finally observes a low level of psychic suffering among these workers, however, one can wonder, according to some indications that we will discuss, if some answers (for example to the dimensions «to like work» or «the importance of work») are not in reality more indicative of defense strategies against the suffering that the expression of real feelings.

Key words: work, mental health, suffering, collective transports,

TRABALHO E SOFRIMENTO PSÍQUICO NO SETOR DE TRANSPORTES PÚBLICO COLETIVO

I - INTRODUÇÃO

Atualmente, considerando o modo de vida do mundo contemporâneo, onde o trabalhador passa um terço do seu tempo no ambiente de trabalho, interagindo com outros trabalhadores, realizando diversas tarefas que exigem determinados movimentos e um padrão de comportamento, e utiliza os resultados do seu trabalho para manter um determinado estilo de vida é correto afirmar que o trabalho tem papel central na vida do ser humano, atuando na construção de sua subjetividade e influenciando seu modo de vida, podendo fortalecer sua saúde mental ou levá-lo a distúrbios psicossociais, manifestações psicossomáticas ou psiquiátricas. Para Dejours (1986), essa inter-relação entre saúde mental e trabalho está centralizada no papel que a organização do trabalho tem acerca dos efeitos negativos ou positivos que ela possa exercer sobre o funcionamento psíquico e a vida mental do trabalhador, pois entre a organização do trabalho prescrito e quem trabalha, existe um espaço de liberdade, que leva o trabalhador a uma criatividade e uma intervenção sobre o trabalho, possibilitando assim a realização de desejos e, quando esse fato não acontece, ou se esgota, segundo Dejours (1991) a relação homem organização do trabalho é bloqueada, surgindo então o “sofrimento”. Neste contexto, raras são as categorias profissionais que têm acesso a um trabalho verdadeiramente significativo. Quando isso não acontece, resta aos trabalhadores utilizar os hiatos existentes entre o trabalho prescrito e o trabalho real para pôr em evidência toda a sua engenhosidade (Dejours, 1994) na realização do seu trabalho e aguardar o devido reconhecimento ou, quando isso não é possível, passar para o domínio das ideologias defensivas para evitar o sofrimento. Esse também é o cenário da vida dos profissionais de transportes coletivos, os quais cotidianamente levam as pessoas aos seus destinos.

Foi o cotidiano de trabalho desses profissionais que suscitou o interesse por este estudo, na tentativa de buscar compreender a relação entre a organização do trabalho e o processo de desgaste mental nessa categoria. Assim, esse estudo objetivou identificar a existência ou não de sofrimento psíquico entre trabalhadores de transportes coletivos da cidade de Campina Grande-Brasil, bem como identificar os fatores que mais contribuem para ocorrência deste sofrimento, como sua influência na vida cotidiana do trabalhador.

Para tanto, Mendes (2002), acha necessário pensar em saúde do trabalhador, indo desde a sua organização na sociedade até sua realidade de trabalho. Assim sendo, toda a dinâmica da produção, as condições de trabalho e o modo de vida do trabalhador, são fontes importantes para se compreender o processo de saúde, adoecimento e morte dos trabalhadores. Para a referida autora a compreensão dos processos saúde e doença envolvem uma complexa interligação entre os aspectos físicos, psicológicos, sociais e ambientais da condição humana e de atribuição de significados. Corroborando, em parte, com essa perspectiva, Dejours (1994)

afirma que ao mesmo tempo em que o trabalho estrutura, sendo via de acesso à construção de identidade, satisfação e prazer, ele pode sob determinadas condições levar o homem a uma situação patogênica. Reafirmando assim que o trabalho humano possui dois aspectos: um é a sua dimensão de realizador, de satisfação e fonte de prazer, que estrutura o processo de identidade do sujeito e, o outro, é que pode transforma-se em algo nocivo à saúde, levando o sujeito a fatores desencadeantes da doença mental. Neste prisma o trabalho torna-se perigoso para o aparelho psíquico, quando ele se opõe a sua livre atividade. Assim, ao abordar o sofrimento no trabalho Dejours (1996), se reporta às articulações entre o sofrimento singular, que é herdado da história psíquica do indivíduo, e o sofrimento atual, surgido então do reencontro do sujeito com a situação do trabalho, haja vista a sua dimensão temporal. Nesta ótica, ele defende então a existência de dois tipos de sofrimento: o criativo e o patológico.

O sofrimento patológico, apresentado por muitos trabalhadores, começa segundo Dejours (1991) "... quando a relação homem/organização do trabalho está bloqueada, quando o trabalhador usou o máximo de suas faculdades intelectuais, psicoafetivas, de aprendizagem e de adaptação..." (p.52). Ou seja, surge quando o trabalhador não tem mais nenhuma margem para sua livre iniciativa no seu processo de trabalho. Assim, todos os procedimentos, todas as ações ou reações, decorrentes do trabalho são determinadas pela organização do trabalho. Ao trabalhador cabe apenas seguir o que foi prescrito. Assim com o bloqueio da relação homem/trabalho, começa o domínio do sofrimento, onde a energia pulsional que não é descarregada no exercício do trabalho se acumula no aparelho psíquico, provocando um sentimento de desprazer e tensão. Contra essa realidade os trabalhadores constroem estratégias defensivas que têm como função o combate ou, muitas vezes, ocultar o sofrimento para assim protegê-los de seus efeitos maléficos sobre a saúde mental. Desta maneira, mesmo muito intenso, o sofrimento, é razoavelmente bem controlado pelas estratégias defensivas, para assim impedir que se transforme em patologia. Essas estratégias de defesa são a própria negação do sofrimento, a racionalização, a passividade, a resistência e o individualismo.

Deste modo o trabalhador vai construindo seus esquemas defensivos e de ocultação do sofrimento que perpassa segundo Dejours (op.cit) por dois tipos de defesas: coletivas e individuais. Essas defesas não são muito perceptíveis, mas elas indicam que os homens não estão passíveis às pressões existentes na organização do trabalho. As defesas coletivas caracterizam-se pela resistência em falar sobre a doença e o sofrimento. No decorrer dos estudos o autor percebeu que os sistemas coletivos de defesa são específicos de cada grupo social, e surgem a partir de um consenso entre os trabalhadores, funcionando a partir de então como uma regra, coletivamente construída, estando relacionado à natureza de cada organização do trabalho, ao passo que tem um papel muito importante na estruturação, coesão e estabilização dos coletivos de trabalho (Dodier, 1998). No entanto, afirma Dejours (1994), chega um momento que as estratégias tornam-se tão importante para os trabalhadores no enfrentamento das pressões psicológicas do trabalho que eles transformam as estratégias defensivas em um objetivo em si mesma. Neste momento, não fala-se mais em estratégias, mas sim em ideologias defensivas. Ao contrário das estratégias, as ideologias defensivas são encaradas como uma verdadeira promessa de felicidade e o sofrimento passa a ser entendido como consequência do enfraquecimento das ideologias e não mais do próprio trabalho. Dejours (1996) destaca ainda que as defesas coletivas presidem o surgimento de doenças do corpo, em resposta a pressões organizacionais, pois as pressões psíquicas do trabalho não se limitam à saúde mental, mas põe em causa também a saúde física, desencadeando uma psicossomatização. Já os mecanismos de defesa individuais segundo Ventura (2001) surgem como uma estratégia que se manifesta isoladamente, a exemplo do alcoolismo, dos atos de violência sociais etc., e se contrapõem às pressões da organização do trabalho.

Desta maneira, às pressões psíquicas advindas da organização do trabalho, recaem



sobre a vida do trabalhador de forma que ele, no meio dessas pressões, expressa através de mecanismos ou sintomas, seu sofrimento. As expressões de sintomas são elementos primorosos para a compreensão da submissão do corpo a organização do trabalho: as crises de nervos, a ansiedade, as náuseas, os suores, as cefaléias, as dificuldades respiratórias, depressões, os comportamentos neuróticos, doenças psicossomáticas, podem, segundo Pitta (1987), estar relacionados a aspectos específicos de certos grupos, principalmente à organização de trabalho que expõem trabalhadores a atividades perigosas e que produzem mais situações de conflitos que momentos de prazer no trabalho.

No entanto, o sofrimento patogênico não é o único caminho para o qual leva a organização do trabalho. Observou-se, também, que os trabalhadores quando submetidos às diferenças entre o trabalho prescrito e trabalho real, bem como, às situações de perigo e medo existente em determinadas realidades de trabalho, “são capazes de inventar ‘macetes’ do ofício, que lhe dão acesso a um melhor domínio dos incidentes que ocorrem no processo, do que aquele possibilitado apenas pelos procedimentos e regulamentações ditadas pelos executivos e pelo serviço de métodos. (...) inventam procedimentos de trabalho que visam precisamente combater os perigos do trabalho ...” (Dejours, 1994, p.133). Ou seja, nessas situações os trabalhadores constroem “regras de trabalho” ou de “ofícios”, contrários a organização formal do trabalho, mas que tornam-se princípios essenciais para a solução dos problemas que surgem no decorrer do trabalho. De acordo com Dejours (op.cit) nos procedimentos de criação, adaptação e imaginação, o sujeito mobiliza processos psíquicos relacionados a uma forma de inteligência enraizada no corpo, principalmente, que encontra-se sempre em contradição com a norma, sendo verdadeiramente uma inteligência transgressiva, a qual recebe o nome de “inteligência astuciosa”. No entanto, para que essa inteligência astuciosa saia da esfera privada para tornar-se “eficaz socialmente” deve passar pelo processo de validação social, o qual é obtido a partir do reconhecimento de sua utilidade pela hierarquia e, também pelo reconhecimento da habilidade, engenhosidade, talento e beleza pelos seus pares. Assim, a partir da existência das condições psicológicas e sociais necessárias ao seu surgimento, as iniciativas provenientes da inteligência astuciosa entram em ação, mediatizadas por todo um conjunto de relações intersubjetivas, as quais após reconhecidas, pela hierarquia e por seus pares, são capazes de subverter o sofrimento, oriundo da história singular dos sujeitos, em prazer.

II – METODOLOGIA

Esse estudo foi realizado no Brasil, mais precisamente na cidade de Campina Grande a segunda maior cidade do Estado da Paraíba e uma das maiores do interior do nordeste brasileiro, com uma população de aproximadamente 400 mil habitantes. Campina Grande é uma cidade de forte comércio, tradição no setor industrial de couros e calçados e conta atualmente com duas universidades públicas e duas universidades privadas, que congregam próximo de 15 mil estudantes universitários de vários Estados do nordeste brasileiro.

Em relação a utilização de ônibus para o transporte público coletivo, é importante destacar que a cidade utiliza duas modalidades: os ônibus convencionais, que são responsáveis pelo transporte de 90% dos passageiros e, os micro-ônibus, que são ônibus menores, mais confortáveis e que, por isso, tem um preço da passagem mais cara. A operacionalização dos sistema envolve os seguintes profissionais:

Motorista de ônibus convencional- É o responsável pela condução do veículo e controla a entrada e a saída dos passageiros;

Motorista de micro-ônibus- É responsável pela condução do veículo, controla a entrada e saída de passageiros e também recebe o pagamento das passagens pelo passageiro;

Cobrador – trabalha sentado na parte de trás dos ônibus convencionais, sendo responsável por receber o pagamento das passagens e ajuda o motorista a controlar a entrada dos passageiros;

Fiscal de tráfego- É o profissional que faz a supervisão direta do desempenho dos motoristas e cobradores, principalmente no tocante ao cumprimento do tempo de percurso, observando também se este atende o pedido de parada nas estações solicitadas, bem como escuta as reclamações dos passageiros quanto ao desempenho destes.

a. Sujeitos

A população deste trabalho foi composta por 881 trabalhadores das empresas de transportes públicos coletivos da cidade. Para efeito da pesquisa, considerando um coeficiente de confiança de 95,5% e uma margem de erro aceitável de 10%, segundo Arkin & Colton (apud De Felipe Júnior, 1995), foi tomada uma amostra com 83 componentes (quadro 1), a qual foi distribuída proporcionalmente entre as empresas.

Quadro 1- Distribuição da amostra

Cargos	Quantidade na amostra
Motoristas de Ônibus convencional	36
Motoristas de Micro-ônibus	08
Cobradores	35
Fiscais de Tráfego	04
Total	83

De acordo com os dados coletados é possível afirmar que o mercado de trabalho no setor de transportes coletivos é predominantemente masculino, restando as mulheres apenas 6,0% das vagas. Essa informação está de acordo com o esperado, principalmente considerando-se que os profissionais do setor são oriundos das camadas populares, onde a concepção predominante sobre o papel da mulher, defende que estas busquem profissões como enfermeira, cabeleireira, caixa, atividades burocráticas etc., mas não de motoristas, pois como as “mulheres não dirigem bem” essa é uma atividade para homem, o que é reforçado pela postura dos empresários do setor.

Com relação à variável idade, observa-se que a grande maioria dos funcionários (67,4%) tem até 40 anos. A partir dessa idade a participação das demais faixas etárias é decrescente, principalmente para as pessoas que tem mais de 50 anos, as quais representam 12% da amostra. O que indica, de certa forma, uma dificuldade das pessoas dessa faixa etária encontrar colocação no mercado de trabalho.

No tocante a questão salarial, é importante destacar que no Brasil, de acordo com a lei, nenhum trabalhador deve ganhar menos do que um salário mínimo por mês, o que significa 380,00 Reias (217,00 Euros). Neste sentido, observa-se que os motoristas de ônibus convencionais recebem três salários mínimos mensais (aproximadamente 651,00 €); os motorista de micro-ônibus e os cobradores recebem dois salários mínimos por mês (434,00€); enquanto os fiscais de tráfego têm dois salários mínimos e meio como remuneração mensal (542,00 €).

Referente ao nível de escolaridade a população pesquisada oscila entre ensino fundamental incompleto (menos de oito anos de educação escolar) e ensino médio completo (onze anos de educação escolar). Neste aspecto, pode-se considerar que o percentual de funcionários que ainda não concluiu o ensino fundamental (30,1%) ainda é bastante elevado, principalmente se considerarmos que essa é uma categoria que está em freqüente contato com o público, além de constantemente ter contato visual com placas, faixas e letreiros que exigem uma leitura e compreensão rápida. Por outro lado, se somar-se à estes os 30,2% que ainda não completaram o ensino médio, ter-se-á 62,1% de trabalhadores sem ensino médio completo, o que pode ser

considerado um percentual muito elevado para uma cidade que conta com uma boa infraestruturã escolar.

b. Instrumentos para coleta de dados

No processo de coleta de dados foram utilizados dois instrumentos: um questionário contendo 30 questões, distribuídas em duas partes: uma que aborda os dados sócio-demográficos permitindo assim traçar o perfil sócio-econômico da amostra, e uma segunda contendo os dados sobre o trabalho, possibilitando conhecer variáveis indicativas da organização do trabalho, e um segundo questionário, o S.R.Q-20 Self Report Questionaire. Este é um instrumento criado (Harding e outros, 1980) para detecção de distúrbios psicológicos leves, através de sintomas psicoemocionais. Trata-se de um instrumento simples, de fácil compreensão e que exige respostas do tipo “sim” ou “não”. Segundo Pitta (1987) o S.R.Q-20 foi “considerado adequado para medir sintomas indicativos de sofrimento psíquico em populações de trabalhadores, embora não tenha sido construído para este fim” (p.111). De acordo com Silvany Neto e colaboradores (1996), o ponto de corte considerado suspeito de algum distúrbio psíquico, considerando os parâmetros internacionais, é de 7(sete) ou mais respostas positivas. O SRQ-20 é composto pelas seguintes variáveis: Dores de cabeça freqüentes, falta de apetite, dormir mal, assustar-se com facilidade, tremores nas mãos, Sentir-se nervoso tenso preocupado, ocorrência de má digestão, dificuldades de pensar com clareza, sentimento de tristeza recente, chorar mais do que de costume, dificuldades para realizar com satisfação atividades diárias, dificuldades para tomar decisões, dificuldades no serviço (trabalho penoso, que causa sofrimento), sentimento de incapacidade para desempenhar um papel útil na vida, perda do interesse pelas coisas, sentimento de inutilidade sem presteza, idéias de suicídio, sentimento de cansaço constante, sensações desagradáveis no estômago, e sentimento de cansaço com facilidade. Para cada uma destas, deveriam ser respondido sim ou não. A partir de sete respostas “sim” o respondente é considerado como passando por um processo de sofrimento.

c. Procedimentos de coleta dos dados

Quanto à aplicação dos instrumentos, esta, deu-se de forma individual, em horários normal de expediente, nas paradas finais dos coletivos e dentro do próprio ônibus (em horário de menor fluxo). Apenas uma empresa de transportes permitiu a realização da pesquisa dentro da própria empresa, em horário e dia determinado por ela. Em relação às outras empresas, houve facilidade de contato e todos os motoristas e cobradores que chegavam às paradas finais, na empresa ou dentro dos próprios ônibus e que foram abordados e aceitaram participar da pesquisa, foram entrevistados. O tempo médio de cada entrevista, mais a aplicação do questionário do S.R.Q.-20 foi de sete minutos.

III – RESULTADOS

a. A Organização do Trabalho

Quadro 2 – Percepção dos trabalhadores sobre a organização do trabalho

Questões		f	%
Trabalha no que gosta	Sim	75	90,4
	Não	8	9,6
Trabalha somente nesta empresa	Sim	82	98,8
	Não	1	1,2
O trabalho é importante	Sim	80	96,4
	Não	3	3,6
A população reconhece o valor do trabalho	Sim	41	49,4
	Não	42	50,6
Gosta do ambiente de Trabalho	Sim	77	92,8
	Não	6	7,2
O trabalho é monótono repetitivo	Sim	59	71,1
	Não	6	28,9
O trabalho causa medo apreensão	Sim	66	79,5
	Não	17	20,5
O ruído e a poluição atrapalha o desempenho	Sim	44	53
	Não	39	47
Tem faltado ao trabalho	Sim	1	1,2
	Não	82	98,8
Existe um bom relacionamento entre funcionários e passageiros	Sim	74	89,2
	Não	9	10,8
Existe bom relacionamento com os superiores	Sim	80	96,4
	Não	3	3,6
Existe bom relacionamento entre colegas	Sim	82	98,8
	Não	1	1,2
O Salário, é a única fonte de renda	Sim	55	66,3
	Não	28	33,9
O salário é compatível com o que faz	Sim	50	60,2
	Não	33	39,8
Existem pausas para descanso	Sim	60	72,3
	Não	21	25,3
A quantidade e duração das pausas são suficientes para recuperar o cansaço	Sim	54	65,1
	Não	29	34,9
Realiza suas tarefas com independência e autonomia	Sim	66	79,5
	Não	17	20,5
Tem espaço para expressar suas opiniões	Sim	57	68,7
	Não	26	31,3

Percebe-se entre os entrevistados que quase a totalidade, destes, trabalha no que gosta. Esse resultado corrobora a afirmação de Dejours (1991) quando este ressalta que a relação que existe entre homem/trabalho não leva somente à doença e o sofrimento. Ele também é uma fonte de prazer. Assim sendo, gostar do trabalho favorece a saúde mental. Na medida que o ser humano passa a maior parte da vida no seu trabalho, a identificação deste com as características gerais do trabalho é fundamental para estabelecer uma relação saudável entre ambos. Assim, o fato de gostar do trabalho contribuirá positivamente na relação prazer/sofrimento. Corroborando com essa perspectiva, os trabalhadores afirmaram que o seu trabalho é importante, ao mesmo tempo que disseram gostar do ambiente de trabalho o que, possivelmente, está sendo influenciado pela existência de um bom relacionamento entre funcionários e passageiros, com os superiores e também com os colegas de trabalho. Desta forma, tendo uma auto-percepção positiva do trabalho, compreendendo, este, como importante para o funcionamento da sociedade, e somado a isso um ambiente satisfatório, têm-se uma base considerável para manutenção da saúde mental no trabalho (Quadro 2).

Se por um lado, os profissionais de transportes coletivos consideram seu trabalho importante, por outro, de acordo com eles próprios, a população não reconhece o valor do trabalho por eles realizado. Para Herzberg (1968), o reconhecimento é considerado um fator motivacional, assim sendo, essa ausência de reconhecimento pode contribuir para a falta de motivação e satisfação com o trabalho, o que se combinado com outros fatores poderá levar à insatisfação, o que viria à ser uma porta aberta para o sofrimento.

Voltando a discussão sobre as condições de trabalho, muitos dos entrevistados ressaltaram a inadequação dos pontos terminais, que em sua grande maioria não dispõem de local adequado para que motoristas, cobradores e fiscais façam suas refeições, bem como, inexistem água potável e instalações sanitárias satisfatórias. Assim, durante uma jornada de trabalho de sete horas e vinte minutos, eles são obrigados a utilizarem banheiros de «favor» em bares e demais estabelecimentos comerciais das proximidades. Essa ausência de instalações sanitárias é fator de vergonha e humilhação para muitos deles. Os trabalhadores revelaram ainda que consideram seu trabalho monótono e repetitivo o que, segundo Dejours (1991), é um dos principais propiciadores de sofrimento psíquico, pois o sofrimento advém de uma organização de trabalho rígida, que destrói a capacidade de liberdade e criação no trabalho. Porém considerando que a maioria trabalha naquilo que gosta, essa monotonia e repetitividade do trabalho pode ter relativizada sua influência no processo de surgimento do sofrimento.

Discorrendo acerca das condições de trabalho consideradas de risco, 79,5% dos trabalhadores ressaltaram que, devido aos riscos de acidentes e de violência, o trabalho causa medo e apreensão, levando-os a trabalhar sobre tensão constante. Entre os cobradores as maiores queixas são o risco de assaltos e contato com os passageiros agressivos, o que pode influenciar para o surgimento do sofrimento psíquico, dado esse apontado também no trabalho de Albrecht (apud Mendes, 1995). O ruído foi destacado como um fator de desgaste no trabalho, principalmente o barulho do motor, que fica localizado na parte dianteira do veículo. A campainha, o barulho dos passageiros, as buzinas, o trânsito e a poluição são um transtorno constante para 53% dos motoristas entrevistados. Quanto ao salário como fonte de renda, 66,3% dos pesquisados responderam que sustentam suas famílias com esse salário e 60,2% afirmaram que este é compatível com seu trabalho, ao qual se soma o dinheiro recebido pelas horas extras. Em relação as pausas para descanso 72,3% dos trabalhadores confirmaram a sua existência, enquanto que 65% respondeu que estas são satisfatórias. Por outro lado, os trabalhadores revelaram que dependendo do trajeto e das condições de tráfego nas ruas, o que pode provocar atrasos no cumprimento do tempo de percurso, nem sempre essas pausas acontecem, e quando existem são insuficientes para fazer as refeições e descansar, o que pode constituir-se em um fator contributivo para o surgimento do sofrimento uma vez que o trabalhador precisa de tempo

para se recompor físico e mentalmente.

Com relação à autonomia e independência na realização das tarefas 79,5% disseram que existe, enquanto 20,5% afirmou o contrário, pois não podem trabalhar de acordo com seu ritmo pessoal. Para os que responderam que existe autonomia e independência, estas, provavelmente, se referem à maneira de dirigir. Quanto à liberdade de expressão 68,7%, dos entrevistados responderam possuir liberdade e espaço para expressar suas opiniões. Aspecto esse importante na relação do homem com a organização do trabalho. No tocante a autonomia, observa-se que a maioria concordou que esta existe no trabalho. Agora pergunta-se: qual é a autonomia que tem um motorista que faz sempre as mesmas rotas, no mesmo espaço de tempo, fazendo os mesmos movimentos? A resposta óbvia seria nenhuma. Entretanto, é importante considerar que eles responderam que gostam do trabalho e, neste caso, já assimilaram que não existe outra forma de trabalhar em ônibus urbano, e experientes e com sentimento de gosto pelo trabalho, a resposta ao quesito autonomia, provavelmente, acaba sendo condicionada. Entretanto, os 20,5% dos participantes que responderam não ter autonomia, assim o fizeram, possivelmente, por não se sentirem confortáveis realizando suas tarefas nos ritmos de outros, desconsiderando seus ritmos próprios. Estes, talvez tenham tido outras experiências profissionais (ou não) com mais autonomia, assim fazem a comparação, não estando condicionado pela prática como outros empregados das empresas de ônibus.

b. Sintomas Psicoemocionais Como Indicadores de Sofrimento Psíquico

De acordo com os dados obtidos a partir do SRQ-20, é possível afirmar que existe uma incidência pequena de sintomas psicoemocionais como indicadores de sofrimento psíquico. Entretanto, alguns sintomas mesmo não aparecendo de forma preponderante, merecem uma análise mais detalhada.

Analisando-se isoladamente cada variável do SRQ-20 (Self Report Questionnaire), percebe-se um percentual significativo de sintomas psicoemocionais, indicativos de sofrimento psíquico. Estes dados nos mostram que esta população apresenta sintomas que podem atrapalhar o seu desempenho profissional e abalar a saúde, pois 30,1% dos respondentes sentem-se tensos nervosos e preocupados. Isto pode acontecer em decorrência do ambiente ou da própria organização do trabalho. Neste aspecto é importante observar que de acordo com a maioria dos pesquisados a população não reconhece o valor do trabalho que eles desenvolvem. Esta percepção provavelmente é fruto dos desentendimentos que freqüentemente ocorre entre os profissionais e os usuários dos transportes públicos. Isto acontece, muitas vezes em horários de pico, quando o tempo determinado para completar um circular, torna-se exíguo e os motoristas e cobradores, no afã de cumprir os horários, ficam impacientes no momento de acesso ou de saída dos passageiros, gerando desentendimentos. Outra questão que também contribui para isso é o fato dos profissionais de transportes coletivos não serem adequadamente qualificados para lidarem com o público, com isso, muitas vezes, não são disponíveis para prestar informações e se irritam com facilidade. Tudo isso contribui para elevar a tensão, e ainda pode ser acrescido de questões relacionadas a sua vida pessoal e, esta, também sofrerá influência da realidade do seu trabalho. Do ponto de vista do trabalho, talvez, uma das formas de superar isso seja o aumento do número de veículos circulando nos horários de picos, alargando o espaço de tempo para se completar um circular, e investir em treinamento relacionados à atendimento e às relações humanas.

Outra variável que também foi encontrada em um grupo considerável de trabalhadores (24,1%) foi Cansaço Constante. Esse cansaço poderia ser justificado apenas pela carga horária de trabalho, porém seria uma análise simplista. Neste aspecto, é importante considerar que para mais de dois terços dos trabalhadores o trabalho é monótono e repetitivo. Vários estudos já confirmaram que expostos à tarefas monótonas e repetitivas, os trabalhadores sentem um



maior cansaço mental. Isso acontece com os motoristas de ônibus que passam horas repetindo marchas, fazendo os mesmo movimentos de freios, embreagens e aceleração, a cada som de buzinas ou de campainha pedindo parada ou, no caso dos cobradores, receber e dar o troco quando os passageiros pagam as passagens e sempre controlar a subida das pessoas no ônibus. No final da semana, após meses ou anos de trabalho a sensação de cansaço mental é quase que inevitável, principalmente porque todos ainda recebem a “contribuição” do excesso de poluição e de ruídos atrapalhando o desempenho profissional, de acordo com a grande maioria dos trabalhadores pesquisados.

É importante destacar que 20,5% dos respondentes assustam-se com facilidade. Se por um lado isso é influenciado pelo clima de violência existente na cidade, por outro, a questão da segurança nos veículos também é algo que preocupa. Isso pode ser facilmente identificado quando percebe-se que para, aproximadamente, dois terços dos profissionais dos transportes coletivos, o trabalho causa medo e apreensão. Desta forma, trabalhando em uma realidade de insegurança e constantemente expostos a mesma, esse sentimento de vulnerabilidade passa a fazer parte da vida do profissional dos transportes coletivos muito mais do que da população em geral, pois no caso da população as situações de riscos podem ser evitadas reduzindo-se a exposição em horários, locais, ou situações não recomendadas, o que não pode ser feito pelos trabalhadores dos transportes públicos, os quais passam a maior parte do dia em situação de exposição.

Após uma extensa jornada de trabalho monótona e repetitiva, com desentendimentos com passageiros, excesso de ruídos e demais fatores de poluição, alguns trabalhadores ao chegarem em suas casas têm dificuldades para dormir (15,7%) e, provavelmente iniciarão um novo dia de trabalho sem o necessário descanso, para reposição de sua energia física e mental.

Essa realidade interfere nos processos cognitivos dos funcionários de transportes coletivos, podendo leva-los a ter dificuldades para tomar decisões (16,9%), dificuldade para realizar com satisfação suas atividades diárias (15,7%) e percam o interesse pelas coisas (15,7%).

No Entanto, esses dados se referem a realidade da minoria dos pesquisados. Pois no tocante a prevalência de distúrbios psíquicos menores, entre os profissionais das empresas de transportes coletivos, apenas para 13,3% dos pesquisados pode-se afirmar que estão passando por um processo de sofrimento psíquico. Percentual este, inferior aos encontrados em pesquisa de Pitta (1987) que sugere uma prevalência de 20% de sintomas psícoemocionais (transtornos psicológicos leves) em funcionários de hospital e os estudos de Palácios et al. (1997) que mediram uma prevalência de distúrbios mentais entre os trabalhadores de um banco estatal da cidade do Rio de Janeiro e a sua associação com a organização do trabalho, encontrando alta morbidade. Porém para a maioria dos trabalhadores pesquisados, a organização do trabalho não tem gerado sofrimento psíquico, fato esse que relacionados com algumas informações sobre a organização do trabalho, corrobora com os resultados da prevalência de variáveis como: gostar do trabalho, sentimento de importância do trabalho, trabalhar somente nesta empresa, ambiente de trabalho propiciador de um bom relacionamento entre colegas, funcionários e superiores.

IV – CONCLUSÕES

Concernente a organização do trabalho é possível afirmar a existência de uma certa ambigüidade na percepção dos trabalhadores, mesmo havendo uma predominância quantitativa quanto aos aspectos positivos. D’outra forma, podem ser avaliados como influenciando negativamente, exatamente variáveis que contribuem tanto para o surgimento de sentimentos de ausência de satisfação quanto para do sofrimento psíquico, a exemplo do não reconhecimento pelo trabalho e da monotonia do trabalho, além da penosidade das condições de trabalho

No entanto, mesmo considerando essas questões, o índice de prevalência de distúrbios psicológicos leves, encontrado, está abaixo da média se comparado a outros estudos. Esse fato pode ser explicado, possivelmente, por uma considerável utilização de estratégias defensivas individuais e, principalmente, coletivas, o que se pode deduzir a partir das discrepâncias existentes entre a incidência de variáveis na organização do trabalho que influenciariam o surgimento do sofrimento e, a baixa prevalência deste quando da análise do SRQ-20. Desta forma, é provável que os elevados percentuais relativos a autovalorização do trabalho, encontrados nesta pesquisa, na verdade estejam, em parte, servindo como estratégias para “encobrir” o sofrimento, à qual possivelmente se somam atitudes como a negação de opiniões e sentimentos pessoais sobre o trabalho, atribuindo sempre ao “outro”; a passividade diante de situações que exigiriam reação, o individualismo como forma de se proteger e a utilização de brincadeiras que podem desagradar colegas de trabalho, como forma de expressar suas inquietações. Estratégias estas, relacionadas à racionalização, a negação, ao individualismo e a passividade, que foram encontradas nos trabalhos de De Matos (2005), Pinto (2004), Almeida (2002) e Sato (1991).

Entretanto, para além da utilização das estratégias defensivas é importante considerar que a maioria dos trabalhadores não estavam em processo de sofrimento, possivelmente, porque esta realidade de trabalho está em sintonia com a sua economia psíquica (Dejours, 1994), o que pode ser evidenciado no gosto pelo trabalho e pela percepção da importância do trabalho, o que lhe atribui sentido. Além disso, é importante observar a existência de um relacionamento positivo dos funcionários, com os usuários, os superiores e seus colegas de trabalho.

Enfim, pode-se concluir afirmando que mesmo havendo um cenário que propicia o surgimento do sofrimento, este encontra-se presente em menos de um quinto da amostra, e que os sintomas que mais evidenciam esse sofrimento são sentir-se nervoso tenso e preocupado, assustar-se com facilidade e sentir-se cansado o tempo todo.

V – REFERÊNCIAS BIBLIOGRÁFICAS

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WORK AND SUFFERING IN THE SECTOR OF THE BRAZILIAN COLLECTIVE PUBLIC TRANSPORTS

I – INTRODUCTION

Currently, considering the manner of life of the contemporary world, where the worker passes a third of his time in the environment of work, interacting with other workers, carrying out various tasks which require certain movements and a standard of behavior, and use the results of their work to maintain a certain life style it is correct to affirm that work has central paper in the life the human being, acting in construction of their subjectivity and by influencing their manner of life, being able to strengthen their mental health or to take it with hoop nets psychosocial, psychosomatic or psychiatric demonstrations. For Dejours (1986), this relation between mental health and work is centralized in paper, that the organization of work has concerning the negative or positive effects which can exert on psychic operation and the mental life of the worker, therefore between the organization of work prescribed and the one who works, exists a space of freedom, which takes the worker with a creativity and an intervention on work, making possible thus the realization of desires and, when that costume does not arrive, or if exhausts, as Dejours (1991) the relation man organization of work is blocked, appearing the “suffering then”. In this context, rare are the professional categories which have access to a really significant work. When that does not arrive, it remains for the workers to use existing spaces between work prescribed and real work to put in obviousness all its ingeniousness (Dejours, 1994) in the realization of its work and to await the due recognition or, when that is not possible, to pass for the field of the ideologies of defense for avoiding the suffering. That one also is the scenario of the life of the professionals of collective transport, which daily takes the people with their destinations.

It was the daily one of work of these professionals that excited the interest for this study, in the attempt to search to understand the relation enters the organization of the work and the process of mental consuming in this category. Thus, this study it objectified to identify the existence or not of psychic suffering between workers of collective transports of the city of Campina Grande- Brasil, as well as identifying the factors that more contribute for occurrence of the psychic suffering, as also the influence of this suffering in the daily life of the worker.

For in such a way, Mendes (2002), finds necessary to think about the health of the worker, going since its organization in the society until the work. Thus being, all the dynamics of the production, the conditions of work and the way of life of the worker, are important sources to understand the process of health, illnesses and death of the workers. For the related author the understanding of processes health and illness, it involve a complex interconnection between physical, psychological, social and ambient, aspects of the human being condition and attribution of meanings. Corroborating, in part, with this perspective, Dejours (1994) affirms that at the same time where the work structure, being way of access to the identity construction, satisfaction and pleasure, it can underdetermine conditions to take the man to a pathogenic situation. Thus reaffirming that the human work possesss two aspects: one is its dimension of producer, of satisfaction and source of pleasure, that structure the process of identity of the citizen and, the other, is that it can be changed into something harmful to the health, leading subject to the unchaining factors of the insanity. In this prism the work becomes dangerous for the psychic device, when it opposes its exempts activity. Thus, with analyzing the suffering in work Dejours (1996) when approaching the suffering in the work, reports to the joints between the singular suffering, that is inherited of the psychic history of the individual, and the current suffering, appeared then of to find of the subjects with the situation of the work, has seen its dimension secular. In this optic, it defends then the existence of two types of suffering: the creative and the pathogenic.

A pathogenic suffering, presented for many workers, starts according to Dejours (1991)"... when the relation man/organization of the work is blocked, when the worker used the maximum of its intellectual, psycho-affective facultieses, of learning and adaptation... "(p.52). Or either, it appears when the worker does not have plus no edge for its exempts initiative in its process of work. Thus, all the procedures, all the actions or reactions, decurrent of the work are determined by the organization of the work. To the worker it only fits to follow what it was prescribed. Thus with the blockade of the relation man/work, starts the domain of the suffering, where the pulsional energy that is not unloaded in the exercise of the work if accumulates in the psychic device, provoking a feeling of displeasure and tension. Against this suffering the workers construct defensive projects and of occultation, and have as defensive function, to diminish or to fight the suffering. Or either, they elaborate the calls defense strategies and these, in turn, have as function the combat to the suffering, or many times to occult it thus to protect the workers of its maleficent effect on the mental health, thus exactly very intense, the suffering, is reasonably well controlled for the defensive strategies, thus to hinder that if it transforms into pathology. These strategies of defense are the proper negation of the suffering, the rationalization, the passivity, the resistance and the individualism.

Of this way the worker goes constructing its defensive projects and of occultation of the suffering that perpassa according to Dejours (op.cit) for two types of defenses: collective and individual. These defenses are not very perceivable, but they indicate that the men are not passive to the existing pressures in the organization of the work. The collective defenses are characterized for the resistance in saying on the illness and the suffering. In elapsing of the studies the author perceived that the collective systems of defense are specific of each social group, and appears from now on from a consensus between the workers, functioning as a rule, collectively built, being related to the nature of each organization of the work, to the step that



has a very important paper in the structuring, cohesion and stabilization of the collective ones of work (Dodier, 1998). However, he affirms Dejours (1994), arrives a moment that the strategies become so important for the workers in the confrontation of the psychological pressures of the work that they transform the defensive strategies into an objective in same itself. At this moment, he does not say yourself more in strategies, but yes in defensives ideologies. To what I oppose of the strategies is what the ideology defensive is faced as a true promise of happiness and the suffering passes to be understood as consequence of the weakness of the ideologies and not more of the proprio work. Dejours (1996) still detaches that the collective defenses preside over the sprouting of illnesses of the body, in reply the organization pressures. It has seen, that the psychic pressures of the work if do not limit to the mental health, but also puts in cause the physical health, unchaining a psycho-somatisation. On the other hand, the individual mechanisms of defense as Ventura (2001) appear as a strategy that if manifest separately, the example of alcoholism, the social acts of violence etc., and if opposes to the pressures of the organization of the work.

Of this way, to the psychic pressures happened of the organization it work, falls again on the life of the form worker that it, in the way of these pressures, expresses nauseas through mechanisms or symptoms, expresses its suffering. The expressions of the symptoms are important elements for the understanding of the submission of the body the organization of the work: the fits of nerves, the anxiety, the sweats, the chronic headaches, the respiratory difficulties, depressions, the behaviors neurotics, psychosomatic illnesses, can according to Pitta (1987) be related to, the specific aspects of certain groups, mainly the work organization that workers display the dangerous activities and that they produce more situations of conflicts than moments of pleasure in the work.

Meanwhile, the pathogenic suffering is not the unique way for which it takes the organization off work. It was observed, also, that the workers, when submitted to the differences between the prescribed work and real work, as well as, to the situations of danger and existing fear in determined work realities, “they are capable to invent ‘trick’ of I officiate it, that they give access to it to one better domain of the incidents that occur in the process, of the one that made it possible only for the procedures and regulations dictated for the executives and the service of methods (...) to invent work procedures that they necessarily aim at to fight the perigos of the work...” (Dejours, 1994, p.133). Or either, in these situations the workers construct “rules of work” or “office”, contrarivers of the formal organization of the work, but that principles essentials for the solution of the problems become as to appear in elapsing of the work. In accordance with Dejours (op.cit) in the procedures of creation, adaptation and imagination, the subjects mobilizes psychic processes related to a form of intelligence taken root in the body, mainly, that it always meets in contradiction with the norm, being truly a transgressive intelligence, which receives the name from “astute intelligence”. However, so that this cunning intelligence skirt of the private sphere becomes “socially efficient”, must also pass the process of social validation, which has gotten from the recognition of its utility for the hierarchy and, for the recognition of the ability, ingeniousness, talent and beauty for its pairs. Thus, from the existence of the psychological conditions and social necessities to its sprouting, the proceeding initiatives for astute intelligence enter in action, for all a set of intersubjective relations, which after recognized, for the hierarchy and its pairs, are capable to subverte the suffering, deriving of the singular history of the subjects, in pleasure.

II - METHODOLOGY

This is study was carried through Brazil, more necessarily in the city of Campina Grande the second biggest city of the State of Paraíba and one of the greatest of the Brazilian northeast



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

interior, with a population of approximately 400 a thousand inhabitants. Campina Grande is a city of strong commerce, tradition in the industrial leather sector and footwear and counts currently on two universities publishing houses and two private universities, that congregate next of 15 a thousand academic of several States northeast of the Brazilian.

Concerning the use of bus for the collective public transport, it is important to detach which of the two methods the city uses: the traditional buses, which is responsible for the transport of 90% of the passengers and, or the microbus, who is more comfortable and, therefore, has a price of a more expensive ticket. The operation of the system engages the professional following:

The traditional driver of bus - he is the person in charge by conduction for the vehicle and control the re-entry and the exit for the passengers;

The Driver of the microbus - he is responsible for the conduction of the vehicle, controls the re-entry and the exit of passengers and also receives the payment of the ticket by the passenger;

The Receiver- works of seats partly behind the classic bus, being responsible to receive the payment of the tickets and assistance the driver to control the re-entry of the passengers;

The Inspector - he is the professional, who makes the direct supervision of the performance of the drivers and the receivers, mainly relating to the achievement of the time of course, also observing if this one paid attention to the request for required stops in the stations, as well as listener the complaints of the passengers compared to the performance of those.

a. The Subjects

The population of this work was distributed entirely to the workers of the companies of collective public transports of the city. For the effect of the research, considering a coefficient of reliability 95,5% and one acceptable margin of error of 10% in accordance with Arkin & Colton (apud of Felipe Junior, 1995) a sample of 83 employees (table 1) was taken distributed proportionally between the companies.

Table 1 - Distribution of the sample

Post	Sample
Traditional Conducteur of bus	36
Conducteur of microbus	08
Receiver	35
Inspecteur	04
Total	83

In accordance with the data collected it is possible to known that the market of work in the sector of collective transports is predominantly masculine, women remaining only 6.0% of the vacant. This data is in accordance with the awaited one, mainly considering itself that the professionals of the sector are deriving of the popular layers, where the predominant conception on the paper of the woman, defend that these search professions as nurse, hairdressers, cashies, bureaucratic activities etc., but not of drivers, therefore as the “women do not conduire well” are an activity for man, what she is strengthened by the position of the entrepreneurs of the sector.

With relation to the variable age, it was observed that the great majority of the employees (67,4%) are up to 40 years. To break off this age, the participation of what elder age bands it is decreasing, mainly for the people who have 50 years more than, that they represent for 12% of the sample. What shows, in some way, difficulty of people of this age band, to find a rank in the work market.

Relating with the wage question, it is important to detach which in Brazil, of agreement

with the law, no worker must more gain than a minimum salary per month, or is 380.00 Reiais (217.00 Euros). In this direction, it was observed that the drivers of traditional bus receive three minimum salary monthly magazines (651.00€); the driver of microbus and the receiver, gain two minimum salary per month (434.00€); and the inspectors have two minimum wages and half like monthly remuneration (542.00€).

Relative to the education level the searched population oscillates enters incomplete basic education and complete average education. In this aspect, it can be considered that the percentage of employees who had still not completed basic education (30,1%) still sufficiently is raised, mainly to consider itself that this is a category that are in frequent contact with the public, beyond constantly having visual contact with plates, bands and signboards that demand a reading and fast understanding. On the other hand, if to add it to these 30.2% that they had still not completed average education, will have 62.1% of workers without complete average education, a percentage very high for a city considered to count on a good pertaining to school infrastructure.

b. Instruments for collection of data

On the process of collection of data there have been used two instruments: one questionnaire content 30 questions, distributed in two parts: one that approaches the data sociodemographic thus allowing to trace the socio-economic profile of the sample, and the other parts contain the data on the work, making possible to know variable indicative of the organization of the work, and as a questionnaire, the S.R.Q-20 Self Report Questionnaire. This is an instrument created (Harding and others, 1980) for the detection of a lesser psychological riots through symptoms psycho-emotionales. One is about a simple instrument, of easy understanding and that it demands answers of the type “yes” or “not”. According to Pitta (1987) the S.R.Q-20 “was considered adjusted to measure indicative symptoms of psychic suffering in populations of workers, has even so not been constructed for this end” (p.111). In accordance with Silvany Neto and collaborators (1996), the point of cut considered suspected of some psychic riot, considering the international parameters, is of 7 (seven) or more positive answers. The SRQ-20 is composed for the following variable: Frequent headache, lack of appetite, to sleep badly, to scare themselves with easiness, tremors in the hands, a nervous state, a worried one, occurrence of bad digestion, difficulties to think with clarity, feeling of recent sadness, to cry more of than of custom, difficulties to carry through with satisfaction daily activities, difficulties to take decisions, difficulties in the service (laborious work, that cause suffering), feeling of incapacity to play a useful role in the life, loss of the interest for the things, feeling of uselessness without promptness, ideas of suicide, awkward feeling of constant fatigue, disagreeable sensations in the stomach, and feeling of fatigue with easiness. For each one of these, they would have to be answered yes or not. From seven answers “yes” the respondent is considered as passing for a suffering process.

c. Procedures of collection

How much to the application of the instruments, this, was given of individual form, in schedules normal of expedient, the final stops of the collective ones and inside of proper the collective one (in schedule of lesser flow). But a company of transports inside allowed to the accomplishment of the research of the proper company, in schedule and day determined for it. In relation to the other companies, he had easiness of contact and all the drivers and collectors who arrived inside at the final stops, in the company or of the proper buses and that they had been boarded and they accepted to participate of the research, had been interviewed. The average time of each interview, more the application of the questionnaire of the S.R.Q.-20 was of seven minutes.

III - RESULTS

a. The Organization of the Work

Table 2- Perceptions of the workers on the work

Questions	Options	f	%
work likes it	Yes	75	90,4
	Not	8	9,6
It only works in this company	Yes	82	98,8
	Not	1	1,2
the work is important	Yes	80	96,4
	Not	3	3,6
the population recognizes the value of the work	Yes	41	49,4
	Not	42	50,6
It likes surrounding it Work	Yes	77	92,8
	Not	6	7,2
The work is monotonous and repetitive,	Yes	59	71,1
	Not	6	28,9
The work cause fear and apprehension	Yes	66	79,5
	Not	17	20,5
The noise and the pollution confuse the performance	Yes	44	53
	Not	39	47
It has lacked to the work	Yes	1	1,2
	Not	82	98,8
A good relationship between employees and passengers exists	Yes	74	89,2
	Not	9	10,8
Good relationship with the superiors exists	Yes	80	96,4
	Not	3	3,6
A good relationship between travail colleagues exists	Yes	82	98,8
	Not	1	1,2
The Salary, is the only revenue	Yes	55	66,3
	Not	28	33,9
The Salary is compatible with the work	Yes	50	60,2
	Not	33	39,8
Pauses for rest exist	Yes	60	72,3
	Not	21	25,3
The amount and duration of the pauses are enough to recoup the energies	Yes	54	65,1
	Not	29	34,9
It carries through the tasks with independence and autonomy	Yes	66	79,5
	Not	17	20,5
It can express its opinions	Yes	57	68,7
	Not	26	31,3



It was perceived if it matches to the interviewed ones, that almost the whole, of these, work in whom like. This result corroborates the affirmation of Dejours (1991) when this stands out that the relation that exists between man/work does not only take this for the illness and the suffering. It is also a pleasure source of thus being, to like work favors the mental health. In the measure that the human being spends most of the life in its work, the identification of this with the general characteristics of the work is basic to establish a healthful relation between both. Thus, the fact to like work, will positively contribute in the relation pleasure / suffering. While corroborating with this prospect, the workers said that his work is important, at the same time, said that to like the environment of work, possibly, influenced by the existence of the good relations between employees and passengers, with the superiors, and also with the colleagues of work. In this way, having themselves a positive perception of its work, including/understanding, this one, important for the operation of the company, and added to that an environment of satisfactory work, they have a considerable base for the handling of the mental health in work. (Table 2).

So, on the other hand, the professionals of collective transports consider its important work, for another one, in accordance with the majority (50,6%), the population does recognize the value of the work carried through them. In accordance with Herzberg (1966), the recognition is considered a motivation factor, thus being, this absence of recognition can contribute the lack of motivation and satisfaction with the work, but if combined with other factors it will be able to lead to the dissatisfaction, that would lead to a door being opened for the suffering.

Coming back to the quarrel on the conditions of work, many of the interviewed, had stood out the inadequacy of the points terminals, that in their great majority do not make use of adequate place, so that drivers, collectors and inspectors make its meals, as well as, inexistent drinking waters and satisfactory sanitary installations. Thus, during one working day seven hours and twenty minutes, from this form, they are obliged to use bathrooms of "charity" in bars and too much commercial establishments of the neighborhoods. This absence of sanitary installations is a factor of shame and humiliation for many of them. How much to the monotony, as many drivers as collectors, consider its monotonous and repetitive work (71,1%) what, according to Dejours (1991), he is one of the main causes of psychic suffering, therefore the suffering advém of a rigid organization of work, that comes to destroy the capacity of freedom and creation in the work. However considering that the majority works in that likes, this monotony and repetitiveness of work can have relativized its influence in the process of sprouting of the suffering.

Discoursing about the considered conditions of risk work, 79.5% of the workers had stood out that, had with the risks of accidents and violence, work causes the fear and apprehension, having taken them to work it on constant tension. Between the collectors the biggest complaints are the risk of assaults and contact with the aggressive passengers, what it can influence for the sprouting of the psychic suffering, given this also pointed in the work of Albrecht (apud Mendes, 1995). The noise was detached as a factor of consuming in the work, mainly the racket of the engine, that is located in the front part of the vehicle. The bell, the racket of the passengers, the horns, the transit and the pollution are a constant upheaval for 53% of the interviewed drivers. If reporting to the salary as income source, 66.3% of the searched ones had answered that they support its families with this wage and 60.2% of these consider this compatible wage with its work, which the money received by overtime is added. What relates to the pauses for rest 72,3% of the workers confirmed his existence, while 65% answered that those are satisfactory. In addition, workers have revealed that while depending on the way and the conditions of circulations, which can cause delays in the achievement of the time of course, not always these pauses arrive, and they when exist are insufficient to make the meals and to rest, which can become in a contributive factor for the budding of the suffering, therefore hard-

working it requires for time for it to restore physical and mentally.

With relation to the autonomy and independence in the accomplishment of tasks 79.5% had said that it exists, while 20.5% affirmed oppose it, therefore cannot work its personal rhythm in accordance with. For that they had answered that it exists autonomy and independence, these, probably, if they relate to the way to direct. How much to the liberty of speech 68.7%, of the interviewed ones they had answered to possess freedom and space to express its opinions. Aspect this important one in the relation of the man with the organization of the work. In regards to autonomy, it is observed that the majority agreed that this exists in the work. Now it is asked: which is the autonomy that has a driver that it always makes the same routes, in the same space of time, making the same movements? The obvious reply she would be none. However, it is important to consider that they had answered that they like it work and, in this in case that, already they had assimilated that another form does not exist to work in urban bus, and experienced and with feeling of taste for the work, the reply to the question autonomy, probably, finishes being conditional. However, 20.5% of the participants who had answered not to have autonomy, thus had made it, possibly, for not feeling itself comfortable carrying through its tasks in the rhythms of others, disrespecting its proper rhythms. Perhaps these, have had other professional experiences (or not) with more autonomy, thus make the comparison, not being conditional for the practical one as other employees of the bus companies.

b. Psycho-emotional Symptoms for Indicating a Psychic Suffering

If agreement with the data gotten from the SRQ-20, is possible to affirm that a small incidence of psycho-emotionales symptoms as indicating of psychic suffering exists. However, some symptoms exactly not appearing of preponderant form, more deserve a detailed analysis.

Studing separately each variable of SRQ-20 (Self Report Questionnaire), perceives a significant percentage of psycho-emotionales, indicative symptoms of psychic suffering. These data in show them that this population presents symptoms that can confuse its performance professional and shake the health, therefore 30.1% of the respondents feels tense sinewys and worried. This can happen in result of the environment or the proper organization of the work. In this aspect it is important to observe that in accordance with the majority of searched the population does not recognize the value of the work that they develop. This perception probably is fruit of the misunderstandings that frequently occurs between the professionals and the users of the public transports. This happens, many times in peak schedules, when the determined time to complete to circulate, becomes exíguo and the drivers and collectors, in the eagerness to fulfill the schedules, are impatient at the moment of access or exit of the passengers, generating misunderstandings. Another question that also contributes for this is the fact of the professionals of collective transports not to be adequately qualified for deals with the public, this, many times, they are not available to give information and if they annoy with easiness. Everything this contributes to raise the tension, and still its personal life e, this can be increased of the related questions, also will suffer influences of the reality of its work. Of the point of view of the work, perhaps, one of the forms to surpass this is the increase of the number of vehicles circulating in the schedules of peaks, widening the space of time to complete itself to circulate, and to invest in training related to the attendance and to the relations human beings.

Other variable that also it was found in a considerable group of workers (24,1%) was Constant Fatigue. This fatigue could be justified only by the a day's work (07 hours and 20 minutes per day - that in its majority they are not hours races and still the overtime exists), however would be a simplistic analysis. In this aspect, it is important to consider that for more than two terços of the workers the work is monotonous and repetitive. Some studies already had confirmed that displayed to the monotonous and repetitive tasks, the workers feel a bigger



fatigue mental. This happens with the drivers of transports buses that pass hours repeating marches, making same the movements of brakes, clutches and acceleration, to each sound of horns or stopped bell asking for or, in the case of the collectors, to receive and to give I change when the passengers pay it the tickets and to always control the ascent of the people in the bus. In the end of the week, after months or years of work the sensation of mental fatigue is almost that inevitable, mainly because everything still receives the “contribution” from the excess of pollution and noises confusing the professional performance, in accordance with the great majority of the searched workers.

It is important to detach that 20.5% of the respondents are scared with easiness. If on the other hand this is influenced by the climate of existing violence in the city, by another one, the question of the security guard in the vehicles also is something that worries. This can easily be identified when it perceives that for, approximately, two thirds of the professionals of the collective transports, the work cause fear and apprehension. Of this form, working in a reality of unreliability and constantly displayed the same one, this feeling of vulnerability starts to be part of the life of the professional of the collective transports much more of that of the population in general, it has seen that in the case of the population the situations of risks can be prevented scrambling it exposition in schedules, places, or situations not recommended, what it cannot be made by the workers of the public transports therefore pass most of the day in exposition situation.

After an extensive monotonous and repetitive hours of working, with misunderstandings with passengers, excess of noises and too much factors of pollution, some workers when arriving in its houses have difficulties to sleep (15,7%), probably will initiate a new day of work without the necessary rest, for replacement of its physical and mental energy.

This reality intervenes with the cognitivos processes of the employees of collective transports, being able takes them to have it difficulties to take decisions (16,9%), difficulty to carry through with satisfaction its daily activities (15,7%) and loses the interest for the things (15,7%).

Meanwhile, these data is related to the reality of the minority of the searched ones. Therefore in regards to prevalence of lesser psychic riots, it enters the professionals of the companies of collective transports, only for 13,3% of the searched ones can be affirmed that they are passing for a process of psychic suffering. This percentage, inferior to the found ones in research of Pitta (1987) that suggests a prevalence of 20% of psycho-emotionnelles symptoms (less psychiatric riots) in hospital employees and the studies of Palaces et al. (1997) that they had measured a prevalence of mental riots between the workers of a state bank of the city of Rio De Janeiro and its association with the organization of the work, finding high morbidity. However for the majority of the investigated workers, the organization of the work has not generated psychic suffering, fact this that related with some information on the organization of the work, it corroborates with the results of the prevalence of variable as: to like it work, feeling of importance it work, to only work in this company, environment of favourable work of a good relationship between colleagues, employees and superiors

IV – CONCLUSIONS

In relation the organization of the work is possible to affirm the existence of a certain ambiguity in the perception of the workers, exactly having a quantitative predominance to the positive aspects. Other forms, can be evaluated as influencing negative, accurately changeable that contribute in such a way for the sprouting of feelings of satisfaction absence how much it stops of the psychic suffering, the example of not the recognition for the work and of the monotony of the work, beyond the painful of the work conditions .

Meanwhile, exactly considering these questions, the index of prevalence of less psychological riots, found, is below the average if compared to other studies. This fact can be explained, possibly, for a considerable use of individual defensive strategies, mainly, collective, what we can deduce from the existing discrepancies between the incidence of variable in the organization of the work that influence the sprouting of the suffering and, low the prevalence of this when of the analysis of the SRQ-20. In this way, they probable that the high percentages relating to supervaluation of work, found in this research, in truth were, partly, is installation as of the strategies for “dissimulate” the suffering, to which possibly are added attitudes like the negation of opinion and the feelings personal on work, while always allotting to “the other”; passivity opposite situations which would require reaction, individualism like way if to protect and the use of turns which can displease colleagues of work, like way of expressing their concerns. This Strategies, brought back to the rationalization, the negation, the individualism and the passivity, which were found in work of De Matos (2005), Pinto (2004), Almeida (2002) and Sato (1991).

Nevertheless, in addition to the use of the strategies of defense, it is important to consider that the majority of the workers did not meet in suffering process, what can be explained, in some cases, for the fact of that reality of work is in tuning with its psychic economy (Dejours, 1994), what it can be evidenced in the taste for the work and the perception of the importance of the work, what attributes to it sensible. Moreover, it is important to observe the existence of a positive relationship of the morkers, with the usuary, the superiors and its fellow workers.

At last, it can be concluded affirming that exactly having a scene that propitiates the sprouting of the suffering, this meets present in less of one fifth of the sample, and that the symptoms that bring out more suffering they are to feel themselves nervous tense and worried, to scare themselves with easiness and to feel the time all tired.

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EMPATHY IN PSYCHOTHERAPY

Odette Dimitriu

Facultatea de Psihologie, Universitatea „Hyperion”, București

odimitriu@yahoo.co.uk

ABSTRACT

*The course of our research regarding predictive empathy aimed at underlining a particular ability of the psychotherapist – **empathic predictivity**, in the absence of which the psychotherapeutic act could not be carried out efficiently.*

This concept is set forth for the first time within this research. The essence of such particular availability resides in the competence with which the psychotherapist get is to learn the patient's requirements, to project the directions of the therapeutic programme and to anticipate the most probable beneficial results of the treatment.

REZUMAT

*Calea urmată de cercetarea noastră cu privire la empatia predictivă a vizat evidențierea unei abilități particulare a psihoterapeutului – **predictivitatea empatică**, fără de care actul psihoterapeutic nu s-ar putea derula eficient.*

Termenul îl avansăm pentru prima dată în cadrul acestei cercetări. Esența acestei disponibilități particulare rezidă în competența cu care psihoterapeutul ajunge să cunoască cerințele pacientului, să proiecteze direcțiile programului terapeutic și să anticipeze rezultatele benefice cele mai probabile ale tratamentului.

In the fall of 1977, Arthur J. Clark (Professor and Coordinator of the Counseling and Human Development Program at St. Lawrence University, New York), attended a public lecture in Boston presented by Carl Rogers. The address by the eminent psychologist was given in a large auditorium that was filled to capacity. Toward the conclusion of his well-received presentation, Rogers invited questions from members of the audience. At the end of a lively exchange, an older man asked Rogers about the most prominent aspect of his life's work. In response, Rogers, pausing for a moment, stated that in his view, perhaps his most important contribution to the lives of others was his observations and writings on *empathy*. Rogers related further that he wished he had more time to think and write about empathy, but he was currently involved in a number of endeavors that precluded this possibility.

The origin of the meaning of empathy

The modern usage of empathy has roots in German aesthetics when Robert Vischer, in 1873, coined the term *Einfühlung*. In his discussion of aesthetics and form perception, Vischer made reference to *Einfühlung* as a means of coming to know a work of art through the projection of human feelings. For example, when a person observes a piece of art, he or she may experience an inclination to merge or fuse with the object on a physically felt level and lose a sense of self-awareness. In 1897, the German psychologist Theodor Lipps began to discuss *Einfühlung* as a means of perceiving and appreciating art forms, but he subsequently developed a theory that extended the construct into the realm of interpersonal functioning. Through his extensive writing on *Einfühlung*, Lipps conceptually broadened its meaning into the area of understanding others from a psychological vantage point (A. J. Clark, 2007).



Interest in the concept of *Einfühlung* continued to increase into the 20th century. In the United States, Edward Titchener translated *Einfühlung* into *empathy*. With respect to etymology, Titchener's translation of empathy originates by way of the Greek word *empathia*, which means to enter or to be with a person's suffering or passion.

In Romanian psychology, empathy is viewed as an essential trait of the personality, as a „general pattern”, a specific ability of any human being to transpose in the another psychology to reach to an implicit way of communication, an interindividual one (S. Marcus, 1997).

The empathy as an intrinsic component of the personality complex system manifests it self in interaction with other personality traits, temperamental or attitudinal, supporting conducts correlated with the sympathy, altruism, interpersonal cognitive style, and the need of communication.

Resistances to empathy

R. L. Kats (1963) categorizes therapists who do not empathize effectively into five groups:

the „ <i>marginal</i> ” empathizer	- who penetrates only a part of the patient's experience
the „ <i>evangelical</i> ” empathizer	- who is so concerned with changing the patient that he or she fails to empathize effectively
the „ <i>hysteric</i> ” empathizer	- who overidentifies in a symbiotic way
the „ <i>compulsive</i> ” empathizer	- who can identify with one ego state of the patient, but cannot easily shift this identification
the „ <i>rationalistic</i> ” empathizer	- who cannot abandon his or her professional role and underidentifies with the patient

In order to treat patients empathically, the private life of the therapist must have a dignity of its own, offering personal gratification. If the therapist must use the therapeutic situation to compensate for poverty of personal life, the therapist is apt to take from rather than give to the patient.

Empathy training

Cognitive empathy is easily teachable to most beginning therapists. Affective empathy is a process to which a teacher can only introduce the trainee. It is not easily taught, but depends upon the level of ego functioning of the trainee. Affective empathy can be taught to beginning therapists who enter training with healthy levels of ego functioning, but even here is not easily learned. The capacity for affective empathy may be the essence of that which separates the competent from the gifted therapists (J. M. Lewis, 1978).

The two different styles of interviewing (directive interviewing and collaborative exploration) are the first steps in an empathy training. In the directive interviewing, the interviewer selects and controls the direction of the interview (although influenced by the patient's answers). The therapist is clearly the expert and may focus on the patient's symptoms or feelings.

On the other hand, collaborative exploration is a different technique in which the interviewer minimizes the amount of direct and focused questioning and encourages the patient to explore problems. The therapist does so by general requests such as „tell me more” or „please go on”. The therapist also reflects, summarizes, and responds empathically. This style of interviewing is collaborative because the interviewer wants the direction of the dialogue to come from the patient and, in that sense, there is a sharing of power.

Theories of Psychotherapy and Empathy

Empathy as a the therapeutic construct is accepted and practiced across a wide range of contemporary psychotherapy approaches. However, the goals and function of empathic understanding differ among the psychotherapies in a treatment situation. In person-centered therapy and self psychology, empathy is a significant and critical function in the theory and practice of each model. Empathy is also prominent in cognitive-behavioral and cognitive therapy. There is occasional reference to the construct in the written works of each of the therapies, and empathic understanding is observable in therapeutic practice. In various other psychotherapies, empathy is recognizable in the treatment process, but direct reference to the conception is infrequent, and empathic understanding within the professional literature is more often implied than explicitly documented (A. J. Clark, 2007).

In his person-centered therapy, C. Rogers was the first theoretician to explicitly cite the centrality of empathic understanding across the body of his writings. In addition to congruence and unconditional positive regard, empathic understanding was identified as an attitudinal element that contributes to constructive client change in the treatment relationship (A. J. Clark, 2007). Through his endeavors, Rogers formulated and popularized the meaning of empathy as a mode of understanding the frame of reference of another person. His explications of empathy have stimulated extensive research on the effects of empathic understanding and possible means to operationalize the construct for treatment purposes. Other researchers continue to expand on his ideas, and the person-centered approach remains a vital and influential force in contemporary psychotherapy theory and practice.

Within the framework of psychoanalytic psychotherapy, Heinz Kohut developed a self psychology approach that utilized empathy as a data-gathering activity that serves to inform therapeutic interventions that affect curative client or patient change (Tobin, 1991). In this regard, empathy initially serves as a method of observation and a mode of listening that enables a practitioner to make intelligible a client's communications. In a second or explanation phase, the practitioner applies client insights derived from empathic understanding as a requisite condition for use of interpretations. Although self psychology emphasizes an empathic role of the therapist, the approach maintains the classical way of proceeding through observation and inference (Bohart & Greenberg, 1997). It was only in the final years of his life that Kohut (1991) recognized that empathy has a potential to be therapeutic and healing in its own rights. Kohut also conceptualized a central function of empathy in the emotional development of individuals in early life stages and across the lifespan.

In cognitive-behavioral therapy, a collaborative bond between a client and a counselor or therapist is typically viewed as a necessary condition to facilitate the application of specific techniques. Empathic understanding contributes to the development of the therapeutic relationship and assists in clarifying a client's cognitive structures in a treatment situation (Haaga, Rabois, & Brody, 1999; Keijsers, Schaap, & Hoogduin, 2000).

In cognitive therapy, empathy and the exploration of a client's *cognitive distortions* involves an interdependent process (Safran & Segal, 1990). An empathic relationship fosters a type of collaboration that allows for the effective execution of cognitive-behavioral interventions. At the same time, empathic understanding is also to be considered a therapeutic entity that contributes to treatment progress and client change.

Albert Ellis, the founder of rational emotive behavior therapy (REBT) emphasized the importance of full and unconditional acceptance of a client as a part of a close collaboration in the treatment process.

From an REBT perspective, Dryden (1990) conceptualized *affective empathy*, which focuses on client understanding in a vein similar to the person-centered approach. Dryden also proposed a *philosophic empathy* in REBT treatment that conveys to a client an understanding of

the assumptions and convictions that underpin the individual's perceptions (Wilkins, 2003).

For many solution-focused brief therapists, a collaborative relationship provides encouragement to clients as the practitioner attempts to gain a phenomenological understanding of the individual's experiencing (Nystul, 2003; Watts & Pietrzak, 2000). In addition, a therapist empathically assesses a client's strengths and resources and becomes an active partner in goal-setting in order to enhance the pursuit of solutions and change. In the context of an emphatic brief therapy model, Seruya (1997) discussed the importance of empathy in stimulating the potentialities of a client. Seruya observed, „The experience of feeling understood deeply and in a sustained way leads to a greater sense of cohesion, continuity, and vitality of the self”.

In the structure of our investigation model, the main place is taken by the predictive empathy scale proposed by R. F. Dymond. We wish to underline the existence of a specific skill of the psychotherapist's competence – *empathic predictivity*.

The Dymond intuition and empathy scale (1949) starts from the definition offered by R. Dymond for empathy as being the imaginative transposition of the ego into another individual's thought, feeling and action, consistently, structuring the world according to that individual, as well as the G. Allport's definition of intuition regarded as a relationship between self-perception and perception of self by others.

Form the point of view of experimental tasks, this scale contains four aspects:

A. the psychotherapist / patient is requested to self-assess him/herself on a five-step scale, along six bipolar criteria;

B. the psychotherapist / patient is requested to assess his/her partner on the grounds of the specified characteristics;

C. the psychotherapist / patient is requested to self-assess him/herself as he/she believes his/her partner would assess him/her, resorting to the specified criteria;

D. finally, the psychotherapist / patient is requested to assess his/her partner as he/she believes that the latter shall self-assess him/herself, maintaining the same criteria.

Within the herein research, two different types of criteria were built, the first referring to personality characteristics of the partners in the relationship (which we called **criteria-characteristics** and analyzed by means of the **descriptive method**), and the others referring to qualities of the psychotherapeutic process (which we called **criteria-factors** and analyzed by means of the **integrative method**).

Criteria-characteristics:

likeable – unlikeable
 participant – distant
 relaxed – tense
 generous – egotistic
 gentle – aggressive
 resolute – irresolute

Criteria-factors:

involvement – non-involvement in therapy
 trustful – distrustful in therapy
 progress – no progress in therapy
 appropriate therapy – inappropriate therapy
 agreeable therapy – disagreeable therapy
 hope in results – lack of hope

In order to calculate the psychotherapist's empathy, the answers in aspect D of the psychotherapist are compared with the answers in aspect A of the patient, and the answers in aspect C of the psychotherapist are compared with the answers in aspect B of the patient and the other way round, for calculating the patient's empathy. The test can be scored in terms of the number of points to which the individual is wrong in his/her prediction (deviation score) or by calculation of correct predictions (correct score). Assessments were carried out on a 5 (very strong approval with the specified criterion) to 1 (very strong disapproval) basis.

By means of an anticipative mental operation, the psychotherapist and the patient shall try

to take over one another's role and thus gain the perspective of his/her relationship partner.

The four assessments / predictions or aspects of the assessment (A, B, C and D) underlined a few characteristics of empathic predictivity:

- The **psychotherapist** assesses his/her self-image (A) with very high intensity, setting forth criteria-characteristics with evident cognitive saturation (**cooperation, determination and relaxation**, respectively, **involvement, appropriateness and trust**), together with the **hope in the results** of psychotherapy. The **patient** resorts to average intensities (in criteria-characteristics) and average-high (in criteria-factors), setting forth firstly combinations of cognitive saturated and/or emotionally saturated criteria (**cooperation, generosity**, respectively, **hope in results, involvement, appropriate therapy**).

Therefore, we may talk about a different style of prediction, one structured on the special correlativity of characteristics and/or criteria-factors with certain cognitive saturation (predictive), characteristic to the psychotherapist, another structured on a mixed "formula" of cognitive and affective criteria, characteristic to the patient.

- The **psychotherapist** assesses the self image of his/her relationship partner (B) with moderate intensity, placing **cooperation** first, with obvious cognitive saturation and **liking**, saturated affectively, and from amongst the criteria-factors, two with cognitive saturation (**adequacy and involvement**) and one with affective saturation (**pleasantness**). The **patient** assesses the self image of the psychotherapist in quite a different way. The intensity of the characteristics and criteria-factors is very high, and the topic can hardly be identified. Almost all criteria (cognitive or affective) are "convened" to assess the psychotherapist's image in the superlative.

- In aspect (C), ("*How I believe my partner sees me*"), the **psychotherapist** resorts to very high intensity (amplitude) criteria-characteristics and criteria-factors, setting forth the topic of characteristics (**determination, relaxation, cooperation**) and the topic of factors (**trust, involvement, hope ..., adequacy**) in the same style, whereas the **patient** to high average and under average intensity (amplitude), setting forth firstly just one of the characteristics (**cooperation**) and three criteria-factors (**adequacy and involvement** in the sphere of those cognitively saturated and **hope in results**, from the sphere of those affectively saturated). Consequently, the psychotherapist's prediction fully observes the "rules" of a productive anticipation, whereas the patient's is almost absent or fails in both ways.

- Regarding the last aspect of predictivity (D) - ("*How I believe my partner sees him/herself*"), the **psychotherapist** operates with average and high average intensity (amplitude), choosing as criteria-characteristics such as **cooperation and kindness** and criteria-factors such as **adequacy, involvement and hope in the results of the therapy**. The **patient** operates with very high intensity (amplitude), making the hierarchy of criteria-characteristics and criteria-factors superfluous.

Nevertheless, a tendency to situate first criteria-characteristics and factors with certain cognitive saturation can be noticed. Anyway, this time again, the patient tries to build for his/her relationship partner (the psychotherapist) a *festive* image, an excessively emotionally "*motivated*" gratification of the psychotherapist.

The course of our research regarding predictive empathy aimed at underlining a particular ability of the psychotherapist – **empathic predictivity**, in the absence of which the psychotherapeutic act could not be carried out efficiently.

This concept is set forth for the first time within this research. The essence of such particular availability resides in the competence with which the psychotherapist get to learn the patient's requirements, to project the directions of the therapeutic programme and to anticipate the most probable beneficial results of the treatment.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF THE ANAMNESIS IN PSYCHOLOGICAL EXAMINATION TO OBTAIN THE GUN LICENSE

Loredana DROBOT

Universitatea Eftimie Murgu, Departamentul pentru Pregătirea Personalului Didactic, Reșița, România
loredana_drobot@yahoo.com

REZUMAT

Datorită condițiilor socio-economice, a reconversiei profesionale, șomajului, tot mai mulți subiecți se prezintă la cabinetele psihologice pentru obținerea permisului de port-armă. Uneori, angajarea subiectului ca agent de pază reprezintă singura posibilitate financiară a familiei din care provine, dar nu întotdeauna aceasta este o soluție viabilă. Psihologul se confruntă, astfel, cu o seamă de probleme, dileme în activitatea pe care o desfășoară, dar niciodată nu-și permite să realizeze o anamneză sumară a candidatului. Pentru a fi eficient în demersul său, psihologul trebuie să realizeze o anamneză cu accentuarea antecedentelor heredocolaterale (eventual cu suprimarea factorilor psihologici implicați în sănătate și boală) și să determine subiectul la o analiză proprie asupra responsabilității postului vizat. De asemenea, fișa de examinare concepută de psiholog și propusă spre completare subiectului, poate realiza o ierarhizare a competențelor fișei de examinare, urmând aplicarea probelor psihologice și interpretarea rezultatelor. Prin discuția finală psiholog-subiect se putea realiza, dacă mai era cazul, responsabilizarea subiectului examinat prin profesiunea practică. Concomitent, subiectul realizează o reflecție asupra atributelor necesare în exercitarea cu competență a profesiei. Înregistrarea tuturor protocoalelor la itemi ce vizează descrierea profesiei, permite conceperea psihoprofesiogramei agentului de pază cu permis port-armă.

ABSTRACT

Because of the socio-economic conditions, the professional fluctuation, the unemployment, more and more subjects came to the psychological laboratory to obtain the gun license. Some time, the subject is employment as an agent on watch represent the only financial possibility for the family of which he belongs, but not always this is the viable solution. The psychologist is confronted with any problems, difficulties in the activity which he had realize, but he never can be allowed to make a brief examination of the candidate. To be efficient in his step, the psychologist must realize an anamnesis with the accentuation of the hereto-collateral antecedents (possible, with the canceling of the psychological factors implicated in health and disease) and determine the subject at a personal analysis about the responsibility of the wished job. Also, the examination slip which is conceive by the psychologist and proposed for writing to the subject, can realize a hierarchical system of the competencies from examination slip. After that, continued the application of the psychological tests and the interpretation of the results. Through the ultimate discussion psychologist-subject, is possible to make, if is necessary, the responsabilisation of the examined subject for the practiced profession. Concomitantly, the subject realized a reflection of the attributes necessary for practicing with competence. The registering of all the proceedings at the items that make a profession description, allowed the conceiving of the psychoprofessiograme for the agent on watch with gun license.

Because of the socio-economic conditions, the professional recon version, the unemployment, many persons ascertain to the domains in which it asked the obtaining of the gun license. So, the agents on watch are a segment of the psychological examinations that solicitude psychological professionalism. The purpose of this work is the obtaining of some reference points in the next elaboration of the profesiograma for the agents on watch with gun, starting from the anamnesis slip administrated to the subjects at the beginning of the psychological examination. The objectives are:



- the locating of the personal characteristics of the subjects (weak points, forte points of them personality)
- the identification of the most important realizations from the lives of the subjects to the moment of psychological examination,
- The identification of the most important practice abilities and the psychological characteristics necessary for the agents on watch with gun.

The sample had formed from 120 subjects who came to the psychological laboratory to obtain the gun license, in 2006-2007, the subjects being the agents on watch with gun from the different institution from Caras-Severin. The medium age of the subjects is 45 years, for subjects being men.

As principal method, I used the anamnesis slip, conceived for more dimensions:

- the general characteristic (the information about the subject),
- the professional route (Where he had worked, what he likes, dislikes in the actual profession),
- the personal characteristics (weak points, forte points of them personality),
- the realizations,
- The practice abilities and the behavior, all with the reference at the actual profession of the on watch with.

I conceived the anamnesis slip, account of the information from the previous years, as result of the psychological examinations realized in the psychological laboratory, also the points of references given in the work of Ticu Constantin “The psychological examination of the personal” (Ed. Polio, Iasi, 2004). The slip is:

ANAMNESIS SLIP

The undersigned..... born at..... in place..... having C.I. series.....number.....CNP.....liberated by..... at the date.....I declare, on my responsibility that I feel rested, I do not drink alcohol or other substances in last 24 hours, I do not have pains or discomfort states witch could affect me psychic or psychological.

The psychological examination it effect at the institution solicitude with my accord, in consideration for.....

The anamnesis

1. Identification dates

Legal status/ married, not married _____

Children _____ of which in maintenance _____

Father / the profession _____

Mother/ the profession _____

The studies _____

Auto driving, the categories _____

Military service / satisfied, not satisfied _____

Actual health _____

Hederocolateral antecedents _____

Personal antecedents _____

Familial antecedents _____

Accidents at work _____

Accident in driving _____



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

2. The professional experience

Which is your professional experience? The professional route

Which is your actual profession? _____

What aspects of your work like you? _____

What aspects of your work dislike you? _____

3. Personal characteristics

How you characterize your personality? Which are the traits of your personality?

Which are the forte points of your personality?

Which are the week points of your personality?

Which is the most important realization until this moment? Why?

I date and sign this declaration, knowing that my declaration is under the art.474, penal code, regarding to the false in declarations, the action is punish with prison from 1 year to 3 years or with penalty.

The exigencies of the job

1. What practice abilities or professional competences are necessary for this job?

a) Chose 7 abilities from the list (mark with "x" on the list)

b) Make a hierarchy with the 7 chosen abilities (___), note with 1 the most important, with 2 the second like importance,with 7 the main important)

0 ___ to act with promptitude

0 ___ to adapt to new situation fast

0 ___ to resist to permanent effort

0 ___ to resist to the pressures, to the psychological stress

0 ___ to have style in solving the problem

0 ___ to have an agreeable presence

0 ___ to prove the spirit of observation

0 ___ to have practice sense

0 ___ to have rapidity in making decisions

0 ___ to do not make bad decisions

0 ___ to have sense presence

0 ___ to be personal in what he doing

0 ___ to organize efficient the activity

0 ___ to have managerial abilities

0 ___ to make understood

0 ___ relation abilities with the others

0 ___ to be always amiably, calm

0 ___ to have negotiation abilities, to obtain for good what he wants

0 ___ the capacity to convince

0 ___ the capacity to work in team

0 ___ the capacity to work alone

0 ___ to could follow and control efficient more problems similarly

0 ___ to understand the vision of other

0 ___ to be always punctual



- 0 ___ to be nonconflictual
 0 ___ to have loyalty in relation with manager
 0 ___ to have respect in front of public
 0 ___ confidentially
 0 ___ to select rapidly and efficient the information
 0 ___ to have the capacity to synthesize
 0 ___ to manifest flexibility in thinking
 0 ___ to have a logic rationale, mathematic
 0 ___ to identify rapidly the problems
 0 ___ to find efficient solutions
 0 ___ to speak a foreign language
 0 ___ the competences in legislation
 0 ___ apt to write rapports of synthesize
 0 ___ abilities with computer
 0 ___ the abilities to use fax, copiator, e/mail, internet

Identify the other competences!

- 0 _____
 0 _____

2. Which are the psychological traits for this job?

a) Chose 7 characteristics from the list (mark with "x" on the line in front of them)

b) Make a hierarchy (use the same model).

- | | | |
|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|
| 0 ___ courageous | 0 ___ friendly | 0 ___ respectful |
| 0 ___ altruist | 0 ___ strong psychic | 0 ___ communicative |
| 0 ___ ambitious | 0 ___ whit imagination | 0 ___ constant |
| 0 ___ attractive | 0 ___ sentimental | 0 ___ prudent |
| 0 ___ authoritarian | 0 ___ sincere | 0 ___ adaptable |
| 0 ___ calm | 0 ___ whit intuition | 0 ___ open to dialog |
| 0 ___ energetic | 0 ___ patient | 0 ___ decided |
| 0 ___ enthusiast | 0 ___ just, righteous | 0 ___ disciplinant |
| 0 ___ flexible | 0 ___ tolerant | 0 ___ perseverant |
| 0 ___ obstinate | 0 ___ meticulous | 0 ___ humor sense |
| 0 ___ intelligent | 0 ___ competitive | 0 ___ spontan |
| 0 ___ implicated | 0 ___ logic, rational | 0 ___ resolute |
| 0 ___ reserved | 0 ___ popular | 0 ___ independent |
| 0 ___ passionate | 0 ___ provocateur | 0 ___ pleasant |
| 0 ___ detached | 0 ___ operative | 0 ___ efficient |
| 0 ___ skilful | 0 ___ objective | 0 ___ original |
| 0 ___ reliable | 0 ___ cooperant | 0 ___ exigent |
| 0 ___ honest | 0 ___ with imagination | 0 ___ perspicacious |
| 0 ___ optimistic | 0 ___ with initiative | 0 ___ well balanced |
| 0 ___ obedient | 0 ___ delicate | 0 ___ receptive (careful) |
| 0 ___ | | |

I date and sign this declaration, knowing that my declaration is under the art.474, penal code, regarding to the false in declarations, the action is punish with prison from 1 year to 3 years or with penalty.

Date:

Signature:

THE PRESENTATION OF STUDY RESULTS

The completion of the anamnesis slips necessitated 15-20 minutes, where it was necessary the psychologist offered the additional information's)

- The subjects from the sample characterized them in this way: communicative and sociable (62, 5%), serious, punctual (24, 16%), calms (8, 33%), the other Responses: courageous, autodidacts, ordinates (5, 1%).

- The strong points of the subjects in them conception were the serious (50, 88%), the ambition and the perseverance (25%), the correctitude (14, 16%) and the amiability (10, 83).

- The weak points of the personality structure at the examined subjects in their conception were> the trust to big in the persons (39, 61%), the regret that their did not followed high studies (23, 33%), the exaggerate sensibility, the tiredness, the weak tolerance at stress (24, 99%). A segment of subjects had not identified a weak point in their personality (12, 07%).

- The most important personal realization had appreciated as being: the realization of a family and the birth of children (73, 33%) and the acquisition of the material things (house, car – 22, 5%). The professional realizations had mentioned in percent of four, 16%.

The hierarchy of the practice abilities necessary for agents on watch with gun I realized in conformity with a stage (in diminution order from the most important one until the main important -7). So, this profession necessity the next practice abilities>

- The promptitude, the punctuality,
- The effective organization of the activity with the fast identifications of the problems, than fast finding of the solutions and the observation quality,
- The holding of the calm with the resistance to the psychic pressing and the fast selection of the information,
- The holding of some agreeable presence, the rapidity in taken the decisions, the competence of working in team, the capacity of working alone, and ability in negotiating.
- The loyalty in front of chiefs and the knowing of the legislation,
- The resistance of the permanent effort,
- The flexibility in thinking.

The profesiograma should include the followed psychological quality and moral characteristics:

- honest, prudent, authoritarian and courageous,
- Disciplinant, calm.
- intelligent, sincere,
- strong psychic, objective,
- Energetic
- Humor sense.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results had not the pretension of the generalization but we considered a point of reference for the continuation of the study and of the other studies. If we take account of this results, so we must select that psychological proves which may followed the practice abilities presented in this study. Because of the socio-economic conditions, the most subjects had to change the career, so, they follow the professions like agent of watch or employ at the watch. The subjects from this study have one-year experience in practice in this profession. The subjects suggest trough chooses the most observances, their practice for least one year. If the anamneses slip necessity time for completing, I consider that allowed the obtaining of the results necessary



for the psychology, and for subjects one possibility to autoreflection and conscientiousness of some aspects of his work. Evidently, the slip can be perfectible. The most important aspect is the necessity of thinking of the best psychological proves concerning to the psychological qualities and practice abilities. The forming courses, which had organized, focused on the development of the presented abilities, the studies, the solution of some possible problems generated by deficit are aspects of this abilities, being necessary for the profession of agent a watch with gun.

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DÉSIRABILITÉ SOCIALE ESTIMÉE DE L'ACCEPTATION DES INJUSTICES PROFESSIONNELLES: UNE ÉTUDE SUR DES CHÔMEURS

Coralie DUCHON¹ et Bernard GANGLOFF²

¹Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France).

duchon.coralie@wanadoo.fr

²Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et Département de Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

RÉSUMÉ

Les travaux de Lerner, notamment, ont montré que face à un individu ainsi injustement victime d'événements négatifs, nous nions fréquemment l'existence de l'injustice faite, pour cela, à responsabiliser la victime. Existerait donc, dans l'esprit des individus, une tendance à considérer que «les gens obtiennent ce qu'ils méritent et méritent ce qu'ils obtiennent», c'est-à-dire à considérer que le monde est, globalement, un monde de justice.

Nous savons qu'une norme est en partie définie par le fait qu'elle est l'objet d'une valorisation sociale, et nous avons, lors de travaux précédents, observé, d'une part que cette croyance en un monde juste fait l'objet d'une telle valorisation, et d'autre part que les individus sont conscients de cette valorisation. Nous avons également remarqué, lors d'une autre étude, que s'abstenir de toute protestation face à des injustices professionnelles, qu'accepter ces injustices, conséquence logique de la croyance en un monde juste, fait également l'objet d'une valorisation sociale.

Nous présentons ici un travail complémentaire ayant pour objectif de montrer que les individus, en l'occurrence des demandeurs d'emploi, sont conscients de la désirabilité sociale de ces conduites d'acceptation des injustices professionnelles.

Mots clés: *désirabilité sociale, injustices professionnelles, norme sociale, chômeurs.*

ABSTRACT

Lerner's researches have notably shown that, when we are confronted to victim of negative unfair events, we frequently deny the existence of injustice, even if it means blaming the victims for it. So individuals would tend to consider that "people get what they deserve and deserve what they get", that is to say, they consider the world as a whole world of justice.

We know that a norm is partly defined as an object of social valorization, and we were given to see, in previous studies, that, on the one hand, this belief in a fair world was the object of such a valorization, and that, on the other hand, individuals were aware of this valorization. We also noticed, in another study, that the refraining from protesting face to injustice at work, - that is to say, accepting the injustice, as a logical consequence of our belief in a fair world -, was another means of achieving social valorization.

We will introduce here a complementary work, whose purpose is to show that individual, and job seekers in particular, are well aware of the social desirability of acceptance behaviours regarding work's injustice.

Key words: *social desirability, professional injustice, social norm, and the unemployed.*

1. INTRODUCTION

La vie quotidienne conduit chacun de nous à croiser, plus ou moins régulièrement, des hommes et des femmes confrontés à des situations objectivement injustes; qu'il s'agisse d'un voisin, d'un ami, ou même d'un membre de notre famille. Parfois, c'est par la télévision, la



radio ou la presse, que nous apprenons qu'Un tel ou Une telle, anonyme des faits divers ou célébrité, vient de subir une épreuve à l'évidence injuste. Or les travaux de Lerner, notamment, ont montré que face à un individu ainsi injustement victime d'événements négatifs, nous nions fréquemment l'existence de l'injustice quitte, pour cela, à responsabiliser la victime (*cf.* par exemple Lerner, 1980). Existerait donc, dans l'esprit des individus, une tendance à considérer que «les gens obtiennent ce qu'ils méritent et méritent ce qu'ils obtiennent», c'est-à-dire à considérer que le monde est, globalement, un monde de justice.

Nous savons qu'une norme est en partie définie par le fait qu'elle est l'objet d'une valorisation sociale, et nous avons, lors de travaux précédents, observé, d'une part que cette croyance en un monde juste fait l'objet d'une telle valorisation (Gangloff 2006), d'autre part que les individus sont conscients de cette valorisation (Duchon et Gangloff 2006). Nous avons plus précisément montré: d'une part que des recruteurs confrontés aux réponses que des demandeurs d'emploi étaient censés avoir fournies à un questionnaire de croyance au monde juste préféraient systématiquement embaucher les candidats croyant vivre dans un monde juste que des candidats n'y croyant pas; d'autre part que des chômeurs incités, dans le cadre d'un recrutement, à se montrer sous leur meilleur jour, adaptaient systématiquement davantage de conduites témoignant de leur croyance en un monde juste que de conduites inverses. Il a enfin aussi été remarqué, lors d'une autre étude présentée également ici, à Timișoara (Gangloff, 2007), que s'abstenir de toute protestation face à des injustices professionnelles, qu'accepter ces injustices, conséquence logique de la croyance en un monde juste, fait également l'objet d'une valorisation sociale.

Nous présentons ici un travail complémentaire ayant pour objectif de montrer que les individus, en l'occurrence des demandeurs d'emploi, sont conscients de la désirabilité sociale de ces conduites d'acceptation des injustices professionnelles.

2. PROCÉDURE

2.1. La population

60 demandeurs d'emploi (30 hommes et 30 femmes) ont répondu à un questionnaire d'injustices professionnelles selon le paradigme de l'auto-présentation surnormative *versus* contrenormative: la moitié a répondu au questionnaire avec une consigne surnormative, la seconde étant confrontée à une consigne contrenormative. Sur cette population, 36 sujets étaient au chômage depuis moins d'un an et 24 depuis plus d'un an; 38 avaient moins de 25 ans, 16 entre 25 et 49 ans, et 6 plus de 49 ans.

Le tableau 0 illustre cette répartition.

Tableau 0: répartition des effectifs dans les différentes conditions expérimentales

	Hommes	Femmes	Total
Consigne surnormative	15	15	30
Consigne contrenormative	15	15	30
Total	30	30	60

2.2. L'instrument de mesure

Le questionnaire de réactions face aux injustices professionnelles (*cf.* annexe) est constitué de 3 scénarios: 2 cas de népotisme se traduisant soit par une non embauche (cas 1) soit par un licenciement (cas 3), et un cas de licenciement par manque de souplesse (ou d'allégeance) de

la part de la victime (cas 2).

Faisant suite à chacun des 3 scénarios, 9 questions étaient présentées, et la moitié de nos sujets devait cocher les réponses en suivant une consigne surnormative (répondre en donnant la meilleure image de soi), la seconde moitié avec une consigne contrenormative (répondre en donnant une image négative de soi).

La 1^{ère} question était destinée à savoir si le scénario proposé mettait en scène une situation juste ou injuste. Les 8 questions suivantes consistaient en des conduites que la victime avait adoptées, ou devrait adopter.

Les 8 conduites proposées étaient 5 conduites de passivité et 3 conduites d'activisme: 1) la responsabilisation morale de la victime (c'est la personnalité de la victime qui explique ce qui lui est arrivé), 2) la responsabilisation comportementale de la victime (la victime a eu un comportement fautif), 3) l'évocation d'un futur compensant l'injustice (il s'agit d'une minimisation de l'aspect négatif de la situation en considérant celle-ci comme très éphémère: tout va bientôt rentrer dans l'ordre), 4) l'évocation d'un futur favorisant la victime (il s'agit d'un renversement, par évocation d'un futur positif, de l'aspect négatif de la situation actuelle: la victime constatera plus tard que c'est bien mieux ainsi), 5) l'évocation d'une impuissance historique (est évoqué ici le fait que, dans un cas comme celui là, on est toujours impuissant), 6) une action de contestation collective légale, 7) une action de contestation judiciaire (donc légale) et individuelle, et enfin 8) une action de contestation individuelle mais hors normes.

A chacune des 8 propositions, les sujets devaient répondre en choisissant une réponse parmi 4 (tout à fait d'accord, d'accord, pas d'accord, pas du tout d'accord), ces 4 possibilités étant ensuite, au niveau du traitement, regroupées en 2: d'accord/pas d'accord.

Il fut attribué: pour la 1^{ère} question et par scénario, 1 point en cas d'accord avec la réponse «juste» et 0 point en cas de désaccord (ainsi, pour les 3 scénarios groupés, la note 3 signifie totalement juste et la note 0 totalement injuste); pour chacune des 5 propositions de passivité, la note 1 à chaque réponse «d'accord» et 0 à chaque réponse «pas d'accord» (ce qui signifie que, par scénario, la note 5 témoigne d'une passivité maximale du sujet et la note 0 d'une passivité minimale, soit pour les 3 scénarios groupés une étendue de 0 pour la passivité minimale à 15 pour la passivité maximale); pour chacune des 3 propositions de protestation, la note 1 à chaque réponse «d'accord» et la note 0 à chaque réponse «pas d'accord» (par scénario, la note 3 témoigne ainsi d'un activisme maximal et la note 0 d'un activisme minimal, soit pour les 3 scénarios groupés une étendue de 0 pour l'activisme minimal à 9 pour l'activisme maximal).

Les tests statistiques utilisés pour l'analyse des résultats sont, d'une part le rapport de Fisher, d'autre part le coefficient de corrélation de Bravais Pearson.

3. RÉSULTATS

Le tableau 1 met en évidence l'absence de différences entre les réponses des hommes et celles des femmes, ce qui nous permet de construire le tableau 2 sur lequel nous observons que la consigne surnormative donne significativement lieu (par rapport à la consigne contrenormative):

- à davantage de déclarations d'injustices (nous reviendrons plus tard sur ce point, qui semble paradoxal),
- à davantage de réponses en termes de passivité,
- et à moins de réponses en termes d'activisme.



Tableau 1: Moyenne des réponses des sujets en fonction de leur genre et de la consigne, et significativité des différences entre hommes et femmes, intra-consigne.

N.B.: pour la 1^{ère} question (juste/injuste) et pour les 3 scénarios groupés, la note 3 signifie totalement juste et la note 0 totalement injuste, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 1,5 (0,5 par scénario x 3 scénarios); pour les 5 propositions de passivité et les 3 scénarios groupés, l'étendue est de 0 pour la passivité minimale à 15 pour la passivité maximale, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 7,5; pour les 3 propositions de protestation et les 3 scénarios groupés, l'étendue est de 0 pour l'activisme minimal à 9 pour l'activisme maximal, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 4,5.

		Juste/injuste	Passivité	Activisme
Consigne surnormative	Hommes	1,133	10,867	3,4
	Femmes	0,733	9,8	3
	Différence	0,6	1,067	0,4
	<i>Rapport de Fisher</i>	1,71	0,62	0,22
	<i>p</i>	<i>p=0,201</i>	<i>p=0,439</i>	<i>p=0,639</i>
Consigne contrenormative	Hommes	2,4	5,733	4,2
	Femmes	2	4,133	4,867
	Différence	0,4	1,6	0,667
	<i>Rapport de Fisher</i>	1,42	1,41	0,43
	<i>p</i>	<i>p=0,242</i>	<i>p=0,245</i>	<i>p=0,516</i>

Tableau 2: Moyenne des réponses des sujets, hommes et femmes regroupés, et significativité des différences en fonction la consigne ($p < 0,05$ est noté en gras).

N.B.: pour la 1^{ère} question (juste/injuste) et pour les 3 scénarios groupés, la note 3 signifie totalement juste et la note 0 totalement injuste, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 1,5 (0,5 par scénario x 3 scénarios); pour les 5 propositions de passivité et les 3 scénarios groupés, l'étendue est de 0 pour la passivité minimale à 15 pour la passivité maximale, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 7,5; pour les 3 propositions de protestation et les 3 scénarios groupés, l'étendue est de 0 pour l'activisme minimal à 9 pour l'activisme maximal, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 4,5.

	Juste/injuste	Passivité	Activisme
Consigne surnormative	1,033	10,333	3,2
Consigne contrenormative	2,2	4,933	4,533
Différence	1,167	5,4	1,3
<i>Rapport de Fisher</i>	19,85	31,86	4,108
<i>p</i>	<i>p < 0,01</i>	<i>p < 0,01</i>	<i>p = 0,04</i>

Pour autant, si malgré l'absence de différences hommes/femmes consignée au tableau 1, les résultats sont examinés en séparant les genres, nous remarquons (au tableau 3), pour les réponses d'activisme, que seules les femmes font significativement moins appel à l'activisme avec la consigne surnormative qu'avec la contrenormative.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 3: Moyenne des réponses des sujets en fonction de leur genre et de la consigne, et significativité des différences entre les consignes, intra-genre ($p < 0,05$ est noté en gras).

N.B.: pour la 1^{ère} question (juste/injuste) et pour les 3 scénarios groupés, la note 3 signifie totalement juste et la note 0 totalement injuste, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 1,5 (0,5 par scénario \times 3 scénarios); pour les 5 propositions de passivité et les 3 scénarios groupés, l'étendue est de 0 pour la passivité minimale à 15 pour la passivité maximale, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 7,5; pour les 3 propositions de protestation et les 3 scénarios groupés, l'étendue est de 0 pour l'activisme minimal à 9 pour l'activisme maximal, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 4,5.

		Juste/injuste	Passivité	Activisme
Hommes	Consigne surnormative	1,133	10,867	3,4
	Consigne contrenormative	2,4	5,733	4,2
	Différence	1,067	5,134	0,8
	Rapport de Fisher	7,26	15,17	0,65
	<i>p</i>	$p=0,01$	$p<0,01$	$p=0,42$
Femmes	Consigne surnormative	0,733	9,8	3
	Consigne contrenormative	2	4,133	4,867
	Différence	1,267	5,667	1,867
	Rapport de Fisher	9,65	16,69	4,64
	<i>p</i>	$p<0,01$	$p<0,01$	$p=0,04$

La plus grande fréquence de déclarations d'injustices avec la consigne surnormative (par rapport à la contrenormative) nous a par ailleurs conduit à examiner les corrélations entre nos 3 variables dépendantes (réponses juste/injuste, réponses de passivité, et réponses d'activisme) intra chacune des deux consignes. Nous observons cependant (tableaux 4 et 5) qu'aucune corrélation n'est significative.

Tableau 4: corrélations, avec la consigne surnormative, chez les hommes, les femmes, et globalement (hommes et femmes regroupés) entre appréciation de la justice, stratégies passives et stratégies actives ($p < 0,05$ est noté en gras).

		Juste/injuste	Passivité	Activisme
Hommes	Juste/injuste	1		
	Passivité	0,36	1	
	Activisme	0,06	-0,26	1
Femmes	Juste/injuste	1		
	Passivité	0,01	1	
	Activisme	-0,18	-0,35	1
Hommes + Femmes	Juste/injuste	1		
	Passivité	0,19	1	
	Activisme	-0,01	-0,27	1



Tableau 5: corrélations, avec la consigne contrenormative, chez les hommes, les femmes, et globalement (hommes et femmes regroupés) entre appréciation de la justice, stratégies passives et stratégies actives ($p < 0,05$ est noté en gras).

		Juste/injuste	Passivité	Activisme
Hommes	Juste/injuste	1		
	Passivité	0,14	1	
	Activisme	0,33	-0,23	1
Femmes	Juste/injuste	1		
	Passivité	-0,04	1	
	Activisme	-0,13	-0,30	1
Hommes + Femmes	Juste/injuste	1		
	Passivité	0,09	1	
	Activisme	0,05	-0,28	1

Nous avons alors tenté d'examiner à nouveau ces corrélations mais en regroupant les deux consignes: ce regroupement permet de faire en sorte que les effets de chacune des deux consignes se compensent réciproquement et ainsi d'approcher les réponses que les sujets auraient fournies en indiquant ce qu'ils pensaient réellement, de manière honnête, sans tenter de donner telle ou telle image d'eux-mêmes. Le tableau 6 (sur lequel n'apparaît aucune différence significative hommes/femmes) traduit ce regroupement et nous avons, à partir de ce tableau, étudié à nouveau les corrélations entre nos 3 variables dépendantes. Nous remarquons alors seulement (tableau 7), globalement et chez les femmes (mais pas chez les hommes), une corrélation négative significative entre réponses de passivité et réponses d'activisme.

Tableau 6: moyenne des réponses des sujets, les 2 consignes étant groupées.

N.B.: pour la 1^{ère} question (juste/injuste) et pour les 3 scénarios groupés, la note 3 signifie totalement juste et la note 0 totalement injuste, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 1,5 (0,5 par scénario x 3 scénarios); pour les 5 propositions de passivité et les 3 scénarios groupés, l'étendue est de 0 pour la passivité minimale à 15 pour la passivité maximale, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 7,5; pour les 3 propositions de protestation et les 3 scénarios groupés, l'étendue est de 0 pour l'activisme minimal à 9 pour l'activisme maximal, avec donc une moyenne théorique de 4,5.

	Juste/injuste	Passivité	Activisme
Hommes	1,867	8,3	3,8
Femmes	1,367	6,967	3,933
Hommes + Femmes	1,617	7,633	3,867



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 7: corrélations, les deux consignes étant regroupées, chez les hommes, les femmes, et globalement (hommes et femmes regroupés), entre appréciation de la justice, stratégies passives et stratégies actives ($p < 0,05$ est noté en gras)

		Juste/injuste	Passivité	Activisme
Hommes	Juste/injuste	1		
	Passivité	-0,09	1	
	Activisme	0,22	-0,29	1
Femmes	Juste/injuste	1		
	Passivité	-0,31	1	
	Activisme	0,07	-0,46 ($p=0,01$)	1
Hommes + Femmes	Juste/injuste	1		
	Passivité	-0,17	1	
	Activisme	0,14	-0,37 ($p<0,01$)	1

4. DISCUSSION ET CONCLUSION

Il a été observé (Gangloff 2007) que les recruteurs valorisaient les salariés faisant preuve, face à une situation manifestement injuste, de passivité et de peu d'activisme. Nous remarquons ici que les chômeurs ont bien intégré cette valorisation différenciée (notamment les femmes en ce qui concerne la dévalorisation de l'activisme). Nous constatons également qu'en regroupant les deux consignes nous obtenons une corrélation négative entre passivité et activisme, mais uniquement chez les femmes. Cela semble donc signifier que les femmes sont, comparativement aux hommes, plus conscientes du risque que prend, en milieu professionnel, un individu contestataire. Cette donnée peut ainsi ouvrir la porte à des études complémentaires sur le réalisme comparé des hommes et des femmes (notamment en milieu professionnel).

Il a également été observé, dans la même étude (Gangloff 2007), que les recruteurs valorisaient les salariés ne niant pas les injustices lorsqu'elles étaient flagrantes, c'est-à-dire les salariés non seulement réalistes mais également honnêtes; les salariés osant avouer qu'ils étaient bien conscients d'être confrontés à des situations professionnelles anormales. Cela permet de lever le paradoxe sur le plus grand nombre de déclarations d'injustices dont font état nos chômeurs avec la consigne surnormative, et sur l'absence de corrélation entre le caractère juste/injuste de la situation et les réactions de passivité/activisme: nos chômeurs ont bien intégré cette valorisation du réalisme avoué, mais ils ont également intégré que ce réalisme ne devait surtout pas, s'ils souhaitaient être «bien vus», conduire à des réactions visant à rétablir la justice. Reste maintenant à savoir comment ces salariés peuvent supporter ce qui doit vraisemblablement consister en un conflit intra-psychique...

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ANNEXE: LES 3 CAS

Cas 1

René est à la recherche d'un emploi depuis plus d'un an. La plupart des CV qu'il envoie restent sans réponse, ou alors il lit toujours la même chose: «Après examen de votre candidature, nous avons le regret de ne pouvoir y donner une suite favorable. Nous sommes cependant persuadés que vous trouverez rapidement un emploi correspondant à vos compétences...». René va bientôt cesser de percevoir les ASSEDIC. Il a suivi plusieurs stages de Techniques de Recherche d'Emploi, il téléphone ou se présente à toutes les adresses qu'on lui indique, mais c'est toujours la même chose: il a trop peu d'expérience ou il en a trop, il a trop peu de formation ou il en a trop.. Il ne sait plus quoi faire, il est de plus en plus découragé.

Ce qui a mis le feu aux poudres, ce sont peut-être les derniers entretiens qu'il a eu, pour un poste qui l'intéressait beaucoup. Il a d'abord rencontré un recruteur, puis le chef du service où il y avait le poste, puis encore quelqu'un d'autre... A chaque fois, il a eu l'impression que tout s'était bien passé; d'ailleurs, si ça n'avait pas été le cas, on ne l'aurait pas convoqué à tous ces entretiens.. Et puis «vlan»: alors qu'il croit que tout est bon, on lui dit qu'il n'est pas pris. Ou plus exactement quelqu'un lui laisse entendre qu'il est bien le meilleur candidat, mais que le poste est depuis le départ réservé au fils ou au neveu d'untel, et que la procédure était truquée. Ce n'était que «du bidon». René est abattu. Il n'a plus envie de rien. Il a envie de tout laisser tomber. D'autant qu'il se dit que ce n'est sans doute pas la 1^{ère} fois qu'il se présente pour un poste qui en fait n'est pas disponible. Si c'est toujours comme ça, René pense que ça ne sert à rien de continuer à chercher un emploi.

Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.

1. Ce refus d'embauche de René vous semble:

Totalement juste Juste Injuste Totalement injuste

2. La prochaine offre d'emploi sera la bonne:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

3. Puisque René était le plus compétent, ce n'est peut-être pas parce que le poste était "réservé" qu'il n'a pas été pris, mais peut-être aussi à cause de sa personnalité:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

4. René n'a peut-être pas adopté les bons comportements pendant le entretiens, sinon, puisqu'il était le plus compétent, il aurait peut-être quand même été embauché:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

5. Puisque c'était une offre d'emploi truquée, René aurait dû porter plainte:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

6. René aurait dû faire un scandale et menacer de tout révéler si on ne le prenait pas:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



7. René ne pouvait rien faire: les recruteurs ont toujours le dernier mot:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

8. René aurait dû tout de suite demander à l'Association Régionale des Chômeurs d'intervenir:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

9. De toutes façons, dans une entreprise comme celle là, René n'aurait pas été bien. C'est mieux qu'il n'ait pas été pris: il trouvera mieux ailleurs:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

Cas 2

Francis a été licencié et recherche un nouvel emploi. Il a un entretien avec son conseiller. Voici son récit:

«J'ai travaillé dans cette agence régionale pendant plusieurs années. J'ai pris volontairement et accepté beaucoup de responsabilités, et j'ai prouvé que j'étais vraiment capable de faire du bon boulot. Là dessus, je n'ai jamais eu aucun reproche, bien au contraire. En fait, les problèmes ont commencé avec l'arrivée d'un nouveau chef d'agence. Je n'accepte pas qu'on me demande n'importe quoi: quand un projet me semble mauvais, ou quand une procédure me semble inefficace, je n'hésite pas à le dire. Si je m'investis dans mon travail, ce n'est pas pour que quelqu'un d'autre, même un chef, prenne des décisions idiotes qui réduisent mes efforts à zéro. J'ai d'ailleurs appris plus tard que mon nouveau chef d'agence n'avait eu son poste que parce qu'il avait beaucoup de relations à la Direction Générale parisienne, et non pas du fait de ses compétences... Mais le problème c'est que j'ai été de plus en plus souvent en conflit avec ce nouveau chef, jusqu'au jour où il m'a convoqué pour un entretien préalable avant licenciement. Il a reconnu que je faisais du bon travail, mais il m'a aussi dit qu'il n'acceptait plus que je conteste ses décisions. J'ai bien essayé de me défendre, mais sans succès: quelques jours plus tard, je recevais ma lettre de licenciement».

Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.

1. Le licenciement de Francis vous semble:
Totalemt juste Juste Injuste Totalemt injuste

2. Francis aurait dû porter plainte:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

3. Même si Francis est compétent, ce n'est sûrement pas quelqu'un malin: pour ne pas avoir ce type de problème, quand on conteste, il faut le faire avec plus de diplomatie:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

4. On peut comprendre que Francis vive très mal d'avoir été licencié. Mais une fois son licenciement décidé, il ne pouvait plus rien faire: les employeurs sont toujours les plus forts:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord



5. Malgré sa compétence, Francis aurait dû cesser de contester. En continuant ainsi, il ne pouvait qu'avoir des problèmes:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

6. C'est un mal pour un bien, Francis trouvera mieux ailleurs:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

7. Lors de l'entretien, Francis aurait dû menacer son chef. Par exemple le menacer de révéler à la Direction Générale toutes les erreurs de gestion commises dans l'agence si'il était licencié:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

8. Francis aurait dû faire appel à un syndicat:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

9. Ce n'est qu'une mauvaise période à passer. Francis retrouvera certainement bientôt du travail et il oubliera tout ça:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

Cas 3

Tout se passait bien pour Roger jusqu'au jour où, suite à une opération chirurgicale qui se passe mal, il doit rester plusieurs mois en arrêt maladie. A son retour, il apprend que, pendant son absence, il a été remplacé par quelqu'un de moins compétent que lui, mais qui est le fils de l'un des chefs de service de l'entreprise. Le patron de l'entreprise propose alors à Roger un licenciement à l'amiable, ce que Roger refuse.

Depuis, sa vie professionnelle est un enfer. On ne lui transmet plus aucune information, on l'exclut de toutes les réunions; on lui donne des ordres sans cesse contradictoires, pour des tâches idiotes et sans aucun intérêt. En fait, on ne lui donne plus aucun véritable travail. Il est «mis au placard». On veut le faire craquer pour qu'il quitte l'entreprise de lui-même...

Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.

1. Ce qui arrive à Roger vous semble:

Totalement juste Juste Injuste Totalement injuste

2. Roger ne peut rien faire: soit il démissionne et se retrouve au chômage, soit il subit, même si c'est dur. De toutes façons, on ne gagne jamais dans une épreuve de force avec son employeur:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

3. Roger est sans doute compétent, mais aussi quelqu'un de "buté", sinon on lui donnerait à nouveau un travail normal:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

4. Si Roger n'arrive pas à retrouver une situation normale, c'est sans doute que malgré sa compétence il n'adopte pas les bons comportements:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

5. Roger devrait avertir l'inspection du travail:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
6. Roger devrait lui aussi rendre la vie impossible à ses chefs, jusqu'à ce qu'ils acceptent de lui donner à nouveau du travail:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
7. Ce licenciement aura un côté positif et montrera à Roger la vraie mentalité de son employeur. Mieux vaut que Roger parte au plus vite: il trouvera certainement mieux ailleurs:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
8. Roger devrait contacter un syndicat:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
9. Roger doit seulement attendre un peu: dans quelque temps, tout finira par rentrer dans l'ordre:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

ESTIMATION OF THE SOCIAL DESIRABILITY OF THE ACCEPTANCE OF INJUSTICE AT WORK: A STUDY ON THE UNEMPLOYED

1. INTRODUCTION

In our everyday lives, each of us is more or less bound to meet men or women confronted to obviously unfair situations – our neighbours, friends, and relatives, whoever they may be. Sometimes we learn through the media that such or such, famous or unknown, has just been unjustly severely tested. However, Lerner's researches have notably proved that, when we are confronted to victim of unfair negative events, we frequently tend to deny the very existence of the injustice, even if it seems blaming the victims themselves for it (Cf. for example Lerner, 1980). Thus, individuals would tend to consider that "people only get what they deserve and deserve what they get", which means considering the world as whole, as a world of justice.

We know that a norm is partly defined as an objective of social valorization, and we were given to observe, in previous studies, that, on the one hand, this belief in a just world was the object of such a valorization (Gangloff, 2006), and that, on the other hand, individuals are well aware of this valorization (Duchon and Gangloff, 2006). More precisely, we have shown that, on the one hand, recruiters who were confronted to the job seeker's answers to the questionnaire about the belief just world, would better give the job to the applicants who believed that they lived in a fair world, than hire the applicants who thought they did not.

On the other hand, they noticed that the unemployed – who had to be at their best for recruitment – would systematically choose to behave much more as thought they believed in a fair world, than the contrary. At last, in another study presented here in Timisoara, we have also noticed that the fact of refraining from protesting faced to professional injustice, and of

accepting injustice, as a logical consequence of the belief in a just world, can also be seen as a social valorization.

We are presenting here a complementary work, which aims at proving that individuals more precisely job seekers, are well aware of the social desirability of those acceptance behaviours regarding work injustice.

2. PROCEDURE

2.1. Population

60 job seekers (30 men and 30 women) answered a questionnaire on injustice at work, according to the over-normative versus counter-normative self-introduction paradigm. 50 % answered the questionnaire with an over-normative instruction. The 50% left was confronted to a counter-normative instruction. 36 people out of this population had been out of work for less than a year, and 24 for more than a year, 38 were under 25 years old, 16 were between 25 and 49 years old, and 6 were over 49 years old.

Chart 0: Breakdown of the population according to the various experiments.

	Men	Women	Total
Over-normative instruction	15	15	30
Counter-normative instruction	15	15	30
Total	30	30	60

2.2. The measuring instrument

The questionnaire on the reaction faced to unfair working conditions is made of 3 scenarios: two cases of nepotism resulting in a non-employment (case 1), or a redundancy (case 3), and a case of dismissal for lack of flexibility (or of allegiance), on behalf of the victim (case 2).

Along with the 3 scenarios, 9 questions were asked and half the respondents had to tick the answers according to an over-normative instruction (answers giving one self best image). The second half had to obey a counter-normative instruction (answers giving a negative self-image).

The 1st question aimed at determining whether the scenario was introducing a fair or an unfair situation.

The 8 possible behaviours were 5 passive and 3 active behaviours:

1) The victim's moral responsibility (the victim's personality accounts for what happened to him);

2) The victim is responsible for his behaviour (the victim had an offending behaviour);

3) The evocation of a future making up for the injustice (a minimization of the negative aspect of the situation while considering it as very brief) – all is going to be fine soon!

4) The evocation of a future favouring of the victim (it is about a reserving of the negative aspect of the present situation through the evocation of a positive future) – the victim will realise later that things are such better so.

5) The evocation of historical helplessness (the fact is that in such a case, are cannot be but helpless);

6) A collective legal controversy;

7) An act of individual (therefore legal) controversy, and finally,

8) An individual, a controversy out of norms.

For each of the 8 suggestions, the respondents had to choose between 4 answers (fully agree-agree-disagree-fully disagree). Then, the 4 possibilities were studied and divided in 2

groups points were assigned as followed:

To the first question and for 1 scenario, one point in a case of agreement with the “fair” answer; 0 points in a case of disagreement (thus for the 3 scenarios altogether, mark 3 meant fully fair, and mark 0 totally unfair).

To each of the passive suggestions, mark 5 revealed a maximum passivity from the respondent, and mark 0, a minimum passivity.

Thus for the 3 scenarios altogether ranging from 0 for 5 minimum passivity to 15 for maximum passivity. For each of the 3 suggestions of protest, mark 1 to every “agree” answer, and mark 0 to every disagree answer (for each scenario, mark 3 reveals a maximum activism, and mark 0 a minimum activism, thus for each of the 3 scenarios altogether, ranging from 0 for minimum activism to 9 for maximum activism).

The statistical tests used for the analysis of the results are, one the one hand, fisher’s report, and, on the other hand, Bravais Pearson’s correlation coefficient.

3. Results

Chart 1 emphasizes the lack of differences between the men’s and the women’s answers. It allows us to draw chart 2 on which we can see that over-normative instruction imply clearly enough:

- more statements of injustice (we will come back later to this point, which seems paradoxical);
- more answers in terms of passivity;
- less answers in terms of activism.

Chart 1: Average marks of the respondents’ answers according to their gender and the instructions and significant differences between men and women. **N.B.:** For the 1st question (fair/unfair) and for the 3 scenarios altogether, mark 3 means “totally fair” and mark 0 means “totally unfair”, with therefore a theoretical average mark of 1.5 (0.5 for each of the 3 scenarios). For the 5 passive suggestions and the 3 scenarios altogether, ranging from 0 for minimum passivity to 15 for maximum passivity, with therefore theoretical average mark of 7.5. For the 3 suggestions of protest and the 3 scenarios altogether, ranging from 0 for a minimum activism to 9 for maximum activism, with therefore a theoretical average mark of 4.5.

		Fair/Unfair	Passivity	Activism
Over-normative instruction	Men	1,133	10,867	3,4
	Women	0,733	9,8	3
	Difference	0,6	1,067	0,4
	Report of Fisher	1,71	0,62	0,22
	p	<i>p</i> =0,201	<i>p</i> =0,439	<i>p</i> =0,639
Counter-normative instruction	Men	2,4	5,733	4,2
	Women	2	4,133	4,867
	Difference	0,4	1,6	0,667
	Report of Fisher	1,42	1,41	0,43
	p	<i>p</i> =0,242	<i>p</i> =0,245	<i>p</i> =0,516



Chart 2: The average mark for the respondents' answers, men and women altogether and significant differences according to the instruction ($p < 0.05$ in bold types). **N.B.:** For the 1st question (fair/unfair) and for the 3 scenarios altogether, mark 3 means "totally fair" and mark 0 means "totally unfair", with therefore a theoretical average mark of 1.5 (0.5 for each of the 3 scenarios). For the 5 passive suggestions and the 3 scenarios altogether, ranging from 0 for minimum passivity to 15 for maximum passivity, with therefore theoretical average mark of 7.5. For the 3 suggestion of protest and the 3 scenarios altogether, ranging from 0 for a minimum activism to 9 for maximum activism, with therefore a theoretical average mark of 4.5.

	Fair/Unfair	Passivity	Activism
Over normative instruction	1,033	10,333	3,2
Counter normative instruction	2,2	4,933	4,533
Difference	1,167	5,4	1,3
Report of Fisher	19,85	31,86	4,108
<i>p</i>	<i>p<0,01</i>	<i>p<0,01</i>	<i>p=0,04</i>

However, in spite of the lack of differences between men and women, noted on chart 1, if results are examined with separate genders, we can notice that (on chart 3) as far as the answers of activism are concerned only women significantly call activism less with the over-normative instruction than with the counter-normative instructions.

Chart 3: Average marks of the respondent's answers according to their gender and the instructions and meaningful differences between the instructions ($p < 0.05$ are noted bold types). **N.B.:** For the 1st question (fair/unfair) and for the 3 scenarios altogether, mark 3 means "totally fair" and mark 0 means "totally unfair", with therefore a theoretical average mark of 1.5 (0.5 for each of the 3 scenarios). For the 5 passive suggestions and the 3 scenarios altogether, ranging from 0 for minimum passivity to 15 for maximum passivity, with therefore theoretical average mark of 7.5. For the 3 suggestion of protest and the 3 scenarios altogether, ranging from 0 for a minimum activism to 9 for maximum activism, with therefore a theoretical average mark of 4.5.

		Fair/unfair	Passivity	Activism
Men	Over normative instruction	1,133	10,867	3,4
	Counter normative instruction	2,4	5,733	4,2
	Difference	1,067	5,134	0,8
	Report of Fisher	7,26	15,17	0,65
	<i>p</i>	<i>p=0,01</i>	<i>p<0,01</i>	<i>p=0,42</i>
Women	Over normative instruction	0,733	9,8	3
	Counter normative instruction	2	4,133	4,867
	Difference	1,267	5,667	1,867
	Report of Fisher	9,65	16,69	4,64
	<i>p</i>	<i>p<0,01</i>	<i>p<0,01</i>	<i>p=0,04</i>

The fact that there were many more statements of injustice, with the over-normative instruction (compared with the counter-normative instruction) drove us to examine the correlation between our 3 dependent variables (fair/unfair answers, passivity/activism answers) into every 2 orders. However, we can notice that no correlation is meaningful (charts 4 and 5).

Chart 4: Correlations with the over-normative instruction among men, women and altogether, between the idea of justice, passives strategies and actives strategies ($p < 0.05$ in bold types).

		Fair/unfair	Passivity	Activism
Men	Fair/unfair	1		
	Passivity	0,36	1	
	Activism	0,06	-0,26	1
Women	Fair/unfair	1		
	Passivity	0,01	1	
	Activism	-0,18	-0,35	1
Men + Women	Fair/unfair	1		
	Passivity	0,19	1	
	Activism	-0,01	-0,27	1

Chart 5: Correlations with the counter-normative instruction among men, women and altogether, between the idea of justice, passives strategies and actives strategies ($p < 0.05$ in bold types).

		Fair/unfair	Passivity	Activism
Men	Fair/unfair	1		
	Passivity	0,14	1	
	Activism	0,33	-0,23	1
Women	Fair/unfair	1		
	Passivity	-0,04	1	
	Activism	-0,13	-0,30	1
Men + Women	Fair/unfair	1		
	Passivity	0,09	1	
	Activism	0,05	-0,28	1

Then we tried to re-examine these correlations by putting both instructions together. This gathering brings together both instructions whose effect compensate each other and thus come close to the answers the respondents would have made if they had answered honestly, without trying to give such or such image themselves.

We can read this gathering on chart 6 (in which no significant difference between male and female can be seen). From this chart, we have studied once again the correlations between our 3 dependent variables. Then, we can notice only (chart 7), on the whole, and among women (but not among men), a significant negative correlation which is between the answers of passivity and the answers of activism.



Chart 6: The average mark of the respondents answers both instructions put together. **N.B.:** For the 1st question (fair/unfair) and for the 3 scenarios altogether, mark 3 means “totally fair” and mark 0 means “totally unfair”, with therefore a theoretical average mark of 1.5 (0.5 for each of the 3 scenarios). For the 5 passive suggestions and the 3 scenarios altogether, ranging from 0 for minimum passivity to 15 for maximum passivity, with therefore theoretical average mark of 7.5. For the 3 suggestion of protest and the 3 scenarios altogether, ranging from 0 for a minimum activism to 9 for maximum activism, with therefore a theoretical average mark of 4.5.

	Fair/unfair	Passivity	Activism
Men	1,867	8,3	3,8
Women	1,367	6,967	3,933
Men + Women	1,617	7,633	3,867

Chart 7: Both instructions put together, the correlations for men, women and men and women altogether, between the idea of justice, passive strategies and active strategies ($p < 0.05$ in bold types).

		Fair/unfair	Passivity	Activism
Men	Fair/unfair	1		
	Passivity	-0,09	1	
	Activism	0,22	-0,29	1
Women	Fair/unfair	1		
	Passivity	-0,31	1	
	Activism	0,07	-0,46 ($p=0,01$)	1
Men + Women	Fair/unfair	1		
	Passivity	-0,17	1	
	Activism	0,14	-0,37 ($p<0,01$)	1

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

It's been pointed out that recruiters would give the preference to the workers who showed more passivity and less activism, when confronted to an obviously unfair situation.

We can notice that the unemployed have fully understood this difference in valorization (especially women as for as the discrediting of activism is concerned). We can also see that, by putting both instructions together, we get a negative correlation between passivity and activism, but only as for as women are concerned. It may mean that women, compared to men, are more aware of the risk that a rebelling individual takes on the work place. Thus such a data can open the door to complementary studies on comparative realism among men and women (notably, in particular, on the work place).

The same study (Gangloff, 2007) has also pointed out that recruiters would prefer the workers who didn't deny obvious unfairness, that is to say, workers who were not only realistic but also honest. The workers who dared acknowledge that they were aware of being confronted to unfair working situations. This allows us to raise the paradox, over most statements of unfairness denounced by the unemployed with the over-normative instructions, and over the lack of correlation between the fair/unfair nature of the selection and reactions of passivity/activism.

The unemployed have understood quite well this valorization of acknowledge realism, but they've also integrated that this realism should not lead to reactions aiming at reestablishing justice, if they wanted to be "well-considered". The question left is about knowing how those workers manage to cope with what must be a psychic inner conflict.

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ANNEXE : LES TROIS CAS

Cas 1

René est à la recherche d'un emploi depuis plus d'un an. La plupart des CV qu'il envoie restent sans réponse, ou alors il lit toujours la même chose: «Après examen de votre candidature, nous avons le regret de ne pouvoir y donner une suite favorable. Nous sommes cependant persuadés que vous trouverez rapidement un emploi correspondant à vos compétences...». René va bientôt cesser de percevoir les ASSEDIC. Il a suivi plusieurs stages de Techniques de Recherche d'Emploi, il téléphone ou se présente à toutes les adresses qu'on lui indique, mais c'est toujours la même chose: il a trop peu d'expérience ou il en a trop, il a trop peu de formation ou il en a trop.. Il ne sait plus quoi faire, il est de plus en plus découragé.

Ce qui a mis le feu aux poudres, ce sont peut-être les derniers entretiens qu'il a eu, pour un poste qui l'intéressait beaucoup. Il a d'abord rencontré un recruteur, puis le chef du service où il y avait le poste, puis encore quelqu'un d'autre... A chaque fois, il a eu l'impression que tout s'était bien passé; d'ailleurs, si ça n'avait pas été le cas, on ne l'aurait pas convoqué à tous ces entretiens.. Et puis «vlan»: alors qu'il croit que tout est bon, on lui dit qu'il n'est pas pris. Ou plus exactement quelqu'un lui laisse entendre qu'il est bien le meilleur candidat, mais que le poste est depuis le départ réservé au fils ou au neveu d'untel, et que la procédure était truquée. Ce n'était que «du bidon». René est abattu. Il n'a plus envie de rien. Il a envie de tout laisser tomber. D'autant qu'il se dit que ce n'est sans doute pas la 1^{ère} fois qu'il se présente pour un poste qui en fait n'est pas disponible. Si c'est toujours comme ça, René pense que ça ne sert à rien de continuer à chercher un emploi.

Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.

1. Ce refus d'embauche de René vous semble:

Totalement juste Juste Injuste Totalement injuste

2. La prochaine offre d'emploi sera la bonne:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord



3. Puisque René était le plus compétent, ce n'est peut-être pas parce que le poste était "réservé" qu'il n'a pas été pris, mais peut-être aussi à cause de sa personnalité:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

4. René n'a peut-être pas adopté les bons comportements pendant le entretiens, sinon, puisqu'il était le plus compétent, il aurait peut-être quand même été embauché

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

5. Puisque c'était une offre d'emploi truquée, René aurait dû porter plainte:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

6. René aurait dû faire un scandale et menacer de tout révéler si on ne le prenait pas:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

7. René ne pouvait rien faire: les recruteurs ont toujours le dernier mot:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

8. René aurait dû tout de suite demander à l'Association Régionale des Chômeurs d'intervenir:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

9. De toutes façons, dans une entreprise comme celle là, René n'aurait pas été bien. C'est mieux qu'il n'ait pas été pris: il trouvera mieux ailleurs:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

Cas 2

Francis a été licencié et recherche un nouvel emploi. Il a un entretien avec son conseiller. Voici son récit:

«J'ai travaillé dans cette agence régionale pendant plusieurs années. J'ai pris volontairement et accepté beaucoup de responsabilités, et j'ai prouvé que j'étais vraiment capable de faire du bon boulot. Là dessus, je n'ai jamais eu aucun reproche, bien au contraire. En fait, les problèmes ont commencé avec l'arrivée d'un nouveau chef d'agence. Je n'accepte pas qu'on me demande n'importe quoi: quand un projet me semble mauvais, ou quand une procédure me semble inefficace, je n'hésite pas à le dire. Si je m'investis dans mon travail, ce n'est pas pour que quelqu'un d'autre, même un chef, prenne des décisions idiotes qui réduisent mes efforts à zéro. J'ai d'ailleurs appris plus tard que mon nouveau chef d'agence n'avait eu son poste que parce qu'il avait beaucoup de relations à la Direction Générale parisienne, et non pas du fait de ses compétences... Mais le problème c'est que j'ai été de plus en plus souvent en conflit avec ce nouveau chef, jusqu'au jour où il m'a convoqué pour un entretien préalable avant licenciement. Il a reconnu que je faisais du bon travail, mais il m'a aussi dit qu'il n'acceptait plus que je conteste ses décisions. J'ai bien essayé de me défendre, mais sans succès: quelques jours plus tard, je recevais ma lettre de licenciement».

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

**Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.**

1. Le licenciement de Francis vous semble:
Totalement juste Juste Injuste Totalement injuste
2. Francis aurait dû porter plainte:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
3. Même si Francis est compétent, ce n'est sûrement pas quelqu'un malin: pour ne pas avoir ce type de problème, quand on conteste, il faut le faire avec plus de diplomatie:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
4. On peut comprendre que Francis vive très mal d'avoir été licencié. Mais une fois son licenciement décidé, il ne pouvait plus rien faire: les employeurs sont toujours les plus forts:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
5. Malgré sa compétence, Francis aurait dû cesser de contester. En continuant ainsi, il ne pouvait qu'avoir des problèmes:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
6. C'est un mal pour un bien, Francis trouvera mieux ailleurs:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
7. Lors de l'entretien, Francis aurait dû menacer son chef. Par exemple le menacer de révéler à la Direction Générale toutes les erreurs de gestion commises dans l'agence s'il était licencié:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
8. Francis aurait dû faire appel à un syndicat:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
9. Ce n'est qu'une mauvaise période à passer. Francis retrouvera certainement bientôt du travail et il oubliera tout ça:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

Cas 3

Tout se passait bien pour Roger jusqu'au jour où, suite à une opération chirurgicale qui se passe mal, il doit rester plusieurs mois en arrêt maladie. A son retour, il apprend que, pendant son absence, il a été remplacé par quelqu'un de moins compétent que lui, mais qui est le fils de l'un des chefs de service de l'entreprise. Le patron de l'entreprise propose alors à Roger un licenciement à l'amiable, ce que Roger refuse.

Depuis, sa vie professionnelle est un enfer. On ne lui transmet plus aucune information, on l'exclut de toutes les réunions; on lui donne des ordres sans cesse contradictoires, pour des tâches idiotes et sans aucun intérêt. En fait, on ne lui donne plus aucun véritable travail. Il est «mis au placard». On veut le faire craquer pour qu'il quitte l'entreprise de lui-même...

**Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.**

1. Ce qui arrive à Roger vous semble:

Totalement juste Juste Injuste Totalement injuste

2. Roger ne peut rien faire: soit il démissionne et se retrouve au chômage, soit il subit, même si c'est dur. De toutes façons, on ne gagne jamais dans une épreuve de force avec son employeur:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

3. Roger est sans doute compétent, mais aussi quelqu'un de "buté", sinon on lui donnerait à nouveau un travail normal:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

4. Si Roger n'arrive pas à retrouver une situation normale, c'est sans doute que malgré sa compétence il n'adopte pas les bons comportements:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

5. Roger devrait avertir l'inspection du travail:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

6. Roger devrait lui aussi rendre la vie impossible à ses chefs, jusqu'à ce qu'ils acceptent de lui donner à nouveau du travail:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

7. Ce licenciement aura un côté positif et montrera à Roger la vraie mentalité de son employeur. Mieux vaut que Roger parte au plus vite: il trouvera certainement mieux ailleurs:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

8. Roger devrait contacter un syndicat:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

9. Roger doit seulement attendre un peu: dans quelque temps, tout finira par rentrer dans l'ordre:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

VALORISATION DIFFÉRENCIÉE DES CHÔMEURS SELON LA RAISON IDÉOLOGIQUE OU MERCENAIRE DE LEUR ADHÉSION VERSUS NON ADHÉSION À LA NORME D'ALLÉGEANCE

Coralie DUCHON¹ et Bernard GANGLOFF²

¹Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France).

duchon.coralie@wanadoo.fr

²Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et Département de Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

RÉSUMÉ

De nombreuses études ont mis en évidence l'existence d'une norme d'allégeance que l'on peut brièvement définir comme la valorisation sociale des individus évitant toute conduite de remise en cause de l'environnement social, et notamment toute remise en cause de la hiérarchie des pouvoirs dans un système social donné. Il est ainsi possible de distinguer les individus faisant preuve d'allégeance, qui sont socialement valorisés, et les autres, les rebelles.

Mais nous avons aussi fait l'hypothèse qu'allégeance et rébellion pouvaient faire l'objet d'une dichotomie selon un critère «idéologique» versus «mercenaire», dichotomie permettant de distinguer des «allégeants par idéologie», des «allégeants par mercenariat», des «rebelles par idéologie», et des «rebelles mercenaires».

Nous avons ici, à partir d'un questionnaire basé sur cette typologie, demandé à une population travaillant dans le domaine de l'insertion professionnelle d'indiquer les réponses que devrait fournir un bon candidat à un emploi et celles qui seraient dépréciées.

Après une présentation du questionnaire, nous indiquerons les résultats obtenus puis nous montrerons comment ils permettent de mieux comprendre certains discours politiques contemporains et de mieux aider les chômeurs à obtenir un emploi.

Mots clés: *allégeance, idéologie, norme, chômage*

ABSTRACT

Many studies have highlighted the existence of an allegiance norm that could briefly be defined as the social valorization of the individuals who would avoid questioning it is possible for us to distinguish the social environment and, in particular, the hierarchical system as a whole in a given society. Thus, we can possibly tell the individuals showing an adhesion to allegiance norm – those being socially acknowledged (for their qualities) – from the others, the rebels.

But we have also assumed that allegiance and rebellion could both be a matter of dichotomy, according to an “ideological” versus “mercenary” criteria. Such a dichotomy would aim at telling the “allegiance ideologist” from the “allegiance mercenaries”, the “rebellious ideologists” from the “rebellious mercenaries”. So, using a questionnaire based on that typology, we have asked a population working in the social integration field to indicate the answers that should be the most appropriate for a “good” job applicant, as well those that should be totally inappropriate.

First, we will introduce you the questionnaire. We will indicate the results that we got. Then we'll show how the results allow us to reach a better understanding of some of the contemporary political speeches and help the unemployed more efficiently in their search for a new job.

Key words: *allegiance, ideology, norm, unemployment,*

INTRODUCTION

L'être humain ne vit pas en solitaire: il fonctionne à l'intérieur d'une société, et toute société s'articule sur une structure hiérarchique. Cela signifie que toute société implique des

rapports de pouvoir; des rapports où certains donnent des ordres et d'autres obéissent à ces ordres. «La soumission à l'autorité est un trait constant et prédominant de la nature humaine», considérait Milgram (1974, p.155). Et même si l'on peut mettre en doute ce caractère «naturel» de la soumission, il n'en reste pas moins que, culturellement parlant, les situations, comme les raisons, qui poussent l'être humain, qui vit en société, à obéir, sont nombreuses. L'une de ces situations est sans conteste la situation de travail. Le contrat de travail est d'ailleurs juridiquement défini comme un contrat de subordination. Et de nombreuses études ont mis en évidence que le bon salarié était d'abord un salarié obéissant, soumis, ou plus exactement un salarié «allégeant», c'est-à-dire un salarié ayant intériorisé la «norme d'allégeance», définie comme la valorisation sociale des individus qui, dans leurs attitudes, conduites et comportements, excluent tout questionnement et, donc toute remise en cause de l'environnement social (Gangloff et Caboux, 2003). Cela signifie aussi qu'en situation de recrutement pour un emploi, ce sont les candidats allégeants qui sont choisis et les candidats rebelles qui seront rejetés.

Il est cependant possible de penser que la dimension allégeance/rébellion ne constitue pas un tout irrémédiablement homogène et que des différenciations y sont possibles ; de penser par exemple qu'un salarié allégeant par intérêt personnel ne sera pas nécessairement autant valorisé qu'un salarié allégeant par principe (notamment parce que l'intériorisation de l'allégeance sera considérée comme plus profonde chez ce dernier).

L'objectif de la présente étude est de différencier deux raisons d'allégeance/rébellion et d'examiner, dans le cadre d'un recrutement, la hiérarchie des préférences dont feront l'objet des candidats diversement positionnés sur une échelle d'allégeance/rébellion et justifiant ce positionnement par des raisons idéologiques *versus* mercenaires. Nous souhaitons plus précisément étudier la hiérarchie des choix de recrutement de 4 candidats à un emploi : un candidat allégeant pour des raisons idéologiques, un candidat allégeant par intérêt personnel, un candidat rebelle par idéologie, et un candidat rebelle par intérêt personnel.

MÉTHODE

2.1. Population

Notre échantillon est constitué de 21 sujets (5 hommes et 16 femmes), tous spécialistes des ressources humaines (travaillant dans le recrutement, l'orientation, et l'insertion professionnelle). Ils se répartissent, quant à leur âge, entre 25 et 55 ans (12 ont entre 25 et 35 ans, 6 entre 35 et 45 ans, 2 entre 45 et 55, et 1 a plus de 55 ans). Enfin, 4 font état d'une expérience professionnelle de leur fonction inférieure à 1 an, 4 ont une expérience comprise entre 1 et 5 ans, et 13 ont une expérience supérieure à 5 ans.

2.2. Matériel

Le matériel utilisé est constitué de 2 parties: tout d'abord une échelle d'allégeance, puis 4 profils de candidats à une embauche.

L'échelle d'allégeance est constituée de douze items noyés parmi 64 questions (soit un total de 76 questions). Six items réfèrent à un comportement allégeant et six à un comportement rebelle. Ces comportements allégeants ou rebelles sont par ailleurs de 2 sortes: idéologique (le comportement mis en scène renvoie à une conduite que l'on peut adopter par principe, pour des raisons idéologiques) ou mercenaire (l'adoption du comportement mis en scène se fait pour des raisons arrivistes). Nous avons ainsi 3 items référant à l'allégeance idéologique, 3 items référant à l'allégeance rebelle, 3 items référant à la rébellion idéologique mercenaire, et 3 items référant à la rébellion mercenaire. Ces 12 items sont présentés dans le tableau ci-dessous avec leur numéro d'apparition dans le questionnaire global.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 0: Caractéristiques des 12 items utilisés.

	Allégeance	Rébellion
Idéologie	9. Je ne tente jamais de défendre mes idées quand je vois qu'elles sont différentes de celles de mon chef: le chef c'est le chef!	5. Si je ne suis pas d'accord avec les ordres de mon chef, je ne les respecte jamais: ce n'est pas parce que c'est le chef qu'on doit lui obéir comme des esclaves!
	41. Quand mon chef prend une décision, je ne la conteste jamais, quelle que soit cette décision: on ne doit pas contester son chef!	22. Quand mon chef prend de mauvaises décisions, je n'hésite jamais à les contester: j'ai des principes et je ne vois pas pourquoi je me tairais!
	62. J'exécute toujours au mieux les ordres que me donne mon chef, même quand parfois ces ordres peuvent sembler idiots: un exécutant, ça doit exécuter, un point c'est tout!	55. Quand je ne suis pas d'accord avec ce que pense mon chef, je le lui fais toujours savoir: la loi donne aussi des droits aux salariés, il faut s'en servir, sinon ils seront perdus!
Mercenariat	19. Comme je veux être bien vu de mon chef, j'adhère toujours à ses décisions, quelles que soient ces décisions!	37. Si je ne suis pas d'accord avec les ordres de mon chef, je ne les respecte jamais: ce n'est pas parce que c'est le chef qu'on doit lui obéir comme des esclaves!
	34. J'évite toujours de défendre mon point de vue quand il s'oppose à celui de mon chef: si je veux avoir des augmentations de salaire, il vaut mieux que j'agisse ainsi!	45. Quand mon chef prend de mauvaises décisions, je n'hésite jamais à les contester: j'ai des principes et je ne vois pas pourquoi je me tairais!
	65. Même si les ordres de mon chef me paraissent parfois absurdes, comme je veux avoir des promotions rapides, j'obéis toujours!	70. Quand je ne suis pas d'accord avec ce que pense mon chef, je le lui fais toujours savoir: la loi donne aussi des droits aux salariés, il faut s'en servir, sinon ils seront perdus!

Quatre profils de candidats ont par ailleurs été élaborés: profil d'un candidat allégeant idéologique, profil d'un candidat rebelle idéologique, profil d'un candidat rebelle idéologique, et profil d'un candidat rebelle mercenaire. Chacun de ces profils a été réalisé en reprenant les items correspondants de l'échelle d'allégeance et en les associant. Ainsi, le profil du candidat A (allégeant idéologique) est constitué des 3 items référant à l'allégeance idéologique.

2.3. Procédure

Les 21 sujets ont tout d'abord répondu aux items selon le paradigme du législateur (Gangloff, 2006): ils devaient indiquer, pour chaque item, la réponse que donnerait selon eux un bon candidat à un emploi, et celle que fournirait un mauvais candidat.

Dans un 2^{ème} temps, tous nos sujets, sauf un n'ayant pas compris la consigne, ont classé, par ordre de préférence pour une embauche, chacun des quatre profils.

Les réponses ainsi obtenues ont fait l'objet d'analyses par X².

RÉSULTATS

3.1. Résultats à l'échelle d'allégeance

Le tableau 1 indique quelles sont, selon nos sujets, les réponses que donneraient respectivement un bon candidat et un mauvais candidat à une embauche.

Tableau 1: Répartition du nombre de sujets (en données brutes et en pourcentages) classant les dimensions comme renvoyant à un bon et à un mauvais candidat. Ainsi, pour l'allégeance idéologique (3 items), nos sujets ont 3 fois considéré que les réponses proposées étaient celles d'un bon candidat, contre 60 fois celles d'un mauvais candidat.

Dimensions	Items		
		Bon candidat	Mauvais candidat
Allégeance idéologique	9	1 (4,76%)	20 (95,24%)
	41	0 (0%)	21 (100%)
	62	2 (9,52%)	19 (90,48%)
Total allégeance idéologique		3 (4,76%)	60 (95,24%)
Rebelle idéologique	5	14 (66,67%)	7 (33,33%)
	22	12 (57,14%)	9 (42,86%)
	55	4 (19,05%)	17 (80,95%)
Total rébellion idéologique		30 (47,62%)	33 (52,38%)
Total dimension idéologique		33 (26,19%)	93 (73,81%)
Allégeance mercenaire	19	0 (0%)	21 (100%)
	34	1 (4,76%)	20 (95,24%)
	65	0 (0%)	21 (100%)
Total allégeance mercenaire		1 (1,59%)	62 (98,41%)
Rebelle mercenaire	37	4 (19,05%)	17 (80,95%)
	45	0 (0%)	21 (100%)
	70	8 (38,10%)	13 (61,90%)
Total rébellion mercenaire		12 (19,05%)	51 (80,95%)
Total dimension mercenaire		13 (10,32%)	113 (89,68%)

L'analyse statistique de ces réponses est synthétisée au tableau 2. Nous y constatons que les mercenaires, qu'ils soient allégeants ou rebelles, sont systématiquement considérés comme de mauvais candidats. Mais nous remarquons également, assez curieusement, d'une part que le rebelle idéologique n'est pas rejeté (il n'est cependant pas non plus accepté) et surtout que l'allégeant idéologique est jugé comme étant un mauvais candidat.

Tableau 2: Analyse, par dimension, des différences entre un bon et un mauvais candidat

	Bon candidat	Mauvais candidat	X ²	P
Allégeant idéologique	3	60	51.572	<0.000
Rebelle idéologique	30	33	0.142	0,705
Allégeant mercenaire	1	62	59.064	<0.000
Rebelle mercenaire	12	51	24.142	<0.000

Si maintenant nous comparons, d'une part les bons candidats entre eux, et d'autre part les mauvais candidats entre eux, nous observons (tableau 3), pour la dimension allégeance/rébellion, que les bons candidats sont davantage rebelles qu'allégeants, et que les mauvais sont davantage les allégeants idéologiques que les rebelles idéologiques. Pour la dimension idéologie/mercenariat, on ne constate de différences significatives que chez les rebelles, avec alors comme bons candidats les candidats idéologues et comme mauvais candidats les mercenaires.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 3: Analyse, par type de candidat, des différentes dimensions entre elles

		Bon candidat	X ²	P	Mauvais candidat	X ²	P
	All. Idéo./ Reb. Idéo.	3/30	22.09	<0.000	60/33	7.84	0.005
All./Reb.	All. Merc./ Reb. Merc.	1/12	9.31	<0.002	62/51	1.07	0.300
	All./ Reb.	4/42	31.39	<0.000	122/84	7.01	<0.001
Idéo./ Merc.	All. Idéo/ All.Merc.	3/1	1	0.317	60/62	0.03	0.856
	Reb. Idéo./ Reb. Merc.	30/12	7.71	0.005	33/51	3.86	<0.049
	Idéo./Merc.	33/13	8.70	<0.003	93/113	1.94	0.163

3.2. Résultats au classement des quatre profils (sur 20 recruteurs)

Le tableau 4 présente la position préférentiellement assignée à chacun des 4 candidats. On y remarque que si l'idéologue allégeant ne fait pas l'objet d'un classement statistiquement net (les chiffres bruts semblent indiquer qu'il se situerait entre la 1^{ère} et la 2^{ème} position), par contre, pour chacun des 3 autres candidats, des positions statistiquement significatives apparaissent: le mercenaire allégeant est en 3^{ème} position, l'idéologue rebelle occupe la 1^{ère} place, et le mercenaire rebelle la 4^{ème}.

Tableau 4: Classement de chacun des 4 candidats dans les 4 positions, en données brutes et en pourcentages (le candidat A est ainsi classé en 1^{ère} position par 7 recruteurs,...) et analyse de la hiérarchisation des positions de chacun des 4 candidats.

	Position 1	Position 2	Position 3	Position 4	X ²	P
Candidat A (All. Idéol.)	7 (35%)	8 (40%)	2 (10%)	3 (15%)	5.2	0.158
Candidat B (All. Merc.)	2 (10%)	3 (15%)	12 (60%)	3 (15%)	13.2	0.004
Candidat C (Reb. Idéol.)	10 (50%)	6 (30%)	4 (20%)	0	10.4	0.015
Candidat D (Reb. Merc.)	1 (5%)	3 (15%)	2 (10%)	14 (70%)	22	0.000

Le tableau 5 confirme cette analyse mais en comparant les candidats entre eux, ce qui permet d'établir la hiérarchie des préférences pour une embauche. Nous y observons que: l'idéologue rebelle est le candidat préféré, et que les plus rejetés sont le mercenaire allégeant (3^{ème} position) et surtout le mercenaire rebelle (4^{ème} place). Quant à l'idéologue allégeant, même s'il ne fait pas l'objet d'un positionnement statistiquement déterminé, une lecture descriptive du tableau suggère qu'il serait préférentiellement choisi en 2^{ème} position.

Tableau 5: Classement de chacun des 4 candidats dans les 4 positions, en données brutes et en pourcentages (le candidat A est ainsi classé en 1^{ère} position par 7 recruteurs,...), et analyse de la hiérarchisation des 4 candidats dans chacune des 4 positions.

	Candidat A: Allégeant Idéologique	Candidat B: Allégeant Mercenaire	Candidat C: Rebelle Idéologique	Candidat D: Rebelle Mercenaire	X ²	P
Position 1	7 (35%)	2 (10%)	10 (50%)	1 (5%)	10.8	<0.013
Position 2	8 (40%)	3 (15%)	6 (30%)	3 (15%)	3.6	0.308
Position 3	2 (10%)	12 (60%)	4 (20%)	2 (10%)	13.6	<0.003
Position 4	3 (15%)	3 (15%)	0 (0%)	14 (70%)	22.8	<0.000



Enfin le tableau 6, dans lequel les candidats sont réunis 2 à 2 afin de permettre une comparaison sur la dimension idéologie/mercenariat, confirme encore que les candidats idéologues sont préférés aux candidats mercenaires.

Tableau 6: Classement des 2 candidats idéologues et des 2 candidats mercenaires dans les 4 positions, en données brutes et en pourcentages, et analyse de la hiérarchisation des idéologues et des mercenaires dans chacune des 4 positions.

	Candidats A + C: Idéologues (Allégeant + Rebelle)	Candidats B + D: Mercenaires (Allégeant + Rebelle)	X²	p
Position 1	17 (85%)	3 (15%)	5.8	<0.002
Position 2	14 (70%)	6 (30%)	3.2	0.074
Position 3	6 (30%)	14 (70%)	3.2	0.074
Position 4	3 (15%)	17 (85%)	5.8	<0.002

DISCUSSION ET CONCLUSION

L'examen des réponses au questionnaire indique que tous les candidats sont majoritairement davantage considérés comme de mauvais candidats que comme de bons candidats, sauf l'idéologue rebelle, pour lequel les avis sont partagés (tableau 2). Le tableau 3 fournit quelques informations complémentaires. Il permet notamment d'observer: premièrement que le candidat le plus fréquemment jugé comme étant un bon candidat est davantage un candidat rebelle qu'un candidat allégeant (et alors davantage un rebelle idéologique qu'un rebelle mercenaire); deuxièmement que les candidats les plus fréquemment considérés comme mauvais sont davantage les idéologues allégeants que les idéologues rebelles, et davantage les rebelles mercenaires que les rebelles idéologues.

Quant aux classements réalisés par nos sujets, ils mettent nettement en évidence une préférence pour les idéologues par rapport aux mercenaires (tableau 6), avec plus spécifiquement (tableaux 4 et 5) la hiérarchie suivante: l'idéologue rebelle puis l'idéologue allégeant (respectivement en 1^{ère} et 2^{ème} position), puis le mercenaire allégeant et enfin, comme candidat le plus rejeté, le mercenaire rebelle.

Nos sujets préfèrent ainsi des candidats qui sont animés par des raisons idéologiques que mercenaires: il vaut mieux agir par référence à des principes, à des idéaux, que par arrivisme, par intérêt personnel, notamment lorsque les conduites adoptées sont des conduites contestataires, des conduites de rébellion. La différenciation idéologie/mercenariat que nous avons imaginée et mise à l'épreuve s'avère donc pertinente.

Pour autant, certains résultats peuvent surprendre: l'ensemble des études réalisées jusqu'à présent mettaient en évidence une prévalence des allégeants sur les rebelles, ce qui n'est plus ici systématiquement le cas. Le candidat allégeant est certes encore préféré au rebelle, mais seulement dans la dimension mercenariat (le mercenaire rebelle est alors effectivement davantage stigmatisé que le mercenaire allégeant). Par contre, dans la dimension idéologique, le rebelle est maintenant préféré à l'allégeant.

Nous n'avons pas d'explication immédiate à proposer à ce résultat. Il peut tout simplement signifier que la rébellion, quand elle a des bases idéologiques, n'est plus un tabou, et cette donnée pourrait être mise en rapport avec le riche débat d'idées qui parcourt la France depuis quelques années (principalement depuis le référendum ayant abouti au non français



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

à la constitution européenne proposée). Mais d'autres explications peuvent être avancées. Rappelons par exemple que la tâche de nos sujets était d'indiquer leurs préférences dans le cadre d'un recrutement, hors tous nos sujets n'étaient pas de recruteurs: certains travaillent dans le conseil en orientation ou en insertion professionnelle, et ils n'ont peut-être pas les mêmes critères de choix que des recruteurs professionnels. Nous avons ainsi antérieurement montré que même les recruteurs professionnels emploient des critères différents selon qu'ils travaillent dans des cabinets conseils ou dans les entreprises pour lesquelles ils recrutent, les seconds valorisant davantage l'allégeance que les premiers (Gangloff, 1995). Cette relative distance professionnelle vis-à-vis de la fonction de recrutement pourrait donc expliquer la préférence ici observée pour l'idéologue rebelle. Mais évidemment, la vérification de la pertinence de ces pistes explicatives implique la mise en place de nouvelles recherches...

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DIFFERENTIAL VALORIZATION OF THE UNEMPLOYED ACCORDING TO THE IDEOLOGICAL OR MERCENARY REASON OF THEIR SUPPORT VERSUS NON-SUPPORT FOR THE ALLEGIANCE NORM

1. INTRODUCTION

Human beings don't live on their own. They are part of a social organization, which is itself based on a structural hierarchical system – which means that every society implies hierarchical relationship between people. Relationships in which some give orders and others obey the orders. As Milgram would put it (1974, p.155) “submission to authority is a constant prevalent characteristics of human nature”. Even though submission is undoubtedly “innate”, however - culturally speaking - the fact is that all the situations, as well as the causes, - which compel human beings living together to obey – are numerous. One of those situations is undoubtedly the working situation. Besides, the contract of employment is legally defined as a contract of subordination, and many studies have obviously underlined that a good worker is above all an obedient submissive worker, or more exactly, an allegiance worker, that is to say, a worker who has understood that the allegiance norm is defined as the social valorization of the individuals who – through their behaviours, attitudes and acts – never question the social environment at all (Gangloff & Caboux, 2003). It also implies that – in case of a recruitment for a job – the allegiance applicants will be chosen and the rebellious applicants left out.



Nevertheless we can consider that the difference between allegiance and rebellion doesn't exist as a homogeneous whole. Thinking, for example, that a worker – whose allegiance would result from his self-interest – will not necessarily have a better image than a worker whose allegiance would be as a matter of principle – particularly because the latter's allegiance would be seen as deeper.

This study aims at differentiating two reasons for allegiance or rebellion. Then we will examine – in the case of a recruitment interview – the way the various candidates will be classified according to a hierarchical system on an allegiance/rebellion scale, the classification being justified by ideological versus mercenary reasons. We wish more precisely to study how 4 applicants to a same job will be chosen according to hierarchical criteria's: an applicant whose allegiance is ideological; an applicant whose allegiance results from self-interest; an applicant whose rebellion is ideological and an applicant whose rebellion results from the self-interest.

2. MATERIAL AND METHOD

2.1. Subjects

Our panel consists of 21 people (5 men and 16 women), all specialised in human resources – working in the fields of recruitment, careers advice and integration into the job market – answered a questionnaire on allegiance, according to legislator paradigm. Their age groups are between 25 and 55: 12 are between 25-35 years old, 6 are between 35 and 45 years old, 2 between 45 and 55 years old and one is over 55 years old. And, then 4 have been working in their present field for less than a year; 4 have had a professional experience comprised between 1 and 5 years and 13 have been working for more than 5 years.

2.2. Practice

The equipment used is made of 2 parts: first of all on allegiance scale and then 4 applicant's profiles to a job. The allegiance scale is made of 12 items, buried in 64 questions, that is to say 76 questions as a whole. Six items refer to an allegiance behaviour and six to a rebellious behaviour. Besides those allegiance or rebellious behaviours are on two kinds: ideological – the implemented behaviour can be a matter of principle for ideological reasons –; or mercenary – the implemented behaviour may result from careerist reasons.

Thus we have three items about ideological allegiance; three about mercenary allegiance, three items about ideological rebellion and three items about mercenary rebellion. Those 12 items are introduced in the following chart. Their numbers corresponding to those of the global questionnaire (Cf. Annex).

Besides, 4 applicant's profiles have been made up: an ideological allegiance applicant's profile; an ideological rebellious applicant's profile; a mercenary allegiance applicant's profile and a mercenary rebellious applicant's profile. Each profile has been made according to the items gusted on the allegiance scale and put together. Thus, applicant allegiance's profile (ideological allegiance) is drawn from the three items referring to ideological.

2.3. Method

First of all; the 21 subjects have answered the items according to the legislation paradigm (Gangloff, 2006). For each item, they had to indicate the answer a good applicant for a job would give, as well as the answer a bad applicant would give. Then, all our subjects, except for one who would not understand the instruction, were asked to classify every four profile for a job application in order of preference.

The answers we thus got were analysed by X^2 .

3. RESULTS

3.1. Results on the allegiance scale

Chart 1 indicates the answers, which would be given respectively by a good and a bad applicant to a job, according to our subjects.

Chart 1: Distribution of the numbers of the subjects (in raw data and percentages) classifying the areas as referring to good and bad applicants. Thus, as far as ideological allegiance is concerned (3 items) our subjects have thrice agreed that the given answers were those of good applicant, versus sixteen those of bad applicant.

Areas	Items		
		Good applicant	Bad applicant
Ideological allegiance	9	1 (4,76%)	20 (95,24%)
	41	0 (0%)	21 (100%)
	62	2 (9,52%)	19 (90,48%)
Total ideological allegiance		3 (4,76%)	60 (95,24%)
Ideological rebellion	5	14 (66,67%)	7 (33,33%)
	22	12 (57,14%)	9 (42,86%)
	55	4 (19,05%)	17 (80,95%)
Total ideological rebellion		30 (47,62%)	33 (52,38%)
Total area of ideology		33 (26,19%)	93 (73,81%)
Mercenary allegiance	19	0 (0%)	21 (100%)
	34	1 (4,76%)	20 (95,24%)
	65	0 (0%)	21 (100%)
Total mercenary allegiance		1 (1,59%)	62 (98,41%)
Mercenary rebel	37	4 (19,05%)	17 (80,95%)
	45	0 (0%)	21 (100%)
	70	8 (38,10%)	13 (61,90%)
Total mercenary rebel		12 (19,05%)	51 (80,95%)
Total area of mercenary		13 (10,32%)	113 (89,68%)

The statistical analysis of those answers has been summarized on chart 2. we can notice there that mercenaries, through allegiance or rebellion, are systematically seen as bad applicants. However, we can also point out, oddly enough, that on the one hand, the ideological rebel is not rejected – though not accepted either – and above all on the other hand, that the allegiance ideologist is considered as a bad applicant.

Chart 2: For each area, analysis of the differences between a good and a bad applicant.

	Good applicant	Bad applicant	X ²	P
Ideological allegiance	3	60	51.572	<0.000
Ideological rebellion	30	33	0.142	0,705
Mercenary allegiance	1	62	59.064	<0.000
Mercenary rebellion	12	51	24.142	<0.000

If we now compare, on the one hand, good applicants with one another, and on the other hand, bad applicants with each other, we can notice (on chart 3) that, in the allegiance/rebellion area, good applicants are more rebellious than allegiance driven ones, and that bad applicants are more ideologists by allegiance than by rebellion. As far as the ideologist, mercenary area is concerned, we can only notice significant differences with the rebels. The good applicants – being the ideologist applicants – and the bad ones – being the mercenaries.

**Chart 3:** Analysis of the different areas between themselves, for each types of applicant.

		Good applicant	X ²	P	Bad applicant	X ²	P
	All. Ideo./ Reb. Ideo.	3/30	22.090	<0.000	60/33	7.838	0.005
All./Reb.	All. Merc./ Reb. Merc.	1/12	9.308	<0.002	62/51	1.070	0.300
	All./ Reb..	4/42	31.392	<0.000	122/84	7.010	<0.001
Ideo./ Merc.	All. Ideo/ All. Merc.	3/1	1	0.317	60/62	0.032	0.856
	Reb. Ideo./ Reb. Merc.	30/12	7.714	0.005	33/51	3.858	<0.049
	Ideo./Merc.	33/13	8.696	<0.003	93/113	1.942	0.163

3.2. Results of the classification of the 4 profiles (on 20 recruiters).

Chart 4 give the preferential place given to each of the 4 applicants. We can notice that – contrary to the allegiance ideology, which cannot clearly classified (gross numbers seem to show it could come between the first and the second position) – each of the 3 other applicants come to statistically significant places. The allegiance mercenary come the third. The rebellious ideologist takes the lead. And the rebellious mercenary comes fourth.

Chart 4: Classification of each of the 4 candidates, in raw data and percentages (applicant A has thus been put in first position by 7 recruiting people).

	Position 1	Position 2	Position 3	Position 4	X ²	P
Applicant A (All. Ideol.)	7 (35%)	8 (40%)	2 (10%)	3 (15%)	5.2	0.158
Applicant B (All. Merc.)	2 (10%)	3 (15%)	12 (60%)	3 (15%)	13.2	0.004
Applicant C (Reb. Idéol.)	10 (50%)	6 (30%)	4 (20%)	0	10.4	0.015
Applicant D (Reb. Merc.)	1 (5%)	3 (15%)	2 (10%)	14 (70%)	22	0.000

Chart 5 proves this analysis but trough the comparison of the applicants together, which enables us to define the hierarchical preference for a job. We can see that the rebellious ideologist is the favourite applicant and that the most rejected ones are the allegiance mercenary (third) and above all the rebellious mercenary (fourth). Even though the allegiance ideologist hasn't been statistically well positioned, a descriptive reading of chart 5 suggests he would be chosen second.

Chart 5: Classification of each of the 4 applicants in the 4 positions, in raw data and in percentages (applicant A being thus in first position by 7 recruiters agents) and analysis of the hierarchical position of each 4 applicants.

	Applicant A	Applicant B	Applicant C	Applicant D	X ²	P
Position 1	7 (35%)	2 (10%)	10 (50%)	1 (5%)	10.8	<0.013
Position 2	8 (40%)	3 (15%)	6 (30%)	3 (15%)	3.6	0.308
Position 3	2 (10%)	12 (60%)	4 (20%)	2 (10%)	13.6	<0.003
Position 4	3 (15%)	3 (15%)	0 (0%)	14 (70%)	22.8	<0.000

Then, chart 6n in which the applicants are put together in pairs in order to allow a comparison between the ideological and the mercenary areas. It proves once more that the ideologist applicants are preferred to mercenary applicants.

Chart 6: Classification of the two ideologist applicants and of the two mercenary applicants in the 4 positions, in raw data and in percentages, and analysis of the 4 hierarchical positions between ideologists and mercenaries.

	Applicants A + C: Ideology (Allegiant + Rebel)	Applicants B +D: Mercenaries (Allegiant + Rebel)	X²	p
Position 1	17 (85%)	3 (15%)	5.8	<0.002
Position 2	14 (70%)	6 (30%)	3.2	0.074
Position 3	6 (30%)	14 (70%)	3.2	0.074
Position 4	3 (15%)	17 (85%)	5.8	<0.002

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

When we analyse the answers to the questionnaire, we can notice that all the applicants are much more often regarded as bad applicants than good applicants, except for the rebellious ideologist about whom opinions are divided (chart 2). Chart 3 gives us a little more information. It allows us to observe in particular that first of all the applicant who has been the most frequently seen as being a good applicant is more a rebellious applicant than allegiance applicant (and so more an ideologist rebel than a mercenary rebel; secondly, the applicants who have the most often been seen as bad, are more the allegiance ideologists than the rebellious ideologists, and more the mercenary rebels than the ideological rebels.

When it comes to the classification which has been made by our subjects, we can clearly notice a preference for the ideologists compared to the mercenaries (chart 6) according more specifically to the following hierarchical order (charts 4 and 5), the rebellious ideologist, then the allegiance (respectively first and second position), then the allegiant mercenary, and lastly the rebellious mercenary who is the most rejected applicant.

Thus, we can see that our subjects have a preference for the candidates who are motivated by ideological reasons rather than mercenaries. It's better to act according to principles and ideas than unscrupulous ambition and self-interest, especially when it comes to anti-establishment and rebellious behaviours. Thus, the difference we had imagined and tested between ideology and mercenary behaviour proves relevant.

However, some results may be surprising. All the previous studies on the matter would show a prevalence of the allegiance applicants on the rebellious applicants, which is not systematically true anymore. The fact is that the allegiance applicant is rather chosen than the rebel, but only in the mercenary area – the rebellious mercenary is thus much more stigmatised than the allegiance mercenary. On the contrary, in the ideological area, the rebel is now preferred to the allegiance applicant.

We don't have any instant explanation for this result. It can simply mean that rebellious, which ideological basis is no longer taboo. The fact should be associated with the strong ideological debate which has been running through France for a few years (above all since the referendum about the European Constitution vetoed by the French).

Nevertheless other explanations can be set out. We have to remember for example that our subject's task was to indicate their preferences in case of recruitment. However, all our subjects were not recruiting agents. Some would work in the Careers Advice field or in the integration into the job market.

Thus, they may not have the same criteria as professional recruiting agents.

We have then previously proved that even professional recruiting themselves would



use different criterias depending on their places of work: either the consultancy firms or the companies they are recruiting for, the latter having a better opinion of allegiance than the former. That relative professional distance with the recruiting job could thus attend for the preference which is here clearly shown for the rebellious ideologist. However it's obvious that checking the relevance of the explanatory tacks would imply new researches on our behalf.

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ANNEX 1: ALLEGIANCE SCALE

	Allégeance	Rébellion
Idéologie	9. Je ne tente jamais de défendre mes idées quand je vois qu'elles sont différentes de celles de mon chef: le chef c'est le chef!	5. Si je ne suis pas d'accord avec les ordres de mon chef, je ne les respecte jamais: ce n'est pas parce que c'est le chef qu'on doit lui obéir comme des esclaves!
	41. Quand mon chef prend une décision, je ne la conteste jamais, quelle que soit cette décision: on ne doit pas contester son chef!	22. Quand mon chef prend de mauvaises décisions, je n'hésite jamais à les contester: j'ai des principes et je ne vois pas pourquoi je me tairais!
	62. J'exécute toujours au mieux les ordres que me donne mon chef, même quand parfois ces ordres peuvent sembler idiots: un exécutant, ça doit exécuter, un point c'est tout!	55. Quand je ne suis pas d'accord avec ce que pense mon chef, je le lui fais toujours savoir: la loi donne aussi des droits aux salariés, il faut s'en servir, sinon ils seront perdus!
Mercenariat	19. Comme je veux être bien vu de mon chef, j'adhère toujours à ses décisions, quelles que soient ces décisions!	37. Si je ne suis pas d'accord avec les ordres de mon chef, je ne les respecte jamais: ce n'est pas parce que c'est le chef qu'on doit lui obéir comme des esclaves!
	34. J'évite toujours de défendre mon point de vue quand il s'oppose à celui de mon chef: si je veux avoir des augmentations de salaire, il vaut mieux que j'agisse ainsi!	45. Quand mon chef prend de mauvaises décisions, je n'hésite jamais à les contester: j'ai des principes et je ne vois pas pourquoi je me tairais!
	65. Même si les ordres de mon chef me paraissent parfois absurdes, comme je veux avoir des promotions rapides, j'obéis toujours!	70. Quand je ne suis pas d'accord avec ce que pense mon chef, je le lui fais toujours savoir: la loi donne aussi des droits aux salariés, il faut s'en servir, sinon ils seront perdus!

ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE SPECIFIC TO SCHOOLS TEACHING IN MINORITY LANGUAGES

Ildikó ERDEI

Liceul Teoretic „Bartók Béla”, Timișoara, România
erdeif70@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

The changes due to the decentralization of the educational system: the consolidation of the professional autonomy, the transformation of the school into a “service-offering institution”, and the need to secure the quality of the educational act draw attention to the school’s organizational life.

The study has in view to point out the characteristics of the schools teaching in minority languages, choosing the organizational culture as its central concept. The organizational culture can be defined as a collective mental programming which distinguishes the members of an organization from members of another organization, as the totality of beliefs and values shared in the organization.

The study shows those methods of organizational culture which can be applied in schools and traces the multicultural values in the contents of organizational culture, based on case studies (direct observation, questionnaire, interview, document analysis) performed in seven schools teaching in minority languages or having minority language teaching sections from Timiș county.

REZUMAT

Schimbările datorate descentralizării sistemului de învățământ: consolidarea autonomiei profesionale, transformarea școlii în „instituții ofertante de servicii”, asigurarea calității actului educațional, atrag atenția asupra vieții organizaționale a școlii.

Studiul își propune evidențierea caracteristicilor școlilor cu limba de predare a minorităților, alegându-și ca și concept central cultura organizațională. Cultura organizațională se poate defini ca programare mentală colectivă care deosebește membrii unei organizații de membrii altei organizații, ca ansamblu de credințe și valori împărtășite în organizație.

Pornind de la studiile de caz (observare directă, chestionar, interviu, analiză de documente) realizate în șapte școli cu limba de predare a minorităților sau secții cu predare în limba minorităților din județul Timiș, sunt prezentate modelele de cultură organizațională aplicabile în cazul școlilor, sunt urmările valorilor ce țin de multiculturalitate în conținutul culturii organizaționale.

School as an organization

School is involved in major changes, which draw the attention upon the school’s organizational life. Such processes are those related to the decentralization process and the consolidation of institutional autonomy, the transformation of the finance system and the reorganization of schools in educational centers, the school’s transformation in “service-offering institutions,” the assurance of the educational act’s quality.

School belongs to the category of complex social organizations, having the following particular features: it is an organization, which is open to all the flat structured levels. Its declared objectives are too general and the measurement of school’s efficiency and success becomes difficult because of the multitude of elements influencing the young generation’s education. The liberty of schools is, on the one hand, more reduced, its objectives and functions are powerfully determined by the society’s values, and, on the other, the quality of work results, the market generally speaking, has a more limited influence upon its functional characteristic. Păun (1999) highlights the presence and development of two both distinct and interdependent activities, structured according to two different ways of judgment: the managerial-administrative activity (the organizational logic) and the pedagogical activity (the pedagogical logic).

The organizational culture of schools

The organizational culture can be defined as the collective mental programming, which makes the difference between the members of an organization and the members of another organization. It is the result of “beliefs, values and norms shared within an organization” (Denison, 1996).

The organizational culture supports and assures the adaptation of school to the external context and the formation of internal integration. It helps us to perceive and interpret certain situations, and it offers behavioral strategies. It can become an internal motivational force, it's the basis, which the organizational development strategy relies on, it helps the decision process (values become priorities) and assures continuity in the organizations' life. The systematic analysis of the organizational culture permits its approach as a strategic instrument of organizational transformation.

From the organizational culture models, Handy's typology (1986), Hofstede's model (1980) and the model of competitive values (1988) can be approached in the schools' analysis too.

Handy's typology (1986)

- The power-type organizational culture is constructed around and like a prolongation of a central personality, promoting his values and conviction. The power and influence rays spread from the central figure towards the group. It is specific to *some little schools, led by skilled directors*.

- The role-type organizational culture: its characteristics are represented by the functional and specialized sectors, the functional departments are clearly delimited. The work in each department is controlled by means of procedures and rules, and authority is clearly defined. What matters is the function, not the person. This type of culture is specific to *the majority of schools in the Romanian educational system*.

- The task-type organizational culture appears as a network made up of small teams, which interact. It is focused on the project, which changes when projects change. The emphasis is on the results and tasks to be fulfilled. They are preferred by professional and dynamic contexts. These characteristics can be identified in the upper level of universities and in *some high - schools, which lately have developed European partnerships and involved in various projects*.

- In the person-type organizational culture the individual is the most important, the structure exists only to serve the individuals. Culture exists only for people, there are no overly arranged reasons. This culture can develop especially in groups of specialists who have powerful values related to what they do. It is specific to the *university or research context, and some characteristics can be found in famous theoretical high -schools, or national colleges*.

Hofstede's model (1980)

The research realized by the Institute of Education Sciences coordinated by Iosifescu (2002) between 1998 and 2002, based on Hofstede's model, shows that the dominant features of the Romanian schools' organizational culture are:

- *The big distance from the power* – which induces the tendency towards centralization and authoritarian management styles, uniformity, lack of initiative, excessive focus on the educational offer supplier, not on the customer, the serious need of order, short-term orientation, the inability to design and accomplish the organizational development, and

- *The high avoidance of uncertainty* – which induces the feeling of provisional state while breaking the tie between school and community.

Competing Values Framework (Quinn, 1988)

According to this model, the organization's efficiency depends on the values assumed. The quality of the organization's functionality depends on the integration of individual value systems in organizational value structures. By analyzing the organizational culture types and the afferent managerial roles, we can make the following associations (Baráth, 1998):

- Hierarchy (culture oriented towards rules) – the bureaucratic model, oriented towards the interior, characterized by control which points up to order, stability and balance. Specific processes: documentation and stabilization, managerial roles: monitor and coordinator. This type of culture describes the *traditional schools*.

- The firm (culture oriented towards purpose) – organization is seen rationally. Control and external orientation aim to reach the highest degree of performance. Specific processes: productivity, orientation/counseling. Specific roles: producer and director. Such cultures can be identified in the *elite schools of big cities*.

- Adhocracy (culture oriented towards innovations) – flat organizations, open systems, matrix systems. Their essence consists in flexibility, activism, the adaptation capacity, and transformation. It emphasizes innovation, creativity and risk taking. Specific processes: attraction of resources and innovation. Specific roles: broker and innovator. This type of culture appears in *technical colleges and some private schools*.

- The team (supportive culture) – focus on the development of human capital, communication and cooperation. They are cohesive organizations in which people are evaluated. Characteristic processes: involvement and participation. Managerial roles: facilitator and mentor. It is an organizational culture specific to *alternative schools*.

The schools' organizational culture is not unitary (Păun, 1999). We can mark the limits of managerial culture (within its formation frame, dominated by ambiguity), the teachers' culture (diversified and formal) with its specific sub-cultures: the feminine and masculine sub-culture, the primary schools' sub-culture, the young and old teachers' sub-culture etc., and the pupils' culture (predominantly informal and implicit, although there are also formalized norms).

Regarding the contents of organizational culture, Schein (1985) presents three levels, starting from the invisible to the perceptible ones, in the following way: the level of the main presuppositions and beliefs, the level of values shared by the organization's members and the level of culture's perceptible signs. At this "surface" level we can follow a series of visual, verbal and behavioral manifestations.

Schools teaching in minority languages

The phenomena related to globalization and the process of European integration concentrate on the topic of bilingual values, multi- and "inter-culturality." The schools teaching in minority languages represent educational institutions, which, due to their nature, are multicultural socializing spaces, which form bilingual and inter-cultural competencies.

In the case of native minority communities, school becomes a key element in the preservation of identity. The studies concerning the educational systems teaching in minority languages considered European models (education in Swedish in Finland and education in German in Italy) points up to the importance of education in the native language in the minorities' social integration process (Györi Szabó, 1999).

By studying the topic of bilingual values and assimilation processes, and integration from the educational perspective, Tove Skutnabb-Kangas (1997) presents four educational strategies:

- *Submersion programs* – children belonging to minority groups are assured not only education in the majority language. The prestige and approach area of the minority language decrease and facilitate the linguistic and cultural assimilation.

- *Transitional programs* - at the very beginning, they assure education in the minority language in order to set the basis for the education in the majority language.

- *Immersion programs* – children belonging to the majority group can choose an education in the minority language.



• *Language shelter/language maintenance programs* – pupils belonging to ethnic communities have the possibility to be educated in their native language while the majority language is studied as an independent discipline.

These strategies can be identified in educational systems yet they are also strategies approached by families to educate their children when choosing the most appropriate school.

According to the definition proposed by UNESCO, multi-culturality means peaceful companionship and mutual understanding between ethnic groups living within the same society yet sharing different cultures. Inter-culturality expresses interaction between cultures, it can become specific to multiethnic societies. Larcher (2000) describes four theoretical educational models, which can't be found in their pure form but can describe the development process of the intercultural model:

• *The "Cain and Abel" model* – it is a model based on the theory of demolition: all that does not belong to the majority culture is eliminated.

• *The assimilative model* – its starting point is the idea that a multiethnic society can function only if it becomes mono-cultural.

• *The multicultural model* – is the model of ethnic pluralism, each ethnic/linguistic group has cultural autonomy. Each of them develops its own educational system in which they teach in the language of the respective group, but they can also learn the others' language and culture.

• *The intercultural model* – is the model of linguistic and cultural integration. All the spoken languages are present within the public sphere. Each child attends a multi-linguistic school, regardless of his own native language. There is a single educational system, a single program, yet both are multi-linguistic. Children experiment integration while having daily contacts with those speaking another language. For them, language and cultural differences are natural, and communication in more languages becomes a common detail.

By analyzing the educational situation in the minority languages in Romania, we can identify elements of the multicultural educational model: the ethnic minorities try to develop and consolidate their own educational networks, however there are no specific programs. Within these structures they learn the majority language, but not the languages of other ethnic minorities (excepting the German language which is highly appreciated, being also considered an international language).

THE RESEARCH PRESENTATION

The schools' selection

The research aimed to emphasize some characteristic elements reflecting the culture of the educational organizations teaching the minorities' language in Banat, an area with multicultural traditions in Romania. By means of this study we shall present those elements which are related both to multiculturality – interculturality, and bilingual contexts.

At the last census (in 2002) in the Timiș county they registered 17 ethnic minorities which represented 14,6% from the whole population of the county. The ethnic communities, which have got schools teaching in the minority language, are: the Hungarians (48238 persons), the Germans (12259 persons), the Serbs (12419 persons) and the Romas (10372 persons). The network of the schools teaching in the minorities' language in the Timiș county comprises: 4 units and 14 sections taught in Hungarian, 2 units and 11 sections taught in German, 1 unit and 9 sections taught in Serb, 1 section taught in the Roma language. Besides these there are also schools taught in Romanian in which groups of students study their native languages. They study the Roma language, Hungarian, Bulgarian, Ukrainian, Slovakian and Croatian in an optional way.

After a thoughtful analysis of the statistical data regarding the number of units, pupils and teachers, the research focused upon 7 schools, from which 3 units (from the 1st to the 12th grade), 3 sections (from the 1st to the 8th grade) and 1 unit (from the 1st to the 12th grade), where the minority language is taught optionally at all levels. From the 7 schools 5 units are in the urban and 2 in the country side. In these units the teaching languages are: Hungarian, German, Serbian and Bulgarian.

Research methods

Given the theme characteristics, the most appropriate research method, finally chosen, was the case study, based on direct observation, document analysis, semi-structured interviews and questionnaires.

From the perceptible signs' category of the organizational culture the direct observation highlighted the *visual manifestations, the symbols*: buildings, spaces, interior designs, items of furniture, objects and memories related to special events, labels, clothing (eventual uniforms). The document analysis pointed up to *verbal and conceptual manifestations*: the name of institution, mission, strategic objectives, educational offer. The metaphors, myths, legends as well as some *behavioral manifestations* (rituals, customs, special events, ceremonies) were identified through semi-structured interviews with persons from the Administrative Council of educational institutions.

In order to underline some invisible elements of the organizational culture, I conceived a questionnaire for teachers referring to their perception regarding the school's objectives – a topic which emphasizes the values and beliefs concerning education and school generally speaking. The teachers were asked to evaluate the importance of 21 possible school objectives on the 5 gradations Likert scale.

The presentation of some data relevant for the study's objective

The level of perceptible signs – data obtained through observation, document analysis, semistructured interview. I shall further present some similarities and tendencies noticed in more investigated schools.

In the schools teaching in the minority language, the objects and images displayed on the walls of the institute are related to the personality which names the institution. The elements related to multiculturalism are present through posters/the results of some projects which involved partners from other countries. In the schools with sections teaching in the minorities' language, there are many differences: in one of the schools the presence of the section is not noticed at all at this level, in another one all the inscriptions are bilingual. In these schools the walls are paved especially with the children's works.

The name of the institution (if any) has an important value in the analysis of the organizational culture. The personalities chosen by the institutions (there are especially the high-schools which have specific names) represent important elements in the knowledge of the school's organizational culture. The messages conveyed in this way can have multicultural connections (for instance, the name of Bartók Béla). There is no primary or secondary school with a specific name. In one of the schools with a section in the minority language, one specified in an interview that, several years ago, although they discussed this issue, they had to give it up in order to avoid subsequent conflicts between the two sections.

At the mission and strategic objectives level there are also differences between the units teaching in the minority language and the schools with sections in the minority language: in the former case, they emphasize especially the preservation of tradition, native language and multiculturalism, while in the sections' case community might appear, or not, as a value in the organizational diagnosis which the school's institutional development relies on.

There is a great diversity of extracurricular multi- and intercultural programs and multiple partnerships with other educational institutions, or NGOs promoting such values.

The level of invisible elements – data obtained through the questionnaire:

The questionnaire was completed by 167 teachers from the 7 schools, from which 79,6% are women and 20,6% men. 73,1 % from those questioned work in urban schools, and 26,9 in the country side. Regarding their professional experience, 21,1% have less than 5 years of experience, 30,7% between 6-15 years, 15,1% between 16-25 years, and 33,1% have an experience of more than 25 years. Regarding the disciplines, the situation stands like this: 35% are primary school teachers and institutors, 26,4% teach disciplines belonging to the Language and Communication curricular area, 17,8% Maths and Sciences, 11,7% Man and Society, 4,9% Physical and Art Education and 4,3% Technology. 34,5% work with pupils in the primary cycle, 36,4% mostly with the secondary level, and 29,1% with high-school pupils.

Whether we take into account the native language of the questioned teachers, the situation is the following one:

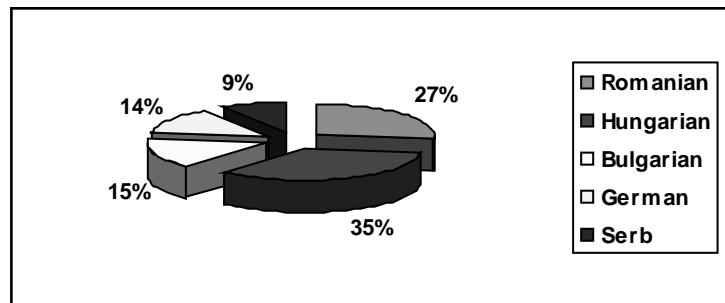


Fig. 1. The pattern presentation according to the native language

There are only 20% from the questioned teachers who speak a minority language (other than their own) and 59,4% speak a modern, international language.

The evaluation of the objectives' importance displays the following value systems at the school level:

School	The most important objectives	Average
„A”	The development of basic skills (reading, writing, counting)	4,49
	Further study training, the learning of „learning”	4,23
	Moral education	4,23
	The discipline of the students, the respect for order	4,03
„B”	The development of basic skills (reading, writing, counting)	4,67
	The discipline of the students, the respect for order	4,67
	Moral education	4,22
	The development of linguistic competencies in the native language	4,22
	Formation of communication and cooperation skills	4,11
	The development of community spirit	4,06
„C”	The development of basic skills (reading, writing, counting)	4,75
	Moral education	4,21
	The discipline of the students, the respect for order	4,13
	Further study training, the learning of „learning”	4,08
	The development of cognitive competencies	4,00

„D”	The development of basic skills (reading, writing, counting)	4,44
	Education for health	4,31
	Further study training, the learning of „learning”	4,23
	Moral education	4,13
	The development of cognitive competencies	4,13
	The discipline of the students, the respect for order	4,06
„E”	The development of basic skills (reading, writing, counting)	4,64
	The development of cognitive competencies	4,32
	The discipline of the students, the respect for order	4,27
	The development of skills in the native language	4,23
	Moral education	4,23
	The assurance of decent study conditions and the formation of skills	4,23
	The development of linguistic competencies in the Romanian language	4,14
„F”	The development of basic skills (reading, writing, counting)	4,69
	The development of cognitive competencies	4,28
	The discipline of the students, the respect for order	4,14
„G	The development of basic skills (reading, writing, counting)	4,70
	The assurance of decent study conditions and the formation of skills	4,35
	The development of linguistic skills in the native language	4,30
	Moral education	4,22
	The discipline of the students, the respect for order	4,13

Objectives such as „The development of intercultural competencies” ($m=2,99$) or „The transfer of values promoted by the EU” ($m=2,8$) belong to the category of less important objectives at all the schools investigated.

The diagram below displays all those values which are relevant for the analysed topic and the assessments given at the level of the 7 educational institutions approached in the research

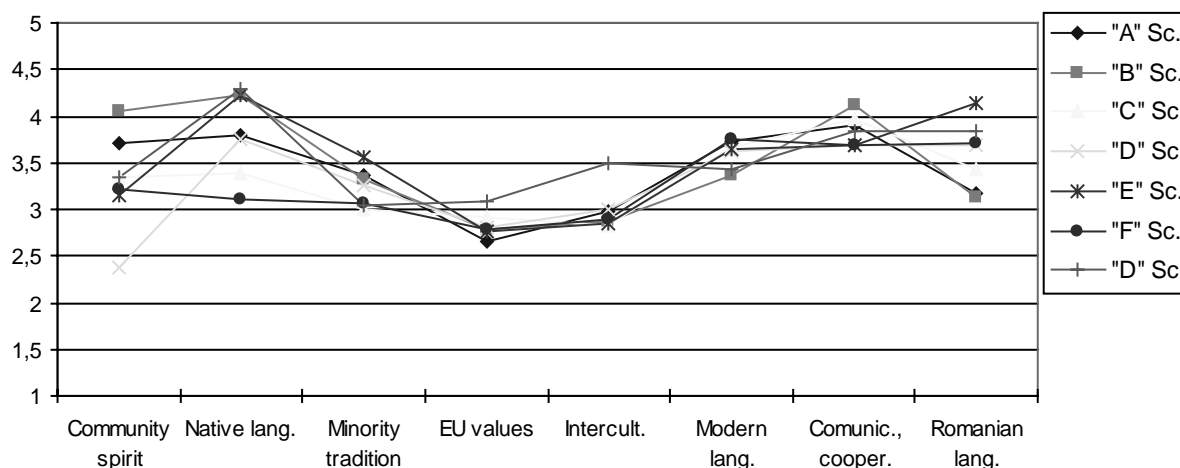
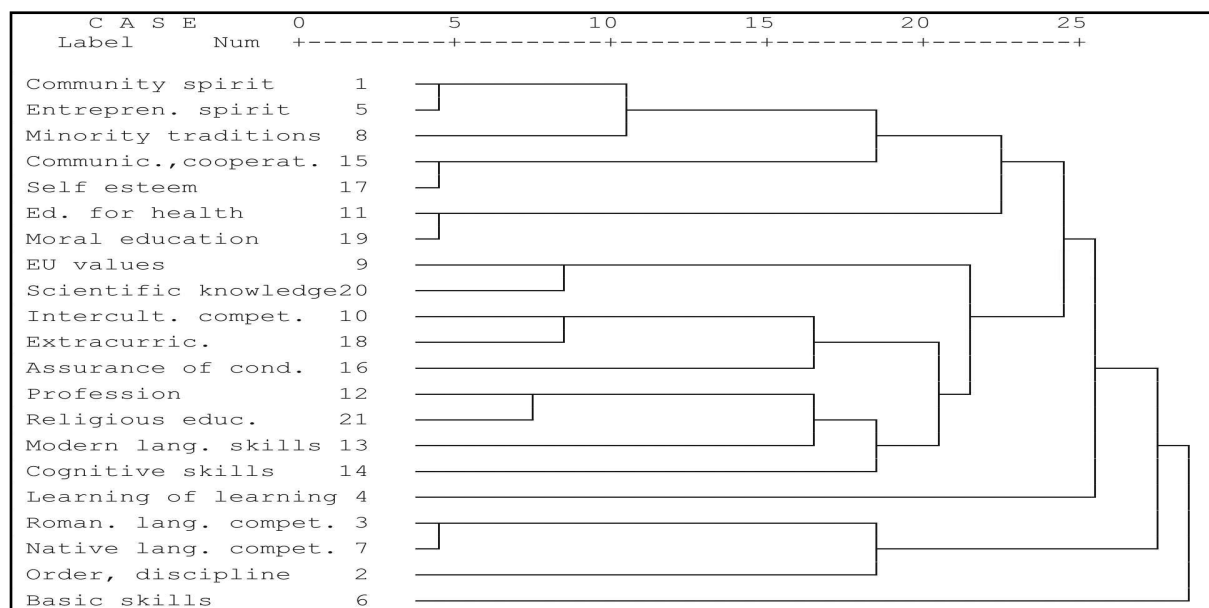


Fig. 2. The importance of values in the schools investigated

In order to catch the structure of these values expressed through the importance of some objectives, through a cluster analysis, I reached to the following dendrogram:



We can see that the development of intercultural competencies is rather attached to extracurricular activities, which is explainable whether we take into account the multitude of projects and extracurricular programs defined as intercultural. The linguistic competencies do not belong to the same cluster: the modern language is related to the professional training, while the native and Romanian ones are associated with discipline and order. The transmission of knowledge regarding the minority traditions does not appear in the same group with the development of linguistic skills in the native language, it is rather related to the development of community spirit.

I had in view to see if there is any significant statistic difference between the teachers who speak another minority language than the native one concerning the specific objectives, yet the statistical tests do not suggest this fact. Similarly, there are no significant differences in the evaluation of intercultural competencies importance between the teachers with different professional experience or the teachers with different specialties. There is only the knowledge of a modern language which drives to a significant difference in the evaluation of intercultural skills importance: the teachers who speak any modern language, compared to those who do not speak at least one modern language, consider that the development of intercultural competencies is more important ($t=2,372, p > 0.02$).

CONCLUSIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Although the school teaching in the minority language represents a space of bilingual linguistic socializing, developing intercultural skills through its attributes, the teachers who teach in these schools consider that multi- and interculturality are rather related to the topic of international languages (highlighted in the cluster analysis and in the interpretation of the organizational culture's perceptible signs). The lower prestige of the minority languages might be a possible explanation, an aspect which needs to be further researched.

By analyzing the most important objectives, we obtain the image of some rather traditional schools which emphasize the idea of order, discipline, the formation of basic and cognitive competencies. The values which are related to the modern European school (entrepreneurial

and intercultural competencies, the promotion of EU values, the learning management) and to the school focused on pupils (the development of self esteem, education for health), although they appear at a declarative level in the school's documents and projects, they were not noticed in the „top” realized by the teachers. The stereotypes according to which the units teaching in the minority language represent sources of social isolation, not of integration (the linguistic competencies in the native language, the knowledge of the minority tradition do not appear before those related to the school's social role, the schools have a larger scale of extracurricular programs which promote multiculturalism and the assessment of differences etc.) are neither confirmed. These tendencies can be rather noticed in the schools with sections teaching in the minority language where the sections form a specific subculture yet, in order to realize a study in this sense, it is necessary to extend the sample towards other schools with sections teaching in the minority language.

The investigated schools develop lasting relationships with the community, present a high degree of initiative – aspects which are not inserted in the patterns described in the research reports concerning the organizational culture based on the model of Hofstede (Iosifescu, 2002). This research can be continued from this perspective too.

Another research direction we would like to develop is the one related to the study of the effects of bilingual characteristics upon the school's organizational life.

The organizational culture is a product of social learning, not a static characteristic of the school. There is no good or bad organizational culture, it does not have to be changed. The organizational culture must be firstly known and assessed as an instrument of school's efficiency.

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ESQUISSE D'UNE THÉORIE DE L'ALLÉGEANCE ET DE SES NORMES ORDINAIRES DE PÉRENNISATION DES INJUSTICES LIBREMENT CONSENTIES

Bernard GANGLOFF dit Popeye le Ladero

Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et Département de Postgraduation en Gestion à l'Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

RÉSUMÉ

Nous apprenons, dès notre plus jeune âge, à valoriser la justice. Cela implique que lorsque nous sommes confrontés, en tant que victime ou comme témoin, à une injustice, nous éprouvons un sentiment de dissonance cognitive et cherchons à rétablir la justice. Pour autant, lorsque l'auteur de cette injustice est une autorité, ce rétablissement nécessite de se rebeller contre cette autorité. Or nous avons, également depuis toujours, appris à respecter l'autorité, à intérioriser une norme d'allégeance. Le rétablissement objectif de la justice ne peut alors être effectif sans conduire à une nouvelle dissonance, et il semblerait que cette seconde dissonance soit la plus insupportable. D'où la tendance à ne chercher à rétablir la justice que cognitivement, via des rationalisations substitutives, ce qui évidemment conduit, sur un plan concret, à la pérennisation des injustices et, plus globalement, à la pérennisation des structures d'autorité à l'origine de ces injustices.

Mon objectif est ici d'esquisser un modèle réunissant diverses formes de rétablissement cognitif de la justice en soulignant comment, insidieusement, certaines théories psychologiques, que nous considérerons comme normatives, les articulent.

J'examinerai ainsi, suite aux recherches effectuées dans le cadre de la théorie du Monde Juste, la responsabilisation comportementale ou morale de la victime, responsabilisations se traduisant par des attributions internes, ou plus exactement par l'exclusion de tout facteur causal externe (et notamment par l'exclusion de toute mise en cause de l'autorité source de l'injustice). Seront ainsi explorés le genre ou la «race» de la victime (on parle généralement ici de biologisation), son groupe d'appartenance ou son statut social dans ce groupe (sociologisation, ethnologisation), ou encore ses attitudes et sa personnalité (évoqueries à mettre en relation avec les normes défensives du métier de psychologue, notamment différentialiste, comme la norme d'attribution personologique, ou psychologisation). J'aborderai aussi la minimisation de l'injustice, la positivation (c'est-à-dire la référence à un optimisme prophétique, qu'il soit compensateur -par annonce d'un futur proche où tout rentrera dans l'ordre- ou surcompensateur -grâce à cette injustice, à cette mortification involontaire, l'avenir sera proclamé comme béatifiant)... Je montrerai également que si aucune de ces stratégies ne se révèle suffisamment efficace, d'autres rationalisations seront encore disponibles, par exemple en termes de fatalisme ou de résignation acquise (la malchance, autrui tout puissant,...).

J'avancerai enfin que ces substituts cognitifs ne sont pas à considérer comme des biais mais qu'ils possèdent une intense utilité sociale (ou plus exactement mandarinale, c'est-à-dire microsociale) référant au maintien de la hiérarchie des structures; qu'ils font de ce fait l'objet d'une diffusion pédagogique et d'une valorisation sociale, caractéristiques qui nous conduiront leur conférer un statut normatif et à les intégrer dans ce que nous nommerons les normes de pérennisation sociale.

Mots clés: norme d'allégeance, justice, dissonance, rationalisation.

ABSTRACT

We learn, since our youngest age, to valorize the justice. It implies that when we are confronted, as victim or as witness, to an injustice, we feel a cognitive dissonance that drives us to tempt to restore the justice. However, when the author of this injustice is an authority, this restoration requires to rebel against this authority. Now, we also learned, since always, to respect the authority, to internalize a norm of allegiance. So, the objective restoration of the justice cannot be efficient without driving to a new dissonance, and it seems that this second dissonance is the most intolerable. From where the tendency to look for restore the justice only cognitively, via substitutive rationalizations; that evidently conducts, on a concrete plan, to



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

the maintenance of the injustices and, more globally, to the maintenance of the structures of authority at the origin of these injustices.

My objective is here of to outline a model uniting various manners of cognitive restoration of the justice while underlining how, insidiously, some psychological theories, that we will consider as normative, articulate them.

Thus, I will examine, following the studies done within the field of the Just World Theory, the behavioral or moral responsabilization of the victim, responsabilizations resulting in internal attributions, or more precisely by the exclusion of all external causal factor (and notably by the exclusion of all implication of the authority at the origin of the injustice). So, we will explore the victim's gender or «race» (one generally speaks here of biologization), his membership group or his social statute in this group (sociologization, ethnologization), or his attitudes and personality (evocations to put in relation with the defensive norms of psychologist's profession, notably differentialist, as the norm of personological attribution, or psychologization). I will also examine the minimization of the injustice, the positivation (that is to say the reference to a prophetic optimism, as well compensatory -by the announcement of a near future where all will go back in the order- as overcompensatory- thanks to this injustice, to this involuntary mortification, the future will be proclaimed beatifying)... I will also show that if none of these strategies is sufficiently efficient, other rationalizations will be even available, for example in terms of fatalism or learned resignation (the misfortune, others all powerful,..).

I will finally move forward that these cognitive substitutes must not be considered as biases but that they possess an intense social utility (or more precisely mandarinal, that is to say microsocal) refering to the maintenance of the hierarchy of the structures that for this reason they are the object of an educational diffusion and of a social valorization, characteristics that will drive us to confer them a normative statute and to integrate them in what we will name the norms of social maintenance.

Key words: *norm of allegiance, justice, dissonance, rationalization.*

1. INTRODUCTION

La terre n'est pas le paradis. Si le paradis existe, c'est ailleurs qu'il faut le localiser. Sur terre, l'être humain est régulièrement, et depuis toujours, décrit comme un être souffrant. Et le plus terrible est peut-être que cette souffrance résulte souvent des actions d'autrui. Or les tueries, les mutilations, les tortures sont, depuis la nuit des temps, monnaie courante. Milgram se demandait, à propos des crimes nazis perpétrés durant la seconde guerre mondiale, comment des êtres humains pouvaient tant faire souffrir leurs frères innocents. La question que je souhaite aborder ici rejoint le questionnement de Milgram, mais elle est centrée sur les témoins de ces souffrances, ou plus exactement sur les témoins de certaines de ces souffrances. En d'autres termes, ma question porte sur le comment des êtres humains peuvent si fréquemment assister à certains actes de torture sans réagir; sans adopter spontanément des comportements d'aide destinés à mettre fin à certains actes intolérables.

Les souffrances humaines sont en effet diverses. Ainsi, les génocides présentent un aspect «spectaculaire» susceptible d'émouvoir et, si certaines conditions géopolitiques sont réunies, susceptible de faire réagir: les médias savent s'en saisir.. pour le temps d'un «scoop». Mais à côté de ces souffrances qui font vendre, il en est d'autres, tout aussi injustes, dont on ne parle que de manière anecdotique. Elles tuent elles aussi, mais des congénères isolés et non des communautés. Elles tuent elles aussi, mais indirectement, en s'attaquant d'abord au psychisme. Elles tuent elles aussi, mais lentement, comme un cancer qu'on nous aurait injecté et qui nous ronge de l'intérieur. Il n'y a donc pas de spectacle, pas de «scoop» à saisir. Ces souffrances psychiques qui s'accumulent au fil des jours, de mois en mois, d'année en année, ces souffrances psychiques qui ne se propagent qu'insidieusement conduisent pourtant elles aussi à la mutilation des individus, à leur mort prématurée: parce que le corps ne suit plus, ou parce que le mental ne supporte plus et que l'individu ne perçoit comme seule issue que de mettre fin à ses jours. Et puis elles sont tellement quotidiennes; tellement quotidiennes qu'elles en deviennent banales. Alors, rester passif face à ces souffrances individuelles, face à ces souffrances muettes, face à

ces barbaries douces des puissants sur les faibles, notamment lorsque ces puissants sont, dans un système libéral, dotés d'un statut hiérarchique légitimé, rester passif, c'est bien facile et c'est, *in fine*,... si confortable.

Il n'est certes jamais immédiatement confortable d'assister à une injustice. Nous avons appris, dès notre plus jeune âge, à valoriser la justice, et face à une injustice, nous éprouvons un conflit intra psychique, nous nous trouvons en état de dissonance cognitive, dirait Festinger, avec le besoin de supprimer la tension générée par cette dissonance. La méthode, nous dit également Festinger, est alors de suivre le processus inverse de celui qui a généré le déséquilibre, c'est-à-dire ici de rétablir la justice; donc de mettre en cause l'auteur de l'injustice. Lorsque l'auteur de cette injustice est une autorité, c'est-à-dire une personne investie d'un statut hiérarchique lui conférant un pouvoir légitime, ce rééquilibrage nécessite donc de se rebeller contre une autorité. Or nous avons aussi appris, également depuis toujours, à respecter l'autorité, à intérioriser une norme d'allégeance définie comme l'évitement de toute conduite susceptible de mettre en cause la hiérarchie des pouvoirs inhérente à la structure sociale environnementale. Le rétablissement objectif de la justice ne peut donc être effectif sans conduire à une nouvelle dissonance, et il semblerait, si l'on se réfère à la faible étendue des conduites de protestation, que cette seconde dissonance soit la plus insupportable. D'où la tendance à ne chercher à rétablir la justice que par des moyens conciliables avec cette préservation de l'ordre social, c'est-à-dire à ne rétablir la justice que symboliquement; cognitivement, *via* des rationalisations substitutives à un rétablissement objectif de la justice, ce qui évidemment conduit, sur un plan concret, à la pérennisation des injustices et, plus globalement, à la pérennisation des structures d'autorité à l'origine de ces injustices.

Cela signifie que je pose ici comme hypothèse première qu'existerait, dans toute société humaine, des normes visant à la pérennisation de ces sociétés et de leurs structures hiérarchiques (donc qu'il existerait des normes de pérennisation sociale), normes permettant notamment la pérennisation des injustices sociales, et normes dont la plus fondamentale serait la norme d'allégeance. Et je pose comme hypothèse seconde que face à une injustice commise par une autorité, que ce soit en milieu professionnel ou dans le domaine «civil», le respect de ces normes de pérennisation sociale conduirait à un rééquilibrage uniquement cognitif de la justice. Ce que je souhaite alors aborder ici porte sur certaines de ces voies de rééquilibrage.

2. LES STRATÉGIES DU RÉTABLISSEMENT COGNITIF DE LA JUSTICE

2.1. La responsabilisation de la victime

Les nombreuses études réalisées dans le cadre de la théorie du Monde Juste ont mis en évidence que, face à une injustice que l'on ne peut ni éviter ni réparer de manière objective, on tend généralement à un rééquilibrage substitutif en proclamant la victime responsable de son sort. Cette responsabilisation, qui peut être mise en rapport avec les attributions internes observées en matière de *Locus Of Control*, est de deux types: soit comportementale, soit morale. Dans le premier cas on se contentera de déclarer que la victime a, du fait de son comportement, provoqué ce qui lui est arrivé et donc mérité son sort (songeons encore une fois aux sujets de Milgram qui accusaient le manque d'efforts de leurs élèves), alors que dans le second on évoquera des caractéristiques intrinsèques de la victime, comme sa personnalité. J'ajouterai que si ces deux stratégies sont, dans la théorie du Monde Juste, considérées comme indépendantes, il n'est cependant pas à exclure qu'elles puissent également fonctionner de manière articulée l'une l'autre: il est en effet aisément possible d'inférer, à partir d'un comportement, une personnalité qui sera alors dite coupable, tout comme on peut se baser sur une personnalité pour inférer une cause de comportement dit fautif ou une probabilité d'occurrence d'un tel comportement. Je ne m'étendrai cependant pas davantage sur ce point car je voudrais surtout approfondir sur la



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

notion de responsabilité morale. La théorie du Monde Juste étant très vague sur ce que recouvre cette responsabilité, il me semble en effet nécessaire de tenter d'approcher ses composantes, ou d'une moins certaines de ses composantes, mon objectif n'étant pas d'être exhaustif mais de fournir quelques illustrations soulignant la diversité des formes de concrétisation potentielle de cette responsabilisation morale, et de souligner ainsi sa fréquente probabilité d'emploi.

Je commencerai par inclure dans cette responsabilité morale des caractéristiques biologiques comme le genre ou l'âge de la victime. Ne dit-on pas ainsi parfois d'une femme malmenée par un homme ou par une société à domination masculine qu'il n'y a, somme toute, rien d'anormal à cela puisqu'il ne s'agit «que d'une femme». Et l'on justifiera alors cette «normalité» en évoquant l'infériorité des femmes par rapport aux hommes (c'est-à-dire en activant les stéréotypes de genre issus, dans un nombre non négligeable de cas, de certaines herméneutiques de textes religieux). Une telle biologisation peut également consister en des appels à la «race» de la victime (je mets le terme de race entre guillemets car nous savons aujourd'hui qu'il n'existe qu'une seule race humaine). Je rappellerai simplement ici que l'idéologie raciste fut aussi une idéologie de la justification de nombreuses exterminations.

L'ethnologisation consisterait quant à elle à évoquer l'appartenance ethnique de la victime. Et l'on sait qu'aujourd'hui encore, dans de nombreux pays du monde, d'autres génocides sont perpétrés sous couvert de responsabilité ethnique.

Il est aussi possible de faire état de phénomènes de sociologisation en évoquant le statut ou le rang social de la victime. C'est ainsi que, dans certaines études réalisées dans le cadre de la théorie du Monde Juste, on observe que les prostituées victimes d'un viol tendent, dans un nombre non négligeable de cas, à être considérées comme moralement (mais pas nécessairement comportementalement) davantage responsables de ce viol que ne le sont par exemple des femmes mariées.

On peut également, à un niveau plus psychique, pénétrer dans la psychologisation et faire référence aux attitudes de la victime, qu'il s'agisse de ses caractéristiques cognitives (comme ses croyances: songeons aux guerres saintes, aux croisades et autres colonisations, historiques ou actuelles, contre «les hérétiques»), conatives (comme les intentions .. qui seront dites coupables), ou évaluatives. Et l'on peut bien évidemment, par cette psychologisation, faire aussi appel à la personnalité de la victime. Du fait que cette psychologisation entre directement dans le cadre des fonctions des psychologues, et plus précisément du fait que l'une des plus fréquentes concrétisations de la pratique psychologique est l'établissement d'un profil psychologique dont le constituant principal concerne la personnalité, je voudrais surtout approfondir ici la psychologisation en termes de personnalité. Cette dernière est généralement définie comme l'ensemble des caractéristiques internes stables et différenciatrices des individus. C'est-à-dire que trois éléments fondent le concept de personnalité et son utilisation: son aspect interne, sa stabilité et son potentiel différenciateur. L'établissement d'un profil de personnalité étant essentiellement basé sur l'interprétation de données comportementales auto-rapportées, l'interprétation de ces données repose donc sur trois postulats principaux: 1) les comportements auraient comme seule cause des déterminants internes à l'individu, 2) ces comportements seraient stables et 3) leur organisation les rendaient spécifiques à l'individu. Or de nombreuses recherches ont mis en évidence le caractère illusoire de chacun de ces trois postulats.

Avec le premier postulat, on retrouve le large domaine de l'attribution interne des comportements. Or les recherches sur l'attribution ont montré que les causes des comportements étaient généralement imputés, et surtout de manière totalement illégitime, aux acteurs des comportements examinés. Cette accentuation illégitime du poids de l'acteur fut longtemps considérée (par Ross, mais déjà un siècle auparavant par Nietzsche) comme un biais épistémologique. Puis de nombreuses travaux, essentiellement francophones, mirent en évidence le caractère non plus biaisé mais normatif de cette accentuation (j'entends ici que cette

accentuation fait notamment l'objet d'une incitation et d'une valorisation sociale, incitation et valorisation qui constituent les principaux critères de détermination des normes sociales. On a ainsi pu parler de «norme d'internalité»). Cette accentuation est en effet la condition nécessaire à la «sanctionnabilité» des individus (c'est-à-dire qu'elle permet de justifier des mesures de gestion des individus, d'où également le fait que ce qui, dans une société donnée, est inutile à une telle gestion n'est pas traduit en traits de personnalité), tout en constituant, de manière corollaire, la condition à la récusation légitimée de toute causalité environnementale (ce qui permet, je le souligne déjà ici mais j'y reviendrai ultérieurement, la pérennisation des facteurs environnementaux). En résumé, et même si certains milieux non encore totalement ouverts à la globalisation des productions scientifiques se refusent à l'admettre, on peut aujourd'hui assurer que ce premier postulat est erroné: ce n'est que du fait d'une occultation illégitime, normative et utilitaire des facteurs environnementaux que les individus sont si souvent déclarés sources des comportements qu'ils adoptent.

Mais internalité ne signifie pas nécessairement stabilité. Le second postulat concerne donc la stabilité comportementale. Cette stabilité, ou cette constance (qui fait fit des travaux de Locke expliquant que l'identité personnelle repose moins sur une identité de substance que sur une identité de conscience), peut se décliner à deux niveaux: stabilité temporelle et stabilité suivant les situations. Certains adeptes de la stabilité temporelle déclare que tout serait joué vers 6 ou 7 ans; quant aux avocats les plus orthodoxes de cette stabilité, ils vont jusqu'à avancer l'idée d'une caractéristique innée. Pour autant, un certain nombre d'études a mis en évidence que quelques mois de formation suffisaient à profondément modifier les réponses que des adultes apportaient à des questionnaires de personnalité. Sur le plan de la stabilité situationnelle, d'autres recherches ont montré la fréquente tendance des individus à adapter leurs comportements aux circonstances (d'où, dans les consignes des tests psychotechniques, des incitations à l'évitement de telles réponses fluctuantes qui rendent évidemment inopportunes toute tentative d'établissement d'un quelconque profil psychologique). D'autres travaux ont enfin mis en évidence le caractère normatif de ce postulat de stabilité, avec le concept de «norme de consistance».

Enfin le caractère différenciateur a également été mis à mal: des investigations ont ainsi montré que, quelle que soit la psychotechnique utilisée, cet aspect différenciateur était illusoire, la spécificité individuelle à laquelle les psychologues prétendent aboutir étant quasi systématiquement basée sur des stéréotypes ou sur le hasard, et son acceptation sociale (par laquelle une pauvre validité dite sociale tient lieu de validité scientifique) témoignant davantage d'une satisfaction identitaire narcissique que d'une attestation d'objectivité (comme dans l'effet Barnum). Il est certain que le modèle occidental, dans lequel tout individu est considéré comme spécifique, comme unique, et dans lequel tout individu est incité à cultiver et à renforcer cette spécificité, ne peut que renforcer cette illusion, même si, dans le même temps, sur un plan concret, objectif, les normes sociales ont pour conséquence (et en partie pour objectif) d'uniformiser les comportements.

Si l'élaboration d'un profil de personnalité constitue le quotidien de nombreux psychologues, il n'en reste pas moins que de nombreux travaux attestent du caractère artificiel de cette élaboration, ou plus exactement attestent que cette élaboration ne peut perdurer sans la légitimation d'un certain nombre de postulats erronés. C'est ainsi au prix d'une légitimation factice que se maintient le rôle, et donc la fonction même, de ces psychologues. Les postulats à la base du concept et de l'opérationnalisation du concept de personnalité préservent donc ces psychologues contre la disparition de leur statut. J'ai par ailleurs évoqué un certain nombre de travaux mettant en évidence le caractère normatif de ces postulats, ce qui signifie que ces derniers remplissent véritablement le rôle de normes défensives du métier de psychologue.

Plus globalement, la responsabilisation de la victime ayant comme corollaire l'évacuation



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

de toute responsabilisation environnementale, elle suffit à préserver cet environnement de toute velléité de transformation, que ce soit à un niveau ponctuel (comme l'éradication des injustices) ou plus structurel (comme dans le cadre d'une «révolution», ce terme étant pris dans son acception étymologique). C'est ainsi que les chômeurs seront dits responsables de leur sort: leur paresse, leur personnalité déviante, leur manque de compétences suffisant à expliquer leur exclusion sans qu'il soit nécessaire d'évoquer (ni par conséquent pertinent de songer à transformer) un marché de l'emploi pourtant objectivement récessif. Et tout sera par ailleurs fait pour que les chômeurs eux-mêmes intériorisent cette responsabilité: se voyant systématiquement rejetés du marché, comment ne pourraient-ils pas un jour ou l'autre eux aussi se convaincre qu'ils sont habités d'une tare ineffable, mais néanmoins rédhibitoire, en confessant que «c'est leur faute, leur très grande faute»? De même, des conduites de harcèlement au travail seront perçues comme la juste rétribution de comportements inadaptés, tant par les témoins (d'où des comportements de solidarité, d'assistance aux victimes souvent conditionnels -ces victimes méritent-elles vraiment notre aide?- et limités à des placebos) que souvent par la victime elle-même...Et les exemples pourraient être multipliés. Mais d'autres stratégies, que j'appellerai «stratégies normatives de relativisation», sont également possibles. Et j'évoquerai trois de ces stratégies: la minimisation, la positivation par sublimation, et la positivation par optimisme prophétique.

2.2. La minimisation

Nier l'importance de l'injustice ou nier l'amplitude de ses conséquences est une autre forme de rationalisation permettant de résoudre la dissonance cognitive. L'ampleur du déséquilibre cognitif étant corrélé à l'amplitude perçue de l'injustice ou de ses conséquences, il est en effet évident que la minimisation de cette amplitude ne peut que tendre à rendre plus tolérable le niveau de déséquilibre. Je vais, pour l'illustrer, revenir un instant sur certaines études réalisées dans le cadre de la théorie du Monde Juste. Comme je l'ai indiqué, un certain nombre de ces études concernait des femmes victimes de viol, ou encore de tentatives de viols. Or il fut alors notamment observé que sont généralement considérés comme plus graves les viols effectifs (par rapport aux tentatives de viols) ainsi que les viols commis sur des femmes mariées par rapport à ceux dont la victime était divorcée. Cela signifie, même si la théorie du Monde Juste n'envisage pas la minimisation comme une stratégie de rééquilibrage cognitif, que considérer moins grave le viol d'une femme divorcée revient en fait à utiliser de manière stéréotypée les conséquences supposées de l'acte commis comme critère de gravité de cet acte et, en cas d'acte injuste, comme critère d'appréciation de l'amplitude de l'injustice commise. Et de nombreuses autres illustrations de cette minimisation pourraient être fournies, ne serait-ce que dans le cadre des accidents de la circulation qui montrent par exemple que l'automobiliste qui, sous l'emprise de l'alcool brûle un feu rouge et tue un piéton se voit infliger une peine plus lourde lorsque sa victime est un homme respectable et bien sous tous rapport que lorsqu'il tue un voyou déjà condamné pour agressions et vols... Mais il est maintenant temps d'abandonner la minimisation pour en venir à une autre forme de relativisation.

2.3. La positivation par sublimation

S'il est un *leitmotiv* de plus en plus récurrent infiltrant nos sociétés, c'est bien celui de la positivation: il faut être positif! Il ne faut voir que le bon côté des choses: face à une bouteille à moitié vide, il convient de ne percevoir que le volume plein. La positivation est issue d'une différenciation entre aspects négatifs et aspects positifs d'une situation actuelle prise dans sa globalité, l'individu étant invité à négliger les premiers pour ne prendre en considération que les seconds, qui seront éventuellement amplifiés, puis, dans la positivation par sublimation,



sublimés de manière compensatrice ou surcompensatrice, et ceci consciemment: si la sublimation est en effet originellement un mécanisme de résolution de conflits intra-psychiques d'essence psychanalytique situé dans l'inconscient, il est cependant tout à fait envisageable qu'un mécanisme parallèle puisse aussi être activé de manière consciente. Je vais, pour m'en expliquer, rappeler quelques données issues d'une expérience de dissonance cognitive réalisée en laboratoire: des adultes, qui s'étaient tous investis avec la même énergie dans une activité, et étaient parvenu à un résultat identique, ont été récompensés de manière inégalitaire, les uns recevant une boîte de couleur rouge contenant de l'argent alors que les autres ne se voyaient attribuer qu'une boîte totalement vide, mais de couleur verte. Ces derniers étaient donc en état de dissonance cognitive. Comment résolurent-ils leur conflit ? En centrant leur attention sur la couleur de la boîte et en déclarant le vert infiniment plus attractif que le rouge; en déclarant que l'attribution d'une boîte verte était indéniablement préférable à celle d'une boîte rouge, même si cette dernière regorgeait de richesses. C'est-à-dire qu'ils réalisèrent une différenciation entre contenant et contenu, négligeant le second pour ne se centrer que sur le contenant, la couleur de la boîte, en amplifiant la valence, et donc en le positivant. Je pourrais aussi, en une extension à un domaine plus directement professionnel, rappeler les études sur le soldat américain réalisées par le sociologue Merton, études montrant que les soldats traités de manière inéquitable, faisant l'objet d'une discrimination négative, vont tenter de rétablir leur sentiment d'équité en changeant de groupe de référence (c'est-à-dire en effectuant une différenciation inter groupes de référence potentielle) pour se comparer à des individus jugés, objectivement ou par distorsion, encore moins bien traités qu'eux (ce qui n'est pas sans rappeler le concept de comparaison sociale de Festinger). Mais d'autres stratégies de positivation sont également disponibles.

2.4. La positivation par optimisme prophétique

Qui, confronté à une situation difficile, n'a jamais tenté de s'auto-persuader que cette situation n'était que passagère et que «ça ira mieux demain»? Qui, tentant de soutenir un congénère en souffrance, n'a jamais lancé «c'est un mal pour un bien»? De telles formules magiques annonçant un report de béatitude sont également issues d'une différenciation, mais différenciation entre présent et futur; entre un présent pénible et un futur enchanteur dans lequel un destin compensateur ou surcompensateur serait censé rétablir un équilibre aujourd'hui mis à mal, censé compenser les malheurs actuels, et parfois même les surcompenser, transformant chaque larme en autant d'extases et parfois même en les multipliant au centuple. On est alors proche de l'appellation par le contraire, proche d'un renversement du signe où les douleurs actuelles peuvent aller jusqu'à constituer la condition d'auto-mortification *sine qua non* à un futur quasi paradisiaque (et susceptible pour certains, grâce à l'une des sept béatitudes de la mythologie chrétienne -«heureux au ciel les malheureux sur terre»- de devenir outre-tombe effectivement paradisiaque). On est également ici proche de la résignation, du fatalisme, avec cependant comme différence marquante qu'une telle résignation ne porterait ici que sur le présent et serait perçue comme un gage, comme une promesse de récompenses à venir.

3. LE FATALISME

Chacun a, au cours de son histoire, été conduit à faire des deuils, à renoncer à certains projets, à abandonner l'illusion de son éventuelle toute-puissance, et en tous cas à admettre qu'existaient des forces plus puissantes que la sienne. A ainsi pénétré en certains le germe du pessimisme historique les conduisant, face aux obstacles, à abdiquer sans combattre. Le fatalisme, la résignation acquise au contact des échecs passés se concrétisent par quelques formules classiques: «personne n'y peut rien», «il est impossible d'avoir gain de cause», «de

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



toute façon, ils sont les plus forts, alors, pourquoi lutter»... Cela conduit parfois aux attitudes de retrait décrites par les sociologues: n'ayant pas les moyens de ses ambitions, l'homme résigné va jusqu'à perdre la notion d'ambition. Il est vrai qu'une telle attitude n'est pas, pour celui qui la porte, des plus confortables; il est également vrai que la société ne la valorise pas, ou plus exactement pas systématiquement, car il est également incontestable qu'elle évite toute remise en cause de cet environnement social (d'où d'ailleurs parfois, comme en témoignent les études sur le *Locus Of Distribution*, son évocation par l'oligarchie gestionnaire; mais alors évidemment en évocation auto-déresponsabilisante).

EN GUISE DE CONCLUSION

Je conviens que la catégorisation que je viens d'établir est, comme d'ailleurs toute catégorisation, quelque peu partielle. Il aurait ainsi été possible, en parlant des idéologies défensives de métier, d'aborder d'autres métiers que celui du psychologue. Il aurait aussi été possible de présenter l'articulation de ces différentes stratégies, et pour commencer leur non exclusivité d'emploi. J'aurais également pu faire référence à la responsabilisation par ricochet (où les fils sont punis pour les crimes de leurs pères; le mythe d'Adam et Eve en constitue sans doute l'une des illustrations les plus anciennes). J'aurais aussi pu évoquer la raison transcendante (par laquelle une injustice se voit non seulement justifiée par l'évitement d'une injustice plus importante, mais est même nécessaire à cet évitement; par exemple dans le cadre de certaines «raisons d'Etat», ou de certains destins surcompensateurs que j'ai évoqués antérieurement)...

Cette esquisse suffit cependant pour constater que chacune des stratégies évoquées témoigne de stéréotypies normatives conduisant à l'activation de scripts défensifs, c'est-à-dire à l'adoption de conduites quasi réflexes justificatrices des injustices commises (ou à commettre), qu'il s'agisse d'injustices par rapport à un absolu ou d'injustices relatives (je fais ici référence à la théorie de l'équité). Elles trouvent ainsi naturellement leur place dans le champ des idéologies défensives constituées pour légitimer des conduites inavouables.

Ces stéréotypies et scriptographies normatives mènent également, dans une optique plus large, à l'adoption de conduites préservant l'environnement de toute révolution structurelle. Elles participent donc aussi à la pérennisation ordinaire de ses structures hiérarchiques, remplissant ainsi parfaitement le rôle ayant présidé à leur constitution et à leur diffusion sociale.

J'ajouterai pour terminer que le caractère normatif (et donc contingent et arbitraire) de ces différentes stéréotypies et scriptographies est évidemment nié par leurs utilisateurs. Pour ces derniers, si l'on valorise les individus internes, les individus stables, les individus faisant état d'optimisme prophétique,... c'est parce que l'internalité, la stabilité personologique ou l'optimisme prophétique présentent une forte validité scientifique. Quoiqu'il soit indéniable que ces postulats d'internalité ou de stabilité personologique, pour ne reprendre qu'eux, reposent sur leur utilité sociale, notamment dans la société des psychologues, cette même société considère de bon ton de croire en la validité de structure de l'internalité ou de la stabilité personologique. Corollairement, les cassandres prétendant, à la manière d'un Derrida, démystifier et déconstruire cette validité, sont considérés comme des déviants. Ce qui signifie que je conçois parfaitement que le tableau que je viens d'esquisser, et qui est résumé dans le schéma suivant, puisse constituer, notamment pour certains de mes collègues ou confrères psychologues, un généreux plat de résistances...

Normes de pérennisation sociale

Normes de pérennisation des injustices

- Normes de relativisation :
 - Minimisation des événements négatifs
 - Positivation par sublimation
 - Positivation par optimisme prophétique
- Norme de fatalisme, norme de la raison transcendante,..

Normes de responsabilisation

- Normes de responsabilisation par ricochet
- Normes de biologisation, d'ethnologisation, de sociologisation, de psychologisation,...
- Normes défensives du métier de psychologue (les psychologisations) :
 - normes d'attribution attitudinale
 - normes d'attribution personnologique :
 - norme d'internalité allégeante
 - norme de constance personnologique
 - norme de différenciation personnologique

**Norme
d'Allégeance**

OUTLINE OF A THEORY OF ALLEGIANCE AND OF ITS ORDINARY NORMS OF MAINTENANCE OF THE AGREED FREELY INJUSTICES

1. INTRODUCTION

The Earth is not the paradise. If the paradise exists, it is elsewhere that we have to localize it. On Earth, the human being is regularly, and since always, described in terms of a suffering human being. And may be that the most terrifying is that this suffering often results from the actions of others. However the slaughters, the mutilations, the tortures are, from time

immemorial, very common. Milgram wondered, about the Nazi crimes perpetrated during Second World War, how the human being could make his innocent brothers suffer so much. The question, that I wish here to deal with, joins the questioning of Milgram, but my question is focused on the witnesses of these sufferings, or more precisely on the witnesses of some of these sufferings. In other words, my question is how some human beings can so frequently attend to acts of torture without reacting; without adopting behaviors of help in order to put an end to these intolerable acts.

The human sufferings are various. Thus, genocides present a spectacular “aspect” susceptible to move and, if certain geopolitical conditions are present, susceptible to make react: the medias know how to seize of it... for a scoop. But compared to these sufferings that are selling, others exist, as unjust, that are only being talked about in an anecdotal way. They also kill, but they kill isolated fellows and no communities. They also kill, but indirectly, first attacking psyche. They also kill, but slowly, as a cancer that one would have injected us and that wats us of the inside. Therefore, there is no spectacle, no scoop to seize off. These psychic sufferings that accumulate with the passing of the days, of the months, of the years, these psychic sufferings that are only propagated insidiously yet lead to the mutilation of the individuals, to their premature death: because the body doesn't follow anymore, or because the mental doesn't support anymore and that the only exit that individual discerns is to put an end to his days. And also they are so daily; so daily that they become common. Then, to remain passive facing these individual sufferings, facing these mute sufferings, facing these soft barbarities of the powerful people on the weak ones, notably when these powerful people are, in a liberal system, endowed with a legitimized hierarchical statute, to remain passive, it is veru easy and it is, all things considered,... so comfortable.

Evidently, it is never immediately comfortable to attend to an injustice. We learned, since our youngest age, to valorize the justice, and facing an injustice, we feel an intra- psychical conflict, we are in state of cognitive dissonance (would say Festinger), with the need to suppress the tension generated by this dissonance. Then the method (also told us Festinger) is to follow the inversed process of the one that generated the unbalance, that is to say that we tempt, here, to restore the justice, and so to implicate the author of the injustice. However, if the author of this injustice is an authority, that is to say a person invested of a hierarchical statute conferring him a legitimate power, this restoration requires to rebel against an authority. Now, we also learned, since always, to respect the authority, to internalize an allegiance norm defined as the avoidment of any conduct susceptible to question the hierarchy of the powerses inherent to the social environmental structure. Therefore, the objective restoration of the justice cannot be efficient without leading to a new dissonance, and it seems, if one refers to the weak extent of the protest conducts, that this second dissonance is the most intolerable. From where the tendency to look for restore the justice only using ways reconcilable with this preservation of the social order, that is to say to restore the justice symbolically, cognitively, *via* rationalizations that replace the objective restoration of the justice, that evidently conducts, on a concrete plan, to the maintenance of the injustices and, more globally, to the maintenance of the structures of authority at the origin of these injustices.

It means that my first hypothesis is that would exist, in all human society, norms aiming to the maintenance of these societies and of their hierarchical structures (so that norms of social maintenance would exist), norms permitting notably the social injustice maintenance, and that the most fundamental of these norms would be the norm of allegiance. And my second hypothesis is that facing an injustice committed by an authority, as well in the professional domain as in the «civil» one, the respect of these norms of social maintenance would only to a cognitive restoration of the justice. Therefore, I wish here, to deal with some of these ways of restoration.

2. THE STRATEGIES OF THE COGNITIVE RESTORATION OF THE JUSTICE

2.1. *The victim's responsabilization*

The numerous studies made in the field of the Just World theory put in evidence that, facing an injustice that one cannot avoid nor to rectify in an objective manner, one generally looks for a substitutive restoration by proclaiming the victim responsible for her fate. This responsabilization, which can be put in relation with the internal attributions observed with the Locus Of Control, is of two types: either behavioral or moral. In the first case, one contents oneself with declaring that the victim has, because of her behavior, provoked what happened to her and therefore has earned her fate (once again, think of Milgram's subjects who accused the lack of efforts of their pupils), whereas in the second one we evoke the victim's intrinsic characteristics, for example his personality. I will add that if these two strategies are, in the Just World theory, considered said independent, it is however not to exclude that they can also operate in an articulate manner: that is to say that it is possible to infer, from a behavior, a personality which will be said guilty, or, conversely, to start from the personality to infer the reasons of an offending behavior or the probability of occurrence of such a behavior. I will not dwell more on this point because I especially want to go thoroughly into the moral responsibility notion. The Just World theory being very vague on what covers this responsibility, it seems necessary to tempt to analyse its components, or at least some of its components, my purpose being not to be exhaustive but to provide some illustrations underlining the diversity of the shapes of the potential realization of this moral responsabilization, and so to underline its frequent probability of use.

I will start by including, in this moral responsibility, biologic characteristics as the victim's gender or age. Doesn't one sometimes say, about a woman manhandled by a man or by a society with a masculine domination that it is not abnormal since it is only «about a woman». And one will justify this «normality» by evoking the inferiority of the women compared with the men (that is to say by activating the gender stereotypes often stemming from some religious text hermeneutics). Such a biologisation can also consists in calls for the «victim's race» (I put the term of race in inverted commas because we today know that only one human race only exists). I will merely recall here that the racist ideology was also an ideology of numerous exterminations justification.

As for the ethnologisation, it would consist to evoke the victim's ethnicity. And one knows that still today, in many countries of the world, other genocides are perpetrated under the cover of ethnic responsibility.

It is as possible to mention the phenomena of sociologisation, by evoking the victim's statute or social rank. For instance, in some studies made in the field of the Just World theory, one observes, in a non negligible number of case, that the prostitutes, victims of a rape, tend to be considered as morally (but not necessarily for behavioral reasons) more responsible of this rape than for example married women.

One can also, at more psychic level, penetrate the psychologization and make reference to the victim's attitudes, that it is to say her cognitive characteristics (as her beliefs: let's think to the holy wars, to the crusades and other colonizations, historic or present, against «the heretics»), her conative characteristics (as her intentions... which will be said «guilty»), or her valuative characteristics. And one can evidently, using this psychologisation, make reference to the victim's personality. Because this psychologization enters directly in the domain of the functions of the psychologists, and more precisely because one of the most frequent task of the psychological practice is the establishment of a psychological description of which the main element concerns

the personality, I would like especially to go thoroughly into the psychologisation in terms of personality. This personality is usually defined as all the stable intern and specific characteristics of the individuals. That is to say that 3 elements based on the concept of personality and its use: its internal aspect, its stability and its potential of differentiation. The establishment of a personality's profile being essentially based on the interpretation of behavioral auto-reported informations, the interpretation of these informations rests on 3 main assumptions: 1) the only determinants of the behaviors would be internals determinants, 2) these behaviors would be stable, and 3) their organization would make them specific to each individual. However numerous researches put in evidence the illusory character of each of these 3 assumptions.

With the first assumption, one come back to the large domain of the internal attribution of the behaviors. However, the studies on attribution showed that the reasons of the behaviors were generally imputed, and especially in a completely illegitimate manner, to the actors of the examined behaviors. This illegitimate accentuation of the actor's weight was for a long time considered (by Ross, but already one century before by Nietzsche) as an epistemological error. Then, numerous studies, essentially french-speaking, highlighted the normative aspect of this accentuation (I want to say that this accentuation is the object of an incitement and of a social valorization, incitement and valorization that constitute the main criterias of the definition of social norms. So one could speak of an «internality» norm. That's just that this accentuation is the necessary condition of the individuals «sanctionability» (that is to say that it permits to justify actions of management of the individuals, hence also the fact that the elements which, in a given society, are useless to such a management, are not translated in personality characteristics), while being, in a corollary way, the condition to the legitimized exclusion of all environmental causality (what permits, I already underlined it here but I will come back later, the environmental factor maintenance). In short, and even if some circles not completely open to the scientific production globalization refuse to admit it, one can today assure that this first assumption is erroneous: it is only because of this illegitimate, normative and utilitarian occultation of the environmental factors that the individuals are so often declared causes of their behaviors.

But internality doesn't necessarily mean stability. So the second assumption concerns the behavioral stability. This stability, or this constancy (that ignore Locke's explanation saying that the personal identity rests less on a substance identity than on a conscience identity), can be understood at two levels: temporal stability and situational stability. Some followers of the temporal stability declare that everything is writed toward the age of 6 or 7 years; and the most orthodox lawyers of this stability advance the idea of an innate characteristic. However, some studies showed that some months of training were sufficient to deeply modify the answers that the adults brought to personality's questionnaires. Concerning the situational stability, other studies showed the frequent tendency of the individuals to adapt their behaviors to the circumstances (hence, in the orders of the psychotechnical tests, the incitements to avoid such fluctuating answers that make evidently inopportune any tentative to establish any psychological profile). Finally, other studies highlight the normative character of this stability assumption, with the concept of «consistence» norm.

Finally, the differentiator charactor has also been criticized: some investigations showed that, whatever the psychotechnical instrument used, this differentiator aspect was illusory, the individual specificity maintained by the psychologists being quasi systematically based on stereotypes or on the luck, and that its social acceptance (where a social validity takes the place of the scientific validity) reveals a narcissic satisfaction of identity more that of an attestation of objectivity (as in the Barnum effect). It is clear that the western model, in which each individual is considered as specific, as unique, and in which each individual is incited to cultivate and to reinforce this specificity, can only reinforce this illusion, even though, in the same time, on a



concrete plan, objective plan, the social norms have for consequence (and in part for purpose) to standardize the behaviors.

If the realization of personality's profile constitutes the daily work of many psychologists, it cannot be forgotten that many studies attest the artificial character of this realization, or more precisely attest that this realization cannot continue without the legitimization of erroneous assumptions. Thus, it is this artificial legitimization that maintains the role, and therefore the function, of these psychologists. Therefore, the assumptions maintaining the concept and the operationalization of personality's concept preserve these psychologists against the disappearance of their statute. I also evoked some studies highlighting the normative character of these assumptions, that means that these assumptions really fill the role of defensive norms of the psychologist's profession.

More globally, having the victim's responsabilization as corollary the occultation of any environmental responsabilization, this victim's responsabilization is sufficient to preserve this environment of any desire to transform it, as well in a punctual level (as to eradicate the injustices) as in a more structural one (as in the aim of a «revolution», taking this term in its etymological acceptance). So the unemployed person will be said responsible for their fate: their laziness, their deviant personality, their lack of competences being sufficient to explain their exclusion without the necessity to evoke (nor therefore to think to transform) a job market objectively recessive. And otherwise, all will be made so that the unemployed person themselves internalize their responsibility: systematically rejected of the market, they will easily convince themselves that they possess an ineffable defect, but nevertheless unacceptable, while confessing that «it is their fault, their very main fault». In a similiary way, the conducts of harassment at work will be perceived as the just retribution of maladjusted behaviors, as well by the witnesses (from where behaviors of solidarity, of aid to the victims often conditional -do these victims deserve our help?- and limited to placebos) as by the victim herself... And the examples could be multiplied. But of other strategies, that I will call «normative strategies of relativization», are also possible. And I will evoke 3 of these strategies: the minimization, the positivation by sublimation, and the positivation by prophetic optimism.

2.2. The minimization

To deny the importance of the injustice or to deny the amplitude of its consequences are another way of rationalization permitting to solve the cognitive dissonance. The size of the cognitive unbalance being correlated with the amplitude of the injustice or of its consequences, it is indeed obvious that the minimization of this amplitude can make more supportable the level of the unbalance. To illustrate it, I will come back for a moment to some studies achieved in the field of the Just World theory. As indicated before, some of these studies concerned women victims of rape, or of tentative of rape. It has been notably observed that generally the efficient rapes are considered more serious than the tentatives of rape, and also that the rapes committed on married women are considered more serious than the ones whose victim was divorced. It means, even though the Just World theory doesn't consider minimization as a strategy of cognitive resolution, that to consider less serious the rape of a divorced woman means to use in a stereotyped manner the supposed consequences of the committed act as a criteria of the gravity of this act and, in the case of an unjust act, as a criteria of the appreciation of the amplitude of the committed injustice. And numerous other illustrations of this minimization could be provided, for instance in the field of the road traffic accidents that show for example that the driver who, with an important blood alcool level, goes through a red light and kills a pedestrian, receives a more severe penalty if his victim is a respectable man than if he kills a hooligan already condemned for aggressions and stealings... But it is now time to leave the minimization and to deal with another way of relativization.

2.3. The positivation by sublimation

There is a frequent *leitmotiv* in our societies, the one of the positivation: it is necessary to be positive! It is necessary to see only the good side of the things: facing a bottle half empty, it is necessary to see only the full volume. The positivation is the consequence of a differentiation between negative and positive aspects of the present situation, the individual being invited to neglect the first ones and to take into consideration only the second ones, which will possibly be amplified and then, in the positivation by sublimation, sublimated in a compensatory or overcompensatory manner, and this consciously: if the sublimation is indeed originally a mechanism of resolution of intra-psychic conflicts with an psychoanalytical origin situated in the unconscious, it is however quite conceivable that a parallel mechanism can also be activated consciously. I will explain it by a recall of some data coming from a cognitive dissonance experience achieved in laboratory: subjects who put a lot, all with the same energy, in an activity, and who obtained an identical result, have been rewarded in an unequal manner, some of them receiving a red color box with money inside, whereas the others received an empty box, but of green color. These last ones were therefore in a state of cognitive dissonance. How did they resolved their conflict? By focusing their attention on the color of the box and declaring green color infinitely more attractive than red color, even if this last one was full of money. That is to say that they made a differentiation between container and content, neglecting the second and focusing their attention only on the container, the color of the box, and amplifying the valence of this color, that means making a positivation of it. I would also be able, in an extension to a more directly professional field, to recall the studies on the American soldier achieved by the sociologist Merton, studies which showed that the soldiers who were treated in an inequitable manner, soldiers who were the object of a negative discrimination, tempted to restore their equity feeling by changing their group of reference (that is to say by making a differentiation inter groups of potential reference) and by comparing themselves with individuals that they considered (objectively or by distortion) less well treated than themselves (situation recalling the concept of social comparison of Festinger). But other strategies of positivation are also available.

2.4. The positivation by prophetic optimism

Who, facing a difficult situation, didn't ever tempt to persuade himself that this situation was only temporary and that «it will be better tomorrow»? Who, tempting to sustain a suffering fellow, didn't ever throw out «that's a pain for a good»? Such magic formulas announcing a postponement of beatitude are also the consequences of a differentiation, but differentiation between present and future; between an hard present and a delightful future in which a compensatory or overcompensatory destiny is supposed to restore a lost balance, supposed to compensate or overcompensate the present misfortunes, transforming every tear in as many ecstasies and sometimes multiplying them. One is close to the «call by the opposite», close to «a reversal of the sign» where the present pains can constitute the auto-mortification necessary to an heavenly future (and susceptible for some people, thanks to one of the 7 beatitudes of the Christian mythology -«happy in the sky the poor wretches on earth»- to become, after death, really heavenly). One is also close to the resignation, to the fatalism, with however as prominent difference the fact that here such a resignation would only be about the present and would be considered as a guarantee, as a promise of future rewards.

3. THE FATALISM

During his history, each one had to give some projects up as lost, had to renounce, to abandon the illusion of his possible omnipotence, and anyway had to admit that existed more



powerful strengths than his. Thus the germ of the historic pessimism penetrated some people, leading them, facing the obstacles, to abdicate without fighting. The fatalism, the resignation acquired by the past failures, materialize in some classic formulas: «no one can anything», «it is impossible to have victory», «anyway, they are the strongest, then, why struggle?»... Sometimes what conducts to the withdrawal attitudes described by the sociologists: deprived of the means of his ambitions, the resigned man is going as far as losing the notion of ambition. It is true that such an attitude is not, for the one that produces it, the most comfortable one; it is also true that the society doesn't valorize it, or more precisely not systematically, because it is also incontestable that this attitude avoids any implication of this social environment (hence sometimes, as the studies on the Locus Of Distribution testify it, its evocation by the administrative oligarchy; but evidently in an auto-deresponsibilization evocation).

BY THE WAY OF A CONCLUSION

I agree that the categorization that I just established is, as any categorization, somewhat partial. It would have been possible, while speaking of the defensive professional ideologies, to approach other professions, and not only the one of the psychologist. It would also have been possible to present the joint of these different strategies, and to begin by showing that their use is not exclusive. It would also have been possible to make reference to the «responsibilization by ricochet» (where the sons are punished because of the crimes of their fathers: the myth of Adam and Eve probably constitutes one of the oldest illustrations of it). It would also have been possible to evoked the transcendent reason (where an injustice is not justified by the avoidance of a more important injustice, but is even necessary to this avoidance; for example in the field of some «national interests», or of some overcompensatory destinies that I evoked earlier)...

However, this outline is sufficient to note that each of the evoked strategies reveals normative stereotypes leading to defensive scripts, that is to say to the adoption of reflexive conducts justifying the committed injustices (or to be committed), as well for injustices in relation to an absolute or as for relative injustices (I make here reference to the Equity theory). Thus they naturally go into the defensive ideology field, field constituted to legitimize shameful conducts.

These stereotypes and normative scripts also lead, in a larger perspective, to the adoption of conducts preserving the environment of any structural revolution. Therefore, they participate to the maintenance of its hierarchical structures, filling perfectly the role which presided over their constitution and over their social diffusion.

To finish, I will add that the normative character (and therefore contingent and arbitrary) of these different stereotypes and scripts is evidently denied by their users. For these last ones, if one valorizes the internal individuals, the stable individuals, the individuals using the prophetic optimism,... it is because the internality, the personological stability or the prophetic optimism present a strong scientific validity. Although it is incontestable that these assumptions of internality or personological stability, to take only them, are based on their social utility, notably in the society of the psychologists, this same society considers good form to believe in the structure validity of the internality or of the personological stability. Consequently, the cassandres pretending, in the style of a Derrida, to demystify and deconstruct this validity, are considered as deviants. That means that I perfectly conceive that the outline that I have just proposed, and that is summarized in the following diagram, can constitute, notably for some of my colleagues psychologists, a generous dish of resistances...

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 - norme de différenciation personologique

**Norme
d'Allégeance**

NORMATIVITÉ DE L'ACCEPTATION DES INJUSTICES PROFESSIONNELLES VIA LE PARADIGME DU LÉGISLATEUR: UNE ÉTUDE SUR DES RECRUTEURS

Bernard GANGLOFF

Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et
Département de Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).
bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

RÉSUMÉ

Nous savons que certaines conduites, variables selon les cultures, sont socialement valorisées, et que cette valorisation constitue l'un des critères premiers d'une norme sociale. Nous émettons ici l'hypothèse que certaines des conduites réactives aux injustices professionnelles sont davantage valorisées que d'autres, valorisation qui peut donc leur faire approcher le statut de norme sociale.

Habituellement, pour vérifier l'existence d'une telle valorisation, on utilise le paradigme des juges. Pour autant nous avons, dans une étude récente, souligné quelques limites de ce paradigme et testé la possibilité de le remplacer par un «paradigme du législateur» en attribuant à nos évaluateurs le statut de législateurs et non plus de juges, ces évaluateurs devant alors cocher, sur un questionnaire vierge, les réponses qu'ils attendaient d'un bon candidat à un emploi.

Les résultats obtenus nous ont encouragé à poursuivre dans cette direction; d'où le présent travail dans lequel des évaluateurs fonctionnant comme des législateurs eurent à indiquer, parmi différentes réactions possibles face à 3 situations d'injustices professionnelles, celles qu'ils valorisaient et celles qu'ils proscrivaient. Les résultats obtenus constituent l'objet de la présente communication.

Mots clés: injustices professionnelles, norme sociale, recrutement

ABSTRACT

We know that some conducts, variable according to the cultures, are socially valorized, and that this valorization constitutes one of the first criterias of a social norm. We voice here the hypothesis that some of the conducts of reaction facing professional injustices are valorized more than other ones, valorization that can therefore make these conducts approach to the statute of a social norm.

Usually, to verify the existence of such a valorization, one uses the paradigm of the judges. However we have, in a recent study, underlined some methodological and theoretical limits of this paradigm, and tested the possibility to replace it by the «legislator's paradigm», where the appraisers got the statute of legislators rather than judges, these appraisers having to check, on a virgin questionnaire, the answers they waited from good applicant for a job.

The gotten results encouraged us to pursue in this direction; so the present work in which appraisers functioning as legislators had to indicate, among different possible reactions facing 3 professional injustices situations, those that they valorized and those that they proscribed. Gotten results constitute the object of the present communication.

Key words: profesional injustice, social norm, recruitment.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nous savons que certaines conduites, variables selon les cultures, sont socialement valorisées, et que cette valorisation constitue l'un des critères premiers d'une norme sociale. Nous émettons ici l'hypothèse que certaines des conduites réactives aux injustices professionnelles sont davantage valorisées que d'autres, valorisation qui peut donc leur faire approcher le statut de norme sociale.

Habituellement, pour vérifier l'existence d'une telle valorisation, on utilise le paradigme des juges. C'est le cas de l'étude princeps de Jellison et Green (1981) sur la norme d'internalité: ces chercheurs présentèrent à des évaluateurs les réponses, opposées, que deux étudiants étaient censés avoir fournies à un même questionnaire d'internalité, l'un des étudiants ayant rempli le questionnaire de manière essentiellement interne, le second de façon majoritairement externe. La tâche des évaluateurs était alors d'indiquer, parmi les 2 répondants, celui qu'ils préféraient. Il a alors été observé que le répondant interne était majoritairement préféré, ce qui fut considéré comme un indice d'existence d'une norme d'internalité. Depuis, ce paradigme a été utilisé dans de nombreuses autres études portant sur la norme dite d'internalité (Beauvois et Le Poutier 1986; Beauvois, Boujade et Pansu 1991; Pansu 1994; etc.) ou sur la norme d'allégeance (Gangloff 1995a et 1995b; Dagot 2000; Bucchioni 2001; etc.).

Pour autant nous avons, dans une étude récente (Gangloff 2006), souligné quelques limites méthodologiques et théoriques de ce paradigme¹, et testé la possibilité de le remplacer par un «paradigme du législateur» en attribuant à nos évaluateurs le statut de législateurs et non plus de juges, ces évaluateurs devant alors cocher, sur un questionnaire vierge, les réponses qu'ils attendaient d'un bon candidat à un emploi et non plus indiquer, parmi les réponses censées avoir été fournies par 2 candidats, les réponses qu'ils sanctionnaient positivement et celles qu'ils «punissaient».

Les résultats obtenus nous ont encouragé à poursuivre dans cette direction; d'où le présent travail dans lequel des évaluateurs fonctionnant comme des législateurs eurent à indiquer, parmi différentes réactions possibles face à 3 situations d'injustices professionnelles, celles qu'ils valorisaient et celles qu'ils proscrivaient.

2. PROCÉDURE

256 sujets effectuant des opérations de recrutement à titre principal ou occasionnel constituèrent notre population, mais seuls ceux ayant répondu à toutes les questions (soit 246 sujets) furent pris en considération.

Le questionnaire de réactions face aux injustices professionnelles (*cf.* annexe) est constitué de 3 scénarios: 2 cas de népotisme se traduisant soit par une non embauche (cas 1) soit par un licenciement (cas 3), et un cas de licenciement par manque de souplesse (ou d'allégeance) de la part de la victime (cas 2).

Faisant suite à chacun des 3 scénarios, 9 questions étaient présentées, et nos sujets devaient cocher réponses qu'ils souhaiteraient obtenir d'un bon candidat à une embauche (paradigme du législateur)

La 1^{ère} question était destinée à savoir si le scénario proposé mettait en scène une situation juste ou injuste. Les 8 questions suivantes consistaient en des conduites que la victime avait adoptées, ou devrait adopter.

Les 8 conduites proposées étaient 5 conduites de passivité et 3 conduites d'activisme: 1) la responsabilisation morale de la victime (c'est la personnalité de la victime qui explique

¹ Notamment, sur le plan méthodologique, un manque de finesse de la procédure (les évaluateurs déterminent leur choix à partir des réponses prises dans leur ensemble, ce qui supprime toute possibilité d'analyse d'impact de telle ou telle réponse particulière, réponse susceptible de faire basculer le verdict dans un sens ou dans un autre). Quant au plan théorique, rappelons seulement ici que ce sont les législateurs et non les juges qui définissent les lois, qui disent ce qui est bien et ce qui ne l'est pas, ce qui est à valoriser et ce qui est à proscrire, et qu'il convient donc, dans les études sur la définition de ce qui est normatif et de ce qui ne l'est pas, dans la détection de ce qui est valorisé et de ce qui ne l'est pas, d'appliquer les procédures utilisées par le législateur et non celles employées par le juge, ce dernier ne faisant en réalité que déterminer si une conduite entre ou non dans le cadre de la loi définie par le législateur.



ce qui lui est arrivé), 2) la responsabilisation comportementale de la victime (la victime a eu un comportement fautif), 3) l'évocation d'un futur compensant l'injustice (il s'agit d'une minimisation de l'aspect négatif de la situation en considérant celle-ci comme éphémère: tout va bientôt rentrer dans l'ordre), 4) l'évocation d'un futur meilleur favorisant la victime (il s'agit d'un renversement, par évocation d'un futur positif, de l'aspect négatif de la situation actuelle: la victime constatera plus tard que c'est bien mieux ainsi), 5) l'évocation d'une impuissance historique (est ici évoquée le fait que, dans un cas comme celui là, on est toujours impuissant), 6) une action de contestation collective légale, 7) une action de contestation judiciaire (donc légale) et individuelle, et enfin 8) une action de contestation individuelle mais hors normes.

A chacune des 8 propositions, les sujets devaient répondre en choisissant une réponse parmi 4 (tout à fait d'accord, d'accord, pas d'accord, pas du tout d'accord), ces 4 possibilités étant ensuite, au niveau du traitement, regroupées en 2: d'accord/pas d'accord.

Afin de permettre le calcul d'un indice global de passivité-activisme, il fut attribué, par scénario: pour chacune des 5 propositions de passivité, la note 1 à chaque réponse «d'accord» et 0 à chaque réponse «pas d'accord» (ce qui signifie que, par scénario, la note 5 témoigne d'une passivité maximale du sujet et la note 0 d'une passivité minimale); pour chacune des 3 propositions de protestation, la note 1 à chaque réponse «pas d'accord» et la note 0 à chaque réponse «d'accord» (par scénario, la note 3 témoigne ainsi d'un activisme minimal du sujet et la note 0 d'un activisme maximal).

Les données ainsi obtenues ont alors fait l'objet d'analyses statistiques par application de X^2 et de t de Student.

3. RÉSULTATS

3.1. Attentes des sujets quant à la perception du caractère juste/injuste de chacun des 3 cas (réponses à la 1^{ère} question)

Aussi bien globalement que chez les hommes ou les femmes considérés isolément, nos sujets souhaitent davantage recruter des personnes considérant les cas comme injustes que comme justes (cf. tableau 1).

Tableau 1: attentes des recruteurs quant à la perception du caractère juste/injuste de chacun des 3 cas (question n°1).

	Nombre de cas dits injustes et de cas dits justes	X^2 et significativité
Hommes (N=109)	285 cas injustes et 42 cas justes	$X^2 = 180$; $p < 0,001$
Femmes (N= 75)	203 cas injustes et 22 cas justes	$X^2 = 145$; $p < 0,001$
Indéterminé (N=62)	169 cas injustes et 17 cas justes	$X^2 = 124$; $p < 0,001$
Globalement (N=246)	657 cas injustes et 81 cas justes	$X^2 = 449$; $p < 0,001$

Du fait de ce résultat où, malgré une valorisation majoritaire des réponses «injustes», certains sujets expriment une préférence pour les réponses inverses, nous avons, dans un 1^{er} temps, étudié les réponses des sujets ayant systématiquement préféré la réponse «injuste» à la 1^{ère} question de chacun des 3 cas, et dans un 2^{ème} temps celles des sujets ayant au moins une fois préféré la réponse «juste».

3.2. Sujets ayant indiqué une préférence pour la réponse «injuste» à chacun des 3 cas

Les résultats, consignés aux tableaux 2 et 3, concernent 174 sujets (73 hommes, 55 femmes et 46 sujets au genre non indiqué).



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Nous y observons tout d'abord l'absence de toute différence entre les hommes et les femmes (analyses horizontales entre les 2 premières colonnes du tableau 2).

Le tableau 2 nous permet également de noter les points suivants: sur le plan de l'indice global de passivité/activisme, les sujets préfèrent significativement les réponses penchant vers le pôle de la passivité, ces préférences étant issues, d'une part de la valorisation de 2 conduites passives (l'évocation d'un futur meilleur et la responsabilité comportementale), et d'autre part du fort rejet des conduites d'activisme hors normes (ce rejet ne compensant pas l'acceptation des protestations collectives et des plaintes individuelles).

Le tableau 3 nous indique par ailleurs qu'une hiérarchie des réactions souhaitées peut être envisagée notamment, sur le pôle passif: le futur meilleur significativement plus sollicité que la responsabilité morale, le pessimisme historique et le futur compensateur, et la responsabilité comportementale devançant aussi bien le pessimisme historique que le futur compensateur; quant au pôle actif, nous remarquons que l'acceptation des protestations collectives et des plaintes individuelles devancent les conduites actives hors normes (qui sont majoritairement rejetées).

Tableau 2: moyennes des réponses aux 8 conduites proposées avec, entre parenthèses, les taux de significativité des éventuelles différences significatives par rapport à la moyenne théorique. **NB:** pour chaque item, plus on va vers 0 et plus on prône la contestation, corollairement plus on va vers 1 et plus on propose la passivité; la moyenne théorique est donc de 1,5 (chaque item x 3 cas). Ainsi, pour l'ensemble des items de passivité (5 items x 3 cas), nous avons un indice de passivité allant de 0 (passivité minimum) à 15 (passivité maximum), avec donc une moyenne théorique de 7,5. Pour l'ensemble des items d'activisme (3 items x 3 cas), nous avons un indice d'activisme allant de 0 (activisme maximum) à 9 (activisme minimum), avec donc une moyenne théorique de 4,5. Pour l'ensemble des 24 items (8 items x 3 cas), nous avons un indice de passivité/activisme global allant de 0 (activisme maximum) à 24 (passivité maximum), avec une moyenne théorique de 12.

	Hommes (N=73)	Femmes (N=55)	Total des sujets (N=174)
Resp Morale	1,67	1,58	1,57
Resp Cpt	1,93 (p=0,00)	1,69	1,72 (p=0,00)
Futur Comp	1,45	1,29	1,40
Futur Meilleur	1,88 (p=0,00)	1,84 (p=0,01)	1,90 (p=0,00)
Pessimisme historique	1,40	1,62	1,47
Passivité globale	8,33 (p=0,01)	8,02	8,07 (p=0,00)
Action Collective	1,30	1,13 (p=0,02)	1,21 (p=0,00)
Plainte Individuelle	1,27	1,18 (p=0,04)	1,25 (p=0,00)
Action hors normes	2,18 (p=0,00)	2,15 (p=0,00)	2,16 (p=0,00)
Activisme global	4,75	4,45	4,62
Passivité-Activisme global	13,08 (p=0,02)	12,47	12,69 (p=0,02)

Tableau 3: taux de significativité des éventuelles différences des accords-désaccords entre les 8 conduites, chez les hommes (H), les femmes (F) et globalement (G).

	Resp Cpt	Futur Comp	Futur meilleur	Pessim histo	Act Coll	Plainte indiv.	Act hors normes
Resp. Morale	NS	NS	$p \approx 0,00$ (G)	NS	NS	NS	NS
Resp. Cpt		$p \approx 0,00$ (H,G) $p = 0,01$ (F)	NS	$p \approx 0,00$ (H) $p = 0,01$ (G)	NS	NS	NS
Futur Comp.			$p \approx 0,00$ (H,F,G)	NS	NS	NS	NS
Futur Meilleur				$p \approx 0,00$ (H,G)	NS	NS	NS
Pessim. Histo.						NS	NS
Act. Coll.						NS	$p \approx 0,00$ (H,F,G)
Plainte indiv.							$p \approx 0,00$ (H,F,G)

3.3. Sujets ayant indiqué une préférence pour la réponse «juste» à au moins l'un des 3 cas

Sont ici concernés 72 sujets (36 hommes, 20 femmes et 16 sujets au genre non noté). Cependant, comme un sujet peut cocher cette préférence plus d'une fois, nous avons travaillé à partir de chacune des questions où il fut répondu juste, soit 81 réponses (42 pour les hommes, 22 pour les femmes, et 17 lorsque le genre n'a pas été indiqué).

Notons tout d'abord qu'ici également aucune différence significative n'apparaît entre les hommes et les femmes (analyses horizontales entre les 2 premières colonnes du tableau 4).

La lecture du tableau 4 nous amène à constater, sur le plan de l'indice global de passivité/activisme, que les sujets préfèrent significativement, ici encore, et de manière logique, les réponses penchant vers le pôle de la passivité, ces préférences étant issues, d'une part de la valorisation de 3 conduites passives et d'autre part du rejet de 2 conduites protestataires. La responsabilité comportementale est ainsi, comme pour les sujets précédents, présente, mais interviennent en plus ici la responsabilité morale et l'évocation non plus d'un futur meilleur mais celle d'un futur compensateur. On remarque d'autre part un rejet des conduites d'activisme hors normes (là encore comme pour les sujets précédents) mais aussi un rejet des plaintes individuelles. On observe enfin, par rapport aux sujets précédents, que l'action collective n'est plus ici l'objet d'aucune valorisation (et plus globalement, qu'aucune forme de protestation n'est ici valorisée).

Le tableau 5 nous indique par ailleurs qu'une hiérarchie des réactions souhaitées peut ici aussi être établie avec principalement, sur le pôle passif: la responsabilité comportementale, mais également ici morale, significativement davantage sollicitées que le futur meilleur et que le pessimisme historique (ce pessimisme historique étant par ailleurs également détrôné par le futur compensateur). Quant au pôle actif, nous remarquons un rejet aussi des actions hors normes que des plaintes individuelles, mais avec un rejet plus intense pour les premières.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 4: moyennes des réponses aux 8 conduites proposées avec, entre parenthèses, les taux de significativité des éventuelles différences significatives par rapport à la moyenne théorique. **NB:** pour chaque item, plus on va vers 0 et plus on prône la contestation, corollairement plus on va vers 1 et plus on propose la passivité; la moyenne théorique par item est donc de 0,5. Ainsi, pour l'ensemble des items de passivité de chaque cas (5 items), nous avons un indice de passivité allant de 0 (passivité minimum) à 5 (passivité maximum), avec donc une moyenne théorique de 2,5. Pour l'ensemble des items d'activisme de chaque cas (3 items), nous avons un indice d'activisme allant de 0 (activisme maximum) à 3 (activisme minimum), avec donc une moyenne théorique de 1,5. Pour l'ensemble des 8 items de chaque cas, nous avons un indice de passivité/activisme global allant de 0 (activisme maximum) à 8 (passivité maximum), avec une moyenne théorique de 4.

	Réponses des Hommes (n=42)	Réponses des Femmes (n=22)	Total des réponses (n=81)
Resp Morale	0,74 (p≅0,00)	0,86 (p≅0,00)	0,77 (p≅0,00)
Resp Cpt	0,74 (p≅0,00)	0,82 (p≅0,00)	0,74 (p≅0,00)
Futur Comp	0,60	0,68	0,63 (p=0,01)
Futur Meilleur	0,52	0,59	0,48
Pessimisme historique	0,38	0,55	0,42
Passivité globale	2,98 (p≅0,00)	3,50 (p≅0,00)	3,04 (p≅0,00)
Action Collective	0,57	0,50	0,53
Plainte Individuelle	0,69 (p=0,01)	0,82 (p≅0,00)	0,70 (p≅0,00)
Action hors normes	0,83 (p≅0,00)	0,91 (p≅0,00)	0,86 (p≅0,00)
Activisme global	2,09 (p≅0,00)	2,23 (p≅0,00)	2,09 (p≅0,00)
Passivité-Activisme global	5,07 (p≅0,00)	5,73 (p≅0,00)	5,14 (p≅0,00)

Tableau 5: taux de significativité des éventuelles différences des accords-désaccords entre les 8 conduites, chez les hommes (H), les femmes (F) et globalement (G)

	Resp Cpt	Futur Comp	Futur meilleur	Pessim histo	Act Coll	Plainte indiv.	Act hors normes
Resp. Morale	NS	NS	p=0,04 (H,F) p≅0,00 (G)	p≅0,00 (H, G) p=0,02 (F)	NS	NS	NS
Resp. Cpt		NS	p=0,04 (H) p≅0,00 (G)	p≅0,00 (H,G)	NS	NS	NS
Futur Comp.			NS	p≅0,00 (G)	NS	NS	NS
Futur Meilleur				NS	NS	NS	NS
Pessim. Histo.					NS	NS	NS
Act. Coll.						p=0,02 (F,G)	p≅0,00 (H,F,G)
Plainte indiv.							p=0,01 (G)

4. DISCUSSION ET CONCLUSION

Nos résultats mettent tout d'abord en évidence, outre l'absence de différences significatives entre hommes et femmes, que, majoritairement, nos chargés de recrutement valorisent les



individus faisant preuve d'un minimum de clairvoyance (pour reprendre l'expression de Py et Somat, 1991) et d'honnêteté, c'est-à-dire les individus qui, face à une situation injuste, n'hésitent pas à faire état de ce caractère injuste. Nous remarquons cependant que, pour ces sujets, faire état d'une injustice ne signifie pas devoir protester contre cette injustice; bien au contraire puisque la passivité est, même pour cette population, valorisée. Les «bons» candidats à un emploi sont ainsi censés évoquer un futur meilleur ou la responsabilité comportementale, et s'ils protestent (ce qui est effectivement également attendu), cette protestation doit toujours suivre des voies légales. Il est par ailleurs à remarquer que la responsabilité morale, que Lerner envisageait comme une fréquente rationalisation permettant de rétablir cognitivement le sentiment de justice (voir par exemple Lerner et Simmons, 1966) apparaît ici comme loin d'être dominante (le futur meilleur devançant notamment cette rationalisation par responsabilisation morale). Il convient enfin de souligner que le pessimisme historique, que l'on peut rapprocher du concept d'impuissance acquise (voir par exemple Hiroto et Seligman, 1975) n'intervient que de manière anecdotique.

Quant aux sujets valorisant les déclarations de justice, nous pouvons dire que, globalement, leurs positions correspondent, mais de manière accentuée (ce qui est logique), à celles de nos sujets précédents, avec là encore un indice global de passivité/activisme tourné vers la passivité. Pour autant, quelques différences apparaissent. Sur le plan de cette passivité tout d'abord, nous remarquons, certes que le pessimisme historique est encore relégué, mais surtout, d'une part que la responsabilité morale est maintenant sollicitée, et d'autre part que le futur compensateur (c'est-à-dire la minimisation de la négativité de la situation actuelle) prend le pas sur le futur meilleur. Par ailleurs, sur le plan de l'activisme, on observe à présent la non admission d'aucune action protestataire et que les plaintes individuelles sont même maintenant rejetées.

En conclusion, il est possible de considérer certains de ces résultats comme étonnants, du moins à première vue. On remarque tout d'abord que les recruteurs souhaitent majoritairement des salariés qui, face à une injustice patente, ne la nient pas; mais s'agit-il d'une valorisation des salariés réalistes (ce qui pourrait représenter un risque) ou d'une valorisation des salariés honnêtes, qui avouent ce qu'ils pensent plutôt que de le cacher? Étonnante aussi la non valorisation du pessimisme historique. Pour autant, cet étonnement peut disparaître si l'on considère que cela signifie souhaiter des salariés ayant le sentiment d'un minimum de pouvoir sur les choses, sentiment qu'ils pourront ensuite mettre en œuvre dans le cadre de leur activité professionnelle mais en direction, bien évidemment, du développement de l'organisation qui les emploie: on le sait, le bon salarié doit être un «battant». D'autres résultats sont immédiatement plus ordinaires, comme le rejet des actions contestataires illégales ou, pour les sujets considérant les situations comme justes, l'absence de valorisation de toute contestation. D'autres résultats nécessitent enfin des recherches complémentaires, et nous pensons ici notamment à la faible fréquence d'évocation de la responsabilité morale chez les sujets considérant positivement les déclarations d'injustices. Cette faible fréquence d'évocation, qui semble aller à l'encontre des résultats des travaux sur le monde juste, nous invite ainsi à poursuivre de nouvelles pistes, ce qui est toujours stimulant.

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Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

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ANNEXE: LES 3 CAS

Cas 1

René est à la recherche d'un emploi depuis plus d'un an. La plupart des CV qu'il envoie restent sans réponse, ou alors il lit toujours la même chose: «Après examen de votre candidature, nous avons le regret de ne pouvoir y donner une suite favorable. Nous sommes cependant persuadés que vous trouverez rapidement un emploi correspondant à vos compétences...». René va bientôt cesser de percevoir les ASSEDIC. Il a suivi plusieurs stages de Techniques de Recherche d'Emploi, il téléphone ou se présente à toutes les adresses qu'on lui indique, mais c'est toujours la même chose: il a trop peu d'expérience ou il en a trop, il a trop peu de formation ou il en a trop.. Il ne sait plus quoi faire, il est de plus en plus découragé.

Ce qui a mis le feu aux poudres, ce sont peut-être les derniers entretiens qu'il a eu, pour un poste qui l'intéressait beaucoup. Il a d'abord rencontré un recruteur, puis le chef du service où il y avait le poste, puis encore quelqu'un d'autre... A chaque fois, il a eu l'impression que tout s'était bien passé; d'ailleurs, si ça n'avait pas été le cas, on ne l'aurait pas convoqué à tous ces entretiens. Et puis «vlan»: alors qu'il croit que tout est bon, on lui dit qu'il n'est pas pris. Ou plus exactement quelqu'un lui laisse entendre qu'il est bien le meilleur candidat, mais que le poste est depuis le départ réservé au fils ou au neveu d'untel, et que la procédure était truquée. Ce n'était que «du bidon». René est abattu. Il n'a plus envie de rien. Il a envie de tout laisser tomber. D'autant qu'il se dit que ce n'est sans doute pas la 1^{ère} fois qu'il se présente pour un poste qui en fait n'est pas disponible. Si c'est toujours comme ça, René pense que ça ne sert à rien de continuer à chercher un emploi.



Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.

1. Ce refus d'embauche de René vous semble:
 Totalement juste Juste Injuste Totalement injuste

2. La prochaine offre d'emploi sera la bonne:
 plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

3. Puisque René était le plus compétent, ce n'est peut-être pas parce que le poste était "réservé" qu'il n'a pas été pris, mais peut-être aussi à cause de sa personnalité:
 plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

4. René n'a peut-être pas adopté les bons comportements pendant le entretiens, sinon, puisqu'il était le plus compétent, il aurait peut-être quand même été embauché:
 plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

5. Puisque c'était une offre d'emploi truquée, René aurait dû porter plainte:
 plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

6. René aurait dû faire un scandale et menacer de tout révéler si on ne le prenait pas:
 plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

7. René ne pouvait rien faire: les recruteurs ont toujours le dernier mot:
 plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

8. René aurait dû tout de suite demander à l'Association Régionale des Chômeurs d'intervenir:
 plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

9. De toutes façons, dans une entreprise comme celle là, René n'aurait pas été bien. C'est mieux qu'il n'ait pas été pris: il trouvera mieux ailleurs:
 plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

Cas 2

Francis a été licencié et recherche un nouvel emploi. Il a un entretien avec son conseiller. Voici son récit:

«J'ai travaillé dans cette agence régionale pendant plusieurs années. J'ai pris volontairement et accepté beaucoup de responsabilités, et j'ai prouvé que j'étais vraiment capable de faire du bon boulot. Là dessus, je n'ai jamais eu aucun reproche, bien au contraire. En fait, les problèmes ont commencé avec l'arrivée d'un nouveau chef d'agence. Je n'accepte pas qu'on me demande n'importe quoi: quand un projet me semble mauvais, ou quand une procédure me semble inefficace, je n'hésite pas à le dire. Si je m'investis dans mon travail, ce n'est pas pour que quelqu'un d'autre, même un chef, prenne des décisions idiotes qui réduisent mes efforts à zéro. J'ai d'ailleurs appris plus tard que mon nouveau chef d'agence n'avait eu son poste que parce qu'il avait beaucoup de relations à la Direction Générale parisienne, et non pas du fait de ses compétences... Mais le problème c'est que j'ai été de plus en plus souvent en conflit avec ce

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



nouveau chef, jusqu'au jour où il m'a convoqué pour un entretien préalable avant licenciement. Il a reconnu que je faisais du bon travail, mais il m'a aussi dit qu'il n'acceptait plus que je conteste ses décisions. J'ai bien essayé de me défendre, mais sans succès: quelques jours plus tard, je recevais ma lettre de licenciement».

Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.

1. Le licenciement de Francis vous semble:
Totalelement juste Juste Injuste Totalelement injuste
2. Francis aurait dû porter plainte:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
3. Même si Francis est compétent, ce n'est sûrement pas quelqu'un malin: pour ne pas avoir ce type de problème, quand on conteste, il faut le faire avec plus de diplomatie:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
4. On peut comprendre que Francis vive très mal d'avoir été licencié. Mais une fois son licenciement décidé, il ne pouvait plus rien faire: les employeurs sont toujours les plus forts:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
5. Malgré sa compétence, Francis aurait dû cesser de contester. En continuant ainsi, il ne pouvait qu'avoir des problèmes:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
6. C'est un mal pour un bien, Francis trouvera mieux ailleurs:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
7. Lors de l'entretien, Francis aurait dû menacer son chef. Par exemple le menacer de révéler à la Direction Générale toutes les erreurs de gestion commises dans l'agence si il était licencié:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
8. Francis aurait dû faire appel à un syndicat :
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord
9. Ce n'est qu'une mauvaise période à passer. Francis retrouvera certainement bientôt du travail et il oubliera tout ça:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

Cas 3

Tout se passait bien pour Roger jusqu'au jour où, suite à une opération chirurgicale qui se passe mal, il doit rester plusieurs mois en arrêt maladie. A son retour, il apprend que, pendant son absence, il a été remplacé par quelqu'un de moins compétent que lui, mais qui est le fils de l'un des chefs de service de l'entreprise. Le patron de l'entreprise propose alors à Roger un licenciement à l'amiable, ce que Roger refuse.



Depuis, sa vie professionnelle est un enfer. On ne lui transmet plus aucune information, on l'exclut de toutes les réunions; on lui donne des ordres sans cesse contradictoires, pour des tâches idiotes et sans aucun intérêt. En fait, on ne lui donne plus aucun véritable travail. Il est «mis au placard». On veut le faire craquer pour qu'il quitte l'entreprise de lui-même...

Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.

1. Ce qui arrive à Roger vous semble:

Totalement juste Juste Injuste Totalement injuste

2. Roger ne peut rien faire: soit il démissionne et se retrouve au chômage, soit il subit, même si c'est dur. De toutes façons, on ne gagne jamais dans une épreuve de force avec son employeur:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

3. Roger est sans doute compétent, mais aussi quelqu'un de "buté", sinon on lui donnerait à nouveau un travail normal:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

4. Si Roger n'arrive pas à retrouver une situation normale, c'est sans doute que malgré sa compétence il n'adopte pas les bons comportements:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

5. Roger devrait avertir l'inspection du travail:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

6. Roger devrait lui aussi rendre la vie impossible à ses chefs, jusqu'à ce qu'ils acceptent de lui donner à nouveau du travail:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

7. Ce licenciement aura un côté positif et montrera à Roger la vraie mentalité de son employeur. Mieux vaut que Roger parte au plus vite: il trouvera certainement mieux ailleurs:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

8. Roger devrait contacter un syndicat:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

9. Roger doit seulement attendre un peu: dans quelque temps, tout finira par rentrer dans l'ordre:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

NORMATIVITY OF THE ACCEPTANCE OF PROFESSIONAL INJUSTICES VIA THE LEGISLATOR'S PARADIGM: A STUDY ON RECRUITERS

1. INTRODUCTION

We know that some conducts, variable according to the cultures, are socially valorized, and that this valorization constitutes one of the first criterias of a social norm. We voice here the hypothesis that some of the conducts of reaction facing professional injustices are valorized more than other ones, valorization that can therefore make these conducts approach to the statute of social norm.

Usually, to verify the existence of such a valorization, one uses the paradigm of the judges. It is the case of the princeps study of Jellison and Green (1981) about the internality norm: these autors presented to some appraisers the answers, opposite, that two students were supposed to have provided to the same internality questionnaire, one of the students having filled the questionnaire in an internal way, the second in an external way. The task of the appraisers was to indicate, among the two students, the one that they preferred. And it has been observed that the internal student was preferred, preference that was considered as an indication of the existence of a norm of internality. Since this study, this paradigm has been used in numerous other researches concerning this so-called internality norm (Beauvois and Le Poulterier 1986; Beauvois, Boujade and Pansu 1991; Pansu 1994; etc.) or concerning the allegiance norm (Gangloff 1995a, 1995b; Dagot 2000; Bucchioni 2001; etc.).

However, in a recent research (Gangloff 2006), we underlined some methodological and theoretical limits of this paradigm, and tested the possibility to replace it by the «legislator's» paradigm while assigning to our appraisers the statute of legislators rather than the one of judges, these legislators having to check, on a virgin questionnaire, the answers they expected from a good applicant for a job (and not more to indicate, among the supposed provided answers of two applicants, the answers that they preferred and those that they «punished»).

The gotten results encouraged us to continue in this direction; hence the present work, in which one some appraisers, functioning as legislators, had to indicate, among different possible reactions facing three situations of professional injustices, those that they valorized and those that they proscribed.

2. PROCEDURE

256 subjects who were doing recruitment in a permanent or occasional way constituted our population, but only those having answered to each question (246 subjects) were taken into account.

The questionnaire of reactions facing professional injustices (*cf.* annexe) were constituted of 3 scripts: 2 cases of nepotism leading either to a rejection of employment (case 1) either to a layoff (case 3), and a case of layoff for lack of flexibility (or of allegiance) of the victim (case 2).

Following each of the 3 scripts, 9 questions were presented, and our subjects had to check the answers that they would wish to get from a good applicant for a job (legislator paradigm).

The aim of the 1st question was to know if the situation proposed in the script was considered as a just or an unjust situation. The 8 following questions consisted in conducts that the victim had adopted, or should adopt.

The 8 conducts proposed were 5 conducts of passivity and 3 conducts of activism: 1) the victim's moral responsabilization (what arrived to the victim is the consequence of his personality), 2) the victim's behavioral responsabilization (the victim had a faulty behavior), 3) the evocation of a future compensating the injustice (*i.e.* a minimization of the negative aspect of the situation: this situation is considered as ephemeral and everything will soon return to normal), 4) the evocation of a better future that will favour the victim (*i.e.* a reversing of the negativity of the present situation by an evocation of a positive future: the victim will note later that is better so), 5) the evocation of a historical helplessness (is evoked here the fact that, in a case as this one, one is always helpless), 6) a legal collective contestation, 7) an individual lawsuit (and therefore a legal contestation), and finally 8) an individual and out of norms contestation.

To each of the 8 propositions, the subjects had to choose an answer among 4 (quite okay, okay, not okay, not of the all okay), these 4 possibilities being, in their statistical treatment, regrouped in 2: okay or not okay.

In order to get a global indication of passivity-activism, it was assigned, by script: for each of the 5 propositions of passivity, the note 1 to each answer of agreement and 0 to each answer of disagreement (so, by script, the note 5 reveals a maximal passivity of the subject and the note 0 of a minimal passivity); for each of the 3 propositions of activism, the note 1 to each answer of disagreement and the note 0 to each answer of agreement (so, by script, the note 3 reveals a minimal activism of the subject and the note 0 a maximal activism).

Then, we made statistical analyses by the application of X^2 and of t of Student.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Expectations of the subjects as for the perception of the just/unjust aspect of each of the 3 cases (*i.e.* answers to the 1st question)

As well globally as for the men or the women considered separately, our subjects wish to recruit candidates who consider the cases more unjust than just (*cf.* table 1).

Table 1: expectations of the recruiters as for the perception of the just/unjust aspect of each of the 3 cases (question n°1).

	Number of cases said unjust and of cases said just	X^2 & significativity
Men (N=109)	285 unjust cases and 42 just cases	$X^2 = 180$; $p < 0,001$
Women (N= 75)	203 unjust cases and 22 just cases	$X^2 = 145$; $p < 0,001$
Indeterminate (N=62)	169 unjust cases and 17 just cases	$X^2 = 124$; $p < 0,001$
Globally (N=246)	657 unjust cases and 81 just cases	$X^2 = 449$; $p < 0,001$

Because of this result where, in spite of a majority valorization of the answers «unjust», some subjects express a preference for the inverse answers, we have, for the 1st time, examined the answers of the subjects having systematically preferred the answer «unjust» to the 1st question of each of the 3 cases, and in a 2nd time those of the subjects having, at least one time, preferred the answer «just».

3.2. Subject having preferred the answer «unjust» to each of the 3 cases.

The results, consigned in the tables 2 and 3, concern 174 subjects (73 men, 55 women and 46 subjects who didn't indicate their gender).

We first observe that there is no difference between the men and the women (horizontal analyses between the 2 first columns of the table 2).

The table 2 also permits us to note the following points: as regards to the global passivity/activism, the subjects significantly prefer the passivity answers, being these preferences the

consequence of the valorization of 2 passive conducts (the evocation of a better future and of the behavioral responsibility), and of the rejection of the out of norms activism (this rejection doesn't compensate the acceptance of the collective protests and of the lawsuits).

Moreover, the table 3 indicates that a hierarchy of the expected reactions can be established with notably, on the passive pole: the better future significantly more solicited than the moral responsibility, the historical pessimism and the compensatory future, and the behavioral responsibility preceding the historical pessimism as well as the compensatory future; as for the active pole, we notice that the acceptance of the collective protests and of the individual lawsuits precedes the out of norms activism (which is majoritarily rejected).

Table 2: averages of the answers to the 8 proposed conducts with, in brackets, the rates of the possible significativity of the differences in relation to the theoretical average. **NB:** for each item, more one goes circa 0 and more one agrees on the contestation, conversely more one goes circa 1 and more one agrees on the passivity; therefore, the theoretical average is 1,5 (each item x 3 cases). So, for the whole set of the items of passivity (5 items x 3 cases), we have an indication of passivity going from 0 (minimum passivity) to 15 (maximum passivity), with a theoretical average of 7,5. For the whole set of the items of activism (3 items x 3 cases), we have an indication of activism going from 0 (maximum activism) to 9 (minimum activism), with a theoretical average of 4,5. For the whole set of the 24 items (8 items x 3 cases), we have a global passivity/activism indication going from 0 (maximum activism) to 24 (maximum passivity), with a theoretical average of 12.

	Men (N=73)	Women (N=55)	Total of the subjects (N=174)
Moral Resp.	1,67	1,58	1,57
Behavioral Resp.	1,93 (p≅0,00)	1,69	1,72 (p≅0,00)
Compensatory Future	1,45	1,29	1,40
Better Future	1,88 (p≅0,00)	1,84 (p=0,01)	1,90 (p≅0,00)
Historical Pessimism	1,40	1,62	1,47
Global Passivity	8,33 (p=0,01)	8,02	8,07 (p≅0,00)
Collective Action	1,30	1,13 (p=0,02)	1,21 (p≅0,00)
Individual Lawsuit	1,27	1,18 (p=0,04)	1,25 (p≅0,00)
Out of norms Action	2,18 (p≅0,00)	2,15 (p≅0,00)	2,16 (p≅0,00)
Global Activism	4,75	4,45	4,62
Global Passivity-Activism	13,08 (p=0,02)	12,47	12,69 (p=0,02)

Table 3: rates of the possible significativity of the differences of the agreements-disagreements between the 8 conducts, for the men (H), for the women (F) and globally (G).

	Behav. Resp.	Comp. Future	Better Future	Hist. Pess.	Coll. Act.	Lawsuit	Out of norms
Moral Resp.	NS	NS	p≅0,00 (G)	NS	NS	NS	NS
Behav. Resp.		p≅0,00 (H,G) p=0,01 (F)	NS	p≅0,00 (H) p=0,01 (G)	NS	NS	NS
Comp. Future			p≅0,00 (H,F,G)	NS	NS	NS	NS
Better Future				p≅0,00 (H,G)	NS	NS	NS
Histo. Pessim.						NS	NS
Coll. Action						NS	p≅0,00 (H,F,G)
Lawsuit							p≅0,00 (H,F,G)

3.3. Subjects having preferred the answer «just» at least to one of the 3 cases

72 subjects are here concerned (36 men, 20 women and 16 subjects who didn't indicate their gender). However, as each subject could check this preference more than one time, we noted each of the questions where it was answered «just», that is to say 81 answers (42 for the men, 22 for the women, and 17 with no indication of the gender).

First of all let's note that here also there is no significative difference between the men and the women (horizontal analyses between the first 2 columns of the table 4).

The table n°4 leads to note, as regards to the global indication of passivity/activism, that the subjects significantly prefer, here again, and in a logical way, the passivity answers, being these preferences the consequences of the valorization of 3 passive conducts and of the rejection of 2 protestation conducts. Thus, as for the previous subjects, the behavioral responsibility is present, but intervene also here the moral responsibility and the evocation either of the better or of the compensatory future. One notices the rejection of the out of norms activism (as for the previous subjects) but also a rejection of the lawsuits. One finally observes, compared with the previous subjects, that the collective action is not valorized (and more globally that no manner of contestation is here valorized).

Moreover, table 5 indicates that a hierarchy of the wished reactions can be established here also, with mainly, on the passive pole: the behavioral responsibility, but also here the moral one, which are significantly preferred than the better future and than the historical pessimism (this historical pessimism being also dethroned by the compensator here). As for the active pole, let's notice a rejection of the out of norms actions and of the lawsuits, but with a more intense rejection for the firsts.

Table 4: averages of the answers to the 8 proposed conducts with, in brackets, the rates of the possible significativity of the differences in relation to the theoretical average. **NB:** for each item, more one goes circa 0 and more one agrees on the contestation, conversely more one goes circa 1 and more one agrees on the passivity; therefore, the theoretical average by item is 0,5 (each item x 3 cases). So, for the whole set of the items of passivity of each case (5 items), we have an indication of passivity going from 0 (minimum passivity) to 5 (maximum passivity), with a theoretical average of 2,5. For the whole set of the items of activism of each case (3 items), we have an indication of activism going from 0 (maximum activism) to 3 (minimum activism), with a theoretical average of 1,5. For the whole set of the 8 items of each case, we have a global passivity/activism indication going from 0 (maximum activism) to 8 (maximum passivity), with a theoretical average of 4.

	Answers of the Men (n=42)	Answers of the Women (n=22)	Total of the answers (n=81)
Moral Resp.	0,74 (p≅0,00)	0,86 (p≅0,00)	0,77 (p≅0,00)
Behavioral Resp.	0,74 (p≅0,00)	0,82 (p≅0,00)	0,74 (p≅0,00)
Compensatory Future	0,60	0,68	0,63 (p=0,01)
Better Futur	0,52	0,59	0,48
Historical Pessimism	0,38	0,55	0,42
Global Passivity	2,98 (p≅0,00)	3,50 (p≅0,00)	3,04 (p≅0,00)
Collective Action	0,57	0,50	0,53
Individual Lawsuit	0,69 (p=0,01)	0,82 (p≅0,00)	0,70 (p≅0,00)
Out of norms Action	0,83 (p≅0,00)	0,91 (p≅0,00)	0,86 (p≅0,00)
Gloal Activism	2,09 (p≅0,00)	2,23 (p≅0,00)	2,09 (p≅0,00)
Global Passivity-Activism	5,07 (p≅0,00)	5,73 (p≅0,00)	5,14 (p≅0,00)



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Table 5: rates of the possible significativity of the differences of the agreements-disagreements between the 8 conducts, for the men (H), for the women (F) and globally (G).

	Behav. Resp.	Comp. Future	Better Future	Hist. Pess.	Coll. Act.	Lawsuit	Out of norms
Moral Resp.	NS	NS	p=0,04 (H,F) p≅0,00 (G)	p≅0,00 (H,G) p=0,02 (F)	NS	NS	NS
Behav. Resp.		NS	P=0,04 (H) p≅0,00 (G)	p≅0,00 (H,G)	NS	NS	NS
Comp. Future			NS	p≅0,00 (G)	NS	NS	NS
Better Future				NS	NS	NS	NS
Histo. Pessim.					NS	NS	NS
Coll. Action						p=0,02 (F,G)	p≅0,00 (H,F,G)
Lawsuit							p=0,01 (G)

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Our results first highlight, besides the absence of difference between the men and the women, that, majoritary, our recruiter valorize the «clear-sighted» (to take the expression of Py and Somat, 1991) and honest candidates, that is to say the candidates who, facing an unjust situation, don't hesitate to note its unjust aspect. However we notice, for these subjects, that to note an injustice doesn't mean to protest against it; on the contrary, since passivity is, even for this population, valorized. Thus, the «good» applicant for a job is supposed to evoke a better future or the behavioral responsibility, and if he protests (what is effectively also sometimes expected), this protest must always follow legal ways. Moreover, it is to notice that the moral responsibility, that Lerner considered as a frequent rationalization permitting to re-establish cognitively the feeling of justice (see for exemple Lerner and Simmons, 1966) appears here as far from being dominant (the better future preceding notably this rationalization). We finally can underline that the historical pessimism, that one can compare with the concept of «learned helplessness» (see for exemple Hiroto and Seligman, 1975) only intervenes only in an anecdotal way.

As for the subjects who valorize the declarations of justice, we can say that, globally, their positions correspond, but in an (logicaly) accentuated way, to those of our previous subjects, with again a global judgment of passivity/activism turned toward the passivity. However, some differences appear. In regards to this passivity we notice that the historical pessimism is still rejected, but especially, on the one hand that the moral responsibility is now solicited, and on the other hand that the compensatory future (that is to say the minimization of the negativity of the present situation) dominates the better future. And as regards to the activism, one now observes the rejection of any protest action and that even the lawsuits are now rejected.

In conclusion, it is possible to consider some of these results as surprising, at least at first sight. First, let's notice that the recruiters majoritary wish employees that, facing an obvious injustice, don't deny it; but does it mean a valorization of the realistic employees (what could

represent a risk) or a valorization of the honest employees, who confess what they think rather than to hide it? Also surprising is the absence of valorization of the historical pessimism. However, this surprise can disappear if one considers that it means to wish employees having the feeling of a minimum of power on the things, feeling that they will be able to use in their work but evidently only using it with the aim of the development of their enterprise: one knows that the good employees must be a «fighter». Other results are more ordinary, as the rejection of illegal actions or, for the subjects considering the situations as just, the absence of valorization of any contestation. Finally, other results require complementary researches, and we notably think here of the small frequency of evocation of the moral responsibility among the subjects who consider positively the declarations of injustices. This small frequency of evocation, that seems to contrast to the results of the studies on the «just world theory», invite us to pursue new tracks, what is always stimulating...

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ANNEXE: THE 3 CASES

Case 1

René est à la recherche d'un emploi depuis plus d'un an. La plupart des CV qu'il envoie restent sans réponse, ou alors il lit toujours la même chose: «Après examen de votre candidature, nous avons le regret de ne pouvoir y donner une suite favorable. Nous sommes cependant persuadés que vous trouverez rapidement un emploi correspondant à vos compétences...». René va bientôt cesser de percevoir les ASSEDIC. Il a suivi plusieurs stages de Techniques de Recherche d'Emploi, il téléphone ou se présente à toutes les adresses qu'on lui indique, mais c'est toujours la même chose: il a trop peu d'expérience ou il en a trop, il a trop peu de formation ou il en a trop.. Il ne sait plus quoi faire, il est de plus en plus découragé.

Ce qui a mis le feu aux poudres, ce sont peut-être les derniers entretiens qu'il a eu, pour un poste qui l'intéressait beaucoup. Il a d'abord rencontré un recruteur, puis le chef du service où il y avait le poste, puis encore quelqu'un d'autre... A chaque fois, il a eu l'impression que tout s'était bien passé; d'ailleurs, si ça n'avait pas été le cas, on ne l'aurait pas convoqué à tous ces entretiens.. Et puis «vlan»: alors qu'il croit que tout est bon, on lui dit qu'il n'est pas pris. Ou plus exactement quelqu'un lui laisse entendre qu'il est bien le meilleur candidat, mais que le poste est depuis le départ réservé au fils ou au neveu d'untel, et que la procédure était truquée. Ce n'était que «du bidon». René est abattu. Il n'a plus envie de rien. Il a envie de tout laisser tomber. D'autant qu'il se dit que ce n'est sans doute pas la 1^{ère} fois qu'il se présente pour un poste qui en fait n'est pas disponible. Si c'est toujours comme ça, René pense que ça ne sert à rien de continuer à chercher un emploi.

Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.

1. Ce refus d'embauche de René vous semble:

Totalement juste Juste Injuste Totalement injuste

2. La prochaine offre d'emploi sera la bonne:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

3. Puisque René était le plus compétent, ce n'est peut-être pas parce que le poste était "réservé" qu'il n'a pas été pris, mais peut-être aussi à cause de sa personnalité:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

4. René n'a peut-être pas adopté les bons comportements pendant le entretiens, sinon, puisqu'il était le plus compétent, il aurait peut-être quand même été embauché:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

5. Puisque c'était une offre d'emploi truquée, René aurait dû porter plainte:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

6. René aurait dû faire un scandale et menacer de tout révéler si on ne le prenait pas:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

7. René ne pouvait rien faire: les recruteurs ont toujours le dernier mot:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord



8. René aurait dû tout de suite demander à l'Association Régionale des Chômeurs d'intervenir:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

9. De toutes façons, dans une entreprise comme celle là, René n'aurait pas été bien. C'est mieux qu'il n'ait pas été pris: il trouvera mieux ailleurs:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

Cas 2

Francis a été licencié et recherche un nouvel emploi. Il a un entretien avec son conseiller. Voici son récit :

«J'ai travaillé dans cette agence régionale pendant plusieurs années. J'ai pris volontairement et accepté beaucoup de responsabilités, et j'ai prouvé que j'étais vraiment capable de faire du bon boulot. Là dessus, je n'ai jamais eu aucun reproche, bien au contraire. En fait, les problèmes ont commencé avec l'arrivée d'un nouveau chef d'agence. Je n'accepte pas qu'on me demande n'importe quoi: quand un projet me semble mauvais, ou quand une procédure me semble inefficace, je n'hésite pas à le dire. Si je m'investis dans mon travail, ce n'est pas pour que quelqu'un d'autre, même un chef, prenne des décisions idiotes qui réduisent mes efforts à zéro. J'ai d'ailleurs appris plus tard que mon nouveau chef d'agence n'avait eu son poste que parce qu'il avait beaucoup de relations à la Direction Générale parisienne, et non pas du fait de ses compétences... Mais le problème c'est que j'ai été de plus en plus souvent en conflit avec ce nouveau chef, jusqu'au jour où il m'a convoqué pour un entretien préalable avant licenciement. Il a reconnu que je faisais du bon travail, mais il m'a aussi dit qu'il n'acceptait plus que je conteste ses décisions. J'ai bien essayé de me défendre, mais sans succès: quelques jours plus tard, je recevais ma lettre de licenciement».

Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.

1. Le licenciement de Francis vous semble:

Totalement juste Juste Injuste Totalement injuste

2. Francis aurait dû porter plainte:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

3. Même si Francis est compétent, ce n'est sûrement pas quelqu'un malin: pour ne pas avoir ce type de problème, quand on conteste, il faut le faire avec plus de diplomatie:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

4. On peut comprendre que Francis vive très mal d'avoir été licencié. Mais une fois son licenciement décidé, il ne pouvait plus rien faire: les employeurs sont toujours les plus forts :

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

5. Malgré sa compétence, Francis aurait dû cesser de contester. En continuant ainsi, il ne pouvait qu'avoir des problèmes:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

6. C'est un mal pour un bien, Francis trouvera mieux ailleurs:
plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

7. Lors de l'entretien, Francis aurait dû menacer son chef. Par exemple le menacer de révéler à la Direction Générale toutes les erreurs de gestion commises dans l'agence si il était licencié:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

8. Francis aurait dû faire appel à un syndicat :

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

9. Ce n'est qu'une mauvaise période à passer. Francis retrouvera certainement bientôt du travail et il oubliera tout ça:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

Cas 3

Tout se passait bien pour Roger jusqu'au jour où, suite à une opération chirurgicale qui se passe mal, il doit rester plusieurs mois en arrêt maladie. A son retour, il apprend que, pendant son absence, il a été remplacé par quelqu'un de moins compétent que lui, mais qui est le fils de l'un des chefs de service de l'entreprise. Le patron de l'entreprise propose alors à Roger un licenciement à l'amiable, ce que Roger refuse.

Depuis, sa vie professionnelle est un enfer. On ne lui transmet plus aucune information, on l'exclut de toutes les réunions; on lui donne des ordres sans cesse contradictoires, pour des tâches idiotes et sans aucun intérêt. En fait, on ne lui donne plus aucun véritable travail. Il est «mis au placard». On veut le faire craquer pour qu'il quitte l'entreprise de lui-même...

Cochez les cases en indiquant les réponses que vous attendez d'un bon candidat.

1. Ce qui arrive à Roger vous semble:

Totalement juste Juste Injuste Totalement injuste

2. Roger ne peut rien faire: soit il démissionne et se retrouve au chômage, soit il subit, même si c'est dur. De toutes façons, on ne gagne jamais dans une épreuve de force avec son employeur:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

3. Roger est sans doute compétent, mais aussi quelqu'un de "buté", sinon on lui donnerait à nouveau un travail normal:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

4. Si Roger n'arrive pas à retrouver une situation normale, c'est sans doute que malgré sa compétence il n'adopte pas les bons comportements:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord

5. Roger devrait avertir l'inspection du travail:

plutôt d'accord plutôt pas d'accord



6. Roger devrait lui aussi rendre la vie impossible à ses chefs, jusqu'à ce qu'ils acceptent de lui donner à nouveau du travail:

plutôt d'accord

plutôt pas d'accord

7. Ce licenciement aura un côté positif et montrera à Roger la vraie mentalité de son employeur. Mieux vaut que Roger parte au plus vite: il trouvera certainement mieux ailleurs:

plutôt d'accord

plutôt pas d'accord

8. Roger devrait contacter un syndicat:

plutôt d'accord

plutôt pas d'accord

9. Roger doit seulement attendre un peu: dans quelque temps, tout finira par rentrer dans l'ordre:

plutôt d'accord

plutôt pas d'accord

QUAND UN IDÉOLOGUE ET UN MERCENAIRE RENCONTRENT UN ALLÉGEANT ET UN REBELLE: ÉTUDE DE LA DÉSIRABILITÉ SOCIALE ESTIMÉE DE LEURS CONDUITES

Bernard GANGLOFF¹ et Coralie DUCHON²

¹Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et Département de Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

²Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France).

duchon.coralie@wanadoo.fr

RÉSUMÉ

De nombreuses études ont mis en évidence l'existence d'une norme d'allégeance que l'on peut brièvement définir comme la valorisation sociale des individus évitant toute conduite de remise en cause de l'environnement social, et notamment toute remise en cause de la hiérarchie des pouvoirs dans un système social donné. Il est ainsi possible de distinguer les individus faisant preuve d'allégeance, qui sont socialement valorisés, et les autres, les rebelles.

Nous avons ici fait l'hypothèse qu'allégeance et rébellion pouvaient faire l'objet d'une dichotomie selon un critère «idéologique» versus «mercenaire», et que nous pourrions ainsi distinguer des «allégeants par idéologie», des «allégeants par mercenariat», des «rebelles par idéologie», et des «rebelles mercenaires».

Nous avons ainsi construit un questionnaire destiné à valider cette typologie, et nous avons demandé à 2 populations d'y répondre, l'une étant constituée de chômeurs, la seconde de salariés. Dans chacune de ces 2 populations, 3 sous-groupes ont été constitués: le 1^{er} avait pour consigne de répondre honnêtement aux items, le 2^{ème} et le 3^{ème} devaient respectivement y répondre en donnant soit la meilleure image de soi soit la plus mauvaise image de soi (l'objectif étant alors d'étudier l'estimation du degré de valorisation/dévalorisation des différentes conduites proposées dans les items).

Après une présentation de l'opérationnalisation de la typologie envisagée, nous indiquerons les résultats obtenus, tant globalement qu'en examinant les différences entre chômeurs et salariés, puis montrerons comment ces résultats permettent de mieux comprendre certains discours politiques contemporains.

Mots clés: *allégeance, idéologie, norme, chômage.*

ABSTRACT

Numerous studies highlighted the existence of an allegiance norm that one briefly define as the social valorization of the individuals avoiding to question the social environment, and notably avoiding all conduct of committal of the hierarchy of the powers in a given social system. Thus, it is possible to distinguish the individuals showing an adhesion to the allegiance norm, who are socially valorized, and the others, the rebel ones.

We here made the hypothesis that allegiance and rebellion could be dichotomized according to an «ideological» versus «mercenary» criteria, and that we could distinguish the «allegiant ideologists», the «allegiant mercenaries», the «rebel ideologists», and of the «rebel mercenaries».

Thus, we constructed a questionnaire intended to validate this typology, and we asked 2 populations to answer it, one made of unemployed persons, the second of employees. In each of these 2 populations, 3 subgroups have been constituted: the 1st one had to answer honestly, the 2nd and the 3rd had to answer respectively presenting either the best or the worst image of oneself (the purpose being to study the estimated degree of valorization/devalorization of the different conducts proposed in the items).

After a presentation of the operationalization of the considered typology, we will indicate the obtained results, as well as globally as examining the differences between unemployed persons and employees, then will show how these results permit to understand better some contemporary political speeches.

Key words: *allegiance, ideology, norm, unemployment.*

1. INTRODUCTION

De nombreuses études ont, depuis une dizaine d'années, mis en évidence l'existence d'une norme d'allégeance. Cette norme, que l'on peut définir comme la valorisation sociale des individus qui évitent de remettre en cause la hiérarchie des pouvoirs inhérente à une structure sociale donnée, a initialement été observée en France (*cf.* Gangloff 1995a, 1995b, 1997; Dagot 2000, 2002; Bucchioni 2001; Gangloff 2002) et plus récemment en Argentine (Gangloff, Mayoral et Duringer 2005; Aparicio 2005).

Il est cependant possible de se demander si l'allégeance ne peut pas faire l'objet d'une dichotomie selon un critère «idéologique» *versus* «mercenaire». Nous aurions ainsi des individus allégeants pour des raisons idéologiques ou par intérêt personnel, et en corollaire des rebelles par idéologie ou par arrivisme; l'hypothèse étant alors une valorisation différenciée de ces quatre profils.

Nous avons donc construit un questionnaire permettant de caractériser chacun de ces quatre profils et demandé à une population de salariés de se positionner par rapport à eux en répondant le plus honnêtement possible à chacune des questions. Mais pour approcher plus finement la perception de la valorisation sociale de chacun de ces quatre profils, nous avons aussi demandé à deux autres populations de salariés de répondre aux questions. L'une de ces deux populations avait alors pour consigne de répondre aux questions en essayant de donner d'eux-mêmes la meilleure image possible, alors que la seconde devait au contraire tenter d'en donner la plus mauvaise image; une éventuelle différence entre ces deux populations témoignerait alors d'une différence de valorisation sociale perçue.

Nous nous sommes par ailleurs interrogés sur l'impact éventuel d'une part du genre et d'autre part de la situation d'emploi ou de chômage des répondants, et nous avons, pour répondre à cette interrogation, introduit ces deux facteurs comme critère de sélection de nos sujets.

2. PROCÉDURE

2.1. L'échelle d'allégeance

L'échelle d'allégeance est constituée de 12 items référant à des conduites allégeantes ou rebelles que des salariés peuvent adopter vis-à-vis de leur supérieur hiérarchique, qu'il s'agisse des suggestions ou des décisions émises par ce supérieur, ou encore de l'exécution des ordres qu'il donne. Pour chacune de ces conduites était par ailleurs indiquée la raison de son adoption, à savoir une raison idéologique ou une raison arriviste. Ces 12 items étaient noyés parmi 60 autres questions (le questionnaire global en comprenant donc 72), et les sujets devaient répondre à chacune par «plutôt d'accord» ou «plutôt pas d'accord». Les 12 items opérationnels sont présentés dans le tableau 1 avec leur numéro d'apparition dans le questionnaire global.

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 1: présentation des items du questionnaire

	Allégeance	Rébellion
Idéologie	44. Adhésion aux idées du chef Je ne tente jamais de défendre mes idées quand je vois qu'elles sont différentes de celles de mon chef: le chef c'est le chef!	4. Adhésion aux idées du chef Quand je ne suis pas d'accord avec ce que pense mon chef, je le lui fais toujours savoir: la loi donne aussi des droits aux salariés, il faut s'en servir, sinon ils seront perdus!
	10. Adhésion aux décisions Quand mon chef prend une décision, je ne la conteste jamais, quelle que soit cette décision: on ne doit pas contester son chef!	25. Adhésion aux décisions Quand mon chef prend de mauvaises décisions, je n'hésite jamais à les contester: j'ai des principes et je ne vois pas pourquoi je me tairais!
	60. Exécution des ordres J'exécute toujours au mieux les ordres que me donne mon chef, même quand parfois ces ordres peuvent sembler idiots: un exécutant, ça doit exécuter, un point c'est tout!	53. Exécution des ordres Si je ne suis pas d'accord avec les ordres de mon chef, je ne les respecte jamais: ce n'est pas parce que c'est le chef qu'on doit lui obéir comme des esclaves!
Mercenariat	29. Adhésion aux idées du chef J'évite toujours de défendre mon point de vue quand il s'oppose à celui de mon chef: si je veux avoir des augmentations de salaire, il vaut mieux que j'agisse ainsi!	47. Adhésion aux idées du chef Quand je vois mon chef direct avoir de mauvaises idées, j'en informe toujours les "grands chefs": un jour, j'en serai récompensé!
	31. Adhésion aux décisions Comme je veux être bien vu de mon chef, j'adhère toujours à ses décisions, quelles que soient ces décisions!	69. Adhésion aux décisions Quand je vois que les décisions de mon chef risquent de m'empêcher d'avoir une promotion, je n'hésite jamais à protester!
	22. Exécution des ordres Même si les ordres de mon chef me paraissent parfois absurdes, comme je veux avoir des promotions rapides, j'obéis toujours!	41. Exécution des ordres Quand mon chef me donne des ordres qui me semblent inadéquats, si ces ordres peuvent me gêner pour atteindre mes résultats et avoir mes primes, je ne les exécute jamais!

2.2. La population

504 sujets (répartis à peu près également en termes de genre et d'insertion professionnelle) ont répondu à ce questionnaire d'allégeance selon le paradigme de l'auto-présentation: 154 ont répondu au questionnaire avec une consigne surnormative (se faire bien voir), 179 avec une consigne contrenormative (se faire mal voir), et 171 avec une consigne neutre (répondre honnêtement). Le tableau 2 illustre cette répartition.

Tableau 2: répartition des sujets dans les 3 conditions expérimentales

	Surnormative	Contrenormative	Neutre
Hommes salariés	41	43	48
Hommes chômeurs	36	47	40
Femmes salariées	44	45	45
Femmes chômeuses	33	44	38
Total hommes	77	90	88
Total femmes	77	89	83
Total salariés	85	88	93
Total chômeurs	69	91	78
Total général	154	179	171

3. RÉSULTATS

Les résultats obtenus ont fait l'objet de tests de Student. Nous les présenterons en commençant par les effets de l'allégeance prise globalement, nous examinerons ensuite l'allégeance idéologique puis l'allégeance mercenaire, avant de terminer par une comparaison entre allégeance idéologique et allégeance mercenaire.

3.1. Allégeance globale

Le tableau 3 indique que nos sujets se présentent spontanément (consigne neutre) comme significativement rebelles, et ce de manière systématique (qu'il s'agisse des hommes ou des femmes, ou qu'ils soient salariés comme chômeurs¹). Nous remarquons également que les chômeurs (hommes comme femmes) sont significativement allégeants avec la consigne surnormative et que les femmes au chômage sont significativement rebelles avec la consigne contrenormative.

Le tableau 4 affine ces résultats en montrant que les chômeurs (mais non les salariés) sont davantage allégeants avec la consigne surnormative qu'avec la consigne contrenormative, ce qui signifie une prise de conscience (une «clairvoyance», diraient Py et Somat, 1991) de la valorisation sociale de l'allégeance. Nous remarquons aussi, toujours au tableau 4, que nos sujets sont quasi systématiquement plus allégeants avec la consigne surnormative qu'avec la neutre, mais qu'il n'existe de différence entre la consigne contrenormative et la consigne neutre que chez les salariés pris globalement.

Nous observons enfin (tableau 5) l'absence d'effet genre, mais par contre un effet statut avec la consigne surnormative, les chômeurs étant plus allégeants que les salariés.

¹ L'absence de différence, par rapport à la moyenne théorique, des chômeurs hommes ou des chômeuses femmes pris séparément, peut ne provenir que de l'effectif de chacun de ces 2 groupes (puisque globalement, c'est-à-dire chômeurs hommes et femmes réunis, la différence est significative).



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 3: Moyennes de l'allégeance globale selon la consigne, le genre et le statut. Les éventuelles différences significatives par rapport à la moyenne théorique sont indiquées avec le *t* obtenu (l'étendue étant 0 à 12, avec 12 totalement allégeant et 0 totalement rebelle, cette moyenne théorique est de 6). Seuils de significativité : *** = $p \leq 0,001$; ** = $p \leq 0,01$; * = $p \leq 0,05$

		Consigne sur-normative	Consigne contre-normative	Consigne neutre
Hommes salariés	Moyenne	5.195	5.535	4.396*** t=4,40
Hommes chômage	Moyenne	7.111* t=2,12	5.447	5.1
Femmes salariées	Moyenne	5.977	5.4	4.422*** t=4,38
Femmes chômage	Moyenne	7.576* t=2,55	5.023* t=2,04	5.211
Total hommes	Moyenne	6.091	5.489	4.716*** t=4,10
Total femmes	Moyenne	6.662	5.213* t=2,39	4.783*** t=3,94
Total salariés	Moyenne	5.6	5.466	4.409*** t=6,24
Total chômage	Moyenne	7.333*** t=3,33	5.242* t=2,32	5.154* t=2,31
Total général	Moyenne	6.377	5.352** t=2,76	4.749*** t=5,75

Tableau 4: Comparaison, pour l'allégeance globale, des 3 consignes entre elles, selon le genre et le statut. Les éventuelles différences significatives sont indiquées avec le *t* obtenu. Seuils de significativité : *** = $p \leq 0,001$; ** = $p \leq 0,01$; * = $p \leq 0,05$

		Sur/contre	Sur/neutre	Contre/neutre
Hommes salariés	Moyenne	5.19/5.53	5.19/4.40	5.53/4.40
Hommes chômage	Moyenne	7.11/5.45* t=2,44	7.11/5.1** t=2,68	5.45/5.1
Femmes salariées	Moyenne	5.98/5.4	5.98/4.42** t=2,52	5.4/4.42
Femmes chômage	Moyenne	7.58/5.02*** t=3,31	7.58/5.21** t=2,98	5.02/5.21
Total hommes	Moyenne	6.09/5.49	6.09/4.72** t=2,73	5.49/4.72
Total femmes	Moyenne	6.66/5.21** t=2,82	6.66/4.78*** t=3,78	5.21/4.78
Total salariés	Moyenne	5.6/5.47	5.6/4.419** t=2,65	5.47/4.41** t=2,50
Total chômage	Moyenne	7.33/5.24*** t=4,08	7.33/5.15*** t=4,02	5.24/5.15
Total général	Moyenne	6.38/5.35** t=2,81	6.38/4.75*** t=4,60	5.35/4.75

Tableau 5: effet du genre et du statut dans l'allégeance globale. Les éventuelles différences significatives sont indiquées avec le *t* obtenu. Seuils de significativité : *** = $p \leq 0,001$; ** = $p \leq 0,01$; * = $p \leq 0,05$

	Consigne sur-normative	Consigne contre-normative	Consigne neutre
H Salariés/F salariées	5,19/5,98	5,53/5,4	4,4/4,42
H chômeurs/ F chômeuses	7,11/7,58	5,45/5,02	5,1/5,21
H/F	6,09/6,62	5,49/5,21	4,72/4,78
H salariés/H chômeurs	5,19/7,11* t=2,45	5,53/5,45	4,4/5,1
F salariées/F chômeuses	5,98/7,58* t=2,02	5,4/5,02	4,42/5,21
Salariés/chômeurs	5,6/7,33** t=3,13	5,47/5,24	4,41/5,15

3.2. Alléance idéologique

Nous observons dans le tableau 6 que nos sujets se présentent spontanément (consigne neutre) comme significativement rebelles, et ce de manière systématique (qu'il s'agisse des hommes ou des femmes, ou qu'ils soient salariés comme chômeurs). Nous remarquons également que seules les femmes au chômage sont significativement allégeantes avec la consigne surnormative, et qu'aucune différence n'apparaît avec la consigne contrenormative.

Le tableau 7 montre que seules les femmes au chômage sont ici plus allégeantes avec la consigne surnormative qu'avec la contrenormative. Nous constatons par contre que nos sujets sont, sans exception, plus allégeants avec la consigne surnormative qu'avec la neutre, et que les salariés sont, assez curieusement, plus allégeants avec la consigne contrenormative qu'avec la consigne neutre (ce qui peut expliquer l'absence de différence plus systématique entre consigne surnormative et consigne contrenormative).

Enfin, en ce qui concerne les éventuels effets genre et statut (tableau 8), une seule différence apparaît: avec la consigne surnormative, les hommes au chômage sont plus allégeants que les hommes salariés.

Tableau 6: Moyennes de l'allégeance idéologique selon la consigne, le genre et le statut. Les éventuelles différences significatives par rapport à la moyenne théorique sont indiquées avec le *t* obtenu (l'étendue étant 0 à 6, avec 6 totalement allégeant et 0 totalement rebelle, cette moyenne théorique est de 3). **Seuils de significativité :** *** = $p \leq 0,001$; ** = $p \leq 0,01$; * = $p \leq 0,05$

		Consigne sur-normative	Consigne contre-normative	Consigne neutre
Hommes salariés	Moyenne	2.512	2.884	1.729*** t=5,93
Hommes chômage	Moyenne	3.5	2.787	2.175** t=2,58
Femmes salariées	Moyenne	2.864	2.822	1.822*** t=5,18
Femmes chômage	Moyenne	3.789* t=2,25	2.636	2.263* t=2,23
Total hommes	Moyenne	2.974	2.833	1.932*** t=5,72
Total femmes	Moyenne	3.26	2.730	2.024*** t=5,11
Total salariés	Moyenne	2.694	2.852	1.774*** t=7,89
Total chômage	Moyenne	3.638** t=2,70	2.714	2.218*** t=3,49
Total général	Moyenne	3.117	2.782	1.976*** t=7,68



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 7: Comparaison, pour l'allégeance idéologique, des 3 consignes entre elles, selon le genre et le statut. Les éventuelles différences significatives sont indiquées avec le *t* obtenu. Seuils de significativité : *** = $p \leq 0,001$; ** = $p \leq 0,01$; * = $p \leq 0,05$

		Sur/contre	Sur/neutre	Contre/neutre
Hommes salariés	Moyenne	2.51/2.88	2.51/1.73* t=2,00	2.88/1.73** t=3,05
Hommes chômage	Moyenne	3.5/2.79	3.5/2.17** t= 2,91	2.79/2.17
Femmes salariées	Moyenne	2.86/2.82	2.86/1.82** t=2,66	2.82/1.82** t=2,73
Femmes chômage	Moyenne	3.79/2.64* t=2,46	3.79/2.26** t=3,23	2.64/2.26
Total hommes	Moyenne	2.97/2.83	2.97/1.93*** t=3,46	2.83/1.93** t=3,13
Total femmes	Moyenne	3.26/2.73	3.26/2.02*** t=4,05	2.73/2.02** t=2,48
Total salariés	Moyenne	2.69/2.85	2.69/1.77*** t=3,34	2.85/1.77*** t=4,12
Total chômage	Moyenne	3.64/2.71** t=2,88	3.64/2.22 ** t=4,36	2.71/2.22
Total général	Moyenne	3.12/2.78	3.12/1.98*** t=5,33	2.78/1.98*** t=3,99

Tableau 8: effet du genre et du statut dans l'allégeance idéologique. Les éventuelles différences significatives sont indiquées avec le *t* obtenu. Seuils de significativité : *** = $p \leq 0,001$; ** = $p \leq 0,01$; * = $p \leq 0,05$

	Consigne sur-normative	Consigne contre-normative	Consigne neutre
H Salariés/F salariées	2,51/2,86	2,88/2,82	1,73/1,82
H chômeurs/ F chômeuses	3,5/3,79	2,79/2,64	2,17/2,26
H/F	2,97/3,26	2,83/2,73	1,93/2,02
H salariés/H chômeurs	2,51/3,5* t=2,09	2,88/2,79	1,73/2,17/
F salariées/F chômeuses	2,86/3,79	2,82/2,64	1,82/2,26
Salariés/chômeurs	2,69/3,64** t=2,82	2,85/2,71	1,77/2,22

3.3. Allégeance mercenaire

Nous remarquons sur le tableau 9 que seules les femmes salariées sont spontanément rebelles, qu'avec la consigne surnormative seuls les chômeurs (hommes comme femmes) sont allégeants, et qu'avec la consigne contrenormative nous obtenons des réponses rebelles, d'une part chez les femmes au chômage, d'autre part en effectuant des regroupements (les hommes ou les femmes ou les salariés ou les chômeurs ensemble).

Le tableau 10 montre essentiellement que les chômeurs sont plus allégeants avec la consigne surnormative qu'avec la contrenormative, et que les femmes au chômage sont également plus allégeantes avec la consigne surnormative qu'avec la neutre. Par contre, aucune différence n'apparaît entre la consigne contrenormative et la neutre.

Enfin, pour les éventuels effets genre et statut, nous notons seulement que les chômeurs pris globalement sont, avec la consigne surnormative, plus allégeants que les salariés.



Tableau 9: Moyennes de l'allégeance mercenaire selon la consigne, le genre et le statut. Les éventuelles différences significatives par rapport à la moyenne théorique sont indiquées avec le *t* obtenu (l'étendue étant 0 à 6, avec 12 totalement allégeant et 0 totalement rebelle, cette moyenne théorique est de 3). Seuils de significativité : *** = $p \leq 0,001$; ** = $p \leq 0,01$; * = $p \leq 0,05$

		Consigne sur-normative	Consigne contre-normative	Consigne neutre
Hommes salariés	Moyenne	2.683	2.651	2.667
Hommes chômage	Moyenne	3.611* t=2,39	2.659	2.925
Femmes salariées	Moyenne	3.114	2.578	2.6* t=2,06
Femmes chômage	Moyenne	3.789* t=2,49	2.386** t=2,56	2.947
Total hommes	Moyenne	3.117	2.656* t=2,17	2.784
Total femmes	Moyenne	3.402* t=2,11	2.483** t=3,15	2.759
Total salariés	Moyenne	2.906	2.614* t=2,32	2.634** t=2,74
Total chômage	Moyenne	3.697*** t=3,47	2.527** t=2,02	2.936
Total général	Moyenne	3.260* t=3,26	2.6*** t=3,77	2.772* t=2,10

Tableau 10: Comparaison, pour l'allégeance mercenaire, des 3 consignes entre elles, selon le genre et le statut. Les éventuelles différences significatives sont indiquées avec le *t* obtenu. Seuils de significativité : *** = $p \leq 0,001$; ** = $p \leq 0,01$; * = $p \leq 0,05$

		Sur/contre	Sur/neutre	Contre/neutre
Hommes salariés	Moyenne	2.68/2.65	2.68/2.67	2.65/2.67
Hommes chômage	Moyenne	3.61/2.66** t=2,94	3.61/2.92	2.66/2.92
Femmes salariées	Moyenne	3.11/2.58	3.11/2.6	2.58/2.6
Femmes chômage	Moyenne	3.79/2.39*** t=3,60	3.79/2.95* t=2,07	2.39/2.95
Total hommes	Moyenne	3.12/2.66	3.12/2.78	2.66/2.78
Total femmes	Moyenne	3.40/2.48*** t=3,68	3.40/2.76** t=2,60	2.48/2.76
Total salariés	Moyenne	2.91/2.61	2.91/2.63	2.61/2.63
Total chômage	Moyenne	3.70/2.53*** t=4,66	3.70/2.94** t=2,85	2.53/2.94
Total général	Moyenne	3.26/2.6*** t=3,94	3.26/2.77** t=2,84	2.6/2.77



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 11: effet du genre et du statut dans l'allégeance mercenaire. Les éventuelles différences significatives sont indiquées avec le *t* obtenu. Seuils de significativité : *** = $p \leq 0,001$; ** = $p \leq 0,01$; * = $p \leq 0,05$

	Consigne sur-normative	Consigne contre-normative	Consigne neutre
H Salariés/F salariés	2,68/3,11	2,65/2,58	2,67/2,6
H chômeurs/ F chômeuses	3,61/3,79	2,66/2,39	2,92/2,95
H/F	3,12/3,40	2,66/2,48	2,78/2,76
H salariés/H chômeurs	2,68/3,61	2,65/2,66	2,67/2,92
F salariés/F chômeuses	3,11/3,79	2,58/2,39	2,6/2,95
Salariés/chômeurs	2,91/3,70** t=3,00	2,61/2,53	2,63/2,94

3.4. Comparaison allégeance idéologique / allégeance mercenaire

Le tableau 12 (dans lequel les réponses à la consigne neutre indiquées dans les tableaux 6 et 9 sont ici reprises) nous indique que toutes les différences sont significatives: nos sujets sont spontanément plus rebelles pour des raisons idéologiques que pour des raisons arrivistes. Par contre, aucune différence n'apparaît entre les 2 types d'allégeance lorsque l'on examine les réponses à la consigne surnormative ou à la consigne contrenormative (tableaux 13 et 14).

Tableau 12: Moyennes de l'allégeance idéologique et de l'allégeance mercenaire en consigne neutre, selon le genre et le statut. Les éventuelles différences significatives sont indiquées avec le *t* obtenu. Seuils de significativité : *** = $p \leq 0,001$; ** = $p \leq 0,01$; * = $p \leq 0,05$

		Idéologique	Mercenaire	Significativité
Hommes salariés	Moyenne	1.729	2.667	*** t=5,11
Hommes chômage	Moyenne	2.175	2.925	*** t=3,72
Femmes salariées	Moyenne	1.822	2.6	*** t=3,5
Femmes chômage	Moyenne	2.263	2.947	* t=2,42
Total hommes	Moyenne	1.932	2.784	*** t=6,67
Total femmes	Moyenne	2.024	2.759	*** t=4,18
Total salariés	Moyenne	1.774	2.634	*** t=6,31
Total chômage	Moyenne	2.218	2.936	*** t=4,20
Total général	Moyenne	1.976	2.772	*** t=7,79

Tableau 13: Moyennes de l'allégeance idéologique et de l'allégeance mercenaire en consigne surnormative, selon le genre et le statut (aucune différence n'est significative).

		Idéologique	Mercenaire	Significativité
Hommes salariés	Moyenne	2.512	2.683	
Hommes chômage	Moyenne	3.5	3.611	
Femmes salariées	Moyenne	2.864	3.114	
Femmes chômage	Moyenne	3.789	3.789	
Total hommes	Moyenne	2.974	3.117	
Total femmes	Moyenne	3.26	3.402	
Total salariés	Moyenne	2.694	2.906	
Total chômage	Moyenne	3.638	3.697	
Total général	Moyenne	3.117	3.260	

Tableau 14: Moyennes de l'allégeance idéologique et de l'allégeance mercenaire en consigne contrenormative, selon le genre et le statut (aucune différence n'est significative).

		Idéologique	Mercenaire	Significativité
Hommes salariés	Moyenne	2.884	2.651	
Hommes chômage	Moyenne	2.787	2.659	
Femmes salariées	Moyenne	2.822	2.578	
Femmes chômage	Moyenne	2.636	2.386	
Total hommes	Moyenne	2.833	2.656	
Total femmes	Moyenne	2.730	2.483	
Total salariés	Moyenne	2.852	2.614	
Total chômage	Moyenne	2.714	2.527	
Total général	Moyenne	2.782	2.6	

DISCUSSION ET CONCLUSION

Sont tout d'abord mis en évidence l'absence totale d'effet genre, mais par contre un effet statut très généralisé avec la consigne surnormative, effet montrant que les chômeurs sont moins rebelles que les salariés: pour l'allégeance globale (de manière systématique et significative), pour l'allégeance idéologique (de manière significative chez les hommes ainsi que chez les hommes et les femmes mis ensemble, mais avec des données allant dans le même sens chez les femmes prises isolément), et pour l'allégeance mercenaire (chez les hommes et les femmes regroupés, mais là encore avec des données allant dans le même sens pour les hommes ou les femmes pris séparément).

Rappelons maintenant que l'un des objectifs principaux de cette étude était de réaliser une dichotomisation au sein de la dimension allégeance, avec plus précisément l'hypothèse d'une possible différenciation de résultats entre allégeance idéologique et allégeance mercenaire. Les données que nous avons obtenues semblent confirmer cette hypothèse, et également montrer l'intervention de variables intermédiaires (essentiellement le statut, plus rarement le genre).

Nous remarquons alors que si aucune différence n'apparaît entre l'allégeance idéologique et l'allégeance mercenaire lorsque l'on examine les réponses de nos sujets à la consigne surnormative ou à la consigne contrenormative, par contre, avec la consigne neutre, tous nos sujets, sans distinction de genre ou de statut, sont spontanément plus rebelles pour des raisons idéologiques que pour des raisons arrivistes. C'est-à-dire que les salariés comme les chômeurs, les hommes comme les femmes, réalisent bien une différenciation entre les deux types d'allégeance mis en scène, différenciation qui se concrétise par davantage de contestations pour préserver des droits acquis ou par principe que par intérêt personnel. Mais comme nous venons de le souligner, certaines autres dimensions peuvent intervenir comme variables intermédiaires.

On remarque ainsi, avec la consigne neutre, que nos sujets sont plus ou moins spontanément rebelles, en fonction du type d'allégeance considéré et du statut ou du genre du répondant: c'est ainsi le cas de manière systématique (salariés comme chômeurs et hommes comme femmes) avec l'allégeance idéologique, alors qu'avec l'allégeance mercenaire cela ne s'observe que chez les femmes salariées (et avec l'allégeance prise globalement, ce n'est le cas que des salariés). On constate donc ici des différences entre les deux formes d'allégeance, différences qui sont

modulées par le statut et le genre: avec l'allégeance idéologique, tous nos sujets sont rebelles alors qu'avec l'allégeance mercenaire, seules les femmes salariées le sont.

On observe aussi que pour se faire bien voir (consigne surnormative), pour l'allégeance mercenaire (ou globale) les chômeurs (hommes comme femmes) sont significativement allégeants, phénomène que l'on constate aussi pour l'allégeance idéologique mais alors seulement chez les femmes au chômage.

Enfin, pour se faire mal voir (consigne contrenormative), pour l'allégeance mercenaire (ou pour l'allégeance globale) les femmes au chômage sont significativement rebelles (et ce sont les seules à être dans ce cas) alors que pour l'allégeance idéologique aucune différence à la moyenne théorique n'apparaît.

Cette même différenciation selon le type d'allégeance et avec modulation par des variables intermédiaires s'observe lorsque l'on compare les réponses fournies selon les consignes.

Ainsi, avec l'allégeance mercenaire (ou globale), les chômeurs (mais non les salariés) sont davantage allégeants avec la consigne surnormative qu'avec la consigne contrenormative, constat que l'on retrouve pour l'allégeance idéologique mais seulement pour les femmes au chômage.

Avec l'allégeance idéologique (ou globale), chômeurs comme salariés sont quasi systématiquement plus allégeants avec la consigne surnormative qu'avec la neutre, phénomène que l'on retrouve avec l'allégeance mercenaire mais seulement chez les femmes au chômage.

Enfin, avec l'allégeance idéologique les salariés sont plus allégeants avec la consigne contrenormative qu'avec la consigne neutre alors qu'avec l'allégeance mercenaire (ou globale), il n'y a aucune différence notable entre la consigne contrenormative et la consigne neutre.

Outre que ces différents résultats montrent l'intérêt de différencier allégeance idéologique et allégeance mercenaire, ils fournissent un certain nombre d'informations sur les conduites respectives des chômeurs et des salariés, avec notamment le constat d'une moins grande tendance à la contestation chez les premiers par rapport aux seconds. Cela peut surprendre si l'on songe que ces chômeurs vivent une insertion sociale moins favorable que les seconds, et qu'ils pourraient donc être tentés de se révolter; pour autant, il est également compréhensible que ces chômeurs, qui ont pour souhait d'obtenir un emploi, aient intériorisé le fait qu'ils ont tout intérêt à ne pas se montrer trop rebelles. Cette interprétation peut d'ailleurs trouver un appui dans le constat que seuls les chômeurs font état de différences dans leurs réponses entre la consigne surnormative et la consigne contrenormative, différences attestant d'une prise de conscience quant à la valorisation sociale de l'allégeance.

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WHEN AN IDEOLOGIST AND A MERCENARY MEET AN ALLEGIANT AND A REBEL: A STUDY ON THE ESTIMATED SOCIAL DESIRABILITY OF THEIR CONDUCTS

1. INTRODUCTION

For about ten years, numerous studies have highlighted the existence of an allegiance norm. This norm, that one can define as the social valorization of the individuals who avoid to question the hierarchy of the powers inherent in a social structure, has been initially observed in France (*cf.* Gangloff 1995a, 1995b, 1997; Dagot 2000, 2002; Bucchioni 2001; Gangloff 2002) and more lately in Argentina (Gangloff, Mayoral and Durringer 2005; Aparicio 2005).

It is however possible to wonder if this allegiance cannot be the object of a dichotomy according to an «ideological» *versus* «mercenary» criteria. Thus, we would have allegiant people for ideological reasons or by personal interest, and in conversely rebels by ideology or by opportunism; consequently, the hypothesis is a differentiated valorization of these four profiles.

We constructed a questionnaire permitting to characterize each of these four profiles and asked to employees and unemployed people to answer as honestly as possible to each of the questions. But to approach the perception of the social valorization of each of these four profiles more finely, we also asked two other populations of employees and unemployed people to answer the questions in a different way. One of these two populations had to answer as if its members wanted to present the best possible image of themselves, whereas the members of the second one had to tempt to present the worst image of themselves; a possible difference between these two populations would reveal a difference in the perception of social valorization.

Moreover, we also wanted to see the possible impact, on the one hand of the gender and on the other hand of the situation of employment or unemployment of our subjects, and to answer to this questioning, we have used these two factors as criterion of selection of our subjects.

2. PROCEDURE

2.1. The allegiance scale

The allegiance scale consisted of 12 items referring to allegiant or rebel conducts that employed can adopt facing their hierarchical superior; these conducts were about the possible reactions to the suggestions or decisions of this superior, or about the execution of the orders that he gives. For each of these conducts two possible reasons of their adoption were indicated, that is to say an ideological or a climber reason. These 12 items were inserted among 60 other questions (the global questionnaire consisted of 72 items), and the subjects had to answer to each one by «rather okay» or «rather not okay». The 12 operational items are presented in the table 1 with their number of apparition in the global questionnaire.

Table 1: the items of the questionnaire

	Allegiance	Rebellion
Ideological Allegiance	44. Support for the chief's ideas I never tempt to defend my ideas when I see that they are different from those of my chief: the chief is the chief!	4. Support for the chief's ideas When I don't agree with what my chief thinks, I always make him know it: the law also gives some rights to the employees, it is necessary to use, otherwise they will be lost!
	10. Support for the chief's decisions When my chief makes a decision, I never contest it, whatever is this decision: one must not contest one's chief!	25. Support for the chief's decisions When my chief makes bad decisions, I never hesitate to contest them: I have some principles and I don't see why I would keep silent!
	60. Execution of the orders I always execute for the best the orders of my chief, even when sometimes these orders can seem silly: a subordinate must carry out, and that's that!	53. Execution of the orders If I don't agree with my chief's orders, I never respect them: it is not because he is the chief that one must obey to him as slaves!
Mercenary Allegiance	29. Support for the chief's ideas I always avoid to defend my viewpoint when it opposes to the one of my chief: if I want to have some salary raises, it is better to act like this!	47. Support for the chief's ideas When I see my direct chief having bad ideas, I always inform the "high chiefs": one day, I will be rewarded!
	31. Support for the chief's decisions As I want to get into my chief's good, I always support his decisions, whatever are these decisions!	69. Support for the chief's decisions When I see that my chief's decisions risk to stop me from having a promotion, I never hesitate to protest!
	22. Execution of the orders Even though my chief's orders appear sometimes absurd to me, as I want to have fast promotions, I always obey!	41. Execution of the orders When my chief gives me the orders that seem inadequate to me, if these orders can embarrass me to reach my results and to have my bonuses, I never execute them!

2.2. The population

504 subjects (more or less divided in an egalitarian way in terms of gender and professional insertion) answered to this questionnaire according to the self-presentation paradigm: 154 answered with an oversurnormative order (to present a good image), 179 with a counternormative order (to present a bad image), and 171 with a neutral order (to answer honestly). The table 2 shows this distribution.

Table 2: distribution of the subjects in the 3 experimental conditions

	Overnormative	Counternormative	Honest
Men employees	41	43	48
Men unemployed	36	47	40
Women employees	44	45	45
Women unemployed	33	44	38
Total men	77	90	88
Total women	77	89	83
Total employees	85	88	93
Total unemployed	69	91	78
General Total	154	179	171

3. RESULTS

The obtained results were the object of Student tests. We will begin to present the effect of the global allegiance, we will continue with the ideological allegiance and then with the mercenary allegiance, and we will finish by a comparison between ideological and mercenary allegiance.

3.1. Global allegiance

Table 3 indicates that our subjects present themselves spontaneously (neutral order) as significantly rebels, and this in a systematic manner (as well the men as the women, and as well the employees as the unemployed). One notices also that the unemployed person (men as women) are significantly allegiant with the overnormative order and that the unemployed women are significantly rebel with the counter normative order.

Table 4 completes these results: it shows that the unemployed persons (but not the employees) are more allegiant with the overnormative order than with the counternormative order, what means that they are aware (they are «clear-sighted», would say Py and Somat, 1991) of the social valorization of allegiance. One notices also, always in Table 4, that our subjects are quasi systematically more allegiant with the overnormative order than with the neutral, but that there is a difference between the counternormative and the neutral order only among the employees globally considered.

One finally observes (table 5) the absence of effect of the gender, but on the other hand an effect of the statute with the overnormative order, the unemployed person being more allegiant than the employees.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Table 3: averages of the global allegiance according to the order, the gender and the statute. The possible significant differences in relation to the theoretical average are indicated with the obtained t (being the extent from 0 to 12, with 12 completely allegiant and 0 completely rebel, this theoretical average is of 6). **Break-even points of significativity:** *** = $p=0,001$; ** = $p=0,01$; * = $p=0,05$

		Overnormative order	Counternormative order	Honest order
Men employees	Average	5.195	5.535	4.396*** $t=4,40$
Men unemployed	Average	7.111* $t=2,12$	5.447	5.1
Women employees	Average	5.977	5.4	4.422*** $t=4,38$
Women unemployed	Average	7.576* $t=2,55$	5.023* $t=2,04$	5.211
Total men	Average	6.091	5.489	4.716*** $t=4,10$
Total women	Average	6.662	5.213* $t=2,39$	4.783*** $t=3,94$
Total employees	Average	5.6	5.466	4.409*** $t=6,24$
Total unemployed	Average	7.333*** $t=3,33$	5.242* $t=2,32$	5.154* $t=2,31$
General Total	Average	6.377	5.352** $t=2,76$	4.749*** $t=5,75$

Table 4: comparison, for the global allegiance, of the 3 orders each other, according to the gender and the statute. The possible significant differences are indicated with the obtained t . **Break-even points of significativity:** *** = $p=0,001$; ** = $p=0,01$; * = $p=0,05$

		Over/counter	Over/honest	Counter/honest
Men employees	Average	5.19/5.53	5.19/4.40	5.53/4.40
Men unemployed	Average	7.11/5.45* $t=2,44$	7.11/5.1** $t=2,68$	5.45/5.1
Women employees	Average	5.98/5.4	5.98/4.42** $t=2,52$	5.4/4.42
Women unemployed	Average	7.58/5.02*** $t=3,31$	7.58/5.21** $t=2,98$	5.02/5.21
Total men	Average	6.09/5.49	6.09/4.72** $t=2,73$	5.49/4.72
Total women	Average	6.66/5.21** $t=2,82$	6.66/4.78*** $t=3,78$	5.21/4.78
Total employees	Average	5.6/5.47	5.6/4.419** $t=2,65$	5.47/4.41** $t=2,50$
Total unemployed	Average	7.33/5.24*** $t=4,08$	7.33/5.15*** $t=4,02$	5.24/5.15
General Total	Average	6.38/5.35** $t=2,81$	6.38/4.75*** $t=4,60$	5.35/4.75



Table 5: effect of the gender and the statute in the global allegiance. The possible significant differences are indicated with the gotten *t*. **Break-even points of significance:** * * * = $p=0,001$; * * = $p=0,01$; * = $p=0,05$

	Overnormative order	Counternormative order	Honest order
M empl./W empl.	5,19/5,98	5,53/5,4	4,4/4,42
M unempl./ W unempl.	7,11/7,58	5,45/5,02	5,1/5,21
Men/Women	6,09/6,62	5,49/5,21	4,72/4,78
M Empl./Men unempl.	5,19/7,11* $t=2,45$	5,53/5,45	4,4/5,1
W Empl./W unempl.	5,98/7,58* $t=2,02$	5,4/5,02	4,42/5,21
Employees/unemployed	5,6/7,33** $t=3,13$	5,47/5,24	4,41/5,15

3.2. Ideological allegiance

One observes in the table 6 that our subjects present themselves spontaneously (neutral order) as significantly rebels, and this in a systematic manner (as well the men as the women, and as well the employees as the unemployed). One notices also that only the unemployed women are significantly allegiant with the overnormative order, and that no difference appears with the counternormative order.

Table 7 shows that only the unemployed women are more allegiant with the overnormative order than with the counternormative one. Moreover, one notices that our subjects are, without exception, more allegiant with the overnormative order that with the neutral, and that the employees are (curiously) more allegiant with the counter normative order that with the neutral order (what can explain the absence of systematic differences between the overnormative and the counter normative order).

Finally, with regard to the possible effects of the gender and of the statute (table 8), only one difference appears: with the overnormative order, the unemployed men are more allegiant than the employees men.

Table 6: averages of the ideological allegiance according to the order, the gender and the statute. The possible significant differences in relation to the theoretical average are indicated with the obtained *t* (being the extent from 0 to 6, with 6 completely allegiant and 0 completely rebel, this theoretical average is of 6). **Break-even points of significance:** * * * = $p=0,001$; * * = $p=0,01$; * = $p=0,05$

		Overnormative order	Counternormative order	Honest order
Men employees	Average	2.512	2.884	1.729*** $t=5,93$
Men unemployed	Average	3.5	2.787	2.175** $t=2,58$
Women employees	Average	2.864	2.822	1.822*** $t=5,18$
Women unemployed	Average	3.789* $t=2,25$	2.636	2.263* $t=2,23$
Total men	Average	2.974	2.833	1.932*** $t=5,72$
Total women	Average	3.26	2.730	2.024*** $t=5,11$
Total employees	Average	2.694	2.852	1.774*** $t=7,89$
Total unemployed	Average	3.638** $t=2,70$	2.714	2.218*** $t=3,49$
General Total	Average	3.117	2.782	1.976*** $t=7,68$



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Table 7: comparison, for the ideological allegiance, of the 3 orders each other, according to the gender and the statute. The possible significant differences are indicated with the obtained *t*. Break-even points of significativity: *** = $p=0,001$; ** = $p=0,01$; * = $p=0,05$

		Over/counter	Over/honest	Counter/honest
Men employees	Average	2.51/2.88	2.51/1.73* $t=2,00$	2.88/1.73** $t=3,05$
Men unemployed	Average	3.5/2.79	3.5/2.17** $t=2,91$	2.79/2.17
Women employees	Average	2.86/2.82	2.86/1.82** $t=2,66$	2.82/1.82** $t=2,73$
Women unemployed	Average	3.79/2.64* $t=2,46$	3.79/2.26** $t=3,23$	2.64/2.26
Total men	Average	2.97/2.83	2.97/1.93*** $t=3,46$	2.83/1.93** $t=3,13$
Total women	Average	3.26/2.73	3.26/2.02*** $t=4,05$	2.73/2.02** $t=2,48$
Total employees	Average	2.69/2.85	2.69/1.77*** $t=3,34$	2.85/1.77*** $t=4,12$
Total unemployed	Average	3.64/2.71** $t=2,88$	3.64/2.22 ** $t=4,36$	2.71/2.22
General Total	Average	3.12/2.78	3.12/1.98*** $t=5,33$	2.78/1.98*** $t=3,99$

Table 8: effect of the gender and the statute in the ideological allegiance. The possible significant differences are indicated with the obtained *t*. Break-even points of significativity: *** = $p=0,001$; ** = $p=0,01$; * = $p=0,05$

	Overnormative order	Counternormative order	Honest order
M empl./W empl.	2,51/2,86	2,88/2,82	1,73/1,82
M unempl./ W unempl.	3,5/3,79	2,79/2,64	2,17/2,26
Men/Women	2,97/3,26	2,83/2,73	1,93/2,02
M Empl./Men unempl.	2,51/3,5* $t=2,09$	2,88/2,79	1,73/2,17/
W Empl./W unempl.	2,86/3,79	2,82/2,64	1,82/2,26
Employees/unemployed	2,69/3,64** $t=2,82$	2,85/2,71	1,77/2,22

3.3. Mercenary allegiance

One notices in table 9 that only the employees women are spontaneously rebel, that with the overnormative order only the unemployed person (men as women) are allegiant, and that with the counternormative order one gets rebel answers, on the one hand by the unemployed women, on the other hand by doing some regroupings (the men or the women or the employees or the unemployed together).

Table 10 essentially shows that the unemployed person are more allegiant with the overnormative than with the counternormative, and that the unemployed women are also more allegiant with the over normative order than with the neutral. On the other hand, no difference appears between the counternormative and the neutral order.

Finally, for the possible effects of the gender and of the statute, one only notes that the unemployed (globally considered) are, with the overnormative order, more allegiant than the employees.



Table 9: averages of the mercenary allegiance according to the order, the gender and the statute. The possible significant differences in relation to the theoretical average are indicated with the obtained t (being the extent from 0 to 6, with 6 completely allegiant and 0 completely rebel, this theoretical average is of 6). Break-even points of significance: * * * = $p=0,001$; * * = $p=0,01$; * = $p=0,05$

		Overnormative order	Counternormative order	Honest order
Men employees	Average	2.683	2.651	2.667
Men unemployed	Average	3.611* $t=2,39$	2.659	2.925
Women employees	Average	3.114	2.578	2.6* $t=2,06$
Women unemployed	Average	3.789* $t=2,49$	2.386** $t=2,56$	2.947
Total men	Average	3.117	2.656* $t=2,17$	2.784
Total women	Average	3.402* $t=2,11$	2.483** $t=3,15$	2.759
Total employees	Average	2.906	2.614* $t=2,32$	2.634** $t=2,74$
Total unemployed	Average	3.697*** $t=3,47$	2.527** $t=2,02$	2.936
General Total	Average	3.260* $t=3,26$	2.6*** $t=3,77$	2.772* $t=2,10$

Table 10: comparison, for the mercenary allegiance, of the 3 orders each other, according to the gender and the statute. The possible significant differences are indicated with the obtained t . Break-even points of significance: * * * = $p=0,001$; * * = $p=0,01$; * = $p=0,05$

		Over/counter	Over/honest	Counter/honest
Men employees	Average	2.68/2.65	2.68/2.67	2.65/2.67
Men unemployed	Average	3.61/2.66** $t=2,94$	3.61/2.92	2.66/2.92
Women employees	Average	3.11/2.58	3.11/2.6	2.58/2.6
Women unemployed	Average	3.79/2.39*** $t=3,60$	3.79/2.95* $t=2,07$	2.39/2.95
Total men	Average	3.12/2.66	3.12/2.78	2.66/2.78
Total women	Average	3.40/2.48*** $t=3,68$	3.40/2.76** $t=2,60$	2.48/2.76
Total employees	Average	2.91/2.61	2.91/2.63	2.61/2.63
Total unemployed	Average	3.70/2.53*** $t=4,66$	3.70/2.94** $t=2,85$	2.53/2.94
General Total	Average	3.26/2.6*** $t=3,94$	3.26/2.77** $t=2,84$	2.6/2.77

Table 11: effect of the gender and of the statute in the mercenary allegiance. The possible significant differences are indicated with the obtained t . Break-even points of significance: * * * = $p=0,001$; * * = $p=0,01$; * = $p=0,05$

	Overnormative order	Counternormative order	Honest order
M empl./W empl.	2,68/3,11	2,65/2,58	2,67/2,6
M unempl./ W unempl.	3,61/3,79	2,66/2,39	2,92/2,95
Men/Women	3,12/3,40	2,66/2,48	2,78/2,76
M Empl./Men unempl.	2,68/3,61	2,65/2,66	2,67/2,92
W Empl./W unempl.	3,11/3,79	2,58/2,39	2,6/2,95
Employees/unemployed	2,91/3,70** $t=3,00$	2,61/2,53	2,63/2,94

3.4. Comparison ideological allegiance / mercenary allegiance

Table 12 (in which one the answers to the neutral order indicated in the tables 6 and 9 are reproduced) indicates that all differences are significant: our subjects are spontaneously more rebel for ideological than for climber reasons. On the other hand, no difference appears between the 2 types of allegiance when one examines the answers to the overnormative or to the counter normative orders (tables 13 and 14).

Table 12: averages of the ideological and of the mercenary allegiance in the neutral order, according to the gender and the statute. The possible significant differences are indicated with the gotten *t*. Break-even points of significance: * * * = $p=0,001$; * * = $p=0,01$; * = $p=0,05$

		Ideological	Mercenary	Significativity
Men employees	Average	1.729	2.667	*** $t=5,11$
Men unemployed	Average	2.175	2.925	*** $t=3,72$
Women employees	Average	1.822	2.6	*** $t=3,5$
Women unemployed	Average	2.263	2.947	* $t=2,42$
Total men	Average	1.932	2.784	*** $t=6,67$
Total women	Average	2.024	2.759	*** $t=4,18$
Total employees	Average	1.774	2.634	*** $t=6,31$
Total unemployed	Average	2.218	2.936	*** $t=4,20$
General Total	Average	1.976	2.772	*** $t=7,79$

Table 13: averages of the ideological and of the mercenary allegiance in the overnormative order, according to the gender and the statute (no difference is significant).

		Ideological	Mercenary	Significativity
Men employees	Average	2.512	2.683	
Men unemployed	Average	3.5	3.611	
Women employees	Average	2.864	3.114	
Women unemployed	Average	3.789	3.789	
Total men	Average	2.974	3.117	
Total women	Average	3.26	3.402	
Total employees	Average	2.694	2.906	
Total unemployed	Average	3.638	3.697	
General Total	Average	3.117	3.260	

Table 14: averages of the ideological and of the mercenary allegiance in the counternormative order, according to the gender and the statute (no difference is significant).

		Ideological	Mercenary	Significativity
Men employees	Average	2.884	2.651	
Men unemployed	Average	2.787	2.659	
Women employees	Average	2.822	2.578	
Women unemployed	Average	2.636	2.386	
Total men	Average	2.833	2.656	
Total women	Average	2.730	2.483	
Total employees	Average	2.852	2.614	
Total unemployed	Average	2.714	2.527	
General Total	Average	2.782	2.6	

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

First, are highlighted the total absence of gender effect, but on the other hand we see a statute effect very generalized with the overnormative order, effect showing that the unemployed are less rebels than employees: in the global allegiance (in a systematic and significative way), in the ideological allegiance (in a significative way for the men, or when the men and the women are put together, but also with datas going in the same sense when one considers separately the women), and in the mercenary allegiance (for the men and the women regrouped, but there again with datas going in the same sense for the men or for the women considered separately).

Now let's recall that one of the main objectives of this study was to make a dichotomization within the allegiant dimension, with more precisely the hypothesis of a possible differentiation of the results between ideological and mercenary allegiance. The datas that we got seem to confirm this hypothesis, and also to show the intermediate variable intervention (essentially the statute, more rarely the gender).

Thus, one notices that if no difference appears between the ideological allegiance and the mercenary allegiance when one examines the answers of our subjects in the overnormative or in the counternormative order, however, in the neutral order, all our subjects, without distinction of gender or statute, are spontaneously more rebel for ideological than for climber reasons. That is to say that the employees as well as the unemployed, the men as the women, make a differentiation between these two types of allegiance, differentiation that materializes by more contestations to preserve some social benefits or as a matter of principle than by personal interest. But as we have just underlined it, some other dimensions can intervene as intermediate variables.

Thus, one notices, with the neutral order, that our subjects are more or less spontaneously rebel, according to the type of allegiance considered and to their statute or their gender: it is the case in a systematic way (employees as unemployed, and men as women) with the ideological allegiance, whereas with the mercenary allegiance it is the case only for the employees women (and with the global allegiance, it is the case only for the employees). So one notes here some differences between the two types of allegiance, differences that are modulated by the statute and the gender: with the ideological allegiance, all our subjects are rebel whereas with the mercenary allegiance, only the employees women are rebel.

One also observes that to present a good image (overnormative order), for the mercenary allegiance (or global) the unemployed (men as women) are significantly allegiant, phenomenon that one also notes for the ideological allegiance but then only for the unemployed women.

Finally, to present a bad image (counter normative image), for the mercenary allegiance (or for the global allegiance) the unemployed women are significantly (and they are the only ones being in this case) whereas for the ideological allegiance no difference, compared with the theoretical average, appears.

This same differentiation according to the type of allegiance and with modulation by intermediate variables is observed, when one compares the answers provided according to the orders.

Thus, with the mercenary allegiance (or global), the unemployed (but not the employees) are more allegiant with the overnormative order than with the counternormative one, result that one get also for the ideological allegiance but only for the unemployed women.

With the ideological allegiance (or global), the unemployed as the employees are quasi systematically more allegiant with the overnormative order than with the neutral, phenomenon



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

that one find also with the mercenary allegiance but only with the unemployed women.

Finally, with the ideological allegiance, the employees are more allegiant with the counternormative order than with the neutral, whereas with the mercenary allegiance (or global), there is no considerable difference between the counternormative and the neutral order.

Besides that these different results show the interest to differentiate ideological and mercenary allegiance, they provide some informations on the respective conducts of the unemployed and of the employees, with notably the observation of a less bigger tendency to the contestation for the firsts in relation to the seconds. It can surprise if one wonders that these unemployed live a less favorable social insertion than the seconds, and therefore that they could be tempted to rebel; however, it is also comprehensible that these unemployed, who wish to get a job, internalized the fact that they don't have any interest to appear too rebels. And this interpretation can find a support in the observation that only the unemployed make differences in their answers between the overnormative and the counternormative order, differences attesting an awareness of the social valorization of the allegiance.

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LES CONSÉQUENCES DU STATUT PROFESSIONNEL DES CHÔMEURS ARGENTINS SUR L'ALLÉGEANCE DE LEURS CONDUITES ET SUR LA PERCEPTION DE LA VALORISATION SOCIALE DE L'ALLÉGEANCE

Bernard GANGLOFF¹, Luisa MAYORAL², Maria del Carmen ROMERO³

¹Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France)
et Département de Postgraduation en Gestion à l'Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

²Université du Centre de la Province de Buenos Aires, Tandil (Argentine).

lmayoral@eco.unicen.edu.ar

³Université du Centre de la Province de Buenos Aires, Tandil (Argentine).

romero@econ.unicen.edu.ar

RÉSUMÉ

La valorisation sociale d'une conduite et la dévalorisation de la conduite opposée constituent les caractéristiques essentielles d'une norme sociale. Il a été constaté, lors d'études récemment réalisées dans des entreprises de la Province de Buenos Aires, que les cadres ayant du personnel à charge valorisaient les subordonnés allégeants, ce qui permet de penser à l'existence d'une norme d'allégeance, et que les subordonnés, ouvriers comme cadres (mais cadres sans charge de personnel), étaient conscients de cette norme, ce alors même que ces subordonnés étaient au chômage et qu'ils ne subissaient donc plus la pression de la culture entrepreneuriale.

Nous souhaitons ici savoir: 1) si les subordonnés au chômage ont une conscience de cette norme de manière globale ou s'ils effectuent des différenciations entre ses diverses concrétisations 2) si, spontanément, ils suivent cette norme en ses diverses concrétisations ou de manière sélective, et 3) si ces attitudes globalisantes ou différenciatrices des représentations et des conduites varient selon le statut (ouvrier ou cadre) du subordonné au chômage.

Nous avons, pour répondre à ces questions, utilisé le paradigme de l'autoprésentation surnormative versus contrenormative. C'est-à-dire que nous avons présenté à 180 chômeurs de la province de Buenos Aires (90 ouvriers et 90 cadres sans personnel à charge) une liste de conduites en leur demandant d'indiquer celles que, spontanément, ils étaient tentés d'adopter; celles qu'ils adopteraient s'ils souhaitaient donner une bonne image d'eux-mêmes, et celles qu'ils adopteraient pour en donner une mauvaise image.

Les résultats obtenus confirment nos hypothèses de sélectivité des réponses et d'effet de la variable statut.

Mots clés: allégeance, recrutement, emploi, chômage, statut professionnel

ABSTRACT

The social valorization of a conduct and the depreciation of the opposite conduct constitute the essential features of a social norm. It has been noted, in recent studies applied to realize in enterprises of the Province of Buenos Aires, that managers with load of staff valorized the allegiant subordinates, what permits to think in the existence of an allegiance norm, and that the subordinates, workers as managers (but managers without load of staff), were conscious of this norm, this even if these subordinates were unemployed persons without any pressure of the enterprise culture.

We wish here to know: 1) if the unemployed subordinates have a conscience of this norm in a global manner or if they do some differentiations between its various materializations 2) if, spontaneously, they follow this norm in its various materializations or in a selective manner, and 3) if these globalizing or differentiated attitudes of the representations and conducts vary according to the statute (worker or manager) of the unemployed subordinate.

To answer to these questions, we have used the paradigm of the overnormative versus counternormative autopresentation. That is to say that we presented to 180 unemployed person of the province of Buenos Aires

(90 workers and 90 managers without load of staff) a list of conducts and asked them to indicate those that, spontaneously, they were tempted to adopt, those that they would adopt if they wished to present a good image of themselves, and those that they would adopt to present a bad image.

The gotten results confirm our hypotheses of selectivity of the answers and of effect of the statute.

Key words: allegiance, recruitment, employment, unemployment, professional statute,

INTRODUCTION

Toute situation de recrutement peut, pour un recruteur, se traduire par la question suivante: le candidat possède-t-il le bon profil? Et l'on sait depuis longtemps que les aspects essentiels de ce profil concernent moins les compétences techniques que les compétences sociales, c'est-à-dire le savoir-être du candidat. Ce savoir-être est notamment constitué de ce que l'on appelle la personnalité, et à l'heure actuelle il existe chez les psychologues un quasi-consensus pour considérer que cette personnalité peut être décrite grâce à 5 grandes dimensions, de 5 grands traits qui sont l'Energie, l'Amabilité, le Caractère consciencieux, la Stabilité émotionnelle, et l'Ouverture d'esprit; c'est le modèle du *Big Five* (cf. Rolland, 1994, p65; Caprara, Barbaranelli et Borgogni, 1997, p13). On observe alors (Gangloff, 2000) que le candidat idéal est généralement un candidat énergique (c'est-à-dire dynamique et dominant), aimable (faisant preuve de coopération et de cordialité), consciencieux (c'est-à-dire méticuleux et persévérant), émotionnellement stable (contrôlant ses émotions et ses impulsions), et à l'esprit ouvert (ouvert à la culture et à l'expérience).

Pour autant, il est récemment apparu qu'un autre critère de savoir-être, qu'un autre facteur, non personnalologique mais normatif, a encore davantage d'importance que chacune de ces 5 dimensions personnalologiques, a encore plus d'importance que la personnalité: il s'agit de l'adhésion à la norme d'allégeance. Cette adhésion se traduit par l'évitement de toute conduite de remise en cause de l'environnement social, et notamment de toute remise en cause de la hiérarchie des pouvoirs dans un système social donné (cf. pour une revue: Gangloff, 2002). L'individu adhérant à cette norme sera ainsi non seulement soumis à sa hiérarchie mais lui aura également prêté une sorte de serment de fidélité, évitant notamment toute conduite, en paroles ou en actes, pouvant lui porter quelque ombrage. Et il apparaît que les recruteurs préfèrent systématiquement un candidat non énergique, non aimable, non consciencieux, émotionnellement instable ou à l'esprit obtus mais faisant preuve d'allégeance, par rapport à un candidat possédant la personnalité idéale mais potentiellement rebelle (Gangloff et Huet, 2004). Enfin, il a aussi été observé que les candidats à un recrutement, ou plus globalement que les salariés sans position de commandement, sont conscients de cette préférence; sont conscients de la valorisation sociale de l'allégeance (cf. Gangloff, 2002).

Si la plupart des études précédemment citées sur la norme d'allégeance ont été conduites en France, des recherches complémentaires ont cependant également été menées en Argentine, avec des résultats similaires. Il a notamment été observé que, dans les entreprises argentines, les cadres à responsabilités hiérarchiques préfèrent eux aussi travailler avec des subordonnés allégeants plutôt qu'avec des subordonnés potentiellement rebelles (Gangloff, Mayoral et Durringer, 2005). Il fut aussi constaté que les subordonnés, ouvriers comme cadres (mais cadres moyens, qui sont donc, malgré leur statut de cadre, des subordonnés), ont une «clairvoyance normative» de l'allégeance (pour reprendre l'expression de Py et Somat, 1991), c'est-à-dire qu'ils sont conscients de la valorisation de l'allégeance et que, spontanément, ils se montrent davantage allégeants que rebelles (Gangloff, Mayoral et Quiroga, 2005), et ce alors même que ces subordonnés sont au chômage et qu'ils ne subissent donc plus la pression de la culture entrepreneuriale.

Mais l'allégeance peut se concrétiser par diverses conduites et résulter de différentes

causalités. Il nous a donc semblé nécessaire d'affiner les résultats antérieurement obtenus, d'une part en étudiant leurs possibilités de différenciations, et d'autre part en examinant si ces éventuelles différenciations variaient en fonction de l'occupation effective d'un emploi. C'est l'objet du présent travail, conduit sur une population de chômeurs constituée d'ouvriers et de cadres moyens argentins. Trois questions sont plus précisément au centre de la présente recherche, à savoir: 1) si ces subordonnés au chômage ont une conscience de cette norme de manière globale ou s'ils effectuent des différenciations entre ses diverses concrétisations, 2) si, spontanément, ils suivent cette norme en ses diverses concrétisations ou de manière sélective, et 3) si ces attitudes globalisantes ou différenciatrices des représentations et des conduites varient en fonction du statut (ouvrier ou cadre) du subordonné sans emploi.

PROCÉDURE

L'étude a été réalisée sur une population masculine de 180 chômeurs de la province de Buenos Aires répartis en deux groupes: 90 ouvriers et 90 cadres sans personnel à charge.

Les sujets de chacun de ces deux groupes furent invités à un questionnaire d'allégeance déjà employé en France (Gangloff et Caboux, 2003) et constitué de 12 items (*cf.* annexe). Mais nous avons, dans chacun de ces deux groupes, constitué trois sous-groupes de trente sujets: dans le 1^{er}, les sujets devaient répondre au questionnaire en tentant de donner la meilleure image possible d'eux-mêmes, dans le 2^{ème} ils devaient répondre de manière honnête, et dans le 3^{ème} ils devaient fournir des réponses censées donner la plus mauvaise image possible d'eux-mêmes. La répartition des sujets dans chacun des six sous-groupes figure dans le tableau 1 suivant.

Tableau 1: répartition des sujets en fonction de leur statut et de la consigne.

	Consigne Surnormative (N = 60)	Consigne Honnête (N = 60)	Consigne Contrenormative (N = 60)
Ouvriers chômeurs (N = 90)	N = 30	N = 30	N = 30
Cadres chômeurs (N = 90)	N = 30	N = 30	N = 30

Quant aux trois consignes, elles figurent plus précisément ci-dessous, telles qu'elles furent transmises respectivement aux ouvriers et aux cadres:

- Consigne sur renormative (CS):

“Il vous est présenté ci-dessous un questionnaire composé de 12 affirmations.

Nous vous demandons de le compléter comme s'il s'agissait d'un document que vous devez annexer à votre CV, document qui sera présenté à un recruteur qui décidera ensuite s'il vous embauche pour un poste d'ouvrier (vs de cadre). Il vous est demandé d'indiquer, face à chaque affirmation, si vous êtes d'accord ou si vous n'êtes pas d'accord, en cochant les cases «d'accord» ou «pas d'accord».

*Nous vous demandons enfin de **répondre en tentant de donner la meilleure image possible de vous-même, comme si vous vouliez vraiment mettre toutes les chances de votre côté pour être recruté par cette entreprise**”.*

- Consigne honnête (CH):

“Il vous est présenté ci-dessous un questionnaire composé de 12 affirmations.

Nous vous demandons de le compléter comme s'il s'agissait d'un document que vous



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

devez annexer à votre CV, document qui sera présenté à un recruteur qui décidera ensuite si il vous embauche pour un poste d'ouvrier (vs de cadre). Il vous est demandé d'indiquer, face à chaque affirmation, si vous êtes d'accord ou si vous n'êtes pas d'accord, en cochant les cases «d'accord» ou «pas d'accord».

*Nous vous demandons enfin de **répondre de la manière la plus honnête possible***".

- Consigne contranormative (CC):

"Il vous est présenté ci-dessous un questionnaire composé de 12 affirmations.

Nous vous demandons de le compléter comme s'il s'agissait d'un document que vous devez annexer à votre CV, document qui sera présenté à un recruteur qui décidera ensuite si il vous embauche pour un poste d'ouvrier (vs de cadre). Il vous est demandé d'indiquer, face à chaque affirmation, si vous êtes d'accord ou si vous n'êtes pas d'accord, en cochant les cases «d'accord» ou «pas d'accord».

*Nous vous demandons enfin de **répondre en tentant de donner la plus mauvaise image possible de vous-même, comme si vous vouliez vraiment n'avoir aucune chance d'être recruté par cette entreprise***".

1. Différences entre les items intra groupe

Notre première analyse a consisté à calculer les taux d'approbation/désapprobation obtenus à chacun des items puis à examiner les similitudes (*versus* différences) de ces proportions en comparant les items deux à deux. Statistiquement parlant, nous avons utilisé le test de différences de proportions de McNemar sur échantillons appariés¹.

La lecture des tableaux 2 à 7, dans chacun desquels nous avons 66 différences possibles, permet alors de remarquer 29 différences pour le groupe SOS, 19 pour le groupe HOS, 18 pour le COS, 32 pour le SMS, 24 pour le HMS et 0 pour le CMS. Cela signifie qu'il y a bien, comme nous en faisons l'hypothèse, une diversification des réponses selon les items, diversification dont l'amplitude varie en fonction de la consigne et du statut. Nous remarquons notamment, intra consignes contrenormatives, l'importance de la variable statut, avec aucune différence chez les cadres (CMS) contre 18 chez les ouvriers (COS).

Par ailleurs, sachant que chaque item peut conduire à 11 différences significatives, nous avons noté les items conduisant à plus de 5 différences (c'est-à-dire à un nombre de différences supérieur à la moyenne, qui est de 5,5). Nous pouvons alors relever que se détachent: dans le groupe SOS les items 8, 19 et 6, dans le groupe HOS les items 10 et 2, dans le groupe COS les items 10 et 8, dans le groupe SMS les items 10, 3, 2, 7 et 12, et dans le groupe HMS les items 10 et 7. C'est-à-dire que l'item se détachant le plus fréquemment des autres quels que soient la consigne et le statut du répondant est l'item 10 (qui correspond à l'acceptation du contrôle des méthodes de travail et qui conduit systématiquement à une réponse d'acceptation).

Il convient cependant d'aller plus loin dans l'analyse et de se demander tout d'abord si la variation du nombre de différences observées signifie ou non une polarisation des réponses par rapport à la moyenne théorique. Cette question fait l'objet du point 2.

¹ L'application de ce test signifie donc calculer le nombre d'individus ayant formulé leur accord à l'une comme à l'autre de 2 questions et le nombre d'individus ayant formulé leur désaccord à l'une comme à l'autre de ces 2 questions (mettant à part le nombre d'individus n'ayant été d'accord qu'à l'une de ces 2 questions ou n'ayant été en désaccord qu'à l'une des 2 questions). En conséquence, 2 questions peuvent aboutir à la même proportion d'accords sans pour autant que chacune se différencie d'une même troisième question (ainsi, par exemple dans le tableau 4, les questions 2 et 4 présentent des proportions identiques, mais seule la 4 aboutit à une différence significative par rapport à la 10).



Tableau 2: valeurs des p obtenus en cas de différences significatives (i.e. $<0,05$) de réponses entre les 12 items du questionnaires chez les ouvriers sans emploi, avec la consigne surnormative (Surnormative Ouvriers Sans emploi). Figurent en ordonnée les moyennes des accords obtenus par question (en données brutes et en pourcentages).

SOS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (24; 80%)			<0,01					<0,01				<0,01
R2 (27; 90%)			<0,01		.012			<0,01			.039	<0,01
R3 (12; 40%)				<0,01			.021		<0,01	<0,01		
R4 (26; 87%)					.039			<0,01			.016	<0,01
R5 (18; 60%)								.039		<0,01		
R6 (20; 67%)								<0,01		.012		
R7 (22; 73%)								<0,01		.039		.022
R8 (10; 33%)									<0,01	<0,01	.022	
R9 (24; 80%)												<0,01
R10 (29; 97%)											<0,01	<0,01
R11 (19; 63%)												
R12 (13; 43%)												

Tableau 3: valeurs des p obtenus en cas de différences significatives (i.e. $<0,05$) de réponses entre les 12 items du questionnaires chez les ouvriers sans emploi, avec la consigne honnête (Honnête Ouvriers Sans emploi). Figurent en ordonnée les moyennes des accords obtenus par question (en données brutes et en pourcentages).

HOS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (20; 67%)								.031				
R2 (24; 80%)			.013		.013	.039		<0,01	.021			.013
R3 (14; 47%)							.035			.013		
R4 (20; 67%)								.021				
R5 (14; 47%)							.035			.013		
R6 (16; 53%)										.039		
R7 (23; 77%)								<0,01	.022			.035
R8 (10; 33%)										<0,01		
R9 (14; 47%)										.013		
R10 (24; 80%)												<0,01
R11 (17; 57%)												
R12 (14; 47%)												

Tableau 4: valeurs des p obtenus en cas de différences significatives (i.e. $<0,05$) de réponses entre les 12 items du questionnaires chez les ouvriers sans emploi, avec la consigne contrenormative (Contrenormative Ouvriers Sans emploi). Figurent en ordonnée les moyennes des accords obtenus par question (en données brutes et en pourcentages).

COS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (15; 50%)								.021		.013		
R2 (17; 57%)								<0,01				
R3 (12; 40%)							.031			<0,01		
R4 (17; 57%)								.021		.021		
R5 (13; 43%)							.049			<0,01		
R6 (11; 37%)							<0,01			<0,01		
R7 (22; 73%)								<0,01				.013
R8 (7; 23%)									.039	<0,01	<0,01	
R9 (15; 50%)										<0,01		
R10 (25; 83%)												<0,01
R11 (17; 57%)												
R12 (12; 40%)												



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 5: valeurs des p obtenus en cas de différences significatives (i.e. $<0,05$) de réponses entre les 12 items du questionnaires chez les cadres sans emploi, avec la consigne surnormative (Surnormative Cadres Sans emploi). Figurent en ordonnée les moyennes des accords obtenus par question (en données brutes et en pourcentages).

SMS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (17; 57%)			<0,01		.039					<0,01		<0,01
R2 (25; 83%)			<0,01		<0,01	<0,01		<0,01	<0,01		.039	<0,01
R3 (4; 13%)				<0,01		.021	<0,01		.021	<0,01	<0,01	
R4 (19; 63%)					.012					<0,01		<0,01
R5 (10; 33%)							<0,01			<0,01		
R6 (12; 40%)							<0,01			<0,01		
R7 (24; 80%)								<0,01	<0,01			<0,01
R8 (11; 37%)										<0,01		
R9 (12; 40%)										<0,01		
R10 (28; 93%)											.013	<0,01
R11 (18; 60%)												<0,01
R12 (7; 23%)												

Tableau 6: valeurs des p obtenus en cas de différences significatives (i.e. $<0,05$) de réponses entre les 12 items du questionnaires chez les cadres sans emploi, avec la consigne honnête (Honnête Cadres Sans emploi). Figurent en ordonnée les moyennes des accords obtenus par question (en données brutes et en pourcentages).

HMS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (14; 47%)							<0,01			<0,01		
R2 (18; 60%)			<0,01				.012	.031		<0,01		.022
R3 (7; 23%)				.021			<0,01			<0,01		
R4 (15; 50%)							<0,01			<0,01		
R5 (13; 43%)							<0,01			<0,01		
R6 (12; 40%)							<0,01			<0,01		
R7 (27; 90%)								<0,01	<0,01		<0,01	<0,01
R8 (8; 27%)										<0,01		
R9 (13; 43%)										<0,01		
R10 (28; 93%)											<0,01	<0,01
R11 (12; 40%)												
R12 (9; 30%)												

Tableau 7: valeurs des p obtenus en cas de différences significatives (i.e. $<0,05$) de réponses entre les 12 items du questionnaires chez les cadres sans emploi, avec la consigne contrenormative (Contrenormative Cadres Sans Emploi). Figurent en ordonnée les moyennes des accords obtenus par question (en données brutes et en pourcentages).

CMS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (13; 43%)												
R2 (12; 40%)												
R3 (14; 47%)												
R4 (11; 37%)												
R5 (12; 40%)												
R6 (11; 37%)												
R7 (15; 50%)												
R8 (8; 27%)												
R9 (13; 43%)												
R10 (17; 57%)												
R11 (10; 33%)												
R12 (12; 40%)												

2. Différences à la moyenne théorique

Nous nous sommes ici demandé si les réponses fournies par nos sujets différaient de la moyenne théorique, et nous avons effectué ces comparaisons grâce au test exact de Fisher. Les résultats détaillés figurent au tableau 8 et sont résumés dans le tableau 9. Nous remarquons alors notamment:

- chez les ouvriers, que 2 items donnent lieu à des réponses supérieures à la moyenne théorique aussi bien avec la consigne neutre qu'avec la surnormative (il s'agit des items 2 et 10, qui correspondent respectivement à l'exécution systématique des ordres et à l'acceptation du contrôle des méthodes de travail),

- chez les cadres, que des réponses supérieures à la moyenne théorique sont obtenues pour les items 7 et 10 (le 7 renvoyant au fait d'éviter de créer des problèmes) aussi bien en consigne surnormative qu'en consigne honnête.

Tableau 8: nombre d'accords obtenus par item (en données brutes, et entre parenthèses en pourcentages), chez les ouvriers et chez les cadres sans emploi (soit 6 groupes), avec en italiques la significativité par rapport à la moyenne théorique en cas de différence significative (chaque item donnant lieu à une cotation en 0 ou 1, la moyenne théorique par item est de 0,5, soit, pour 30 sujets par groupe, une moyenne théorique globale par groupe de 15). La première lettre (S, H ou C) signifie respectivement consigne Surnormative, Honnête, Contrenormative; la 2^{ème} (O ou M) signifie Ouvriers ou Cadres, la 3^{ème} (S) signifie Sans emploi.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
SOS	24 (80%)	27 (90%)	12 (40%)	26 (87%)	18 (60%)	20 (67%)	22 (73%)	10 (33%)	24 (80%)	29 (97%)	19 (63%)	13 (43%)
	<i>0,01</i>	<i><0,01</i>		<i><0,01</i>					<i>0,01</i>	<i><0,01</i>		
SMS	17 (57%)	25 (83%)	4 (13%)	19 (63%)	10 (33%)	12 (40%)	24 (80%)	11 (37%)	12 (40%)	28 (93%)	18 (60%)	7 (23%)
		<i><0,01</i>	<i><0,01</i>				<i>0,01</i>			<i><0,01</i>		<i>0,03</i>
HOS	20 (67%)	24 (80%)	14 (47%)	20 (67%)	14 (47%)	16 (53%)	23 (77%)	10 (33%)	14 (47%)	24 (80%)	17 (57%)	14 (47%)
		<i>0,01</i>					<i>0,03</i>			<i>0,01</i>		
HMS	14 (47%)	18 (60%)	7 (23%)	15 (50%)	13 (43%)	12 (40%)	27 (90%)	8 (27%)	13 (43%)	28 (93%)	12 (40%)	9 (30%)
			<i>0,03</i>				<i><0,01</i>			<i><0,01</i>		
COS	15 (50%)	17 (57%)	12 (40%)	17 (57%)	13 (43%)	11 (37%)	22 (73%)	7 (23%)	15 (50%)	25 (83%)	17 (57%)	12 (40%)
								<i>0,03</i>		<i><0,01</i>		
CMS	13 (43%)	12 (40%)	14 (47%)	11 (37%)	12 (40%)	11 (37%)	15 (50%)	8 (27%)	13 (43%)	17 (57%)	10 (33%)	12 (40%)

Tableau 9: numéro des items, pour les ouvriers et les cadres sans emploi, pour lesquels l'accord est significativement supérieur ou inférieur à la moyenne théorique

		Ouvriers	Cadres
Surnormative	Supérieur à la moyenne	1,2,4,9,10	2,7,10
	Inférieur à la moyenne		3,12
Honnête	Supérieur à la moyenne	2,7,10	7,10
	Inférieur à la moyenne		3
Contrenormative	Supérieur à la moyenne	10	
	Inférieur à la moyenne	8	

3. Différences intergroupes par question

Notre dernier questionnement a enfin porté sur les éventuelles différences de réponses inter groupes, examen là encore réalisé grâce au test exact de Fischer.

Le tableau 10 nous permet alors de constater que ce sont les réponses 9 (la prédominance du point de vue du chef), 10 (l'acceptation du contrôle des méthodes de travail) et 4 (le non questionnement des décisions) qui conduisent aux variations les plus fréquentes.

La variable consigne permet de constater, entre la consigne surnormative et la contrenormative, 5 différences significatives (sur 12 possibles) chez les ouvriers (SOS/COS) et 6 chez les cadres (SMS/CMS).

Si maintenant on se centre sur la variable statut, on remarque qu'elle conduit, avec la consigne surnormative (SOS/SMS), à des réponses différentes pour les questions 3 (la non défense de son propre point de vue), 4, 5 (l'absence de toute remarque), 6 (l'allégeance par carriérisme) et 9, avec des taux d'approbation plus importants chez les ouvriers, et avec la consigne contrenormative (COS/CMS) pour la question 10, avec des pourcentages d'acquiescement plus élevés chez les ouvriers qui semblent ainsi, même pour se faire mal voir, refuser de rejeter le contrôle des méthodes de travail.

Tableau 10: valeurs des p attestant d'une différence significative (i.e. quand ils sont inférieurs à 0,05) intergroupes, par question (ainsi, entre SOS et COS, à la question 1, la différence est significative à $p=0,02$). La première lettre (S, H ou C) signifie respectivement consigne Surnormative, Honnête, Contrenormative; la 2^{ème} (O ou M) signifie Ouvriers ou Cadres, la 3^{ème} (S) signifie Sans emploi.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
SOS	HOS									<0,01			
	COS	0,02	<0,01		0,01		0,02			0,01			
	SMS			0,02	0,04	0,04	0,04			<0,01			
HOS	COS												
	HMS												
COS	CMS										0,02		
SMS	HMS												
	CMS		<0,01	<0,01	0,04			0,01		<0,01	0,04		
HMS	CMS							<0,01			<0,01		

DISCUSSION-CONCLUSION

Les différences observées entre consignes surnormatives et consignes contrenormatives (c'est-à-dire le fait que nos sujets fournissent des réponses différentes selon qu'il leur est demandé de se mettre en valeur ou de se faire mal voir) attestent qu'il y a bien clairvoyance normative. Pour autant, ces différences ne portent pas sur la totalité des items, ce qui signifie, conformément à nos hypothèses, que cette clairvoyance est sélective. Nous remarquons notamment (cf. tableau 10) que les items 5 (l'absence de toute remarque à son supérieur hiérarchique), 8 (la reconnaissance de la légitimité du chef), 11 (la reconnaissance de l'expertise du chef) et 12 (l'absence de tout demande de justification des décisions prises) ne font l'objet d'aucune clairvoyance, ce quel que soit le statut du répondant (c'est-à-dire qu'il soit ouvrier ou cadre).

Nous remarquons également que, spontanément, les ouvriers et les cadres que nous avons interrogés ne répondent pas de la même manière à chacun des items, avec 19 différences inter-



items dans le groupe HOS et 24 dans le groupe HMS (cf. tableaux 3 et 6).

Nous constatons enfin que ces résultats varient selon que l'on interroge des ouvriers ou des cadres, donnée qui confirme l'effet de cette variable statut. Nous observons en particulier, avec la consigne contrenormative, que les ouvriers effectuent 18 différenciations inter-items alors que les cadres n'en réalisent aucune (cf. tableaux 4 et 7). Cette moindre sélectivité des cadres témoigne ainsi de la plus grande intériorisation de la norme d'allégeance (notamment dans son registre contrenormatif, c'est-à-dire au niveau des conduites considérées comme devant être évitées) chez les cadres par rapport aux ouvriers, intériorisation qui conduit les cadres à une moindre sensibilité aux variations de l'insertion professionnelle par rapport aux ouvriers: la conformisation produite par les emplois antérieurement tenus par les cadres a ainsi conduit ces derniers à une intériorisation normative résistant substantiellement aux pertes d'emploi ultérieures, phénomène que l'on ne retrouve pas chez les ouvriers et qui explique peut être pourquoi ces derniers ne sont qu'ouvriers..

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ANNEXE: LE QUESTIONNAIRE UTILISÉ

Ce questionnaire comprend 9 items portant sur les manifestations de l'allégeance (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 12) et 3 items portant sur les raisons de l'allégeance (items 6, 8, 11). Est indiquée ci-dessous entre parenthèses et en gras la thématique de chacun des items (ces thématiques ne figuraient évidemment pas dans les questionnaires remis aux sujets):

1. Au travail, il me semble normal de demander systématiquement l'accord de mon chef avant de prendre une décision (**abandon de toute autonomie décisionnelle**).

2. Dans mon travail, il me paraît normal d'exécuter tous les ordres que me donne mon supérieur (**exécution systématique des ordres**).

3. Au travail, avec mon chef, je tente rarement de défendre mes idées (**non défense de son propre point de vue**).

4. Au travail, quand la direction annonce ses choix, il est rare que je me plaigne ouvertement (**non questionnement des décisions**).

5. Au travail, j'évite de faire des remarques à mon supérieur, même si, dans certaines situations, il le mérite (**absence de toute remarque**).

6. Au travail, je trouve normal d'accepter toutes les décisions de mes supérieurs si je veux gravir les échelons (**carriérisme**).

7. Au travail, quelles que soient les conditions de travail, je trouve normal d'éviter de créer des problèmes (**évitement de la création de problèmes**).

8. Au travail, j'accepte plus facilement un ton autoritaire quand il vient de mon chef (**reconnaissance de la légitimité du chef**).

9. Au travail, dans toutes circonstances, je trouve normal que l'avis de mon supérieur soit plus important que le mien (**acceptation de la prédominance du point de vue du chef**).

10. Au travail, je trouve normal que mon supérieur puisse à n'importe quel moment vérifier si je respecte les méthodes de travail (**acceptation du contrôle des méthodes de travail**).

11. Au travail, je me dis souvent que mon patron est le mieux placé pour savoir ce qui est bon pour son entreprise (**reconnaissance de l'expertise du chef**).

12. Au travail, je trouve normal que mon patron ne justifie pas ses décisions auprès de moi, même si elles me concernent directement (**renoncement à demander justification des décisions**).

THE CONSEQUENCES OF THE PROFESSIONAL STATUTE OF THE ARGENTINEAN UNEMPLOYED PERSONS ON THE ALLEGIANCE OF THEIR CONDUCTS AND ON THE PERCEPTION OF THE SOCIAL VALORIZATION OF ALLEGIANCE

INTRODUCTION

Any recruiting situation can, for a recruiter, result in the following question: does the candidate possess the good profile? And one knows for a long time that the essential aspects of this profile concern less the technical expertise that the social expertise, that is to say the candidate's "know how to be". This "know how to be" is notably constituted of what one calls

the personality, and at the present time a quasi-consensus exists among the psychologists to consider that this personality can be described by 5 big dimensions, 5 big traits that are “energy”, “kindness”, “conscientious character”, “emotional stability”, and “open-mindedness”; it is the model of the Big Five (cf. Rolland, 1994, p65; Caprara, Barbaranelli and Borgogni, 1997, p13). Then, one observes (Gangloff, 2000) that the ideal candidate is generally an energetic candidate (that is to say dynamic and dominant), agreeable (showing evidence of cooperation and cordiality), conscientious (that is to say meticulous and persistent), emotionally stable (controlling his emotions and his impulses), and opened mindedness (opened to the culture and to the experience).

However, it appeared lately that another criteria of “know how to be”, that another factor, no personological but normative, had more importance than each of this 5 personological dimensions, had more importance than the personality: this factor is the subscription to the allegiance norm. This subscription results in the avoidance of any implication of the social environment, and notably of any implication of the hierarchy of the powers in a given social system (cf. for a review: Gangloff, 2002). The individual subscribing to this norm will be not only submitted to his hierarchy but also will have take an oath of loyalty, avoiding any conduct, in words or in acts, which could give offense to it. And it appears that the recruiters systematically prefer a no energetical, disagreeable, no conscientious, emotionally unstable and closed-mindedness candidate but allegiant, in relation to a candidate possessing the ideal personality but potentially rebel (Gangloff and Huet, 2004). Finally, it has also been observed that the candidates to a recruitment, or more globally than the employees without position of command, are conscious of this preference; are conscious of the social valorization of the allegiance (cf. Gangloff, 2002).

If most studies previously quoted on the allegiance norm have been made in France, some complementary research have also been made in Argentina, with similar results. It has been observed notably that, in the Argentinean enterprises, the managers with hierarchical responsibilities also prefer to work with allegiant subordinates rather than with potentially rebel subordinates (Gangloff, Mayoral and Durringer, 2005). It was also noted that the subordinates, workers as managers (but middle managers, who are therefore, in spite of their statute of managers, subordinates), have a “normative perception” of the allegiance (to take the expression of Py and Somat, 1991), that is to say that they are conscious of the allegiance valorization and that, spontaneously, they appear more allegiant than rebel (Gangloff, Mayoral and Quiroga, 2005), and this even if these subordinates are out of work and so that therefore they don't undergo more the pressure of the enterprise culture.

Therefore, it seemed to us necessary to refine the earlier obtained results, on the one hand while studying their possibilities of differentiations, and on the other hand while examining if these possible differentiations varied according to the effective occupation of an employment. It is the object of the present work, with a population of unemployed persons constituted of Argentinean workers and middle managers. Three questions are more precisely made in the center of the present study: 1) if the unemployed subordinates have a conscience of this norm in a global manner or if they do some differentiations between its various materializations 2) if, spontaneously, they follow this norm in its various materializations or in a selective manner, and 3) if these globalizing or differentiated attitudes of the representations and conducts vary according to the statute (worker or manager) of the unemployed subordinate.

PROCEDURE

The study has been achieved on a population masculine of 180 unemployed persons of the province of Buenos Aires distributed in two groups: 90 workers and 90 managers without a load of staff

The subjects of each of these two groups were invited to answer to an allegiant questionnaire already used in France (Gangloff and Caboux, 2003) and constituted of 12 items (*cf.* annexe). But we have, in each of these two groups, constituted 3 subgroups of 30 subjects: in the 1st, the subjects had to answer to the questionnaire while tempting to present the best image of themselves, in the 2nd they had to answer in an honest way, and in the 3rd they had to tempt to present the worst possible image of themselves. The distribution of the subjects in each of these 6 subgroups are faced table 1.

Table 1: *distribution of the subjects according to their statute and to the order.*

	Overnormative order (N = 60)	Honest order (N = 60)	Counternormative order (N = 60)
Unemployed workers (N = 90)	N = 30	N = 30	N = 30
Unemployed managers (N = 90)	N = 30	N = 30	N = 30

The three orders are represented more precisely below, as they were respectively transmitted to the workers and to the managers:

- Overnormative order (CS):

“See below a questionnaire composed of 12 affirmations. We ask you to complete it as if it was about a document that you must annex to your CV, document that will be presented to a recruiter who will decide if he hires you for a worker’s position (vs for a manager’s position). It is asked you to indicate, facing every affirmation, if you agree or if you don’t agree, while checking “okay” or “not okay”.

*We finally ask you to answer while tempting to **give the best possible image of yourself**, as if you wanted to hold all the winning carts to be recruited by this enterprise”.*

- Honest order (HP):

“See below a questionnaire composed of 12 affirmations. We ask you to complete it as if it was about a document that you must annex to your CV, document that will be presented to a recruiter who will decide if he hires you for a worker’s position (vs for a manager’s position). It is asked you to indicate, facing every affirmation, if you agree or if you don’t agree, while checking “okay” or “not okay”.

*We finally ask you to answer in **most honest way”.***

- Counternormative order (CC):

“See below a questionnaire composed of 12 affirmations. We ask you to complete it as if it was about a document that you must annex to your CV, document that will be presented to a recruiter who will decide if he hires you for a worker’s position (vs for a manager’s position). It is asked you to indicate, facing every affirmation, if you agree or if you don’t agree, while checking “okay” or “not okay”.

*We finally ask you to answer while tempting to **give the worst possible image of yourself**, as if you wanted to have no chance to be recruited by this enterprise”.*

1. Differences between the items intra group

Our first analysis consisted in calculating the rates of the agreements/disagreements to each of the items and to examine the similarities (*versus* differences) of these proportions while comparing the items two by two. Statistically talking, we used the test of differences of proportions of McNemar on matched samples².

The reading of pictures 2 to 7, in each of which we have 66 possible differences, permits to notice 29 differences for the SOS group, 19 for the HOS group, 18 for the COS, 32 for the SMS, 24 for the HMS and 0 for the CMS. It means that there is, in accordance with our hypothesis, a diversification of the answers according to the items, diversification whose amplitude varies according to the order and to the statute. We notably notice, intra counternormative orders, the importance of the variable statute, with no difference among the managers (CMS) but 18 among the workers (COS).

Moreover, knowing that every item can lead to 11 meaningful differences, we noted the items leading to more than 5 differences (that is to say to a number of differences superior to the average, which is at 5,5). We can see that are standing out: in the SOS group the items 8, 19 and 6, in the HOS group the items 10 and 2, in the COS group the items 10 and 8, in the SMS group the items 10, 3, 2, 7 and 12, and in the HMS group the items 10 and 7. That is to say that the item standing out the most frequently, whatever the order and the statute of the subject, is the item 10 (that corresponds to the acceptance of the control of the working processes, item that systematically leads to an agreement).

However, it is necessary to go farther in the analysis and to wonder, first of all, if the variation of the number of observed differences means (or doesn't mean), a polarization of the answers compared with the theoretical average. This question will be the object of the point 2.

Table 2: values of the obtained *p* in case of meaningful differences (i.e. $<0,05$) of answers between the 12 items of the questionnaires among the jobless workers, with the overnormative order (Surnormative Jobless Workers). In ordinate are the averages of the gotten agreements by question (in raw data and in percentages).

SOS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (24; 80%)			<0,01					<0,01				<0,01
R2 (27; 90%)			<0,01		.012			<0,01			.039	<0,01
R3 (12; 40%)				<0,01			.021		<0,01	<0,01		
R4 (26; 87%)					.039			<0,01			.016	<0,01
R5 (18; 60%)								.039		<0,01		
R6 (20; 67%)								<0,01		.012		
R7 (22; 73%)								<0,01		.039		.022
R8 (10; 33%)									<0,01	<0,01	.022	
R9 (24; 80%)												<0,01
R10 (29; 97%)											<0,01	<0,01
R11 (19; 63%)												
R12 (13; 43%)												

² The application of this test wishes to calculate the number of individuals having formulated their agreement to one as to the other of 2 questions and the number of individuals having formulated their disagreement to one as to the other of these 2 questions (moving apart the number of individuals having been in agreement only to one of these 2 questions or having been in disagreement only to one of the 2 questions). As a consequence, 2 questions can succeed to the same proportion of agreements without that they differentiates one from the other on a same third question (so, for example in the table 4, the questions 2 and 4 present identical proportions, but only the 4 leads to a meaningful difference compared to the 10).


Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Table 3: values of the gotten p in case of meaningful differences (i.e. $<0,05$) of answers between the 12 items of the questionnaires among the jobless workers, with the honest order (Honest Jobless Workers). In ordinate are the averages of the gotten agreements by question (in raw data and in percentages).

HOS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (20; 67%)								.031				
R2 (24; 80%)			.013		.013	.039		$<0,01$.021			.013
R3 (14; 47%)							.035			.013		
R4 (20; 67%)								.021				
R5 (14; 47%)							.035			.013		
R6 (16; 53%)										.039		
R7 (23; 77%)								$<0,01$.022			.035
R8 (10; 33%)										$<0,01$		
R9 (14; 47%)										.013		
R10 (24; 80%)												$<0,01$
R11 (17; 57%)												
R12 (14; 47%)												

Table 4: values of the gotten p in case of meaningful differences (i.e. $<0,05$) of answers between the 12 items of the questionnaires among the jobless workers, with the counternormative order (Counternormative Jobless Workers). In ordinate are the averages of the gotten agreements by question (in raw data and in percentages).

COS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (15; 50%)								.021		.013		
R2 (17; 57%)								$<0,01$				
R3 (12; 40%)							.031			$<0,01$		
R4 (17; 57%)								.021		.021		
R5 (13; 43%)							.049			$<0,01$		
R6 (11; 37%)							$<0,01$			$<0,01$		
R7 (22; 73%)								$<0,01$.013
R8 (7; 23%)									.039	$<0,01$	$<0,01$	
R9 (15; 50%)										$<0,01$		
R10 (25; 83%)												$<0,01$
R11 (17; 57%)												
R12 (12; 40%)												

Table 5: values of the gotten p in case of meaningful differences (i.e. $<0,05$) of answers between the 12 items of the questionnaires at the jobless managers, with the overnormative order (Overnormative Jobless managers). In ordinate are the averages of the gotten agreements by question (in raw data and in percentages).

SMS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (17; 57%)			$<0,01$.039					$<0,01$		$<0,01$
R2 (25; 83%)			$<0,01$		$<0,01$	$<0,01$		$<0,01$	$<0,01$.039	$<0,01$
R3 (4; 13%)				$<0,01$.021	$<0,01$.021	$<0,01$	$<0,01$	
R4 (19; 63%)					.012					$<0,01$		$<0,01$
R5 (10; 33%)							$<0,01$			$<0,01$		
R6 (12; 40%)							$<0,01$			$<0,01$		
R7 (24; 80%)								$<0,01$	$<0,01$			$<0,01$
R8 (11; 37%)										$<0,01$		
R9 (12; 40%)										$<0,01$		
R10 (28; 93%)											.013	$<0,01$
R11 (18; 60%)												$<0,01$
R12 (7; 23%)												



Table 6: values of the gotten p in case of meaningful differences (i.e. $<0,05$) of answers between the 12 items of the questionnaires at the jobless managers, with the honest order (Honest Jobless Managers). In ordinate are the averages of the gotten agreements by question (in raw data and in percentages).

HMS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (14; 47%)							<0,01			<0,01		
R2 (18; 60%)			<0,01				.012	.031		<0,01		.022
R3 (7; 23%)				.021			<0,01			<0,01		
R4 (15; 50%)							<0,01			<0,01		
R5 (13; 43%)							<0,01			<0,01		
R6 (12; 40%)							<0,01			<0,01		
R7 (27; 90%)								<0,01	<0,01		<0,01	<0,01
R8 (8; 27%)										<0,01		
R9 (13; 43%)										<0,01		
R10 (28; 93%)											<0,01	<0,01
R11 (12; 40%)												
R12 (9; 30%)												

Table 7: values of the gotten p in case of meaningful differences (i.e. $<0,05$) of answers between the 12 items of the questionnaires at the jobless managers, with the counternormative order (Counternormative Jobless Managers). In ordinate are the averages of the gotten agreements by question (in raw data and in percentages).

CMS	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	R11	R12
R1 (13; 43%)												
R2 (12; 40%)												
R3 (14; 47%)												
R4 (11; 37%)												
R5 (12; 40%)												
R6 (11; 37%)												
R7 (15; 50%)												
R8 (8; 27%)												
R9 (13; 43%)												
R10 (17; 57%)												
R11 (10; 33%)												
R12 (12; 40%)												

2. Differences compared with the theoretical average

Here we asked ourselves if the answers provided by our subjects differed from the theoretical average, and so, we made these comparisons thanks to the exact test of Fisher. The detailed results are in the table 8 and are summarized in the table 9. Then, we notice notably:

- among the workers, 2 items give rise to answers superior to the theoretical average as well with the neutral order than with the overnormative one (it is about the items 2 and 10, that respectively correspond to the systematic execution of the orders and to the acceptance of the control of the working processes),

- among the managers, that the answers superior to the theoretical average are the items 7 and 10 (the 7 is to avoid to create problems) as well in the overnormative than in the honest order.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Table 8: number of gotten agreements by item (in raw data, and in parenthesis percentages), among the jobless workers and managers (i.e. 6 groups), in italics the meaningfulness compared with the theoretical average in case of meaningful difference (every item giving rise to a quotation in 0 or 1, the theoretical average by item is 0,5, i.e., for 30 subjects by group, a global theoretical average by group of 15). The first letter (S, H or C) means respectively Overnormative, Honest, or Counternormative order; the 2nd (O or M) means Workers or Managers, the 3rd (S) means Jobless.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
SOS	24 (80%)	27 (90%)	12 (40%)	26 (87%)	18 (60%)	20 (67%)	22 (73%)	10 (33%)	24 (80%)	29 (97%)	19 (63%)	13 (43%)
	<i>0,01</i>	<i><0,01</i>		<i><0,01</i>					<i>0,01</i>	<i><0,01</i>		
SMS	17 (57%)	25 (83%)	4 (13%)	19 (63%)	10 (33%)	12 (40%)	24 (80%)	11 (37%)	12 (40%)	28 (93%)	18 (60%)	7 (23%)
		<i><0,01</i>	<i><0,01</i>				<i>0,01</i>			<i><0,01</i>		<i>0,03</i>
HOS	20 (67%)	24 (80%)	14 (47%)	20 (67%)	14 (47%)	16 (53%)	23 (77%)	10 (33%)	14 (47%)	24 (80%)	17 (57%)	14 (47%)
		<i>0,01</i>					<i>0,03</i>			<i>0,01</i>		
HMS	14 (47%)	18 (60%)	7 (23%)	15 (50%)	13 (43%)	12 (40%)	27 (90%)	8 (27%)	13 (43%)	28 (93%)	12 (40%)	9 (30%)
			<i>0,03</i>				<i><0,01</i>			<i><0,01</i>		
COS	15 (50%)	17 (57%)	12 (40%)	17 (57%)	13 (43%)	11 (37%)	22 (73%)	7 (23%)	15 (50%)	25 (83%)	17 (57%)	12 (40%)
								<i>0,03</i>		<i><0,01</i>		
CMS	13 (43%)	12 (40%)	14 (47%)	11 (37%)	12 (40%)	11 (37%)	15 (50%)	8 (27%)	13 (43%)	17 (57%)	10 (33%)	12 (40%)

Table 9: number of the items, for the jobless workers and managers, for which the agreement is meaningfully superior or lower to the theoretical average.

		Workers	Managers
Overnormative	Superior to the average	1,2,4,9,10	2,7,10
	Lower to the average		3,12
Honest	Superior to the average	2,7,10	7,10
	Lower to the average		3
Counternormative	Superior to the average	10	
	Lower to the average	8	

3. Inter-groups differences by question

Our last questionnement was about the possible differences of answers inter-groups, exam also realized thanks to the exact test of Fischer.

The table 10 permits us to note that the questions leading to the most frequent variations are the 9 (the predominance of the chief's viewpoint), 10 (the acceptance of the control of the working processes) and 4 (the no questioning the decisions).

The variable "order" permits to note, between the overnormative and the counternormative order, 5 meaningful differences (on 12 possible) among the workers (SOS/COS) and 6 among the managers (SMS/CMS).

If now one centers on the variable "statute", one notices that it leads, with the overnormative order (SOS/SMS), to different answers for the questions 3 (the non defense of his own viewpoint), 4, 5 (the absence of all remark), 6 (allegiance by careerism) and 9, with rates of agreement more important among the workers, and with the counternormative order (COS/CMS) to different answers for the question 10, with more elevated percentages of agreement among the workers who seem thus, even to give a bad image of themselves, to refuse to reject the control of the working processes.



Table 10: values of the p with a meaningful difference (i.e. $<0,05$) intergroups, by question (so, between SOS and COS, to question 1, the difference is meaningful with $p=0,02$). The first letter (S, H or C) means respectively Overnormative, Honest, or Counternormative order; the 2nd (O or M) means Workers or managers; the 3rd (S) means jobless.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
SOS	HOS									<0,01			
	COS	0,02	<0,01		0,01		0,02			0,01			
	SMS			0,02	0,04	0,04	0,04			<0,01			
HOS	COS												
	HMS												
COS	CMS										0,02		
SMS	HMS												
	CMS		<0,01	<0,01	0,04			0,01		<0,01	0,04		
HMS	CMS							<0,01			<0,01		

DISCUSSION - CONCLUSION

The differences observed between the overnormative order and the counternormative order (that is to say the fact that our subjects provide different answers depending on whether we asked them to give a good or a bad image of themselves) attest that they have a normative perception. However, these differences are not about the totality of the items; that means, in accordance with our hypotheses, that this perception is selective. We notably notice (*cf.* table 10) that the items 5 (the absence of all remark to the hierarchical superior), 8 (the recognition of the chief's legitimacy), 11 (the recognition of the chief's appraisal) and 12 (the absence of any request for justification of the taken decisions) are the object of no perception, whatever the statute of the subject (worker or manager).

We also notice that, spontaneously, the workers and the managers don't answer in the same way each of the items, with 19 inter-items differences in the HOS group and 24 in the HMS group (*cf.* tables 3 and 6).

We finally note that these results vary depending on whether one interrogates the workers or the managers, data that confirms the effect of this variable statute. We observe in particular, with the counternormative order, that the workers do 18 inter-items differentiations whereas the managers none (*cf.* tables 4 and 7). This least selectivity of the managers reveals the biggest interiorization of the allegiance norm (notably in its counternormative field, that is to say for the the conducts considered having to be avoided) among the managers compared with the workers, interiorization that leads the managers to a least sensitivity to the variations of the professional insertion compared with the workers: the conformisation produced by the jobs earlier held by the managers drove these last to a normative interiorization resisting the losses of ulterior employment, phenomenon that one doesn't recover among the workers and that may explain why these last are only workers...

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Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

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ANNEXE: THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire consists of 9 items concerning the demonstrations of allegiance (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 12) and 3 items concerning the reasons of allegiance (items 6, 8, 11). Below is indicated in brackets and in greasiness the thematic of each of the items (evidently, these thematic didn't appear in the questionnaires put back to the subjects):

1. Au travail, il me semble normal de demander systématiquement l'accord de mon chef avant de prendre une décision (**abandon de toute autonomie décisionnelle**).

2. Dans mon travail, il me paraît normal d'exécuter tous les ordres que me donne mon supérieur (**exécution systématique des ordres**).

3. Au travail, avec mon chef, je tente rarement de défendre mes idées (**non défense de son propre point de vue**)

4. Au travail, quand la direction annonce ses choix, il est rare que je me plaigne ouvertement (**non questionnement des décisions**).

5. Au travail, j'évite de faire des remarques à mon supérieur, même si, dans certaines situations, il le mérite (**absence de toute remarque**).

6. Au travail, je trouve normal d'accepter toutes les décisions de mes supérieurs si je veux gravir les échelons (**carriérisme**).

7. Au travail, quelles que soient les conditions de travail, je trouve normal d'éviter de créer des problèmes (**évitement de la création de problèmes**).

8. Au travail, j'accepte plus facilement un ton autoritaire quand il vient de mon chef (**reconnaissance de la légitimité du chef**).

9. Au travail, dans toutes circonstances, je trouve normal que l'avis de mon supérieur soit plus important que le mien (**acceptation de la prédominance du point de vue du chef**).

10. Au travail, je trouve normal que mon supérieur puisse à n'importe quel moment vérifier si je respecte les méthodes de travail (**acceptation du contrôle des méthodes de travail**).

11. Au travail, je me dis souvent que mon patron est le mieux placé pour savoir ce qui est bon pour son entreprise (**reconnaissance de l'expertise du chef**).

12. Au travail, je trouve normal que mon patron ne justifie pas ses décisions auprès de moi, même si elles me concernent directement (**renoncement à demander justification des décisions**).

AGRÉABILITÉ ET UTILITÉ SOCIALES DE LA TERMINOLOGIE DITE DESCRIPTIVE D'AUTRUI

Bernard GANGLOFF¹ et Alina MAZILESCU²

¹Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et Département de Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

²Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France).

alina.mazilescu@gmail.com

RÉSUMÉ

Partant de la description faite par 50 étudiants et étudiantes sur eux-mêmes et sur deux de leurs compagnons (l'un sympathique, l'autre antipathique), nous avons élaboré une liste de 112 termes et expressions dont 6 univoques (prénom, âge, milieu social, profession, loisirs, apparence physique) et 53 doubles (c'est-à-dire présentés avec leur contraire). Nous avons alors demandé à 421 autres étudiants et étudiantes d'indiquer le degré d'agrément et le degré d'utilité qu'il éprouveraient vis-à-vis d'une personne qu'ils devaient rencontrer et sur laquelle ils ne possédaient qu'une seule information résumée par l'un de ces termes ou expressions.

Les résultats permettent de déterminer, aussi bien hommes et femmes confondus que par genre, tant globalement que descriptif par descriptif, le degré d'agrément et d'utilité sociales des descriptifs d'autrui et d'étudier les rapports entre ces 2 variables dépendantes.

Mots clés: *personnalité, valeur, désirabilité sociale, utilité sociale*

ABSTRACT

From the description made by 50 masculine and feminine students on themselves and on 2 of their companions (one nice, one unpleasant), we elaborated a list of 112 words and expressions in which 6 were unimodal (first name, age, social background, profession, leisure, physical appearance) and 53 bimodal (that is to say presented with their opposite side). Then, we asked to 421 other masculine and feminine students to indicate the degree of social desirability and of social utility that they would feel towards a person that they had to meet and on which they only possessed one information summed up by one of these terms or expressions.

The results permit to determine, as well men and women confounded as by gender, as well globally as description by description, the degree of social desirability and utility of the description of others and to study the relations between these 2 dependent variables.

Key words: *personality, value, social desirability, social utility*

1. INTRODUCTION

Selon Beauvois (1990), lorsque l'on pense décrire un congénère, on réalise en fait moins une description, neutre, qu'une évaluation, en termes positifs ou négatifs, de la personne que l'on pense décrire. Nous attribuons en fait une valeur à cette personne, ou plus exactement à ses différentes caractéristiques, valeur qui serait constituée de deux dimensions: la désirabilité et l'utilité (Beauvois, Dubois et Peeters, 1999). La désirabilité ferait alors référence au caractère agréable, attractif, plaisant de chacune des caractéristiques de l'objet évalué, et l'utilité à la faculté qu'aurait chacune de ces caractéristiques soit de permettre à l'objet de réaliser ses objectifs (Peeters, 1986, parle ainsi de «profitabilité pour soi»), soit de permettre à la société, prise globalement, de réaliser ses objectifs (Beauvois, 1995, parle ainsi «d'utilité sociale»). Il y aurait donc, du moins pour l'utilité, une différenciation sur le plan conceptuel. Pour autant, cette



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

différenciation ne se retrouverait pas au niveau empirique: d'après une étude à paraître réalisée par Cambon¹ les caractéristiques profitables pour soi seraient également utiles à la société (les corrélations entre ces deux utilités variant entre .85 et .88). Quant aux rapports entre désirabilité et utilité, ils restent encore inconnus: Le Barbenchon, Cambon et Lavigne (2005), soulignent en effet que les résultats obtenus sur ces rapports sont contradictoires, certains mettant en évidence des corrélations positives, d'autres des corrélations négatives, et certains enfin l'absence de toute corrélation. Ces différentes données nous ont conduits à diverses interrogations et, partant, à une nouvelle opérationnalisation de l'étude de la valeur.

Notre première interrogation porte sur l'aspect personnel, *versus* social, de la valeur, dont nous avons indiqué, pour l'utilité, qu'une différenciation avait été établie sur le plan conceptuel mais qu'elle n'avait pas conduit à des résultats différenciés au niveau empirique. Nous voudrions ainsi nous pencher un instant sur cette différenciation conceptuelle, en examinant les conséquences opérationnelles de la double utilité conceptuelle (et en y intégrant l'hypothèse symétrique d'une double désirabilité conceptuelle). Il convient alors de rappeler que lorsque l'on évalue quelqu'un, c'est dans un objectif précis: on l'évalue pour soi, pour une organisation particulière, mais il est très délicat d'effectuer cette évaluation pour la société prise dans sa globalité; ne serait-ce que parce que toute société globale est multiforme, disparate, et poursuit des objectifs contradictoires selon les sous-groupes qui la constituent. L'utilité (comme la désirabilité) sont ainsi fonctions d'objectifs particuliers et ne peuvent être examinés que relativement à ces objectifs, non dans l'absolu. Par exemple, un recruteur se demandera si tel trait (si tel positionnement sur un trait) est ou non utile à l'entreprise contractante, au poste à pourvoir, et non dans l'absolu. Tout examen de la valeur devient donc nécessairement, sur le plan opérationnel, être contextualisé, cela signifie que le terme de «social» (désirabilité sociale, utilité sociale) nous semble trop général, trop polysémique pour ne pas donner lieu à des opérationnalisations (et donc à des contextualisations) très diverses et, par suite, à des résultats contradictoires (sauf à réaliser des opérationnalisations qui seraient, soit basées sur une identité de contexte, soit décontextualisées; mais dans le 1^{er} cas il est évident que l'on n'obtiendra jamais que des résultats non généralisables en dehors du contexte choisi, c'est-à-dire non généralisables à la société prise globalement; et dans le 2^{ème} cas, l'absence de contextualisation peut suffire à expliquer la similitude des résultats entre valeur pour soi et valeur sociale).

Un autre aspect à questionner a trait aux outils de mesure de la valeur: ces outils renvoient souvent à des critères bien particuliers dont la validité peut alors être questionnée. Le Barbenchon et col. (2005) demandent ainsi à leurs sujets d'indiquer: pour la désirabilité si la cible «a tout pour être aimé» (*vs* «n'a rien pour être aimé») et «a beaucoup d'amis» (*vs* «a peu d'amis»); et pour l'utilité si la cible «a tout pour réussir sa vie professionnelle» (*vs* «n'a rien pour réussir sa vie professionnelle») et «a un fort salaire» (*vs* «a un faible salaire»). Ajoutons, concernant en particulier ces deux échelles de mesure de l'utilité, que les auteurs soulignent (p312) que «ces deux échelles sont les plus utilisées pour mesurer l'utilité sociale». Or évaluer l'utilité sociale à partir de la réussite professionnelle et du salaire peut sembler réducteur. D'abord parce que l'utilité dite «sociale» ne se résume pas au domaine professionnel. Ensuite, en restant sur le plan professionnel, parce que s'il est certes possible que dans les pays anglo-saxons le salaire constitue une preuve d'utilité (utilité professionnelle donc), il faut se rappeler que les pays anglo-saxons, ce n'est pas toute la planète. Certes, aussi bien Beauvois que les auteurs travaillant sur son modèle spécifient qu'ils prennent l'utilité dans un sens économique (ainsi Beauvois, 1995, p378; ou encore Le Barbenchon et col., 2005, p309); mais outre que la valeur d'échange d'un bien, valeur qui peut prendre la forme de salaire, est loin de refléter systématiquement sa valeur économique, notamment avec la globalisation (mon tailleur, qui soustraite en Asie, aura beau

¹ Information que nous a fournie Cambon



être riche, et bien plus riche que mon boulanger, les habitants de mon quartier considèrent qu'il leur est bien moins utile que celui qui pétrie de ses mains leur pain quotidien), il nous semble incorrect de parler d'utilité «sociale» tout en négligeant une autre de ses composantes, notamment sa valeur d'usage (si le salaire était le seul critère d'utilité sociale, alors les activités bénévoles seraient socialement totalement inutiles). Enfin, pour continuer sur l'utilité sociale, il nous semble réducteur de ne considérer que les conduites utiles *versus* inutiles et d'oublier les conduites nuisibles (que Beauvois, 1976, appelait conduites «perverses»). Or «avoir tout pour réussir sa vie» nous semble pouvoir aussi bien être l'opposé de «n'avoir rien pour réussir sa vie» que de «avoir tout pour échouer sa vie». Et l'on pourrait tenir des raisonnements similaires pour la désirabilité (ne peut-on par exemple opposer «a beaucoup d'amis» à «a beaucoup d'ennemis»?).

Par ailleurs, lorsque l'on évalue quelqu'un sur des dimensions psychologiques, c'est parce que l'on considère qu'obtenir une information sur le positionnement de cette personne relativement à ces dimensions nous est, compte tenu de notre objectif, utile. Ainsi un consultant en recrutement va d'abord, par enquête, chercher à obtenir des informations sur les traits et positionnements utiles pour l'entreprise contractante (et il va par exemple apprendre que les traits «ouverture d'esprit» et «dynamisme» sont utiles à cette entreprise, et apprendre qu'un «bon candidat» doit se situer aux niveaux X et Y sur ces traits); puis il va faire passer aux candidats un inventaire de personnalité constitué des deux traits retenus, les réponses des candidats à ces traits lui permettant de connaître le positionnement des candidats sur ces traits, c'est-à-dire que les réponses des candidats constitueront des informations utiles; et enfin il va retenir les candidats dont le positionnement correspond au positionnement attendu, c'est-à-dire au positionnement utile pour l'entreprise. Tout cela, nous le savons tous. Nous le savons, mais exprimé de cette façon, cela prend une signification particulière. Cela signifie que ce que recherche le recruteur, ce sont principalement des informations; d'informations sur des utilités, inutilités et nuisibilités certes, mais qui n'en sont pas moins des informations. Car ce qu'examine d'abord un recruteur, c'est l'utilité de la connaissance des traits et de la connaissance du positionnement des candidats sur des traits: le recruteur commence en effet par chercher à effectuer un tri entre informations utiles, informations inutiles et informations nuisibles. Les premières utilités portent donc sur des informations: ces informations me sont-elles utiles, inutiles ou nuisibles? Et c'est seulement en conclusion à la procédure de recrutement qu'il se demandera si le positionnement des candidats est bon, c'est-à-dire est utile, inutile ou nuisible à l'entreprise contractante (et un raisonnement similaire pourrait être tenu au sujet de la désirabilité).

Enfin la mesure de la valeur est souvent faite à partir d'adjectifs référant à des traits de personnalité tirés d'un lexique psychologique issu du dictionnaire ou des inventaires de personnalité (dont le contenu est lui aussi généralement issu de ce dictionnaire). Or la description d'autrui (ou son évaluation) peut aussi être tiré d'autres corpus, issus du terrain, et notamment ainsi porter sur d'autres aspects que les traits de personnalité.

Nous avons donc, suite à ces réflexions, décidé de mesurer à nouveau la valeur de termes descriptifs (ou évaluatifs) d'autrui, mais en opérationnalisant la mesure, tant de la désirabilité que de l'utilité, de manière quelque peu particulière.

2. PROCÉDURE

Nous avons, dans une étude préalable (Mazilescu et Gangloff, 2007), demandé à 50 étudiants et étudiantes d'effectuer 3 descriptions: une description de soi, une description d'un compagnon d'études (ou d'une compagne d'études) sympathique, et une description d'un compagnon d'études (ou d'une compagne d'études) antipathique. Certaines de ces descriptions contenaient des termes plutôt positifs, d'autres des termes plutôt négatifs, et d'autres des termes

plutôt neutres. Nous avons ici repris ces termes en les catégorisant et en construisant, lorsqu'elles n'étaient pas apparues spontanément dans les descriptions, les catégories de polarité inverse (cf. en annexe 1 une illustration de cette catégorisation). Nous avons ainsi abouti à 112 catégories dont 6 neutres (âge, sexe, apparence physique, profession, prénom et loisirs) et 53 à double polarité². Et c'est la valeur de chacun de ces termes que nous avons voulu étudier.

La longueur du questionnaire rendant délicate son application à une seule population, nous avons constitué 6 questionnaires (de 20 catégories pour les 5 premiers et de 12 pour le 6^{ème}: cf. annexe 2) et nous les avons distribués sur 421 étudiants et étudiantes de diverses disciplines répartis en 6 groupes, chaque étudiant répondant individuellement au questionnaire qui lui était proposé. La distribution de ces 6 questionnaires dans ces 6 groupes est indiquée dans le tableau n°1.

Tableau 1: distribution des questionnaires dans les groupes et répartition des sujets selon leur genre.

Questionnaire 1 (20 termes)	40 hommes et 40 femmes
Questionnaire 2 (20 termes)	30 hommes et 30 femmes
Questionnaire 3 (20 termes)	39 hommes et 41 femmes
Questionnaire 4 (20 termes)	35 hommes et 35 femmes
Questionnaire 5 (20 termes)	29 hommes et 32 femmes
Questionnaire 6 (12 termes)	34 hommes et 36 femmes
Total: 112 termes	Total: 207 hommes et 214 femmes

Nous avons par ailleurs voulu examiner non pas la valeur de chacun des termes descriptifs mais la valeur des informations sur ces termes. Quant aux critères d'évaluation de cette valeur, elle consistait à demander si l'information fournie était «agréable, indifférente ou désagréable» (pour la désirabilité) et «utile, sans intérêt ou gênante» (pour l'utilité). La consigne était ainsi la suivante:

«Dans le questionnaire suivant, il vous est demandé d'imaginer que vous allez bientôt être mis en contact avec une personne que vous ne connaissez pas. Vous ne savez pas non plus s'il s'agit d'un garçon ou d'une fille, si vous allez rencontrer cette personne dans un cadre professionnel, amical ou autre, etc. En fait, vous n'avez qu'une seule information sur cette personne. Vous devrez alors indiquer, d'une part si cette information vous est agréable, ou indifférente ou désagréable, en expliquant ensuite pourquoi, et d'autre part si cette information vous est utile, ou sans intérêt, ou si vous préféreriez ne pas avoir cette information car elle vous dérange trop, en expliquant aussi ensuite pourquoi» (un exemple d'item complet est donné en annexe 3).

Les choix des répondants ont enfin été analysés d'une part hommes et femmes confondus puis par genre. Nous avons ainsi examiné, pour chaque item, la répartition de ces choix dans les trois alternatives de réponses proposées référant à chacune des deux dimensions étudiées (désirabilité et utilité) et calculé (par χ^2) l'éventuelle inégale répartition de ces choix dans ces alternatives.

3. RÉSULTATS

L'importance quantitative des résultats obtenus rend impossible de présenter ici ces résultats dans leur totalité (cette présentation figure en annexe 4). Nous nous bornerons donc à en résumer les lignes principales, d'abord globalement (hommes et femmes confondus) puis par genre.

² Précisons que nous avons, dans l'étude de base (Mazilescu et Gangloff, op. cité), construit 102 catégories dont les 6 neutres actuelles et 48 à double polarité; nous avons, dans la présente étude, scindé certaines de ces dernières pour aboutir à 53 catégories à double polarité (soit le total actuel de 112 catégories).

3.1. Hommes et femmes confondus

3.1.1. Analyse de la désirabilité et de l'utilité de manière séparée

Concernant tout d'abord la dimension désirabilité (tableau 2), et en effectuant une analyse des situations où l'une des 3 catégories «agréable, indifférent, et désagréable» fait l'objet d'un choix en 1^{ère} position de manière significativement préférentielle par rapport aux deux autres, on observe que le nombre d'items se répartit de manière non significativement différente dans chacune des 3 catégories, avec 31 items dits «agréables», 28 «indifférents» et 21 «désagréables». Et si l'on effectue la même analyse mais en y ajoutant les cas de deux catégories choisies *ex æquo* en 1^{ère} position, une seule différence significative apparaît: davantage d'items sont perçus comme neutres que comme désagréables.

Tableau 2: répartition des items dans les 3 catégories d'agréabilité. Dans les 3 premières colonnes sont consignés les cas où l'une des 3 catégories apparaît seule en 1^{ère} position; les 3 dernières colonnes concernent les situations où deux catégories sont choisies en 1^{ère} position de manière égalitaire en se différenciant significativement de la 3^{ème} catégorie.

Cas où l'une des 3 catégories est seule choisie 1 ^{ère} position			Cas où 2 catégories sont choisies égalitairement en 1 ^{ère} position		
Agréable	Indifférent	Désagréable	Agréable	Indifférent	Désagréable
31	28	21	45	51	30

Il convient aussi de noter, sur un plan qualitatif que, pour les termes bipolaires, l'aspect «positif» est souvent jugé comme agréable et son inverse comme désagréable: ainsi le fait de savoir que l'on va rencontrer quelqu'un de calme ou d'optimiste est une information considérée comme agréable alors que l'information inverse (avoir à rencontrer quelqu'un d'excessif ou de pessimiste) est une information jugée désagréable. Pour autant, l'aspect négatif peut aussi ne renvoyer qu'à une attribution neutre. Ainsi, savoir que l'on va être en contact avec une personne compétente ou stimulante est une information dite agréable, mais l'inverse (apprendre que l'on va être en contact avec quelqu'un de peu compétent ou de peu stimulant) conduit à de l'indifférence et non à une attribution désagréable.

Pour l'utilité (tableau 3), et sans tenir compte des classements *ex æquo* en 1^{ère} position, il faut noter une plus grande fréquence de classement dans la catégorie «neutre» que dans la catégorie «gênant», résultat qui se retrouve en ajoutant les *ex æquo*, mais avec alors aussi davantage de classements dans la catégorie «utile» que dans la catégorie «gênant».

Tableau 3: répartition des items dans les 3 catégories d'utilité. Dans les 3 premières colonnes sont consignés les cas où l'une des 3 catégories apparaît seule en 1^{ère} position; les 3 dernières colonnes concernent les situations où deux catégories sont choisies en 1^{ère} position de manière égalitaire en se différenciant significativement de la 3^{ème} catégorie.

Cas où l'un des 3 catégories est seule choisie 1 ^{ère} position			Cas où 2 catégories sont choisies égalitairement en 1 ^{ère} position		
Utile	Sans intérêt	Gênant	Utile	Sans intérêt	Gênant
29	38	0	60	66	3

Toujours sur le plan utilitaire, mais à un niveau qualitatif, il faut aussi notamment remarquer qu'une information «négative» peut être tout autant utile qu'une information «positive». Ainsi, savoir que l'on va rencontrer quelqu'un d'égoïste ou de non ponctuel, constitue une information toute aussi utile que savoir que l'on va être en contact avec quelqu'un d'altruiste ou de ponctuel.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

3.1.2. Analyse des rapports entre désirabilité et utilité

Si l'on se centre maintenant sur les correspondances entre les jugements d'agrément et les jugements d'utilité (cf. tableau 4), on observe que les items classés en 1^{ère} position dans la catégorie «agréable» sont également classés en 1^{ère} position dans la catégorie «utile» (ainsi par exemple pour les termes de «sensible», «optimiste», «intelligent», «compétent», etc.); la seule exception concerne l'item «modeste», qui est perçu comme agréable mais d'une utilité neutre. On remarque également qu'à une agrément «indifférente» correspond une utilité «sans intérêt» (ainsi pour les termes de «peu ambitieux», «peu compétent»,...). Et il est enfin à noter qu'une information peut très bien être désagréable tout en étant utile (c'est le cas par exemple pour «non ponctuel», «égoïste», «cancanier», «inquisiteur», etc.).

Tableau 4: correspondances entre les jugements d'agrément et les jugements d'utilité.

	Utile	Sans intérêt	Gênant
Agréable	19	1	
Indifférent		24	
Désagréable	8		

3.2. Effets du genre

Sur les 112 items considérés, et en considérant la désirabilité et l'utilité de manière conjointe, on s'aperçoit que les hommes et les femmes forment autant d'appréciations identiques (soit 62) que d'appréciations différentes (50).

Ainsi, au niveau des items faisant l'objet de jugements identiques, on peut citer la beauté, la laideur, le peu d'intelligence, le peu d'ambition, la tolérance, la franchise, l'optimisme, le pessimisme, etc. On note par exemple qu'une information sur le fait de rencontrer quelqu'un de franc, de scrupuleux ou d'optimiste est systématiquement considérée comme agréable et utile; que savoir que l'on va être mis en présence de quelqu'un de peu ambitieux ou de laid est jugé avec indifférence, tant sur le plan de l'agrément que sur celui de l'utilité,...

Quant aux items conduisant à des différences, il est possible de citer, sur le plan de l'agrément: savoir que l'on va rencontrer quelqu'un de persévérant, de compétent, ou qui aime être entouré d'amis (les femmes considérant ces informations comme agréables, alors que les hommes sont partagés entre «agréable» et «neutre»). De même, apprendre que la personne à rencontrer manque de sensibilité est une information désagréable pour les femmes alors que les hommes sont partagés entre l'aspect désagréable et l'indifférence. Inversement, savoir que l'on va rencontrer quelqu'un qui a su résoudre ses problèmes est une information agréable pour les hommes, mais agréable ou neutre pour les femmes. Et au niveau utilité, l'information d'une rencontre avec quelqu'un de dynamique ou de ponctuel est utile pour les femmes, mais autant utile que sans intérêt pour les hommes.

Il est évident que nous ne pouvons pas, ici non plus, être exhaustifs. Nous allons donc terminer cette présentation en citant un dernier exemple, exemple qui porte sur le genre de la personne à rencontrer. Il apparaît alors que si rencontrer un homme est jugé de la même façon par les hommes et par les femmes (de manière neutre, aussi bien sur le plan de l'agrément que sur celui de l'utilité), par contre, apprendre que l'on va rencontrer une femme (information qui laisse encore les femmes indifférentes sur les deux dimensions de la valeur) est une information considérée comme plutôt agréable et plutôt utile par les hommes..

DISCUSSION ET CONCLUSION

La procédure que nous avons choisie nous permet de mettre en évidence un ensemble de données quelque peu différent de ce que l'on peut lire dans la littérature; différent mais

complémentaire, aussi bien sur le plan de chacune des deux dimensions de la valeur prises séparément qu'au niveau de leurs relations. On observe ainsi une répartition à peu près égalitaire des items dans les trois catégories d'agrément, et une propension à davantage de classements dans la catégorie neutre en ce qui concerne l'utilité. On remarque également que les hommes et les femmes réalisent des attributions différentes sur la moitié des items. Et l'on constate enfin que les rapports entre agrément et utilité ne sont pas aussi anarchiques que semble le montrer la littérature, et que notamment un item agréable peut, et de manière très logique, être tout autant relié à une utilité forte qu'à son inverse.

Par ailleurs, si l'on étudie les réponses aux questions ouvertes, c'est-à-dire les informations apportées par nos sujets pour expliquer leurs classements, de nombreux enseignements complémentaires sont obtenus.

On constate ainsi que les attributions d'agrément peuvent être la conséquence de divers facteurs, notamment:

- un désir d'anticiper (ou au contraire de ne pas anticiper) la situation. Ainsi, savoir que votre interlocuteur est peu ponctuel est agréable car «ça me permettra d'arriver quelques minutes en retard moi aussi», avoue un sujet. Mais on peut aussi ne pas désirer cette anticipation et considérer alors l'information fournie comme désagréable, soit pour en faire soi-même la découverte, soit parce que cette anticipation risque d'être angoissante. Sont ainsi dits désagréables le fait de savoir que l'on va rencontrer quelqu'un qui a «beaucoup d'imagination» (car «je préfère le découvrir», dit un sujet), quelqu'un de «bien élevé» (car «je veux découvrir seule cette personne», dit un autre). De même sont jugées désagréables les informations sur «excessif» (car «je risque d'être angoissé avant de le rencontrer»), ou sur le fait de rencontrer une personne qui parle «de manière saccadé» («j'aurais peur de me moquer»). Il faut par ailleurs préciser que l'information d'un trait «négatif» n'est pas nécessairement angoissante: être informé d'une rencontre avec quelqu'un de prétentieux est parfois dit agréable (car «je peux le faire craquer»), de même pour une rencontre avec quelqu'un de dissimulateur (car «les fourbes sont mes proies préférées et les pousser à bout mon passe-temps favori»). Cette faculté d'anticipation nécessite cependant parfois la prise en compte de critères complémentaires sur la pertinence de l'information fournie ou sur la similitude avec soi-même (pertinence et similitude pouvant elles-mêmes être fonction de l'application de Théories Implicites de la Personnalité):

- la pertinence de l'information, pertinence qui peut être inférée de la fréquence du trait. On ne considèrera alors comme véritablement informatif que l'inhabituel, et donc comme non informatif, comme neutre sur le plan de l'agrément, les caractéristiques socialement répandues (on retrouve ici le critère de «spécificité» mentionné par Jones et Davis, 1965, dans leur modèle de l'inférence des correspondances). Ainsi, savoir que l'on va rencontrer quelqu'un de bavard conduit à de l'indifférence (car «il ne sera pas le seul sur terre», explique un sujet), de même pour quelqu'un qui mène une vie bien réglée (car «c'est le cas d'une personne sur deux»), quelqu'un de «jamais envieux» (car «ça me semble normal»), quelqu'un de superficiel («la plupart des gens sont comme ça», «tout le monde l'est plus ou moins»), quelqu'un qui n'analyse pas les gens (car «c'est comme la plupart des gens, j'y suis habitué»). Mais cette pertinence de l'information peut aussi dépendre d'autres données, comme l'objectif de la rencontre (ainsi, savoir que l'on va être en contact avec quelqu'un de paresseux est désagréable «si je dois travailler avec lui»), et l'absence d'information sur ces données ne permettant pas de déterminer cette pertinence, l'attribution peut être neutre (ainsi pour beau, si on ne sait pas «si c'est une fille ou un garçon», explique un sujet).

- un constat de similitude ou dissimilitude avec soi-même. On peut ainsi rechercher quelqu'un de semblable à soi: savoir que notre futur interlocuteur habite un village peut alors être dit agréable (car «je suis moi-même d'un village»), et corollairement sera désagréable l'information d'une rencontre avec quelqu'un de pessimiste (car «je n'ai pas la même

personnalité») ou de peu communicatif (car «je suis à l'opposé»). Mais on peut aussi souhaiter au contraire être en contact de quelqu'un de différent de soi: seront alors désagréables les informations sur une rencontre avec quelqu'un de timide (car «moi aussi je suis timide et je préférerais avoir le contraire de moi»), quelqu'un qui a une forte personnalité (car «s'il a le même caractère que moi, il y a un risque de conflit»), ou de têtu (car «je suis parfois têtue moi aussi, alors on n'en finirait pas»). Ajoutons brièvement ici (nous y reviendrons plus loin) que ces appréciations dépendent aussi des motivations du sujet, par exemple du fait que l'on aime ou non débattre: une rencontre avec quelqu'un avec qui il est facile d'être d'accord peut ainsi être désagréable (car «s'il dit toujours oui, ça risque d'être ennuyeux»), et corollairement rencontrer une personne avec qui il est difficile d'être d'accord peut être agréable (car «on pourra débattre, chacun affirmera sa personnalité, ses idées»).

- une application de TIP (Théories Implicites de la Personnalité). Sont par exemple dits agréables le fait de savoir que l'on va rencontrer quelqu'un de beau («car j'imagine quelqu'un de bien»), quelqu'un qui vit dans un village (car «généralement ces gens sont moins stressés» ou car «la plupart des villageois sont sympathiques»), quelqu'un qui communique beaucoup (car «c'est quelqu'un de dynamique, qui apporte du dynamisme»). Inversement, il est désagréable de savoir que l'on va rencontrer quelqu'un d'intolérant (car «une personne intolérante est souvent une personne têtue»).

De manière plus étonnante, les explications fournies renvoient parfois à des analyses causales. Ainsi, savoir que l'on va rencontrer quelqu'un de laid conduit à de l'indifférence (car «ce n'est pas sa faute»), de même que connaître par avance le prénom de son interlocuteur futur (car «on ne choisit pas son prénom»). Il est possible de penser que dans de tels cas la consigne n'a pas bien été respectée par les sujets, ceux-ci ayant davantage jugé la caractéristique transmise par l'information que cette information.

Notons enfin que les deux pôles opposés d'un même critère informationnel peuvent conduire à des attributions d'agréabilité identiques selon les motivations, les ressources et les craintes du sujet. Ainsi, intelligent et peu intelligent sont toutes deux des informations agréables (car dans le 1^{er} cas «la conversation sera riche» et dans le 2^{ème} «on peut lui apprendre des choses») ou toutes deux des informations désagréables (car dans le 1^{er} cas «j'ai peur de ne pas être à la hauteur» et dans le 2^{ème} «je pourrais être méprisante»); de même, rencontrer une personne qui a bon goût ou quelqu'un qui a mauvais goût sont deux informations agréables (car en cas de bon goût «je pourrai lui demander conseil, par exemple pour le choix d'un cadeau», et parce qu'en cas de mauvais goût «je sais que je ne me tournerai pas vers elle pour un choix»; ou encore parce qu'en cas de bon goût «si elle m'aime bien, c'est que je suis de bon goût» et en cas de mauvais goût «si elle ne m'aime pas, je saurai pourquoi»). De la même façon, et dernier exemple, sensible et insensible sont des informations désagréables (car pour sensible «il faut faire attention à tout ce qu'on dit» et pour insensible «j'aurais peur qu'il me vexe»).

De la même manière, les attributions d'utilité des informations fournies peuvent elles aussi être tributaires de plusieurs critères.

- Une information sera alors considérée comme utile si elle sert à se préparer à la rencontre: l'un de nos sujets classe ainsi toutes les informations dans la catégorie «utile» en expliquant que «c'est important d'avoir des informations sur les personnes pour être prêt à discuter avec elles, savoir ce qu'il faut dire, de quoi discuter et qu'est-ce que l'on peut attendre, espérer de l'autre». Peuvent ainsi être considérées comme utiles des informations sur les centres d'intérêts du futur interlocuteur (car «je sais comment engager la conversation»), des informations nous apprenant que ce futur interlocuteur a peu de personnalité («pour me préparer psychologiquement à un rendez-vous qui va être ennuyeux»), qu'il est insensible («pour me préparer en conséquence»), qu'il est envieux (car «je saurai à quoi m'attendre et j'anticiperai»), qu'il plaisante rarement («je saurai à quoi m'attendre, ce qui est rassurant»), qu'il est direct («je ne serai pas surprise»),

qu'il est peu ponctuel (car «je prendrai mon temps»), qu'il est égoïste (car «je ne perdrai pas mon temps à discuter avec»), qu'il a peu d'imagination (car «j'éviterai d'aller au rendez-vous»), qu'il a une forte personnalité («j'aime savoir comment sont les gens avant de parler avec eux»), etc. Mais cela suppose évidemment que la caractéristique en cause ne puisse être détectée facilement par le sujet lors de la rencontre: dissimulateur est ainsi utile car «ça ne se voit pas en parlant avec la personne»; *a contrario*, coquet a une utilité neutre (car «ça se voit au 1^{er} coup d'œil»), de même que «réaliste» («je le découvrirai par la suite»), que «superficiel» («ça se voit») ou que le prénom («c'est l'une des premières choses que l'on apprend sur quelqu'un, j'aurais pu très vite avoir cette information par moi-même») ou pour le fait de parler saccadé (car «je m'en rendrai compte rapidement», explique un sujet).

- Il faut cependant noter qu'en cas d'informations «négatives», cette préparation peut être vécue négativement et aboutir à préférer ne pas souhaiter cette information. Ainsi «peu intelligent» ou «égoïste» sont gênants car «je risque de ne pas vouloir le rencontrer» (pour peu intelligent) ou car «ça ne me donne pas envie de le rencontrer» (pour égoïste). Il en est de même pour arriviste (car «j'appréhende le rendez-vous»), pour prétentieux («je n'aurai aucun plaisir à aller au rendez-vous»), pour excessif (car «je me prépare à passer un mauvais moment»), pour mal élevé (car «je vais avoir des préjugés»), pour insensible (car «j'aurais des préjugés négatifs»).

- Indépendamment de toute préparation, l'information préalable permet aussi, lors de la rencontre, de savoir quoi penser face à un comportement inattendu de son interlocuteur et de savoir comment y réagir. Il est ainsi utile d'être informé à l'avance du caractère prétentieux de la personne que l'on va rencontrer (car «si je suis prévenue, je ne serai pas déçue de son comportement s'il est arrogant avec moi»); de même pour quelqu'un de peu ponctuel (car «je ne serai pas étonné de l'attendre», ou «ça m'évitera de penser qu'on m'a posé un lapin»), pour quelqu'un de sensible («pour éviter les maladroites», «pour ne pas entrer dans des sujets blessants»), pour «faire attention à ne pas le blesser»), pour quelqu'un qui s'intègre difficilement («je saurai pourquoi cette personne reste en retrait», «pour ne pas me demander pourquoi elle reste à l'écart»), pour quelqu'un qui a peu de personnalité («c'est utile de savoir que si elle ne parle pas c'est par timidité et non par mépris ou par désintérêt»), ou encore pour quelqu'un de dissimulateur ou qui analyse sans cesse les gens (car «je me méfierai»). Inversement, l'absence d'information est parfois préférée afin d'éviter d'adopter un comportement particulier: ainsi, savoir que quelqu'un analyse sans cesse autrui est jugé gênant car «sachant cela, je ne conduirai pas normalement, naturellement».

- Par ailleurs, comme pour l'agréabilité, l'utilité de l'information va dépendre de la pertinence de cette information, celle-ci étant notamment inférée de la fréquence du trait dans la population, une information sur un trait répandu n'apportant rien. Ainsi savoir que l'on va rencontrer quelqu'un qui analyse peu les gens est une information sans utilité, car contrairement à quelqu'un qui analyse sans cesse (qui constitue une information utile), «c'est comme la plupart des gens, ce n'est pas une spécificité», et cela ne conduira donc pas à la nécessité de l'adoption d'une conduite particulière («je ne m'en méfierai pas, donc ça n'a pas d'intérêt de le savoir»). Et là encore, comme pour l'agréabilité, la pertinence de l'information fournie peut dépendre de l'objectif de la rencontre: la connaissance de l'âge, par exemple, de la personne que l'on va rencontrer, est ou non utile (tout «dépend du but de la rencontre»).

Notons également que, comme pour l'agréabilité, les deux pôles opposés d'un même critère informationnel peuvent, selon les motivations du sujet, conduire à des attributions d'utilité identiques: savoir que la personne que l'on va rencontrer a su résoudre ses problèmes est utile, mais savoir que l'on va rencontrer quelqu'un qui n'a pas su les résoudre l'est également (dans le 1^{er} cas «je pourrai peut-être l'aider», et dans le 2^{ème} «elle me fera profiter de son expérience»).

Mentionnons enfin quelques réponses permettant de mieux comprendre certains liens entre désirabilité et utilité. Par exemple, savoir que quelqu'un est peu ponctuel est utile car «je prendrai mon temps», et c'est également agréable car «ça me permettra d'arriver quelques minutes en retard moi aussi». C'est-à-dire que le fait de savoir que quelqu'un manque de ponctualité est utile car cela évite de se presser, et éviter de se presser est agréable. Corollairement, être informé du caractère excessif de quelqu'un est parfois dit gênant car «je me prépare à passer un mauvais moment» et c'est également désagréable car «je risque d'être angoissé avant de le rencontrer». Enfin d'autres réponses portent évidemment sur des informations désagréables mais utiles: savoir que l'on va rencontrer une personne pessimiste est ainsi désagréable («cette information me mettrait mal à l'aise») mais utile car permettant d'anticiper la rencontre («j'éviterai de lui exposer ma joie de vivre au visage»).

Pour terminer, rappelons que tous ces résultats ont été obtenus par une opérationnalisation particulière. Nous avons notamment travaillé sur l'agréabilité et l'utilité d'informations, et non sur les caractéristiques transmises dans ces informations. Nous avons également précisément contextualisé nos questions. Tout cela nous fait dire qu'il est délicat de comparer nos résultats à ceux provenant d'autres procédures, et qu'il convient donc, à notre avis, de considérer nos résultats davantage comme complémentaires que comme comparables.

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Annexe 1: exemple de description et de terminologies retenues

(description d'un collègue sympathique par le sujet n°1 et terminologies finales à partir des thématiques similaires des autres 49 autres sujets)

Descriptions du sujet n°1	Terminologies finales
Elle a 24 ans	Age
Elle est belle,	Beau/laid
Intelligente,	d'intelligent, de perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes/qui n'est pas intelligent, qui manque de perspicacité, qui ne sait pas du tout analyser les choses, qui dit rarement des choses intéressantes et pertinentes
Et ambitieuse parce qu'elle est institutrice et étudiante en même temps.	d'ambitieux, qui aime les défis et la compétition/qui n'est pas ambitieux, qui n'aime ni les défis ni la compétition
Elle déteste le mensonge et les personnes qui ne sont pas morales.	- qui ne tolère pas les défauts des autres/qui pardonne facilement les défauts des autres - de franc, de sincère, en qui on peut avoir confiance/de dissimulateur, qui manque de franchise, en qui on ne peut pas avoir confiance
Elle est une très bonne amie,	d'arriviste, qui est sans scrupules, capable de tout pour atteindre ses objectifs, qui manipule les gens, qui profite d'eux/de moralement scrupuleux, de loyal, qui ne manipule jamais les gens
Quand j'ai besoin d'elle, elle est près de moi	qui sait se comporter en ami (e), qui est toujours là quand on a besoin de lui, qui est fiable/qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami (e), qui n'est jamais là quand on a besoin de lui, qui n'est pas fiable

Annexe 2: les terminologies retenues et leur répartition dans les 6 questionnaires

Questionnaire 1 (20 termes) dont âge et milieu social

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un de beau/est que c'est quelqu'un de laid 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un d'intelligent, de perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est pas intelligent, qui manque de perspicacité, qui ne sait pas du tout analyser les choses, qui dit rarement des choses intéressantes et pertinentes 5,6) est que c'est quelqu'un d'ambitieux, qui aime les défis et la compétition/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est pas ambitieux, qui n'aime ni les défis ni la compétition 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un qui ne tolère pas les défauts des autres/est que c'est quelqu'un qui pardonne facilement les défauts des autres 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un de franc, de sincère, en qui on peut avoir confiance/est



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

que c'est quelqu'un de dissimulateur, qui manque de franchise, en qui on ne peut pas avoir confiance 11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un qui est souvent ironique et sarcastique avec les autres/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est jamais ironique ou sarcastique avec autres 13,14) est que c'est quelqu'un de persévérant, consciencieux, qui va au bout de ce qu'il commence, d'exigeant, de perfectionniste/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est pas persévérant, pas consciencieux, qui va rarement au bout de ce qu'il commence, qui se contente de peu, de peu exigeant 15,16) est que c'est quelqu'un de timide, de discret, qui parle peu, que l'on ne remarque pas, qui n'aime pas attirer l'attention sur lui/est que c'est quelqu'un de très bavard, qui monopolise les discussions, qui n'est pas timide, que l'on remarque, qui aime attirer l'attention sur lui 17,18) est que c'est quelqu'un de paresseux, qui n'est pas travailleur/est que c'est quelqu'un de travailleur, qui n'est jamais paresseux 19) est son âge 20) est son milieu social.

Questionnaire 2 (20 termes) dont apparence physique et profession

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un de bien élevé, qui dit toujours bonjour, qui parle toujours de manière convenable, sans jamais employer de mots d'argot ni dire de grossièretés/est que c'est quelqu'un de mal élevé, qui ne dit jamais bonjour, qui emploie beaucoup de mots d'argot, qui dit souvent des grossièretés 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un qui se confie facilement, qui parle facilement de lui, qui n'essaie de cacher ses sentiments ni ce qu'il ressent/est que c'est quelqu'un qui ne se confie jamais, qui ne dévoile jamais rien sur lui, qui essaie pas de cacher ses sentiments et ce qu'il ressent 5,6) est que c'est quelqu'un d'optimiste, qui a un tempérament gai, qui aime la vie et tente de profiter de toutes les joies et de tous les bonheurs qu'elle peut procurer/est que c'est quelqu'un de pessimiste, qui a un tempérament triste, avec beaucoup de principes, qui n'ose pas ou ne sait pas profiter de la vie 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un de coquet, toujours à la mode/est que c'est quelqu'un de pas du tout coquet, qui ne se préoccupe pas de suivre la mode 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un de calme, de tranquille, de pondéré, qui n'est jamais pressé, jamais impatient/est que c'est quelqu'un qui est excessif, agité, qui déteste perdre son temps, qui est toujours pressé, toujours impatient, qui déteste attendre 11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'a pas encore pu résoudre ses problèmes, qui n'a pas encore trouvé sa voie, qui a une image confuse de lui-même, qui manque de confiance en lui, qui n'est pas très autonome/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a su dépasser ses problèmes, qui a trouvé sa voie, qui a une image nette de lui-même, qui est autonome, responsable 13,14) est que c'est quelqu'un de très organisé/est que c'est quelqu'un de peu organisé 15,16) est que c'est quelqu'un de dynamique, qui va de l'avant, qui est toujours ouvert à la nouveauté, qui n'a peur de rien, qui sait toujours se débrouiller, qui s'adapte facilement/est que c'est quelqu'un qui manque de dynamisme, de courage, qui a peur de tout, qui n'arrive jamais à se débrouiller, qui s'adapte difficilement 17,18) est que c'est quelqu'un qui sait se comporter en ami (e), qui est toujours là quand on a besoin de lui, qui est fiable/est que c'est quelqu'un qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami (e), qui n'est jamais là quand on a besoin de lui, qui n'est pas fiable 19) est son apparence physique 20) est sa profession.

Questionnaire 3 (20 termes) dont le prénom et les loisirs

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un qui est né et qui habite dans un village/est que c'est quelqu'un qui est né et qui habite dans une grande ville 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un qui plaisante souvent, qui rit facilement aux plaisanteries des autres/est que c'est quelqu'un qui plaisante rarement, qui rit rarement 5,6) est que c'est quelqu'un qui adapte ses désirs à ses possibilités/est que c'est quelqu'un qui veut toujours tout, même l'impossible 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un de très communicatif, d'extraverti/est que c'est quelqu'un de peu communicatif, d'introverti 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est jamais ponctuel/est que c'est quelqu'un qui est toujours ponctuel 11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un de prétentieux, d'arrogant, qui ne tolère pas la moindre plaisanterie sur lui/est que c'est quelqu'un de pas du tout prétentieux, qui sait se moquer de lui-même 13,14)



est que c'est quelqu'un qui parle de manière très saccadée/est que c'est quelqu'un qui parle de manière très coulée, en liant bien les mots et les phrases 15,16) est que c'est quelqu'un qui mène une vie bien réglée/est que c'est quelqu'un qui mène une vie dissolue, superficielle 17,18) est que c'est quelqu'un avec qui il est facile d'être d'accord/est que c'est quelqu'un avec qui il est difficile d'être d'accord 19) est son prénom 20) porte sur ses loisirs et ses centres d'intérêt.

Questionnaire 4 (20 termes)

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a beaucoup d'imagination/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a peu d'imagination 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un de sensible/est que c'est quelqu'un d'insensible 5,6) est que c'est quelqu'un d'arriviste, qui est sans scrupules, capable de tout pour atteindre ses objectifs, qui manipule les gens, qui profite d'eux/est que c'est quelqu'un de moralement scrupuleux, de loyal, qui ne manipule jamais les gens 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a beaucoup de compétences/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a peu de compétences 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un qui fait facilement confiance/est que c'est quelqu'un qui fait difficilement confiance 11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un d'égoïste, d'individualiste, qui ne se soucie pas des autres, qui ne tient aucun compte des choix et des avis d'autrui/est que c'est quelqu'un d'altruiste, qui se soucie des autres, qui tient compte des choix et des avis des autres 13,14) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a bon goût/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a mauvais goût 15,16) est que c'est quelqu'un qui aime avoir des amis, qui n'aime pas la solitude/est que c'est quelqu'un que le manque d'amis ne dérange pas, qui aime la solitude 17,18) est que c'est quelqu'un de très envieux/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est jamais envieux des autres 19,20) est que c'est quelqu'un de direct, qui ne prend pas de gants pour dire les choses/est que c'est quelqu'un de diplomate, qui prend des gants pour dire les choses.

Questionnaire 5 (20 termes)

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un de stimulant/est que c'est quelqu'un de peu stimulant 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un de rêveur, d'idéaliste, qui a beaucoup d'illusions/est que c'est quelqu'un de réaliste 5,6) est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'accepte pas les étrangers ni les personnes différentes de lui, qui critique toujours les autres, qui semble n'apprécier personne/est que c'est quelqu'un qui accepte facilement les personnes différentes de lui, qui ne critique jamais les autres, qui semble apprécier tout le monde 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un qui donne de bons conseils/est que c'est quelqu'un qui ne sait pas conseiller les gens 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un qui veut toujours tout savoir, qui est inquisiteur, indiscret/est que c'est quelqu'un qui ne cherche pas toujours à tout savoir 11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un de têtu, qui change rarement d'opinion, qui ne tolère pas d'avoir tort/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est pas du tout têtu, qui accepte facilement de changer d'opinion, qui accepte d'avoir tort, qui reconnaît ses erreurs et ses défauts 13,14) est que c'est quelqu'un de profond, qui croit au spirituel/est que c'est quelqu'un de superficiel, de léger 15,16) est que c'est quelqu'un de fier, d'orgueilleux/est que c'est quelqu'un de modeste, qui n'est pas du tout orgueilleux 17,18) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a eu une enfance heureuse/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a eu une enfance malheureuse 19,20) est que c'est quelqu'un qui est cancanier, qui diffuse des ragots, qui ne sait pas tenir sa langue, qui ne sait pas garder un secret/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est pas du tout cancanier, qui ne diffuse pas de ragots, qui sait garder un secret.

Questionnaire 6 (12 termes)

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a une forte personnalité, qui a des idées bien à lui, qui arrive toujours à s'imposer/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a peu de personnalité, qui est effacé, qui n'arrive pas à s'imposer, qui répète les opinions des autres 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un qui s'intègre facilement/est que c'est quelqu'un qui s'intègre difficilement 5,6) est que c'est

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



quelqu'un qui aime bien analyser les gens/est que c'est quelqu'un qui ne cherche pas à analyser les gens 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a un caractère standard, sans particularités, facile à comprendre/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a un caractère spécial, particulier, inhabituel, difficile à comprendre 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a beaucoup de défauts/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a peu de défauts 11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un de sexe masculin/est que c'est quelqu'un de sexe féminin.

Annexe 3: exemple de formulation des questions

Question 1. Imaginez que vous allez bientôt être mis en contact avec quelqu'un que vous ne connaissez pas, et que la **seule information** que vous ayez sur cette personne est que c'est **quelqu'un de beau**.

1.1. Est-ce que cette information vous est agréable, **ou** indifférente, **ou** désagréable?

- C'est une **information agréable** :
- Cette **information** me laisse **indifférent(e)**:
- C'est une **information désagréable**:

Pourquoi?.....
.....
.....

1.2. Est-ce que cette information vous est utile, **ou** sans intérêt, **ou** gênante (et alors vous préféreriez ne pas avoir cette information)?

- Cette **information m'est utile et je suis content(e) de l'avoir**:
- Cette **information** est **sans intérêt** pour moi:
- Je préférerais **ne pas avoir cette information car elle me dérange trop**:

Pourquoi?.....
.....
.....

Annexe 4: résultats par questionnaire

Dans chacun des 6 tableaux de cette annexe, A^+ , A^0 et A^- correspondent à l'agrabilité et renvoient respectivement à «agréable», «indifférent» et «désagréable»; de même, pour l'utilité, U^+ , U^0 et U^- signifient respectivement "utile", "sans intérêt" et "gênant". Les résultats consignés dans ces tableaux correspondent aux choix placés significativement en tête (ainsi A^+ signifie que la réponse «agréable» est significativement préférée aux deux autres alternatives; A^+ et A^0 signifie que les réponses «agréable» et «indifférent» ne se différencient pas mais sont significativement préférées à l'alternative «désagréable»)..



	Hommes et Femmes		Hommes		Femmes	
	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité
Beau	A ⁺ et A [°]	U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U [°]
Laid	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]
Intelligent ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺
Intelligent ⁻	A [°] et A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻	A [°] et A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻	A [°] et A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻
Ambitieux ⁺	A [°] =A ⁺ , A ⁺ = A ⁻ , A [°] >A ⁻	U [°]	A [°] =A ⁺ , A ⁺ = A ⁻ , A [°] >A ⁻	U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] =A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻
Ambitieux ⁻	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]
Intolérant	A ⁻	U ⁺ et U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U ⁻ , U ⁼ U [°] , U ⁺ >U [°]	A ⁻	U ⁺ et U ⁻
Tolérant	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]
Franc	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺
Dissimulateur	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺
Ironique ⁺	A [°] et A ⁻	U [°]	A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°] et A ⁻	U [°]
Ironique ⁻	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U [°]
Persévérant ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]
Persévérant ⁻	A [°] et A ⁻	U [°]	A [°] et A ⁻	U [°]	A [°] et A ⁻	U [°]
Timide ⁺	A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°]	U ⁺ =U [°] , U [°] = U ⁻ , U ⁺ >U ⁻
Timide ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] , U [°] = U ⁻ , U ⁺ >U ⁻
Paresseux ⁺	A [°] et A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°] et A ⁻	U [°] =U ⁺ , U ⁺ = U ⁻ , U [°] >U ⁻	A [°] et A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]
Paresseux ⁻	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]
Age	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]
Milieu social	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]

Résultats du questionnaire n°1

	Hommes + Femmes		Hommes		Femmes	
	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité
Bien élevé	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] , A [°] = A ⁻ , A ⁺ >A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]
Mal élevé	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] , U [°] = U ⁻ , U ⁺ >U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] , U [°] = U ⁻ , U ⁺ >U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻
Se confie ⁺	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] =A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]
Se confie ⁻	A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°] =A ⁻ , A ⁼ A ⁺ , A [°] >A ⁺	U [°] =U ⁺ , U ⁺ = U ⁻ , U [°] >U ⁻
Optimiste	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺
Pessimiste	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻
Coquet ⁺	A ⁺ et A [°]	U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] , A [°] = A ⁻ , A ⁺ >A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U [°]
Coquet ⁻	A [°]	U [°]	A [°] =A ⁺ , A ⁺ = A ⁻ , A [°] >A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°]	U [°]
Pondéré	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] , A [°] = A ⁻ , A ⁺ >A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]
Excessif	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] , U [°] = U ⁻ , U ⁺ >U ⁻	A ⁻ =A ⁺ , A ⁺ = A [°] , A [°] >A [°]	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻
N'a pas résolu pb	A ⁺ =A [°] =A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] =A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] , U [°] = U ⁻ , U ⁺ >U ⁻	A ⁺ =A [°] =A ⁻	U [°] =U ⁺ , U ⁺ = U ⁻ , U [°] >U ⁻
A résolu pb	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]
Organisé	A ⁺ =A [°] , A [°] = A ⁻ , A ⁺ >A ⁻	U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] =A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] , A [°] = A ⁻ , A ⁺ >A ⁻	U [°]



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Désorganisé	A°	U°	A°	U+ et U°	A°	U°
Dynamique	A+	U+	A+	U+ et U°	A+	U+
Apathique	A-	U+=U°=U-	A-	U+=U°=U-	A-	U+=U°=U-
Conduite d'ami +	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+
Conduite d'ami -	A-	U+=U°=U-	A-	U+=U-, U-=U°, U+>U-	A-	U+=U°=U-
App. Physique	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Profession	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°

Résultats du questionnaire n°2

	Hommes + Femmes		Hommes		Femmes	
	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité
Village	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Ville	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Plaisante +	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+
Plaisante -	A-	U+	A-	U+	A-	U+=U-, U-=U°, U+>U°
Désirs adaptés	A+ et A°	U+ et U°	A+ et A°	U+ et U°	A+ et A°	U+ et U°
Désirs inadaptés	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°
Communique +	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+
Communique -	A° et A-	U+ et U°	A° et A-	U°=U+, U+=U-, U°>U-	A° et A-	U+=U°, U°=U-, U+>U-
Ponctuel -	A-	U+	A-	U+	A-	U+
Ponctuel +	A+	U+	A+	U+ et U°	A+	U+
Prétentieux +	A-	U+ et U-	A-	U+=U-, U-=U°, U+>U°	A-	U+ et U-
Prétentieux -	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+
Parle saccadé	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Parle coulé	A+ et A°	U°	A+ et A°	U°	A+ et A°	U°
Vie réglée	A°	U°	A°=A-, A-=A+, A°>A+	U°	A+ et A°	U°
Vie dissolue	A°	U°	A°	U°=U+, U+=U-, U°>U-	A° et A-	U°
Accord facile	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°
Accord difficile	A-=A+, A+=A°, A->A°	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+=U°=U-
Prénom	A°	U°	A°	U+ et U°	A+ et A°	U°
Loisirs	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+

Résultats du questionnaire n°3

	Hommes + Femmes		Hommes		Femmes	
	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité
Imagination +	A+ et A°	U+ et U°	A+ et A°	U+ et U°	A+ et A°	U+ et U°
Imagination -	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Sensible	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+
Insensible	A° et A-	U+=U°=U-	A° et A-	U+=U°=U-	A-	U+=U°=U-
Arriviste	A-	U+	A-	U+	A-	U+
Scrupuleux	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+
Compétent	A+	U+	A+ et A°	U+ et U°	A+	U+ et U°



Incompétent ⁻	A ^o	U ^o	A ^o	U ^o =U ⁺ ,U ⁺ = U ⁻ ,U ^o >U ⁻	A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o
Confl ant	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺ =A ^o =A ⁻	U ⁺ et U ^o
Mél ant	A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ^o =A ⁻ ,A ⁻ = A ⁺ ,A ^o >A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺ =A ^o =A ⁻	U ⁺ et U ^o
Egoïste	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺
Altruïste	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺
Bon goût	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ^o	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ^o	U ^o
Mauvais goût	A ^o	U ^o	A ^o	U ^o	A ^o	U ^o
Bcp d'amis	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o
Solitaire	A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ^o	U ^o =U ⁺ ,U ⁺ = U ⁻ ,U ^o >U ⁻
Envieux ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U ^o =U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U ^o =U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U ^o =U ⁻
Envieux ⁻	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺ =A ^o ,A ^o = A ⁻ ,A ⁺ >A ⁻	U ⁺ et U ^o
Direct ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺ =A ⁻ ,A ⁻ = A ^o ,A ⁺ >A ^o	U ⁺
Direct ⁻	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o

Résultats du questionnaire n°4

	Hommes + Femmes		Hommes		Femmes	
	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité
Stimulant ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o
Stimulant ⁻	A ^o	U ^o	A ^o =A ⁻ ,A ⁻ = A ⁺ ,A ^o >A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ^o et A ⁻	U ^o
Rêveur	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o
Réaliste	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o
Xénophobe	A ⁻	U ⁺ et U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U ⁻ ,U ⁻ = U ^o ,U ⁺ >U ^o	A ⁻	U ⁺ et U ⁻
Xénophile	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o
Bon conseils	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺ =U ^o ,U ^o = U ⁻ ,U ⁺ >U ⁻
Mauvais con- seils	A ^o	U ^o	A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ^o	U ^o
Inquisiteur	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U ^o =U ⁻
Discret	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ^o	A ⁺ =A ^o ,A ^o = A ⁻ ,A ⁺ >A ⁻	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ^o
Têtu ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U ^o ,U ^o = U ⁻ ,U ⁺ >U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U ^o =U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U ^o =U ⁻
Têtu ⁻	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o
Profond	A ^o	U ^o	A ^o	U ^o	A ^o	U ^o
Superfl ciel	A ^o et A ⁻	U ^o	A ⁺ =A ^o =A ⁻	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ^o et A ⁻	U ^o
Fier	A ⁻	U ^o =U ⁺ ,U ⁺ = U ⁻ ,U ^o >U ⁻	A ⁻ =A ^o ,A ^o = A ⁺ ,A ⁻ >A ⁺	U ⁺ =U ^o =U ⁻	A ⁻ =A ^o ,A ^o = A ⁺ ,A ⁻ >A ⁺	U ^o
Modeste	A ⁺	U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o
Enfance heu- reuse	A ^o	U ^o	A ⁺ et A ^o	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ^o	U ^o
Enfance malh.	A ⁻ =A ^o ,A ^o = A ⁺ ,A ⁻ >A ⁺	U ⁺ =U ^o =U ⁻	A ⁺ =A ^o =A ⁻	U ⁺ =U ^o =U ⁻	A ⁻ =A ^o ,A ^o = A ⁺ ,A ⁻ >A ⁺	U ⁺ =U ^o =U ⁻
Cancanier ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺
Cancanier ⁻	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U ^o

Résultats du questionnaire n°5

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



	Hommes + Femmes		Hommes		Femmes	
	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité	Agréabilité	Utilité
Personnalité +	$A^+ = A^0 = A^-$	U^+	$A^+ = A^0 = A^-$	$U^+ = U^0, U^0 = U^-, U^+ > U^-$	$A^+ = A^0 = A^-$	U^+
Personnalité -	A^0 et A^-	$U^+ = U^0, U^0 = U^-, U^+ > U^-$	$A^- = A^0, A^0 = A^+, A^- > A^+$	$U^+ = U^0 = U^-$	$A^- = A^0, A^0 = A^+, A^- > A^+$	U^+ et U^0
S'intègre +	A^+	U^+	A^+	U^+	A^+	U^+ et U^0
S'intègre -	$A^+ = A^0 = A^-$	U^+	$A^+ = A^0 = A^-$	$U^+ = U^0, U^0 = U^-, U^+ > U^-$	$A^+ = A^0 = A^-$	U^+
Analyse +	A^-	$U^+ = U^0 = U^-$	A^-	$U^+ = U^0 = U^-$	A^-	$U^+ = U^0 = U^-$
Analyse -	A^+ et A^0	U^+ et U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^+ et U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^+ et U^0
Standard	A^+ et A^0	U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^+ et U^0
Spécial	A^-	$U^+ = U^-, U^- = U^0, U^+ > U^0$	A^-	$U^+ = U^0 = U^-$	$A^- = A^0, A^0 = A^+, A^- > A^+$	$U^+ = U^0 = U^-$
Défauts +	A^0 et A^-	U^0	A^0 et A^-	$U^+ = U^0 = U^-$	A^0 et A^-	U^0
Défauts -	A^+ et A^0	U^0	$A^+ = A^0 = A^-$	U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^0
Homme	A^0	U^0	A^0	U^0	A^0	U^0
Femme	A^0	U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^+ et U^0	A^0	U^0

Résultats du questionnaire n°6

SOCIAL DESIRABILITY AND UTILITY OF THE SO-CALLED DESCRIPTIVE TERMINOLOGY OF OTHERS

INTRODUCTION

According to Beauvois (1990), when one thinks to describe somebody, in fact one doesn't perform a neutral description, but an assessment, in positive or negative terms, of the person that one thinks to describe. We assign a value to this person, or more precisely to her different traits, value made of two dimensions: desirability and utility (Beauvois, Dubois and Peeters, 1999). The desirability would refer to the pleasant, attractive character, of each of traits of the valued person, and the utility to the faculty of each of these traits to permit to this person to achieve her objectives (so Peeters, 1986, calls it «profitability for oneself»), either to permit to the global society to achieve her objectives (so Beauvois, 1995, calls it «social utility»). Therefore, we could, at least for the utility, make a differentiation on the conceptual plan. However, this differentiation would not meet come across in the empiric level: according to a study made by Cambon³ the profitable traits for oneself would be also useful for the society (the correlations between these 2 utilities vary between .85 and .88). As for the relations between desirability and utility, they remain unknown: Le Barbenchon, Cambon and Lavigne (2005), underline that the gotten results on these relations are contradictory, some highlighting positive correlations, others negative correlations, and finally others no correlation. These different data lead us to various questions, and so to a new operationalization of the study of the value.

Our first question is about the personal *versus* social aspect of the value, of which we indicated, for the utility, that a differentiation had been established on the conceptual plan but without leading to differential results in the empiric level. We would like to examine this conceptual differentiation, analysing the operational consequences of this double conceptual utility (and integrating the symmetrical hypothesis of a double conceptual desirability). Then, it is advisable to recall that when one values someone, it is in a precise objective: one values him for oneself, for a particular organization, but it is very delicate to do this assessment for the society in totality; notably because any global society is multiform, disparate, and pursues contradictory objectives according to the subgroups that constitute it. So the utility (as the desirability) are the consequences of particular objectives and they only must be examined compared with these objectives, no in the absolute. For example, a recruiter will wonder if such trait (or such position on a trait) is or is not useful to the contracting enterprise, to the vacancy, and no in the absolute. Therefore, any exam of the value needs, on the operational plan, to be put in relations with its context; it means that the term of «social» (social desirability, social utility) seems too general, too polysemous, not to lead to operationalizations (and therefore to contextualizations) very various and, by continuation, to contradictory results (except if these operationalizations are based either on an identity of context, either without any context; but in the 1st case, it is obvious that one will only get results that will not be generalizable out of the chosen context, that is say results that will not be generalizable to the global society; and in the 2nd case, the absence of contextualisation can be sufficient to explain the similarity of the results between value for oneself and social value).

Another point to question is connected with the tools of measure of the value: these tools often refer to very particular criteria whose validity can be questioned. For example, Le

³ Oral information provided by Cambon



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Barbenchon and *al.* (2005) ask to their subjects to indicate: for desirability if the target «has all to be liked» (*vs* «doesn't have anything to be liked») and «has a lot of friends» (*vs* «has few friends»); and for the utility if the target «has all to succeed his professional life» (*vs* «doesn't have anything to succeed his professional life») and «has a high salary» (*vs* «has a weak salary»). Let's add, concerning in particular these two scales of measure of the utility, that the authors underline (p312) that «these two scales are the most used as to measure the social utility». However to value the social utility from the professional success and from the salary seems reducing. First because the so-called «social» utility doesn't come down to the professional domain. Then, while remaining on the professional plan, because if it is certainly possible that in the Anglo-Saxon countries the salary constitutes a proof of utility (so of professional utility), it is necessary to remember that the Anglo-Saxon countries do not constitute the whole planet. Certainly, as well Beauvois as the authors working on his model specify that they take the utility in an economic sense (Beauvois, 1995, p378; Le Barbenchon and *al.*, 2005, p309); but apart from the fact that the exchange value of a good, value that can take the form of salary, is far from systematically reflecting its economic value, notably with the globalization (even if my tailor, who that subcontracted in Asia, is rich, and a lot richer than my baker, the inhabitants of my district consider that he is a lot less useful than their baker), it seems incorrect to speak of «social» utility while disregarding another of its components, notably its usage value (if the salary was the only criteria of social utility, then the voluntary activities would be socially completely useless). Finally, to continue on the social utility, it seems reducing to consider only the useful conducts *versus* the useless conducts and to forget the harmful conducts (called «perverse conducts» by Beauvois, 1976). And «to have all to succeed his life» can be the contrary of «not to have anything to succeed his life» but also the contrary of that «to have all to fail his life». And one could hold similar reasonings for the desirability (for example to oppose «has a lot of friends» and «has a lot of enemies»).

In other respects, when one values someone on personological dimensions, it is because one considers that to get informations on this person's position on these dimensions is, considering our objective, useful. So a consultant in recruitment will begin to look for informations on the useful traits and positions for the contracting enterprise (and he will hear, for example, that the traits «open-mindedness» and « dynamism » are useful to this enterprise, and will hear that a «good candidate» must be located at the X and Y levels on these traits); then he will take the candidates for an inventory of personality constituted of the 2 retained traits, the answers of the candidates to these traits allowing him to know the position of the candidates on these traits, that is to say that the answers of the candidates will constitute useful informations; and finally he will accept the candidates whose position corresponds to the expected position, that is to say to the useful position for the enterprise. We know that. We know it, but expressed in this way, it takes a particular significance. It means that the recruiter mainly searches for informations; on usefulness, uselessness and harmfulness, but informations. Because what a recruiter first examines, it is the utility of the knowledge of traits and the knowledge of the position of the candidates on traits: because the recruiter starts with looking for to sort through useful, useless and harmful informations. Therefore, the first utilities about informations are: these informations useful, useless or harmful? And it is only at the end of the recruiting procedure that he will wonder if the position of the candidate is good, that he is to say is useful, useless or harmful to the contracting enterprise (and a similar argument could be made about desirability).

Finally the measure of the value is often made from adjectives referring to personality traits having their origin in a personological lexicon coming from the dictionary or from personality's inventories (whose content generally comes from the dictionary). However the description of others (or the assessment of others) can also have their origin in others *corpus*, coming from the daily life, and so notably to be about others aspects that personality's traits.



Therefore, further to these reflections, we decided to measure again the value of descriptive (or valuatives) terms of others, but with a somewhat particular operationalization, so much for desirability as for the utility.

2. PROCEDURE

We have, in a previous study (Mazilescu and Gangloff, 2007), asked to 50 students to do 3 descriptions: of oneself, of a sympathetic student, and of an unpleasant student. Some of these descriptions contained rather positive terms, others contained terms rather negative, and others terms rather neutral. We took here these terms while categorizing them and constructing, when they had not appeared spontaneously in the descriptions, the categories of inverse polarity (*cf.* in annexe 1 an illustration of this categorization). Thus, we built 112 categories of which 6 are neutral (age, gender, physical appearance, profession, first name and leisures) and 53 with double polarity⁴. And it is the value of each of these terms that we wanted to study.

The length of the questionnaire making delicate its application to only one population, we constituted 6 questionnaires (of 20 categories for the 5 firsts and 12 for the 6th: *cf.* annexe 2) that we distributed to 421 students (males and females) of varied disciplines, distributed in 6 groups, every student answering individually to the questionnaire. The distribution of these 6 questionnaires in these 6 groups is indicated in the table 1.

Table 1: *distribution of the questionnaires in the groups and distribution of the subjects according to their gender.*

Questionnaire 1 (20 terms)	40 men and 40 women
Questionnaire 2 (20 terms)	30 men and 30 women
Questionnaire 3 (20 terms)	39 men and 41 women
Questionnaire 4 (20 terms)	35 men and 35 women
Questionnaire 5 (20 terms)	29 men and 32 women
Questionnaire 6 (12 terms)	34 men and 36 women
Total: 112 terms	Total: 207 men and 214 women

Moreover, we wanted to examine not the value of each of the descriptive terms but the value of the information on these terms. As for the criterias of assessment of this value, it consisted to ask if the provided information was «pleasant, indifferent or unpleasant» (for the desirability) and «useful, without interest or embarrassing» (for the utility). Thus, the order was the following one:

«In the following questionnaire, you have to imagine that you are going to be put soon in contact with a person that you don't know. You don't know either if it is about a boy or a girl, if you are going to meet this person in a professional, in a friendly or in another framework, etc. In fact, you only have one information on this person. And you have to indicate, on the one hand if this information is pleasant, indifferent or unpleasant for you (and then to explain why), and on the other hand if this information is useful, without interest, or if you prefer not to get it because it disturbs you too much (and then to explain why)» (a complete item example is given in annexe 3).

Finally, the choices of the subjects have been analyzed, on the one hand males and women together, and then separately. So we examined, for every item, the distribution of these

⁴ Let's specify that we had, in the basic study (Mazilescu and Gangloff, quoted *op.*), built 102 categories of which the 6 present neuters and 48 with a double polarity; we have, in the present study, split some of these last to succeed to 53 categories with a double polarity (hence the present total of 112 categories).

choices in the 3 proposed alternative answers referring to each of the two studied measurements (desirability and utility) and we calculated (by X^2) the possible unequal distribution of these choices in these alternatives.

3. RESULTS

The quantitative importance of the results makes impossible to present these results in their totality (this presentation is in the annexe 4). Therefore we will only to summarize here the main lines, first globally (men and women confounded), then according to the gender.

3.1. Men and women confounded

3.1.1. Analysis of the desirability and the utility in a detached way

First of all, concerning the desirability (table 2), and analysing the situations where one of the 3 categories (pleasant, indifferent, unpleasant) is alone chosen meaningfully in 1st position, one observes that the number of items splits up in a no meaningfully different way into each of the 3 categories, with 31 «pleasant» items, 28 «indifferent» and 21 «unpleasant». And if one does the same analysis but adding the cases of two chosen categories *ex æquo* in 1st position, only one meaningful difference appears: more items are said neutral than unpleasant.

Table 2: *distribution of the items in the 3 categories of desirability. In the first 3 columns are indicated the cases where one of the 3 categories appears alone in 1st position; the last 3 columns concern the situations where two categories are chosen in 1st position in an egalitarian manner while differentiating themselves meaningfully of the 3rd category.*

Case where one of the 3 categories is chosen alone in 1st position			Case where 2 categories are chosen in 1st position, being level		
Pleasant	Indifferent	Unpleasant	Pleasant	Indifferent	Unpleasant
31	28	21	45	51	30

It is also to note, on a qualitative plan, for the bipolar terms, that the «positive» aspect is often pleasant and its inverse unpleasant (for example, to know that one is going to meet a quiet or optimist person is said a pleasant information whereas the inverse information -to have to meet an excessive or pessimist person- is said an unpleasant information. However, the «negative» aspect can also lead to a neutral judgement. Thus, to know that one is going to be in contact with a competent or a stimulating person is said a pleasant information, but the inverse (to be in contact with someone who is little competent or little stimulating) doesn't lead to an unpleasant judgement but to indifference.

For the utility (table 3), and without taking into account the *ex æquo* in the 1st position, it is to note a bigger frequency of ordering in the «neutral» category than in the «embarrassing» category, result that we also find while adding the *ex æquo*, but then also with more positions in the «useful» category than in the «embarrassing» category.



Table 3: distribution of the items in the 3 categories of utility. In the first 3 columns are indicated the cases where one of the 3 categories appears alone in 1st position; the last 3 columns concern the situations where two categories are chosen in 1st position in an egalitarian way while differentiating themselves meaningfully of the 3rd category.

Case where one of the 3 categories is chosen alone in 1st position			Case where 2 categories are chosen, in 1st position, being level		
Useful	Without interest	embarrassing	Useful	Without interest	embarrassing
29	38	0	60	66	3

Still on the utilitarian plan, but on a qualitative plan, it is to note that a «negative» information can be as useful as a «positive» information. For example, to know that one is going to meet a selfish person is as useful as to know that one is going to be in contact with a selfless person.

3.1.2. Analysis of the relations between desirability and utility

If one now looks to the relations between the judgments of desirability and the judgments of utility (*cf.* table 4), one observes that the items classified in 1st position in the «pleasant» category are also classified in the 1st position in the «useful» category (so for example for the terms «sensitive», «optimistic», «intelligent», «competent», etc.); the only exception concerns the item «modest», which is said pleasant but with a neutral utility. One also notes that an «indifferent» desirability is often in relation with a «non interest» utility (for example for the items «little ambitious», «little competent»,...). And it is finally to note that an information can be very unpleasant while being useful (for example «selfish», «gossipy», «inquisitor», etc.).

Table 4: relations between the judgments of desirability and the judgments of utility.

	Useful	Without interest	embarrassing
Pleasant	19	1	
Indifferent		24	
Unpleasant	8		

3.2. Effect of the gender

On the 112 considered items, and while considering together the desirability and the utility, one notices that the men and the women formulate as many identical appreciations (62) as different appreciations (50).

Thus, considering the items being the object of identical judgments, one can mention «beautiful», «ugly», «poorly intelligent», «poorly ambitious», «tolerant», «frank», «optimistic», «pessimistic», etc. One notes for example that to know that one is going to meet a «frank», a «scrupulous» or an «optimistic» person is systematically considered a pleasant and useful information; that to know that one is going to meet a «little ambitious» or an «ugly» person lead to indifference, so much as regards to the desirability as to the utility,...

And for the items leading to differences, it is possible to mention, in regards to the desirability: to know that one is going to meet someone who is persistent, competent, or who likes to be surrounded with friends (the women consider these information as pleasant, whereas the men are shared between «pleasant» and «neutral»). In the same way, to know that the person one will meet lacks of sensitivity is an unpleasant information for the women whereas the men are shared between the unpleasant aspect and indifference. Contrarily, to know that one is going to meet someone that knew how to solve his problems is a pleasant information for the men, but pleasant or neutral for the women. And for the utility, the information of a meeting with someone dynamic or punctual is useful for the women, but as much useful as without interest for the men.

It is obvious that we are not able, either here, to be exhaustive. So we will finish this presentation by mentioning a last example, example that is about the gender of the person to meet. It appears that to meet a man is judged identically by the men and by the women (in a neutral manner, as well as regards to the desirability as to the utility), but on the other hand, to learn that one is going to meet a woman (information that leads again the women to a judgment of indifference on the two dimensions of the value) is an information that the men consider rather pleasant and rather useful..

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The procedure that we chose permits us to highlight a set of datas somewhat different from what one can read in the literature; different but complementary, as well considering each of the two dimensions of the value holds separately as considering their relations. Thus, one observes a more or less egalitarian distribution of the items in the three categories of desirability, and a propensity to more classifications in the neutral category with regards to the utility. One also notices that the men and the women do different assignments on the half of the items. And one finally notes that the relations between desirability and utility are not as anarchical as what says the literature, and that notably a pleasant item can, and in a very logical manner, to be bound as well to a strong utility as to its inverse.

Moreover, if one looks to the answers to the opened questions, that is to say the informations brought by our subjects to explain their classifications, many complementary lessons are gotten.

Thus, one notes that the assignments of desirability can be the consequence of various factors, notably:

- a desire to anticipate (or to not anticipate) the situation. Thus, to know that your interlocutor is not punctual is pleasant because «that will allow me to arrive some late minutes late», confess a subject. But one also can desire to avoid this anticipation and to consider the information provided as unpleasant, either to make oneself the discovery, either because this anticipation risks to be distressing. Thus, are said unpleasant the fact to know that one is going to meet someone who has «a lot of imagination» or someone «well educated» (because «I prefer to discover it», says a subject). In the same way, are judged unpleasant the information about «excessive» (because «I risk to be anxious before meeting him»), or about to meet someone who speaks «in a jerky way» («I would be afraid to make fun of him»). However, it is necessary to specify that the information of a «negative» treat is not necessarily distressing: to be informed of a meeting with a pretentious person is sometimes said pleasant (because «I can make him crack up»), and it is the same for a meeting with a dissembling person (because «the deceitful persons are my favorite preys and to push them too far is my hobby»). But sometimes this anticipatory faculty requires to take into account complementary criterias concerning the relevance of the provided information or the similarity with oneself (relevance and similarity which can be the consequence of the application of Implicit Personality Theories):

- the relevance of the information, relevance that can be inferred from the frequency of the treat. Thus, one only the unaccustomed informations will be considered as real informations, and therefore as regards to the desirability, the socially widespread treats will be considered in a neutral way (one recovers here the criteria of «specificity» mentioned by Jones and Davis, 1965, in their model of the inference of the correspondences). So, to know that one is going to meet someone talkative leads to indifference (because «he won't be the only one on earth», explains a subject), and it is the same for someone who has a well-ordered life (because «most people are like that»), someone who is «never envious» («because «that seems normal»), someone who is superficial («most people are like that», «everybody is more or less like that»), someone who

doesn't analyze people (because «it is like most people, I am accustomed»). But this relevance of the information can also depend on other information, as the objective of the meeting (for example, to know that one is going to be in contact with a lazy person is unpleasant « if I must work with him»), and as the absence of information on these information doesn't permit to determine this relevance, the assignment can be neutral (for example for «beautiful», if one doesn't know if it is a girl or a boy», explains a subject).

- an observation of similarity or dissimilarity with oneself. So, one can search for someone of similar to oneself: then, to know that our future interlocutor lives in a village can be said pleasant (because «I am myself of a village»), and conversely the information of a meeting with a pessimistic or uncommunicative person will be unpleasant (because «I don't have the same personality»). But on the contrary, one can also wish to be in contact with somebody very different from oneself: then, the information on a meeting with a shy person will be unpleasant (because «I also am shy, and I would prefer to meet my opposite»), or on a meeting with someone who has a strong personality or who is stubborn (because « he has the same character as mine, and there is a risk of conflict»). Let's add briefly here (we will come back there farther) that these appreciations also depend on the subject motivations, for example if one likes or doesn't like to debate: thus, a meeting with someone with whom it is easy to be okay can be unpleasant (because «if he always says yes, that risks to be boring»), and conversely to meet a person with whom it is difficult to be okay can be pleasant (because «one will be able to debate, each one will affirm his personality, his ideas»).

- an application of IPT (Implicit Personality Theories). For example, are said pleasant the fact to know that one is going to meet a beautiful person («because I imagine a good person»), someone who lives in a village (because «generally these people are less stressed» or because «most villagers are nice»), someone that communicates a lot (because «it is a dynamic person, who brings dynamism»). Inversely, it is unpleasant to know that one is going to meet an intolerant person (because « an intolerant person is often a stubborn person»).

In a more surprising way, the provided explanations sometimes refer to causal analysis. Thus, to know that one is going to meet an ugly person leads to indifference (because «it is not his/her fault»), as well as to know by advance the first name of one's future interlocutor (because «one doesn't choose one's first name «). However, it is possible to think that in such cases the subjects didn't respected the order of the work they had to do, and that they have judged the characteristic transmitted by the information more than this information.

Finally one can note that the two opposite poles of a same informational criteria can lead to identical assignments of desirability according to the motivations, resources and fears of the subjects. Thus, intelligent and not intelligent can be both pleasant information (because in the 1st case «the conversation will be rich» and in the 2nd «one can teach him some things») or both unpleasant informations (because in the 1st case «I am afraid not to be up to him» and in the 2nd «I could be scornful»); in the same way, to meet someone who has good taste or someone who has bad taste are both pleasant information (because in case of good taste «I will ask him for advice, for example for the choice of a gift», and because in case of bad taste «I know that I will not ask him for a choice»; or because in case of good taste «if he likes me well, it is that I am of good taste» and in case of bad taste «if he doesn't like me, I will know why»). In the same way, and last example, sensitive and insensible are unpleasant informations (because for sensitive «I wil have to make attention to everything that I will say» and for insensible «I would be afraid that he upsets me»).

In the same way, the assignments of utility of the provided informations can also be tributary of several criterias.

- Then, an information will be said useful if it serves to get ready to the meeting: so, one of our subjects puts each information in the useful category and explains «it is important to have

some informations on people to be ready to discuss with them, to know what it is to say, of what to discuss and what one can wait or hope from the other person». Thus, informations on the hobbies of the future interlocutor are useful (because «I know how to begin the conversation»), as well as to know that our future interlocutor has poor personality («to prepare me psychologically to an appointment that is going to be boring»), that he is insensible («to prepare me consequently»), that he is envious (because «I will know what to wait and I will anticipate»), that he rarely jokes («I will know what to wait, and it is reassuring»), that he is direct («I will not be surprised»), that he is not punctual (because «I will take my time»), that he is selfish (because «I will not waste my time to discuss with»), that he has little imagination (because «I will avoid to go to the appointment»), that he has a strong personality («I like to know how are people before speaking with them»), etc. But evidently it supposes the characteristic not to be detected easily by the subject at the time of the meeting: dissembling is useful because «we cannot see it while speaking with the person»; inversely, clothes-conscious has a neutral utility (because «we see it immediatly»), as well as «realistic» («I will discover it thereafter»), «superficial» («one can see it immediatly») or the first name («it is one of the first things that one knows about someone, I could have had this information very quickly by myself») or to speak in a jerky way (because «I will realize it quickly», explains a subject).

- However, it is necessary to note that in the case of a «negative», this preparation can be lived negatively and lead to prefer not to wish this information. So «little intelligent» or «selfish» are bothersome because «I risk not to want to meet him» (for little intelligent) or because «that doesn't give me the desire to meet him» (for egoist). It is the same for climber (because «I fear the appointment»), for pretentious («I will not have any pleasure to go to the appointment»), for excessive (because «I get ready to spend a bad moment»), for bad educated (because «I am going to have some prejudices»), for insensitive (because «I would have negative prejudices»).

- Independently of any preparation, the previous information also permits, at the time of the meeting, to know what to think facing an unexpected behavior of one's interlocutor and how to react. Thus, it is useful to be informed in advance of the pretentious character of the person we are going to meet (because «if I am warned, I will not be disappointed if is arrogant»); in the same way for a little punctual person («I will not be astonished to wait», or «that will prevent me from thinking that one stood me up»), for someone sensitive («to avoid to be tactless», «not to enter in hurtful topics», «to avoid to hurt him»), for someone who becomes integrated with difficulty («I will know why this person stays in the background», «not to ask me why he keeps out of things»), for someone who has little personality («it is useful to know that if he doesn't speak it is because he is shy and no because he is scornful or indifferent»), or for someone dissembling or who constantly analyzes people (because «I will be careful»). Inversely, the lack of information is sometimes preferred in order to avoid to adopt a particular behavior: thus, to know that someone constantly analyzes people is judged bothersome because «knowing it, I will not behave normally, naturally».

- Moreover, as for the desirability, the utility of information also depends on the relevance of this information, relevance which can be notably inferred of the frequency of the treat in the population (an information on a widespread treat doesn't bring anything). So, to know that one is going to meet someone who doesn't analyze people is an information without utility, because contrary to someone that constantly analyzes (which is a useful information), «it is like most people, it is not a specificity», and therefore it will not lead to the necessity of the adoption of a particular conduct («I will not be careful, therefore this knowledge is without interest»). And here again, as for the desirability, the relevance of the provided information can depend on the objective of the meeting: for example, the knowledge of the age of the person we are going to meet is or is not useful («it depends on the aim of the meeting»).



Let's also note, as for the desirability, that the two opposite poles of a same informational criteria can, according to the motivations of the subject, lead to identical assignments of utility: to know that the person that one is going to meet knew to solve his problems is useful, but to know that one is going to meet someone that didn't know how to solve them is also useful (in the 1st case «may be I will be able to help him», and in the 2nd «he will make me take advantage of his experience»).

Finally let's mention some answers that permit to understand some relations better between desirability and utility. For example, to know that someone is not punctual is useful because «I will take my time», and it is also pleasant because «that will allow me to arrive some minutes late». That is to say that to know that someone lacks punctuality is useful because it avoids to hurry, and to avoid to hurry is pleasant. Conversely, to be informed of the excessive character of someone is sometimes said bothersome because «I get ready to spend a bad moment» and it is also unpleasant because «I risk to be anxious before the meeting». Finally other answers are evidently about unpleasant but useful informations: thus, to know that one is going to meet a pessimistic person is unpleasant («this information would make me feeling uncomfortable») but useful because it would permit to anticipate the meeting («I will avoid to expose him my joy of life»).

To finish, let's recall that all these results have been gotten by a particular operationalization. We notably worked on the desirability and the utility of informations, and no on the characteristics transmitted in these information. We also have precisely make a contextualization of our questions. That is to say that it is delicate to compare our results to those coming from other procedures, and that these results must be seen more as complementary than as comparable.

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Annexe 1: example of description and retained terminologies

(description of a nice colleague by the subject n°1 and final terminologies with the addition of the descriptions, made by the other 49 subjects, of similar thematics)

Descriptions of the subject n°1	Final terminologies
Elle a 24 ans	Age
Elle est belle,	Beau/laid
Intelligente,	d'intelligent, de perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes/qui n'est pas intelligent, qui manque de perspicacité, qui ne sait pas du tout analyser les choses, qui dit rarement des choses intéressantes et pertinentes
Et ambitieuse parce qu'elle est institutrice et étudiante en même temps.	d'ambitieux, qui aime les défis et la compétition/qui n'est pas ambitieux, qui n'aime ni les défis ni la compétition
Elle déteste le mensonge et les personnes qui ne sont pas morales.	- qui ne tolère pas les défauts des autres/qui pardonne facilement les défauts des autres - de franc, de sincère, en qui on peut avoir confiance/de dissimulateur, qui manque de franchise, en qui on ne peut pas avoir confiance
Elle est une très bonne amie,	d'arriviste, qui est sans scrupules, capable de tout pour atteindre ses objectifs, qui manipule les gens, qui profite d'eux/de moralement scrupuleux, de loyal, qui ne manipule jamais les gens
Quand j'ai besoin d'elle, elle est près de moi	qui sait se comporter en ami (e), qui est toujours là quand on a besoin de lui, qui est capable/qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami (e), qui n'est jamais là quand on a besoin de lui, qui n'est pas capable

Annexe 2: the retained terminologies and their distribution in the 6 questionnaires

Questionnaire 1 (20 terms) in which are the age and the gender

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un de beau/est que c'est quelqu'un de laid 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un d'intelligent, de perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est pas intelligent, qui manque de perspicacité, qui ne sait pas du tout analyser les choses, qui dit rarement des choses intéressantes et pertinentes 5,6) est que c'est quelqu'un d'ambitieux, qui aime les défis et la compétition/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est pas ambitieux, qui n'aime ni les défis ni la compétition 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un qui



ne tolère pas les défauts des autres/est que c'est quelqu'un qui pardonne facilement les défauts des autres 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un de franc, de sincère, en qui on peut avoir confiance/est que c'est quelqu'un de dissimulateur, qui manque de franchise, en qui on ne peut pas avoir confiance 11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un qui est souvent ironique et sarcastique avec les autres/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est jamais ironique ou sarcastique avec autres 13,14) est que c'est quelqu'un de persévérant, consciencieux, qui va au bout de ce qu'il commence, d'exigeant, de perfectionniste/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est pas persévérant, pas consciencieux, qui va rarement au bout de ce qu'il commence, qui se contente de peu, de peu exigeant 15,16) est que c'est quelqu'un de timide, de discret, qui parle peu, que l'on ne remarque pas, qui n'aime pas attirer l'attention sur lui/est que c'est quelqu'un de très bavard, qui monopolise les discussions, qui n'est pas timide, que l'on remarque, qui aime attirer l'attention sur lui 17,18) est que c'est quelqu'un de paresseux, qui n'est pas travailleur/est que c'est quelqu'un de travailleur, qui n'est jamais paresseux 19) est son âge 20) est son milieu social.

Questionnaire 2 (20 terms) in which are the physical appearance and the profession

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un de bien élevé, qui dit toujours bonjour, qui parle toujours de manière convenable, sans jamais employer de mots d'argot ni dire de grossièretés/est que c'est quelqu'un de mal élevé, qui ne dit jamais bonjour, qui emploie beaucoup de mots d'argot, qui dit souvent des grossièretés 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un qui se confie facilement, qui parle facilement de lui, qui n'essaie de cacher ses sentiments ni ce qu'il ressent/est que c'est quelqu'un qui ne se confie jamais, qui ne dévoile jamais rien sur lui, qui essaie pas de cacher ses sentiments et ce qu'il ressent 5,6) est que c'est quelqu'un d'optimiste, qui a un tempérament gai, qui aime la vie et tente de profiter de toutes les joies et de tous les bonheurs qu'elle peut procurer/est que c'est quelqu'un de pessimiste, qui a un tempérament triste, avec beaucoup de principes, qui n'ose pas ou ne sait pas profiter de la vie 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un de coquet, toujours à la mode/est que c'est quelqu'un de pas du tout coquet, qui ne se préoccupe pas de suivre la mode 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un de calme, de tranquille, de pondéré, qui n'est jamais pressé, jamais impatient/est que c'est quelqu'un qui est excessif, agité, qui déteste perdre son temps, qui est toujours pressé, toujours impatient, qui déteste attendre 11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'a pas encore pu résoudre ses problèmes, qui n'a pas encore trouvé sa voie, qui a une image confuse de lui-même, qui manque de confiance en lui, qui n'est pas très autonome/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a su dépasser ses problèmes, qui a trouvé sa voie, qui a une image nette de lui-même, qui est autonome, responsable 13,14) est que c'est quelqu'un de très organisé/est que c'est quelqu'un de peu organisé 15,16) est que c'est quelqu'un de dynamique, qui va de l'avant, qui est toujours ouvert à la nouveauté, qui n'a peur de rien, qui sait toujours se débrouiller, qui s'adapte facilement/est que c'est quelqu'un qui manque de dynamisme, de courage, qui a peur de tout, qui n'arrive jamais à se débrouiller, qui s'adapte difficilement 17,18) est que c'est quelqu'un qui sait se comporter en ami (e), qui est toujours là quand on a besoin de lui, qui est fiable/est que c'est quelqu'un qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami (e), qui n'est jamais là quand on a besoin de lui, qui n'est pas fiable 19) est son apparence physique 20) est sa profession.

Questionnaire 3 (20 terms) in which are the first name and the hobbies

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un qui est né et qui habite dans un village/est que c'est quelqu'un qui est né et qui habite dans une grande ville 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un qui plaisante souvent, qui rit facilement aux plaisanteries des autres/est que c'est quelqu'un qui plaisante rarement, qui rit rarement 5,6) est que c'est quelqu'un qui adapte ses désirs à ses possibilités/est que c'est quelqu'un qui veut toujours tout, même l'impossible 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un de très communicatif, d'extraverti/est que c'est quelqu'un de peu communicatif, d'introverti 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est jamais ponctuel/est que c'est quelqu'un qui est toujours ponctuel



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un de prétentieux, d'arrogant, qui ne tolère pas la moindre plaisanterie sur lui/est que c'est quelqu'un de pas du tout prétentieux, qui sait se moquer de lui-même 13,14) est que c'est quelqu'un qui parle de manière très saccadée/est que c'est quelqu'un qui parle de manière très coulée, en liant bien les mots et les phrases 15,16) est que c'est quelqu'un qui mène une vie bien réglée/est que c'est quelqu'un qui mène une vie dissolue, superficielle 17,18) est que c'est quelqu'un avec qui il est facile d'être d'accord/est que c'est quelqu'un avec qui il est difficile d'être d'accord 19) est son prénom 20) porte sur ses loisirs et ses centres d'intérêt.

Questionnaire 4 (20 terms)

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a beaucoup d'imagination/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a peu d'imagination 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un de sensible/est que c'est quelqu'un d'insensible 5,6) est que c'est quelqu'un d'arriviste, qui est sans scrupules, capable de tout pour atteindre ses objectifs, qui manipule les gens, qui profite d'eux/est que c'est quelqu'un de moralement scrupuleux, de loyal, qui ne manipule jamais les gens 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a beaucoup de compétences/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a peu de compétences 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un qui fait facilement confiance/est que c'est quelqu'un qui fait difficilement confiance 11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un d'égoïste, d'individualiste, qui ne se soucie pas des autres, qui ne tient aucun compte des choix et des avis d'autrui/est que c'est quelqu'un d'altruiste, qui se soucie des autres, qui tient compte des choix et des avis des autres 13,14) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a bon goût/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a mauvais goût 15,16) est que c'est quelqu'un qui aime avoir des amis, qui n'aime pas la solitude/est que c'est quelqu'un que le manque d'amis ne dérange pas, qui aime la solitude 17,18) est que c'est quelqu'un de très envieux/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est jamais envieux des autres 19,20) est que c'est quelqu'un de direct, qui ne prend pas de gants pour dire les choses/est que c'est quelqu'un de diplomate, qui prend des gants pour dire les choses.

Questionnaire 5 (20 terms)

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un de stimulant/est que c'est quelqu'un de peu stimulant 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un de rêveur, d'idéaliste, qui a beaucoup d'illusions/est que c'est quelqu'un de réaliste 5,6) est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'accepte pas les étrangers ni les personnes différentes de lui, qui critique toujours les autres, qui semble n'apprécier personne/est que c'est quelqu'un qui accepte facilement les personnes différentes de lui, qui ne critique jamais les autres, qui semble apprécier tout le monde 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un qui donne de bons conseils/est que c'est quelqu'un qui ne sait pas conseiller les gens 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un qui veut toujours tout savoir, qui est inquisiteur, indiscret/est que c'est quelqu'un qui ne cherche pas toujours à tout savoir 11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un de têtu, qui change rarement d'opinion, qui ne tolère pas d'avoir tort/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est pas du tout têtu, qui accepte facilement de changer d'opinion, qui accepte d'avoir tort, qui reconnaît ses erreurs et ses défauts 13,14) est que c'est quelqu'un de profond, qui croit au spirituel/est que c'est quelqu'un de superficiel, de léger 15,16) est que c'est quelqu'un de fier, d'orgueilleux/est que c'est quelqu'un de modeste, qui n'est pas du tout orgueilleux 17,18) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a eu une enfance heureuse/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a eu une enfance malheureuse 19,20) est que c'est quelqu'un qui est cancanier, qui diffuse des ragots, qui ne sait pas tenir sa langue, qui ne sait pas garder un secret/est que c'est quelqu'un qui n'est pas du tout cancanier, qui ne diffuse pas de ragots, qui sait garder un secret.

Questionnaire 6 (12 terms)

1,2) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a une forte personnalité, qui a des idées bien à lui, qui arrive toujours à s'imposer/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a peu de personnalité, qui est effacé,



qui n'arrive pas à s'imposer, qui répète les opinions des autres 3,4) est que c'est quelqu'un qui s'intègre facilement/est que c'est quelqu'un qui s'intègre difficilement 5,6) est que c'est quelqu'un qui aime bien analyser les gens/est que c'est quelqu'un qui ne cherche pas à analyser les gens 7,8) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a un caractère standard, sans particularités, facile à comprendre/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a un caractère spécial, particulier, inhabituel, difficile à comprendre 9,10) est que c'est quelqu'un qui a beaucoup de défauts/est que c'est quelqu'un qui a peu de défauts 11,12) est que c'est quelqu'un de sexe masculin/est que c'est quelqu'un de sexe féminin.

Annexe 3: example of formulation of the questions

Question 1. Imagine that soon you are going to be in contact with someone you don't know, and that the only **information** that you have on this person is that this person is **beautiful**.

1.1. Is this information pleasant, **or** indifferent, **or** unpleasant?

- It is a **pleasant information**:
- This information **lets me indifferent**,
- It is an **unpleasant information**:

Why?.....

1.2. Is this information useful, **or** without interest, **or** bothersome (and then you would prefer not to have this information)?

- This **information is useful** and I am happy to have it:
- This information is **without interest** for me:
- I would prefer not to have this information because it **bothers me** too much:

Why?.....

Annexe 4: results by questionnaire

In each of the 6 carts of this annexe, A+, A° and A- correspond to the desirability and refer to «pleasant», «indifferent» and «unpleasant»; in the same way, for the utility, U+, U° and U- mean «useful», «without interest» and «bothersome». The results consigned in these tables correspond to the choices meaningfully coming in first (so A+ means that the «pleasant» answer is meaningfully preferred the two other alternatives; A+ and A° means that the «pleasant» and «indifferent» answers don't differentiate themselves but are meaningfully preferred compared with the «unpleasant» alternative).



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

	Men + Women		Men		Women	
	Agreeable-ness	Utility	Agreeable-ness	Utility	Agreeable-ness	Utility
Beautiful	A^+ et A°	U°	A^+ et A°	U°	A^+ et A°	U°
Ugly	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Intelligent ⁺	A^+	U^+	A^+	U^+ et U°	A^+	U^+
Intelligent ⁻	A° et A^-	$U^+=U^\circ=U^-$	A° et A^-	$U^+=U^\circ=U^-$	A° et A^-	$U^+=U^\circ=U^-$
Ambitious ⁺	$A^\circ=A^+, A^+=A^-, A^\circ>A^-$	U°	$A^\circ=A^+, A^+=A^-, A^\circ>A^-$	U°	$A^+=A^\circ=A^-$	$U^+=U^\circ=U^-$
Ambitious ⁻	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Intolerant	A^-	U^+ et U^-	A^-	$U^+=U^-, U^-=U^\circ, U^+>U^\circ$	A^-	U^+ et U^-
Tolerant	A^+	U^+ et U°	A^+	U^+ et U°	A^+	U^+ et U°
Frank	A^+	U^+	A^+	U^+	A^+	U^+
Dissembling	A^-	U^+	A^-	U^+	A^-	U^+
Ironic ⁺	A° et A^-	U°	A°	U^+ et U°	A° et A^-	U°
Ironic ⁻	A°	U°	A°	U°	A^+ et A°	U°
Persevering ⁺	A^+	U^+ et U°	A^+ et A°	U^+ et U°	A^+	U^+ et U°
Persevering ⁻	A° et A^-	U°	A° et A^-	U°	A° et A^-	U°
Shy ⁺	A°	U^+ et U°	A°	U^+ et U°	A°	$U^+=U^\circ, U^+=U^-, U^+>U^-$
Shy ⁻	A^-	U^+	A^-	U^+ et U°	A^-	$U^+=U^\circ, U^+=U^-, U^+>U^-$
Lazy ⁺	A° et A^-	U^+ et U°	A° et A^-	$U^\circ=U^+, U^+=U^-, U^\circ>U^-$	A° et A^-	U^+ et U°
Lazy ⁻	A^+ et A°	U^+ et U°	A^+ et A°	U^+ et U°	A^+ et A°	U^+ et U°
Age	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Background	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°

Results of the questionnaire n°1

	Men + Women		Men		Women	
	Agreeable-ness	Utility	Agreeable-ness	Utility	Agreeable-ness	Utility
Well educated	A^+	U^+ et U°	$A^+=A^\circ, A^\circ=A^-, A^+>A^-$	U^+ et U°	A^+	U^+ et U°
Ill-mannered	A^-	$U^+=U^\circ, U^\circ=U^-, U^+>U^-$	A^-	$U^+=U^\circ, U^\circ=U^-, U^+>U^-$	A^-	$U^+=U^\circ=U^-$
Concl de ⁺	A^+ et A°	U^+ et U°	$A^+=A^\circ=A^-$	U^+ et U°	A^+ et A°	U^+ et U°
Concl de ⁻	A°	U^+ et U°	A°	U^+ et U°	$A^\circ=A^-, A^-=A^+, A^\circ>A^+$	$U^\circ=U^+, U^+=U^-, U^\circ>U^-$
Optimistic	A^+	U^+	A^+	U^+	A^+	U^+
Pessimistic	A^-	$U^+=U^\circ=U^-$	A^-	$U^+=U^\circ=U^-$	A^-	$U^+=U^\circ=U^-$
Clothes-consc. ⁺	A^+ et A°	U°	$A^+=A^\circ, A^\circ=A^-, A^+>A^-$	U^+ et U°	A^+ et A°	U°
Clothes-consc. ⁻	A°	U°	$A^\circ=A^+, A^+=A^-, A^\circ>A^-$	U^+ et U°	A°	U°
Level-headed	A^+	U^+ et U°	A^+	U^+ et U°	$A^+=A^\circ, A^\circ=A^-, A^+>A^-$	U^+ et U°
Excessive	A^-	$U^+=U^\circ=U^-$	A^-	$U^+=U^\circ, U^\circ=U^-, U^+>U^-$	$A^-=A^+, A^+=A^\circ, A^\circ>A^+$	$U^+=U^\circ=U^-$
Didn't solve pb	$A^+=A^\circ=A^-$	U^+ et U°	$A^+=A^\circ=A^-$	$U^+=U^\circ, U^\circ=U^-, U^+>U^-$	$A^+=A^\circ=A^-$	$U^\circ=U^+, U^+=U^-, U^\circ>U^-$
Solved pb	A^+	U^+ et U°	A^+	U^+ et U°	A^+ et A°	U^+ et U°
Organized	$A^+=A^\circ, A^\circ=A^-, A^+>A^-$	U°	$A^+=A^\circ=A^-$	U^+ et U°	$A^+=A^\circ, A^\circ=A^-, A^+>A^-$	U°



Disorganized	A°	U°	A°	U+ et U°	A°	U°
Dynamic	A+	U+	A+	U+ et U°	A+	U+
Apathetic	A-	U+=U°=U-	A-	U+=U°=U-	A-	U+=U°=U-
Behav.of friend +	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+
Behav. of friend -	A-	U+=U°=U-	A-	U+=U-,U-= U°,U+>U-	A-	U+=U°=U-
Physical app.	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Profession	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°

Results of the questionnaire n°2

	Men + Women		Men		Women	
	Agreeable-ness	Utility	Agreeable-ness	Utility	Agreeable-ness	Utility
Village	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
City	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Jokes +	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+
Jokes -	A-	U+	A-	U+	A-	U+=U-,U-= U°,U+>U°
Adapted de-sires	A+ et A°	U+ et U°	A+ et A°	U+ et U°	A+ et A°	U+ et U°
Inadapt.desires	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°
Communica-tive +	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+
Communica-tive -	A° et A-	U+ et U°	A° et A-	U°=U+,U+= U-,U°>U-	A° et A-	U+=U°,U°= U-,U+>U-
Punctual -	A-	U+	A-	U+	A-	U+
Punctual +	A+	U+	A+	U+ et U°	A+	U+
Pretentious +	A-	U+ et U-	A-	U+=U-,U-= U°,U+>U°	A-	U+ et U-
Pretentious -	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+
Speaks jerky	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Speaks □ owing	A+ et A°	U°	A+ et A°	U°	A+ et A°	U°
Quite life	A°	U°	A°=A-,A°= A+,A°>A+	U°	A+ et A°	U°
Dissolute life	A°	U°	A°	U°=U+,U+= U-,U°>U-	A° et A-	U°
Agreement easy	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°
Agreement diff.	A°=A+,A°= A°,A°>A°	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+ et U°	A+=A°=A-	U+=U°=U-
First name	A°	U°	A°	U+ et U°	A+ et A°	U°
Hobbies	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+

Results of the questionnaire n°3

	Men + Women		Men		Women	
	Agreeable-ness	Utility	Agreeable-ness	Utility	Agreeable-ness	Utility
Imagination +	A+ et A°	U+ et U°	A+ et A°	U+ et U°	A+ et A°	U+ et U°
Imagination -	A°	U°	A°	U°	A°	U°
Sensitive +	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+
Sensitive -	A° et A-	U+=U°=U-	A° et A-	U+=U°=U-	A-	U+=U°=U-
Climber	A-	U+	A-	U+	A-	U+
Scrupulous	A+	U+	A+	U+	A+	U+



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Competent +	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]
Competent -	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°] =U ⁺ , U ⁺ = U ⁻ , U [°] >U ⁻	A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]
Trusting +	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] =A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]
Trusting -	A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°] =A ⁻ , A ⁻ = A ⁺ , A [°] >A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] =A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]
Selfish	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺
Altruistic	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺
Good taste	A ⁺ et A [°]	U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°]	U [°]
Bad taste	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]
Lots of friends	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]
Solitary	A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°]	U [°] =U ⁺ , U ⁺ = U ⁻ , U [°] >U ⁻
Envious +	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻
Envious -	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] , A [°] = A ⁻ , A ⁺ >A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]
Direct +	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺ =A ⁻ , A ⁻ = A [°] , A ⁺ >A [°]	U ⁺
Direct -	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]

Results of the questionnaire n°4

	Men + Women		Men		Women	
	Agreeable- ness	Utility	Agreeable- ness	Utility	Agreeable- ness	Utility
Stimulating +	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]
Stimulating -	A [°]	U [°]	A [°] =A ⁻ , A ⁻ = A ⁺ , A [°] >A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°] et A ⁻	U [°]
Dreamy	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]
Realistic	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]
Xenophobic	A ⁻	U ⁺ et U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U ⁻ , U ⁻ = U [°] , U ⁺ >U [°]	A ⁻	U ⁺ et U ⁻
Xenophile	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]
Good advices	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ =U [°] , U [°] = U ⁻ , U ⁺ >U ⁻
Bad advices	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°]	U [°]
Inquisitive	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻
Discreet	A ⁺ et A [°]	U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] , A [°] = A ⁻ , A ⁺ >A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U [°]
Stubborn +	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] , U [°] = U ⁻ , U ⁺ >U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻	A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻
Stubborn -	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]
Profound	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]	A [°]	U [°]
Superficial	A [°] et A ⁻	U [°]	A ⁺ =A [°] =A ⁻	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°] et A ⁻	U [°]
Proud	A ⁻	U [°] =U ⁺ , U ⁺ = U ⁻ , U [°] >U ⁻	A ⁻ =A [°] , A [°] = A ⁺ , A ⁻ >A ⁺	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻	A ⁻ =A [°] , A [°] = A ⁺ , A ⁻ >A ⁺	U [°]
Modest	A ⁺	U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]
Happy childhood	A [°]	U [°]	A ⁺ et A [°]	U ⁺ et U [°]	A [°]	U [°]
Unhap. Childhood	A ⁻ =A [°] , A [°] = A ⁺ , A ⁻ >A ⁺	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻	A ⁺ =A [°] =A ⁻	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻	A ⁻ =A [°] , A [°] = A ⁺ , A ⁻ >A ⁺	U ⁺ =U [°] =U ⁻
Gossipy +	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺	A ⁻	U ⁺
Gossipy -	A ⁺	U ⁺	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]	A ⁺	U ⁺ et U [°]

Results of the questionnaire n°5



	Men + Women		Men		Women	
	Agreeable-ness	Utility	Agreeable-ness	Utility	Agreeable-ness	Utility
Personality +	$A^+=A^0=A^-$	U^+	$A^+=A^0=A^-$	$U^+=U^0, U^0=U^-, U^+>U^-$	$A^+=A^0=A^-$	U^+
Personality -	A^0 et A^-	$U^+=U^0, U^0=U^-, U^+>U^-$	$A^-=A^0, A^0=A^+, A^->A^+$	$U^+=U^0=U^-$	$A^-=A^0, A^0=A^+, A^->A^+$	U^+ et U^0
integrated +	A^+	U^+	A^+	U^+	A^+	U^+ et U^0
integrated -	$A^+=A^0=A^-$	U^+	$A^+=A^0=A^-$	$U^+=U^0, U^0=U^-, U^+>U^-$	$A^+=A^0=A^-$	U^+
Analyses +	A^-	$U^+=U^0=U^-$	A^-	$U^+=U^0=U^-$	A^-	$U^+=U^0=U^-$
Analyses -	A^+ et A^0	U^+ et U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^+ et U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^+ et U^0
Standard charac.	A^+ et A^0	U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^+ et U^0
Spécial charac.	A^-	$U^+=U^-, U^-=U^0, U^+>U^0$	A^-	$U^+=U^0=U^-$	$A^-=A^0, A^0=A^+, A^->A^+$	$U^+=U^0=U^-$
Faults +	A^0 et A^-	U^0	A^0 et A^-	$U^+=U^0=U^-$	A^0 et A^-	U^0
Faults -	A^+ et A^0	U^0	$A^+=A^0=A^-$	U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^0
Man	A^0	U^0	A^0	U^0	A^0	U^0
Woman	A^0	U^0	A^+ et A^0	U^+ et U^0	A^0	U^0

Results of the questionnaire n°6

QUAND LA PSYCHOLOGIE DES TRAITS PRÉSERVE L'ORDRE SOCIAL: UNE MISE À L'ÉPREUVE DE LA THÉORIE DU BIG FIVE VIA LA THÉORIE DU CUBE ATTRIBUTIONNEL DE KELLEY

Bernard dit Popeye le Ladero GANGLOFF¹ et Daniel PASQUIER²

¹Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et Département de Postgraduation en Gestion à l'Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

²Avenir et Entreprise, et Laboratoire PRIS de l'Université de Rouen (France).

dpasquier@avenirentreprise.fr

RÉSUMÉ.

Les psychologues caractérisent souvent les individus par des traits de personnalité. C'est-à-dire qu'ils observent des comportements puis, de cette observation, ils infèrent des traits de personnalité qu'ils attribuent aux individus. Ils en infèrent plus précisément cinq traits de personnalité, puisqu'actuellement le modèle des traits le plus utilisé est le modèle en cinq facteurs (le Big Five), modèle hypothétisant que la personnalité peut être caractérisée par cinq dimensions.

Il convient cependant de se demander si l'accent ainsi mis sur l'acteur ne constitue pas une accentuation illégitime. Kelley (1967) a ainsi considéré que le comportement d'un individu peut être attribué certes à la personne, mais aussi parfois aux stimuli ou aux circonstances si l'on disposait d'informations complémentaires ayant trait à la distinctivité, à la consistance et au consensus quant au comportement observé. Et Mc Arthur (1972) a vérifié expérimentalement cette hypothèse.

Nous avons voulu ici mettre en rapport la théorie du Big Five et celle de Kelley. C'est-à-dire que nous avons voulu savoir si l'observation de comportements référant aux dimensions du Big Five conduisait systématiquement à l'attribution de traits ou si cette observation ne conduisait pas aussi parfois à des attributions aux stimuli ou aux circonstances, et ce que l'on possède, ou non, des informations complémentaires de distinctivité, consistance et consensus. Et nous avons également, comme aspect secondaire, souhaité savoir si ces attributions variaient selon le pôle (positif ou négatif) de la dimension comportementale considérée.

Après une présentation de la méthode utilisée, nous montrerons que les principaux résultats obtenus vont bien dans le sens de notre hypothèse.

Mots clés: attribution, big five, psychologisation.

ABSTRACT

Psychologists often characterize the individuals by personality traits. That is to say that they observe some behaviors, and from this observation they infer some of personality traits that they attribute to these individuals. More precisely, they infer five personality traits, since currently the most used personality traits model is the five factors model (the Big Five), model that assumes that personality can be characterized by five dimensions.

We however wondered if the accent on the actor doesn't constitute an illegitimate accentuation. For instance, Kelley (1967) considered that the behavior of an individual can certainly be attributed to the person, but also sometimes to the stimulus or to the circumstances if we have complementary information of distinctivity, consistency and consensus concerning the observed behavior. And Mc Arthur (1972) verified experimentally this hypothesis.

We wanted here to put the Big Five theory in touch with the one of Kelley. That is to say to say that we wanted to know if the observation of behaviors referring to the Big Five dimensions drove systematically to attribution of personality traits or if this observation could not sometimes drive to attributions to the stimuli or to the circumstances, either one possesses or not complementary informations of distinctivity, consistency and consensus. And we also have, as secondary aspect, wished to know if these attributions varied according to the pole (positive or negative) of the considered behavioral dimension.

After a presentation of the method, we will show that the main obtained results go well with our hypothesis.

Key words: attribution, big five, psychologization.

INTRODUCTION

Les psychologues caractérisent souvent les individus par des traits de personnalité. C'est-à-dire qu'ils observent des comportements puis, de cette observation (directe ou à partir des réponses fournies à des questionnaires autodescriptifs), ils en infèrent des traits de personnalité qu'ils attribuent aux individus. Ils en infèrent plus précisément cinq traits de personnalité, puisqu'actuellement le modèle des traits le plus utilisé est le modèle en cinq facteurs (le Big Five)¹, modèle hypothétisant que la personnalité peut être caractérisée par cinq dimensions: extraversion, amabilité, caractère consciencieux, stabilité émotionnelle et ouverture d'esprit. Une telle posture idéologique se concrétise donc par un accent mis sur le poids de l'acteur dans l'adoption de ses conduites, ce au détriment de la prise en compte de tout facteur environnemental. Cet accent sur le poids de l'acteur (et corollairement cette absence de prise en compte des facteurs environnementaux) permet de responsabiliser l'individu (corollairement de déresponsabiliser l'environnement, notamment social) et donc de légitimer une préservation de l'environnement de toute velléité de remise en cause en réservant toutes sanctions au seul acteur: puisque l'environnement n'intervient en rien dans l'adoption des conduites de l'individu, puisque l'individu est seul responsable de ses actes, il ne servirait à rien de transformer l'environnement et l'individu doit seul subir les conséquences de ses actes.

Il convient cependant de se demander si l'accent ainsi mis sur l'acteur ne constitue pas une accentuation illégitime (ne constitue pas ce qu'au 19^{ème} siècle Nietzsche, éd.1968, puis plus récemment Ross en 1977, ont appelé une «erreur fondamentale»). Kelley (1967) a ainsi considéré que le comportement d'un individu peut être attribué certes à la personne, mais aussi parfois aux stimuli ou aux circonstances si l'on disposait d'informations complémentaires ayant trait à la distinctivité, à la consistance et au consensus quant au comportement observé². Et Mc Arthur (1972) a vérifié expérimentalement cette hypothèse en montrant qu'on obtenait une attribution à la personne en associant distinctivité faible, consensus faible et consistance forte; qu'on obtenait une attribution au stimulus par l'association de distinctivité forte, consensus fort et consistance forte; et qu'on aboutissait à une attribution aux circonstances lorsque l'on associait distinctivité forte et consistance faible (le consensus n'intervenant pas pour cette attribution).

Nous avons voulu ici mettre en rapport la théorie du Big Five et celle de Kelley. C'est-à-dire que nous avons voulu savoir si l'observation de comportements référant aux dimensions du Big Five conduisait systématiquement à l'attribution de traits ou si cette observation ne conduisait pas aussi parfois à des attributions aux stimuli ou aux circonstances, et ce que l'on possède, ou non, des informations complémentaires de distinctivité, consistance et consensus. Et nous avons également, comme aspect secondaire, souhaité savoir si ces attributions variaient selon le pôle (positif ou négatif) de la dimension comportementale considérée³.

MÉTHODE

Nous avons procédé par questionnaire, avec globalement 40 items (*cf.* annexes 1 et 2), chacun mettant en scène le comportement d'un individu nommé Paul, chaque comportement

¹ *cf.* par exemple, en témoignage de l'acceptation quasi-consensuelle de ce modèle: Caprara *et al.* (1997, p13), Rolland (1994, p65), ou encore (cités par Pervin, 1994, p103) Digman (1990, p436), Widiger (1993, p82), etc.

² La distinctivité concerne la variation des réactions de l'acteur à des stimuli équivalents, la consistance renvoie d'une part à la consistance dans le temps et d'autre part à la consistance malgré la variation du contexte dans lequel l'acteur est en contact avec le stimulus, et le consensus réfère à l'identité des conduites réactives de différents acteurs.

³ C'est-à-dire réalise-t-on les mêmes attributions si, sur la dimension "amabilité" par exemple, l'acteur adopte un comportement aimable ou non aimable.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

pouvant être rapporté à l'une des cinq dimensions du Big Five⁴. Par exemple, pour la dimension «amabilité», les deux items suivants étaient utilisés: «*Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre agréable*» (item renvoyant à la dimension «amabilité», formulé de manière positive) et «*avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre désagréable*» (item renvoyant à la dimension «amabilité», formulé de manière négative).

Ce questionnaire global était constitué de deux parties, avec respectivement 10 et 30 items. Dans la première partie, chacun des 10 items (soit deux items pour chacune des cinq dimensions du Big Five: un item formulé de manière positive et un de manière négative)⁵ était présenté sans aucune information complémentaire; la seconde partie reprenait les 10 items de la première partie mais ajoutait à chaque fois des informations montrant le consensus, la distinctivité et la consistance de la conduite, soit, pour chaque conduite, trois modalités d'assemblage de ces informations (donc un total de 30 items dans cette seconde partie): la première modalité (consensus faible, distinctivité faible, consistance forte) devait (selon Kelley, 1967) conduire à une attribution à la personne, la deuxième modalité (distinctivité forte, consistance faible) devait (selon Kelley) conduire à une attribution aux circonstances, et la troisième (consensus fort, distinctivité forte, consistance forte) devait aboutir (toujours selon Kelley) à une attribution au stimulus.

Par exemple, dans la dimension «amabilité» formulée de manière positive («*avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre agréable*»), nous avons, pour obtenir une attribution à la personne, associé distinctivité faible, consensus faible et consistance forte. Cela se traduit par les trois informations complémentaires suivantes (item P5 de la deuxième partie): «*Paul se montre agréable avec tout le monde*» (distinctivité faible); «*en général, les gens ne se montrent pas agréables avec les membres de leur famille*» (consensus faible); «*dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré agréable avec les membres de sa famille*» (consistance forte).

Toujours dans la dimension «amabilité» formulée de manière positive, nous avons, pour obtenir une attribution au stimulus, associé distinctivité forte, consensus fort et consistance forte. Cela se traduit, par les trois informations suivantes (item S5 de la deuxième partie): «*Paul ne se montre agréable qu'avec les membres de sa famille*» (distinctivité forte); «*en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi agréables avec les membres de leur famille*» (consensus fort); «*dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré agréable avec les membres de sa famille*» (consistance forte).

Enfin, toujours dans la dimension «amabilité» formulée de manière positive, nous avons, pour obtenir une attribution aux circonstances, associé distinctivité forte et consistance faible (le consensus n'intervenant pas, d'après les résultats de Mc Arthur, 1972, pour cette attribution). Cela se traduit, par les trois informations suivantes (item C5 de la deuxième partie): «*Paul ne se montre agréable qu'avec les membres de sa famille*» (distinctivité forte); «*dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré agréable avec les membres de sa famille*» (consistance faible).

A la suite de chacun des 40 items, le sujet devait cocher une proposition parmi trois. Par exemple, pour la dimension «amabilité» formulée de manière positive (soit un item dans

⁴ La correspondance entre ces items et les 5 dimensions du Big Five a été réalisée (Pasquier, 2006), mais ce travail n'a pas encore été publié.

⁵ Nous avons déjà signalé antérieurement (Gangloff, 2000, p23) qu'il était bien délicat de tenter de fixer le nombre d'items nécessaire à la mesure de toute dimension personnalologique: soit les conduites personnalologiques sont, suivant la théorie différentialiste, indépendantes de tout contexte (et dans ce cas un seul item par dimension est suffisant), soit ces conduites varient selon le contexte, et il est alors illusoire de prétendre pouvoir reconstituer l'ensemble des contextes possibles. Mettant ici en quelque sorte à l'épreuve la théorie personnalologique, nous avons choisi d'appliquer ses présupposés en ne construisant qu'un item par dimension (item doublé pour présenter une version positive et une version négative).



la première partie et trois items dans la deuxième), les trois propositions suivantes étaient indiquées, correspondant respectivement à une attribution à la personne (proposition A), au stimulus (proposition B) et aux circonstances (proposition C):

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer agréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre agréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer agréable.

Afin de diminuer la longueur du questionnaire et d'éviter que les sujets se voient proposer, pour chaque dimension, les deux formulations opposées utilisées (la positive et la négative), nous avons scindé le questionnaire global en plusieurs sous-questionnaires, chaque sujet n'ayant ainsi eu à répondre qu'à un nombre limité d'items. Ainsi la première partie fut scindée en deux sous-parties (sous-parties 1a et 1b) et la deuxième partie en trois sous-parties (sous-parties 2a, 2b et 2c). Le tableau suivant indique la répartition des items dans chacune de ces sous-parties (chacune de ces sous-parties présentant une fois chacune des cinq dimensions du Big Five) :

Tableau 1: répartition des items dans les 5 sous-parties du questionnaire global

Sous-partie 1a	items 1, 3, 6, 7, 10
Sous-partie 1b	items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9
Sous-partie 2a	items S1, C6, P9, S10, P8, C3, P2, S4, P5, S7
Sous-partie 2b	items P1, S8, C5, C7, S2, P3, C9, P4, S6, P10
Sous-partie 2c	items C1, C10, P6, S3, S5, C2, C4, C8, S9, P7

Six sous-questionnaires ont été élaborés et distribués aléatoirement en amphithéâtre, aboutissant à six groupes de sujets (étudiants et étudiantes inscrits en 1^{ère} année de psychologie), chacun répondant à une combinaison spécifique d'une sous-partie 1 et d'une sous-partie 2 (soit un total de 15 questions par sujet, questions réparties sur 3 pages avec, sur la 1^{ère} page, uniquement 5 questions sans informations, et sur les 2 pages suivantes 10 questions avec informations). Cette répartition figure au tableau suivant:

Tableau 2: affectation des sous-parties aux 6 groupes de sujets (ainsi, par exemple, les sujets du groupe G1 ont répondu aux sous-parties 1a et 2a).

	Sous-partie 2a	Sous-partie 2b	Sous-partie 2c	
Sous-partie 1a	G1 (N=39)	G3 (N=35)	G5 (N=31)	N=105
Sous-partie 1b	G2 (N=39)	G4 (N=7)	G6 (N=1)	N=47
	N=78	N=42	N=32	N=152

Nous avons ensuite, pour effectuer l'analyse des résultats, regroupé les réponses obtenues aux sous-parties 1a et 1b d'une part, et celles obtenues aux sous-parties 2a, 2b et 2c d'autre part.

RÉSULTATS

1.1. Réponses à la sous-partie 1

Tableau 3: réponses obtenues dans la situation «aucune information fournie» (sous-partie 1 du questionnaire global). Dans la dernière colonne sont notés soit S (lorsque les différences sont significatives, soit $p < 0,05$), soit NS (en cas de différences non significatives)

Dimensions et effectifs des répondants		Résultats			Comparaisons, X^2 et p
		Attrib. Personne	Attrib. Stimuli	Attrib. Circonst.	
Largeur d'esprit	Formulation positive (N=104, 1 non rép.)	37	41	26	37/41, $X^2=0,21$; NS 37/26, $X^2=1,92$; NS 41/26, $X^2=3,36$; NS (p.06)
	Formulation négative (N=47)	13	13	21	13/13, $X^2=0$; NS 13/21, $X^2=1,88$; NS 13/21, $X^2=1,88$; NS
	Total (N=151)	50	54	47	50/54, $X^2=0,15$; NS 50/47, $X^2=0,09$; NS 54/47, $X^2=0,49$; NS
Méticulosité	Formulation positive (N=103, 2 non rép.)	19	57	27	19/57, $X^2=19$; S 19/27, $X^2=1,39$; NS 57/27, $X^2=10,71$; S
	Formulation négative (N=47)	6	28	13	6/28, $X^2=14,24$; S 6/13, $X^2=2,58$; NS 28/13, $X^2=2,78$; NS
	Total (N=150)	25	85	40	25/85, $X^2=32,73$; S 25/40, $X^2=3,46$; NS (p.06) 85/40, $X^2=16,20$; S
Amabilité	Formulation positive (N=47)	10	22	15	10/22, $X^2=4,50$; S 10/15, $X^2=1$; NS 22/15, $X^2=1,32$; NS
	Formulation Négative (N=105)	4	44	57	4/44, $X^2=33,33$; S 4/57, $X^2=46,05$; S 44/57, $X^2=1,67$; NS
	Total (N=152)	14	66	72	14/66, $X^2=33,80$; S 14/72, $X^2=39,12$; S 66/72, $X^2=0,75$; NS
Extraversion	Formulation positive (N=105)	46	40	19	46/40, $X^2=0,42$; NS 46/19, $X^2=11,22$; S 40/19, $X^2=7,47$; S
	Formulation négative (N=47)	13	22	12	13/22, $X^2=2,31$; NS 13/12, $X^2=0,04$; NS 22/12, $X^2=2,94$; NS (p.08)
	Total (N=152)	59	62	31	59/62, $X^2=0,07$; NS 59/31, $X^2=8,71$; S 62/31, $X^2=10,33$; S
Stabilité Emotionnelle	Formulation positive (N=47)	31	5	11	31/5, $X^2=18,78$; S 31/11, $X^2=9,52$; S 5/11, $X^2=2,25$; NS
	Formulation négative (N=105)	35	47	23	35/47, $X^2=1,76$; NS 35/23, $X^2=2,48$; NS 47/23, $X^2=8,23$; S
	Total (N=152)	66	52	34	66/52, $X^2=1,66$; NS 66/34, $X^2=10,24$; S 52/34, $X^2=3,77$; NS (p.05)



Total formulations positives (N=406)		143	165	98	143/165, $X^2=1,57$; NS
					143/98, $X^2=8,40$; S
					165/98, $X^2=17,07$; S
Total formulations négatives (N=351)		71	154	126	71/154, $X^2=30,62$; S
					71/126, $X^2=15,36$; S
					154/126, $X^2=2,80$; NS (p.09)
Total général (N=757)		214	319	224	214/319, $X^2=20,68$; S
					214/224, $X^2=0,23$; NS
					319/224, $X^2=16,62$; S

La lecture du tableau 3 nous montre que les attributions à la personne sont minoritaires, ce qui signifie que l'accentuation du poids de l'acteur est beaucoup moins fréquente que ce que nous enseigne la littérature.

Toutes dimensions confondues, que l'on associe les formulations positives aux négatives ou que l'on examine ces formulations séparément (*cf.* les 3 dernières lignes), on observe en effet que les attributions au stimulus arrivent systématiquement en tête (et ce en se différenciant significativement des attributions à la personne dans 2 cas sur 3).

Et si l'on examine les 5 dimensions une à une en séparant formulations positives et négatives (soit 10 situations), on remarque que les attributions à la personne n'arrivent en tête en se différenciant des 2 autres types d'attributions qu'une seule fois, dans la dimension stabilité émotionnelle formulée positivement.

1.2. Réponses à la sous-partie 2

Tableau 4: réponses obtenues dans la situation «informations fournies» (sous-partie 2 du questionnaire global), par dimension formulée positivement. Par exemple, pour la dimension «largeur d'esprit», quand Kelley fait l'hypothèse d'une attribution à la personne, nous obtenons 40 attributions à la personne (P), aucune aux stimuli (S) et 1 aux circonstances (C). N.B.: une non réponse a été observée (pour la dimension «largeur d'esprit»). Dans la dernière colonne sont notés soit S (lorsque les différences sont significatives, soit $p < 0,05$), soit NS (en cas de différences non significatives).

Dimensions	Hypo de Kelley et effectifs des répondants	Résultats			Comparaisons, X^2 et p
		Attrib. à la Personne	Attrib. aux Stimuli	Attrib. aux Circonst.	
Largeur d'esprit	P (N=41)	40	0	1	40/0, $X^2=40$; S
					40/1, $X^2= 37,10$; S
					0/1, $X^2= 1$; NS
	S (N=32)	4	26	2	4/26, $X^2= 16,13$; S
					4/2, $X^2=0,67$; NS
					26/2, $X^2= 20,57$; S
	C (N=78)	3	39	36	3/39, $X^2=30,86$; S
					3/36, $X^2=27,92$; S
					39/36, $X^2=0,12$; NS
	Total (N=151)	47	65	39	47/65, $X^2=2,89$; NS (p.08)
					47/39, $X^2=0,74$; NS
					65/39, $X^2= 6,50$; S



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Méticulosité	P (N=42)	39	2	1	39/2, X²=33,39 ; S
					39/1, X²=36,10 ; S
					2/1, X ² =0,33 ; NS
	S (N=78)	5	66	7	5/66, X²=52,41 ; S
					5/7, X ² =0,33 ; NS
					66/7, X²=47,68 ; S
	C (N=32)	0	11	21	0/11, X²=11 ; S
					0/21, X²=21 ; S
					11/21, X ² =3,13 ; NS (p.07)
	Total (N=152)	44	79	29	44/79, X²=9,96 ; S
					44/29, X ² =3,08 ; NS (p.07)
					79/29, X²=23,15 ; S
Amabilité	P (N=78)	66	8	4	66/8, X²=45,46 ; S
					66/4, X²=54,91 ; S
					8/4, X ² =1,33 ; NS
	S (N=32)	12	15	5	12/15, X ² =0,33 ; NS
					12/5, X ² =2,88 ; NS (p.08)
					15/5, X²=5 ; S
	C (N=42)	1	12	29	1/12, X²=9,31 ; S
					1/29, X²=26,13 ; S
					12/29, X²=7,05 ; S
	Total (N=152)	79	35	38	79/35, X²=16,98 ; S
					79/38, X²=14,37 ; S
					35/38, X ² =0,12 ; NS
Extraversion	P (N=32)	26	2	4	26/2, X²=20,57 ; S
					26/4, X²=16,13 ; S
					2/4, X ² =0,67 ; NS
	S (N=78)	22	46	10	22/46, X²=8,47 ; S
					22/10, X²=4,50 ; S
					46/10, X²=23,14 ; S
	C (N=42)	2	7	33	2/7, X ² =2,78 ; NS (p.09)
					2/33, X²=27,46 ; S
					7/33, X²=16,90 ; S
	Total (N=152)	50	55	47	50/55, X ² =0,24 ; NS
					50/47, X ² =0,09 ; NS
					55/47, X ² =0,63 ; NS
Stabilité émotionnelle	P (N=78)	72	3	3	72/3, X²=63,48 ; S
					72/3, X²=63,48 ; S
					3/3, X ² =0 ; NS
	S (N=32)	13	16	3	13/16, X ² =0,31 ; NS
					13/3, X²=6,25 ; S
					16/3, X²=8,89 ; S
	C (N=42)	2	7	33	2/7, X ² =2,78 ; NS (p.09)
					2/33, X²=27,46 ; S
					7/33, X²=16,90 ; S
	Total (N=152)	87	26	39	87/26, X²=32,93 ; S
					87/39, X²=18,29 ; S
					26/39, X ² =2,60 ; NS



Total formulations positives	P (N=271)	243	15	13	243/15, $X^2=201,49$; S
					243/13, $X^2=206,64$; S
					15/13, $X^2=0,14$; NS
	S (N=252)	56	169	27	56/169, $X^2=56,75$; S
					56/27, $X^2=10,13$; S
					169/27, $X^2=102,88$; S
	C (N=236)	8	76	152	8/76, $X^2=55,05$; S
					8/152, $X^2=129,60$; S
					76/152, $X^2=25,33$; S
	Total (N=759)	307	260	192	307/260, $X^2=3,90$; S
					307/192, $X^2=26,50$; S
					260/192, $X^2=10,23$; S

La lecture du tableau 4, qui porte sur les 5 dimensions formulées positivement, nous montre que toutes nos hypothèses sont vérifiées : les informations censées conduire respectivement à des attributions à la personne, au stimulus et aux circonstances, aboutissent effectivement à ces attributions, même si dans 4 cas (sur les 18 examinés) on observe des classements *ex æquo* en 1^{ère} position (ainsi, pour les dimensions «largeur d'esprit» et «méticulosité», lorsque les informations fournies étaient censées conduire à des attributions aux circonstances, ces circonstances sont bien classées en tête, mais à égalité avec le stimulus ; de même, pour les dimensions «amabilité» et «stabilité émotionnelle», le stimulus est classé en tête lorsque les informations prévoyaient ce classement, mais alors à égalité avec l'attribution à la personne).

Tableau 5: réponses obtenues dans la situation «informations fournies» (sous-partie 2 du questionnaire global), par dimension formulée négativement. N.B.: deux non réponses ont été observées (pour la dimension «largeur d'esprit» et pour la dimension «amabilité»). Dans la dernière colonne sont notés soit S (lorsque les différences sont significatives, soit $p < 0,05$), soit NS (en cas de différences non significatives).

Dimensions	Hypo de Kelley et effectifs des répondants	Résultats			Comparaisons, X^2 et p
		Attrib. à la Personne	Attrib. aux Stimuli	Attrib. aux Circonst.	
Largeur d'esprit	P (N=42)	35	5	2	35/5, $X^2=22,50$; S
					35/2, $X^2=29,43$; S
					5/2, $X^2=1,29$; NS
	S (N= 77)	24	47	6	24/47, $X^2=7,45$; S
					24/6, $X^2=10,80$; S
					47/6, $X^2=31,72$; S
	C (N= 32)	1	7	24	1/7, $X^2=4,50$; S
					1/24, $X^2=21,16$; S
					7/24, $X^2=9,32$; S
	Total (N=151)	60	59	32	60/59, $X^2=0,01$; NS
					60/32, $X^2=8,52$; S
					59/32, $X^2=8,01$; S



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Méticulosité	P (N=78)	59	14	5	59/14, X²=24,74 ; S
					59/5, X²=45,56 ; S
					14/5, X²=4,26 ; S
	S (N=42)	6	34	2	6/34, X²=19,60 ; S
					6/2, X ² =2 ; NS
					34/2, X²=28,44 ; S
	C (N=32)	0	12	20	0/12, X²=12 ; S
					0/20, X²=20 ; S
					12/20, X ² =2 ; NS
	Total (N=152)	65	60	27	65/60, X ² =0,20 ; NS
					65/27, X²=15,70 ; S
					60/27, X²=12,52 ; S
Amabilité	P (N=32)	25	5	2	25/5, X²=13,33 ; S
					25/2, X²=19,59 ; S
					5/2, X ² =1,22; NS
	S (N= 42)	13	21	8	13/21, X ² =1,88 ; NS
					13/8, X ² =1,19 ; NS
					21/8, X²=5,83 ; S
	C (N=77)	2	8	67	2/8, X ² =3,60 ; NS (p.05)
					2/67, X²=61,23 ; S
					8/67, X²=46,41 ; S
	Total (N= 151)	40	34	77	40/34, X ² =0,49 ; NS
					40/77, X²=11,70 ; S
					34/77, X²=16,66 ; S
Extraversion	P (N=78)	66	8	4	66/8, X²=45,46 ; S
					66/4, X²=54,91 ; S
					8/4, X ² =1,33 ; NS
	S (N=42)	10	24	8	10/24, X ² =5,76 ; NS (p.05)
					10/8, X ² =0,22 ; NS
					24/8, X²=8 ; S
	C (N=32)	1	12	19	1/12, X²=9,31 ; S
					1/19, X²=16,20 ; S
					12/19, X ² =1,58 ; NS
	Total (N=152)	77	44	31	77/44, X²=9 ; S
					77/31, X²=19,59 ; S
					44/31, X ² =2,25 ; NS
Stabilité émotionnelle	P (N=42)	37	3	2	37/3, X²=28,90 ; S
					37/2, X²=31,41 ; S
					3/2, X ² =0,20 ; NS
	S (N=78)	25	48	5	25/48, X²=7,25 ; S
					25/5, X²=13,33 ; S
					48/5, X²=34,89 ; S
	C (N=32)	1	12	19	1/12, X²=9,31 ; S
					1/19, X²=16,20 ; S
					12/19, X ² =1,58 ; NS
	Total (N=152)	63	63	26	63/63, X ² =0 ; NS
					63/26, X²=15,38 ; S
					63/26, X²=15,38 ; S



Total formulations négatives	P (N=272)	222	35	15	222/35, $X^2=136,07$; S
					222/15, $X^2=180,80$; S
					35/15, $X^2=8$; S
	S (N=281)	78	174	29	78/174, $X^2=36,57$; S
					78/29, $X^2=22,44$; S
					174/29, $X^2=103,57$; S
	C (N= 205)	5	51	149	5/51, $X^2=37,79$; S
					5/149, $X^2=134,65$; S
					51/149, $X^2=48,02$; S
	Total (N=758)	305	260	193	305/260, $X^2=3,58$; NS (p.05)
					305/193, $X^2=25,19$; S
					260/193, $X^2=9,91$; S

Les données du tableau 5, qui renvoient aux 5 dimensions formulées négativement, aboutissent également à une confirmation systématique de nos hypothèses : les informations fournies censées provoquer des attributions à la personne, au stimulus et aux circonstances y conduisent bien, même si, comme pour les formulations positives du tableau 4, sont constatés 5 classements en 1^{er} rang qui sont des *ex aequo* (pour les dimensions «méticulosité», «extraversion» et «stabilité émotionnelle», les circonstances arrivent bien en 1^{ère} position quand cela était prévu, mais à égalité avec le stimulus ; de même, pour les dimensions «amabilité» et «extraversion», le stimulus arrive bien en tête lorsque les informations y prédisposent, mais à égalité avec l'attribution personologique).

Tableau 6: réponses obtenues dans la situation «informations fournies» (sous-partie 2 du questionnaire global), par dimension, formulations positives et négatives rassemblées. NB = trois non réponses ont été observées (2 dans la dimension «largeur d'esprit», et 1 dans la dimension «amabilité»), d'où un total général de 1517 réponses effectives au lieu des 1520 attendues (10 items pour chacun des 152 sujets). Dans la dernière colonne sont notés soit S (lorsque les différences sont significatives, soit $p < 0,05$), soit NS (en cas de différences non significatives).

Dimensions	Hypo de Kelley et effectifs des répondants	Résultats			Comparaisons, X^2 et p
		Attrib. à la Personne	Attrib. aux Stimuli	Attrib. Aux Circonst.	
Largeur d'esprit	P (N=83)	75	5	3	75/5, $X^2=61,25$; S
					75/3, $X^2=66,46$; S
					5/3, $X^2=0,50$; NS
	S (N=109)	28	73	8	28/73, $X^2=20,05$; S
					28/8, $X^2=11,11$; S
					73/8, $X^2=52,16$; S
	C (N=110)	4	46	60	4/46, $X^2=35,28$; S
					4/60, $X^2=49$; S
					46/60, $X^2=1,85$; NS
	Total (N=302)	107	124	71	107/124, $X^2=1,25$; NS
					107/71, $X^2=7,28$; S
					124/71, $X^2=14,41$; S



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Méticulosité	P (N=120)	98	16	6	98/16, X²=58,98 ; S
					98/6, X²=81,38 ; S
					16/6, X²=4,55; S
	S (N=120)	11	100	9	11/100, X²=71,36 ; S
					11/9, X ² =0,20 ; N
					100/9, X²=75,97 ; S
	C (N= 64)	0	23	41	0/23, X²=23 ; S
					0/41, X²=41 ; S
					23/41, X²=5,06 ; S
	Total (N= 304)	109	139	56	109/139, X ² =3,63 ; NS (p.05)
					109/56, X²=17,02 ; S
					139/56, X²=35,33 ; S
Amabilité	P (N=110)	91	13	6	91/13, X²=58,50 ; S
					91/6, X²=74,48 ; S
					13/6, X ² =2,58 ; NS
	S (N=74)	25	36	13	25/36, X ² =1,98; NS
					25/13, X ² =3,79 ; NS (p.05)
					36/13, X²=10,80 ; S
	C (N=119)	3	20	96	3/20, X²=12,57 ; S
					3/96, X²=87,36 ; S
					20/96, X²=49,79 ; S
	Total (N= 303)	119	69	115	119/69, X²=13,30 ; S
					119/115, X ² =0,07 ; NS
					69/115, X²=11,50 ; S
Extraversion	P (N=110)	92	10	8	92/10, X²=65,92 ; S
					92/8, X²=70,56 ; S
					10/8, X ² =0,22 ; NS
	S (N=120)	32	70	18	32/70, X²=14,16 ; S
					32/18, X²=3,92 ; S
					70/18, X²=30,73 ; S
	C (N=74)	3	19	52	3/19, X²=11,64 ; S
					3/52, X²=43,65 ; S
					19/52, X²=15,34 ; S
	Total (N= 304)	127	99	78	127/99, X ² =3,47 ; NS (p.06)
					127/78, X²=11,71 ; S
					99/78, X ² =2,49 ; NS
Stabilité émotionnelle	P (N=120)	109	6	5	109/6, X²=92,25 ; S
					109/5, X²=94,88 ; S
					6/5, X ² =0,09 ; NS
	S (N=110)	38	64	8	38/64, X²=6,63 ; S
					38/8, X²=19,57 ; S
					64/8, X²=43,56 ; S
	C (N=74)	3	19	52	3/19, X²=11,64 ; S
					3/52, X²=43,65 ; S
					19/52, X²=15,34 ; S
	Total (N=304)	150	89	65	150/89, X²=15,57 ; S
					150/65, X²=33,60 ; S
					89/65, X ² =3,74 ; NS (p.05)

Total	P (N=543)	465	50	28	465/50, $X^2=334,42$; S
					465/28, $X^2=387,36$; S
					50/28, $X^2=6,21$; S
	C (N=441)	134	343	56	134/343, $X^2=91,57$; S
					134/56, $X^2=32,02$; S
					343/56, $X^2=206,44$; S
	S (N=533)	13	127	301	13/127, $X^2=92,83$; S
					13/301, $X^2=264,15$; S
					127/301, $X^2=70,74$; S
	Total (N=1517)	612	520	385	612/520, $X^2=7,48$; S
					612/385, $X^2=51,68$; S
					520/385, $X^2=20,14$; S

L'examen du tableau 6, dans lequel sont consignés les résultats obtenus avec sommation des formulations positives et négatives de chacune des 5 dimensions, permet de constater que les attributions hypothétisées sont systématiquement obtenues, même si, pour la dimension "largeur d'esprit", les attributions attendues aux circonstances, bien qu'effectives, se présentent au même rang que les attributions au stimulus, et si, pour la dimension "amabilité", les attributions au stimulus, bien que devançant, avec les informations *ad hoc*, les attributions aux circonstances, se situent au même niveau que les attributions à la personne.

DISCUSSION ET CONCLUSION

Lorsque l'on propose à une personne de répondre aux questions d'un test de personnalité, c'est pour établir un profil psychologique de cette personne. Ceci est certes une lapalissade, mais qui signifie un présupposé selon lequel les réponses fournies par cette personne seront évidemment tributaires de la personnalité de cette personne. Or que constate-on ici? Que ces attributions à la personne dépendent d'informations complémentaires. Plus exactement que, selon les informations fournies⁶, on aboutit soit à des attributions à la personne, soit à des attributions au stimulus, soit à des attributions aux circonstances (2^{ème} partie de l'étude), et qu'en l'absence de ces informations contextualisantes (1^{ère} partie de l'étude), les attributions ne portent que minoritairement sur la personne. Or les conduites évoquées dans les tests de personnalité étant dépourvues de ces informations complémentaires, elles ne devraient que minoritairement être attribuées à l'individu, et donc que minoritairement conduire à l'élaboration d'un profil psychologique.

Il convient ici de rappeler (*cf.* Beauvois 1990) que l'établissement d'un profil psychologique est un acte évaluatif (et non descriptif), et qu'un tel acte n'est jamais gratuit: il a toujours une utilité, un objectif: celui d'obtenir des éléments permettant de décider des conduites à adopter vis-à-vis de l'individu testé (par exemple quelle sanction, positive ou négative, lui appliquer). Cela signifie que cette décision d'action nécessite, pour prétendre pouvoir être justifiée, ce profil psychologique; nécessite cette attribution psychologique, cette erreur attributive. C'est-à-dire qu'avoir pour tâche (ou se donner pour tâche) d'établir un profil psychologique dans l'objectif ultérieur d'exercer une action sur autrui conduit à ne pas percevoir l'erreur attributive commise; plus exactement conduit à ne prêter aucune attention à cette erreur, voire conduit à la provoquer intentionnellement. Car sans cette erreur (mais faut-il encore parler d'erreur?) aucune justification de l'action ne pourrait être avancée. Inversement, on observe ici, avec

⁶ Informations qui précisent, par une combinaison des variables "consistance", "distinctivité" et "consensus" des conduites proposées, le contexte d'apparition de ces conduites.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

des sujets qui n'ont pas pour tâche, pas pour consigne, d'établir un profil psychologique conduisant à une action, que cette «erreur» n'est pas commise et que les attributions peuvent prendre en considération le contexte et non pas uniquement la personnalité.

Nous venons de parler des personnes qui établissent des profils psychologiques en vue d'une action, en différenciant ceux réalisant cette tâche en raison de leur fonction de ceux qui se donnent, occasionnellement, cette tâche. Or si l'on se centre sur les premiers, on ne peut évidemment éviter d'y inclure les psychologues. Ce qui signifie que si notre réflexion antérieure, proposée sans spécification de profession, est pertinente, elle devrait, avec la même pertinence, s'appliquer aux psychologues. Cette application nous conduit alors à la conclusion selon laquelle le psychologue, dont la fonction implique fréquemment la tâche d'établir un profil psychologique en vue d'une action, est lui aussi, mais de manière très systématique (puisque cette tâche entre dans ses fonctions) poussé à négliger «l'erreur» attributive qu'il commet, voire poussé à la provoquer. Car sans cette «erreur», il ne pourrait plus exercer sa fonction. C'est ainsi au prix d'une négation de la réalité, voire d'une élaboration mensongère de cette réalité, que le psychologue peut continuer à exercer son métier. Il est certes possible d'être quelque peu «mal à l'aise» face à ce prix à payer, mais on peut se demander si ce prix est véritablement trop élevé, et en cas de réponse affirmative s'interroger sur l'existence d'alternatives. Rappelons alors que c'est depuis leur naissance que l'on tente d'améliorer les tests de personnalité.. sans que le succès soit au rendez-vous. D'où (dit-on) la proposition de certains collègues pour remplacer par exemple les tests de recrutement par un critère dichotomique très simple: «Ce candidat a une tête qui me plaît» *versus* «il a une tête qui me déplaît». On peut douter que cette alternative soit préférable...

Par ailleurs, cette «erreur» commise par le psychologue dépasse, et de loin, la simple défense de la fonction de psychologue. Elle constitue en effet également un élément stratégique puissant de défense du système sociopolitique dans lequel elle s'inscrit. En attribuant la responsabilité des conduites à l'auteur de ces conduites et en négligeant ainsi corollairement le poids des facteurs externes, elle participe à la pérennisation de ces facteurs externes: puisque l'individu est considéré comme seul responsable de ses conduites, puisque l'environnement n'est aucunement considéré comme facteur causal de ces conduites, il ne servirait à rien d'envisager une quelconque modification de cet environnement (les conduites dépendant des individus, elles resteraient les mêmes, quel que soit cet environnement). Donc dans cette optique, si l'on veut un changement de ces conduites, ce sont les individus qu'il faut changer, qu'il faut éduquer, et en aucun cas ce n'est le système social qu'il faut songer à transformer.

Ajoutons pour terminer que tout ceci ne constitue (bien évidemment) que des hypothèses et que, si elles se révélaient exactes, le rôle de la science (sauf à être science «engagée») ne serait que d'en faire le constat, sans entrer dans un jugement de valeur qui ne pourrait être qu'idéologique...

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Annexe 1: la première partie du questionnaire

Items 1 et 2 = dimension «caractère consciencieux», formulée respectivement de manière positive et négative; items 3 et 4 = dimension «ouverture d'esprit»; items 5 et 6 = dimension «amabilité»; items 7 et 8 = dimension «extraversion»; items 9 et 10 = dimension «stabilité émotionnelle».

Choix A = attribution à la personne, choix B = attribution au stimulus, choix C = attribution aux circonstances.

On vous propose quelques phrases qui décrivent le comportement d'un personnage. Votre tâche est de décider quelle est, à votre avis, la cause de ce comportement. Pour cela encerclez la lettre A, B ou C qui précède votre choix (un seul choix par question).

1. *Dans cette activité, Paul se montre minutieux.*

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer minutieux.

B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre minutieux.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer minutieux.

2. *Dans cette activité, Paul se montre peu minutieux.*

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu minutieux.

B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre peu minutieux.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu minutieux.

3. *Avec ses amis, Paul se montre large d'esprit.*

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer large d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre large d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer large d'esprit.

4. *Avec ses amis, Paul se montre étroit d'esprit.*

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer étroit d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre étroit d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer étroit d'esprit.

5. *Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre agréable.*

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer agréable.

B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre agréable.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer agréable.

6. *Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre désagréable.*

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer désagréable.

B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre désagréable.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer désagréable.

7. *Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre sûr de lui.*

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer sûr de lui.

B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre sûr de lui.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer sûr de lui.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

8. *Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre peu sûr de lui.*

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu sûr de lui.

B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre peu sûr de lui.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu sûr de lui.

9. *En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre calme.*

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer calme.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre calme.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer calme.

10. *En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre inquiet*

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer inquiet.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre inquiet.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer inquiet.

Annexe 2: la deuxième partie du questionnaire

Les 3 lettres -S, P et C- renvoient respectivement à une attribution devant concerner (selon Kelley) la Situation, la Personne et les Circonstances. Précisons que ces lettres ne figuraient pas dans les questionnaires remis aux sujets (figuraient à la place des nombres numérotant les questions).

1 et 2 = dimension «caractère consciencieux», formulée respectivement de manière positive et négative; 3 et 4 = dimension «ouverture d'esprit»; 5 et 6 = dimension «amabilité»; 7 et 8 = dimension «extraversion»; 9 et 10 = dimension «stabilité émotionnelle». Précisons également que ces chiffres ne figuraient pas dans les questionnaires remis aux sujets.

Choix A = attribution à la personne, choix B = attribution au stimulus, choix C = attribution aux circonstances.

On vous propose quelques phrases qui décrivent le comportement d'un personnage. Votre tâche est de décider quelle est, à votre avis, la cause de ce comportement. Pour cela encerclez la lettre A, B ou C qui précède votre choix (un seul choix par question), en tenant compte des trois informations complémentaires qui vont être données.

S1. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre minutieux que dans cette activité; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi minutieux dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré minutieux dans cette activité.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer minutieux.

B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre minutieux.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer minutieux.

P1. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre minutieux dans toutes ses activités; en général, les gens se montrent peu minutieux dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré minutieux dans cette activité.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer minutieux.

B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre minutieux.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer minutieux.

C1. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre minutieux que dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré minutieux dans cette activité.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer minutieux.

B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre minutieux.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer minutieux.

S2. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre peu minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre peu minutieux que dans cette activité; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi peu minutieux dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré peu minutieux dans cette activité.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu minutieux.

B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre peu minutieux.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu minutieux.

P2. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre peu minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre peu minutieux dans toutes ses activités; en général, les gens se montrent minutieux dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré peu minutieux dans cette activité.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu minutieux.

B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre peu minutieux.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu minutieux.

C2. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre peu minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul n'est peu minutieux que dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré peu minutieux dans cette activité.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu minutieux.

B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre peu minutieux.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu minutieux.

S3. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre large d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre large d'esprit qu'avec ses amis; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi larges d'esprit avec leurs amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré large d'esprit avec ses amis.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer large d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre large d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer large d'esprit.

P3. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre large d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre large d'esprit avec tout le monde; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas larges d'esprit avec leurs amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré large d'esprit avec ses amis.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer large d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre large d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer large d'esprit.

C3. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre large d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre large d'esprit qu'avec ses amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré large d'esprit avec ses amis.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer large d'esprit.
- B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre large d'esprit.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer large d'esprit.

S4. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre étroit d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre étroit d'esprit qu'avec ses amis; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi étroits d'esprit avec leurs amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré étroit d'esprit avec ses amis.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer étroit d'esprit.
- B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre étroit d'esprit.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer étroit d'esprit.

P4. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre étroit d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre étroit d'esprit avec tout le monde; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas étroits d'esprit avec leurs amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré étroit d'esprit avec ses amis.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer étroit d'esprit.
- B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre étroit d'esprit.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer étroit d'esprit.

C4. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre étroit d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre étroit d'esprit qu'avec ses amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré étroit d'esprit avec ses amis.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer étroit d'esprit.
- B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre étroit d'esprit.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer étroit d'esprit.

S5. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre agréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre agréable qu'avec les membres de sa famille; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi agréables avec les membres de leur famille; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré agréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer agréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre agréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer agréable.

P5. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre agréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre agréable avec tout le monde; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas agréables avec les membres de leur famille; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré agréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer agréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre agréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer agréable.

C5. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre agréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre agréable qu'avec les membres de sa famille; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré agréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer agréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre agréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer agréable.



S6. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre désagréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre désagréable qu'avec les membres de sa famille; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi désagréables avec les membres de leur famille; dans le passé Paul s'est toujours montré désagréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer désagréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre désagréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer désagréable.

P6. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre désagréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre désagréable avec tout le monde; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas désagréables avec les membres de leur famille; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré désagréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer désagréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre désagréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer désagréable.

C6. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre désagréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre désagréable qu'avec les membres de sa famille; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré désagréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer désagréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre désagréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer désagréable.

S7. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre sûr de lui que face à des inconnus; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi sûrs d'eux face à des inconnus; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré sûr de lui face à des inconnus.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer sûr de lui.
- B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre sûr de lui.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer sûr de lui.

P7. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre sûr de lui avec tout le monde; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas sûrs d'eux face à des inconnus; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré sûr de lui face à des inconnus.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer sûr de lui.
- B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre sûr de lui.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer sûr de lui.

C7. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre sûr de lui que face à des inconnus; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré sûr de lui face à des inconnus.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer sûr de lui.
- B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre sûr de lui.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer sûr de lui.

S8. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre peu sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre peu sûr de lui que face à des inconnus;



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi peu sûrs d'eux face à des inconnus; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré peu sûr de lui face à des inconnus.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu sûr de lui.
- B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre peu sûr de lui.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu sûr de lui.

P8. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre peu sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre peu sûr de lui avec tout le monde ; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas peu sûrs d'eux face à des inconnus ; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré peu sûr de lui face à des inconnus.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu sûr de lui.
- B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre peu sûr de lui.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu sûr de lui.

C8. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre peu sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre peu sûr de lui que face à des inconnus; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré peu sûr de lui face des inconnus.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu sûr de lui.
- B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre peu sûr de lui.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu sûr de lui.

S9. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre calme.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre calme qu'en cas de difficulté; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi calmes en cas de difficulté ; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré calme en cas de difficulté.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer calme.
- B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre calme.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer calme.

P9. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre calme.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre calme même en l'absence de difficulté; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas calmes en cas de difficulté; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré calme en cas de difficulté.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer calme.
- B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre calme.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer calme.

C9. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre calme.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre calme qu'en cas de difficulté ; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré calme en cas de difficulté.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer calme.
- B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre calme.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer calme.

S10. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre inquiet.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre inquiet qu'en cas de difficulté ; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi inquiets en cas de difficulté; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré inquiet en cas de difficulté.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer inquiet.



B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre inquiet.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer inquiet.

P10. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre inquiet.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre inquiet même en l'absence de difficulté; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas inquiets en cas de difficulté; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré inquiet en cas de difficulté.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer inquiet.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre inquiet.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer inquiet.

C10. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre inquiet.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre inquiet qu'en cas de difficulté; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré inquiet en cas de difficulté.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer inquiet.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre inquiet.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer inquiet.

WHEN PERSONALITY TRAITS PSYCHOLOGY PRESERVES THE SOCIAL ORDER: AN IMPLIMENTATION ON THE BIG FIVE THEORY VIA THE ATTRIBUTIONAL CUBE THEORY OF KELLEY

INTRODUCTION

Psychologists often characterize the individuals by personality traits. That is to say that they observe some behaviors, and from this observation (direct or from the answers provided to auto-descriptive questionnaires), they infer some of personality's treats that they attribute to these individuals. More precisely, they infer five personality traits, since currently the most used personality traits model is the five factors model (the Big Five)⁷, model that assumes that personality can be characterized by five dimensions: extraversion, kindness, conscientious character, emotional stability and open-mindedness. Therefore, such an ideological position materializes by an accent put on the actor's weight in the adoption of his conducts, to the detriment of the consideration of any environmental factor. This accent on the actor's weight (and consequently this lack of consideration of the environmental factors) permits to responsabilize the individual (consequently to deresponsibilize the environment, notably social), and therefore to legitimize a maintenance of the environment, avoiding any desire of change, while reserving all sanctions to the actor: since the environment doesn't intervene in the adoption of the conducts of the individual, since the individual is the only responsible person of his acts, it would be useless to transform the environment, and the individual must suffer alone the consequences of his acts

⁷ cf. for example, in testimony of the quasi-consensual acceptance of this model: Caprara et al. (1997, p13), Roland (1994, p65), or also (quoted from Pervin, 1994, p103) Digman (1990, p436), Widiger (1993, p82), etc.

We however wondered if the accent on the actor doesn't constitute an illegitimate accentuation (doesn't constitute what, in the 19th century, Nietzsche, ed.1968, then more lately Ross in 1977, called a «fundamental error»). For instance, Kelley (1967) considered that the behavior of an individual can certainly be attributed to the person, but also sometimes to the stimulus or to the circumstances if we have complementary informations of distinctivity, consistency and consensus concerning the observed behavior⁸. And Mc Arthur (1972) verified experimentally this hypothesis, showing that one got an attribution to the person while associating weak distinctivity, weak consensus and strong consistence; that one got an attribution to the stimulus by the association of strong distinctivity, strong consensus and strong consistence; and that one led to an attribution to the circumstances when one associated strong distinctivity and weak consistence (the consensus doesn't intervene in this attribution).

We wanted here to put the Big Five theory in touch with the one of Kelley. That is to say that we wanted to know if the observation of behaviors referring to the Big Five dimensions drove systematically to attribution of personality traits or if this observation could not sometimes drive to attributions to the stimuli or to the circumstances, either one possesses or not complementary informations of distinctivity, consistency and consensus. And we also have, as secondary aspect, wished to know if these attributions varied according to the pole (positive or negative) of the considered behavioral dimension⁹.

METHOD

We used a questionnaire, with globally 40 items (*cf.* annexes 1 & 2), each one showing the behavior of an individual named Paul, each behavior being linked to one of the 5 dimensions of the Big Five¹⁰. For example, for the dimension «kindness», the 2 following items were used: «With his family's members, Paul appears pleasant» (item linked to the dimension «kindness», formulated in a positive way) and «with his family's members, Paul appears unpleasant» (item linked to the dimension «kindness», formulated in a negative way).

This global questionnaire was constituted of 2 parts, with respectively 10 and 30 items. In the first one, each of the 10 items (2 items for each of the 5 dimensions of the Big Five: one item formulated in a positive way and the other one in a negative way)¹¹ was presented without any complementary information; the second part took again the 10 items of the first part, but added systematically informations showing the consensus, the distinctivity and the consistence of the conduct, that is to say, for each conduct, 3 modes of assembly of these informations (therefore a total of 30 items in this second part): the first mode (weak consensus, weak distinctivity, strong consistence) had (according to Kelley, 1967) to lead to an attribution to the person, the second mode (strong distinctivity, weak consistence) had (according to Kelley) to lead to an attribution

⁸ The distinctivity concerns the variation of the reactions of the actor to equivalent stimuli, the consistence refers, on the one hand to the consistence in the time and on the other hand to the consistence in spite of the variation of the context in which the actor is in contact with the stimulus, and the consensus refers to the identity of the reactive conducts of different actors.

⁹ That is to say, do we realize the same attribution, for example on the dimension "kindness", whether the actor adopts an agreeable or non agreeable behavior.

¹⁰ The correspondence between these items and the 5 dimensions of the Big Five have been achieved (Pasquier, 2006), but this work has not yet been published.

¹¹ We already signalled earlier (Gangloff, 2000, p23) that it was difficult to fix the number of necessary items of each personological dimension *personnologique*: either, following the differential theory, the personological conducts are independent of any context (and in this case only one item by dimension is sufficient), either these conducts vary according to the context, and it is then illusory to pretend to be able to reconstitute all the possible contexts. Questioning the personological theory, we chose to apply its presupposed while constructing only one item by dimension (repeated item in order to present a positive version and a negative version).

to the circumstances, and the third (strong consensus, strong distinctivity, strong consistence) had (always according to Kelley) to lead to an attribution to the stimulus.

For example, in the dimension «kindness» formulated in a positive way («with his family's members, Paul appears pleasant»), to get an attribution to the person, we have associated weak distinctivity, weak consensus and strong consistence. This leads to the 3 following complementary informations (item n° P5 of the second part): «Paul appears pleasant with everybody» (weak distinctivity); «in general, people don't appear pleasant with their family's members» (weak consensus); «in the past, Paul always appeared pleasant with his family's members» (strong consistence).

Still in the dimension «kindness» formulated in a positive way, to get an attribution to the stimulus, we have associated strong distinctivity, strong consensus and strong consistence. This leads to the 3 following informations (item n° S5 of the second part): «Paul only appears pleasant with his family's members» (strong distinctivity); «in general, people too appear pleasant with their family's members» (strong consensus); «in the past, Paul always appeared pleasant with his family's members» (strong consistence).

Finally, still in the dimension «kindness» formulated in a positive way, to get an attribution to the circumstances, we have associated strong distinctivity and weak consistence (according to the results of Mc Arthur, 1972, the consensus doesn't intervene in this attribution). This leads to the 3 following informations (item n° C5 of the second part): «Paul only appears pleasant with his family's members» (strong distinctivity); «in the past, Paul appeared rarely pleasant with his family's members» (weak consistence).

Having the continuation of each of the 40 items, the subjects had to check a proposition among three. For example, for the dimension «kindness» formulated in a positive way (one item in the first part and 3 items in the second one), the three following propositions were proposed, respectively corresponding to an attribution to the person (proposition A), to the stimulus (proposition B) and to the circumstances (proposition C):

A - It is part of him, it is in his nature to appear pleasant.

B - those are his family's members that induce that he appears pleasant.

C - those are the particular circumstances that bring him to appear pleasant.

In order to decrease the length of the questionnaire and to avoid the subjects to be confronted, for each dimension, with the 2 used opposite formulations (the positive and the negative ones), we divided the global questionnaire in several subquestionnaires, so that each subject had to answer to a limited number of items. So the first part was divided in 2 subparts (subparts 1a and 1b) and the second part in 3 subparts (subparts 2a, 2b and 2c). The following table indicates the distribution of the items in each of these subparts (each of these subparts presenting once each of the 5 dimensions of the Big Five):

Table 1: distribution of the items in the 5 subparts of the global questionnaire

Subpart 1a	items 1, 3, 6, 7, 10
Subpart 1b	items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9
Subpart 2a	items S1, C6, P9, S10, P8, C3, P2, S4, P5, S7
Subpart 2b	items P1, S8, C5, C7, S2, P3, C9, P4, S6, P10
Sous-partie 2c	items C1, C10, P6, S3, S5, C2, C4, C8, S9, P7

Six subquestionnaires has been elaborated and randomly distributed in amphitheatres, leading to 6 groups of subjects (male and women students registered in 1st year of psychology),

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



each one answering to a specific combination of one subpart 1 and one subpart 2 (so a total of 15 questions by subject, distributed on 3 pages with, on the 1st page, only 5 questions without information, and on the 2 next pages 10 questions with informations). This distribution is showed in the following table:

Table 2: *affection of the subparts to the 6 groups of subjects (for example, the subjects of the group G1 answered to the subparts 1a and 2a).*

	Subpart 2a	Subpart 2b	Subpart 2c	
Subpart 1a	G1 (N=39)	G3 (N=35)	G5 (N=31)	N=105
Subpart 1b	G2 (N=39)	G4 (N=7)	G6 (N=1)	N=47
	N=78	N=42	N=32	N=152

Then, to analyse the results, we have gathered together, on the one hand the gotten answers of the subparts 1a and 1b, and on the other hand those gotten of the subparts 2a, 2b and 2c.

RESULTS

1.1. Answers to the subpart 1

Table 3: *answers gotten in the situation «no information» (subpart 1 of the global questionnaire). In the last column are noted either S (when $p < 0,05$), either NS (in the case of no significant difference)*

Dimensions & number of responses		Results			
		Attrib. Person	Attrib. Stimuli	Attrib. Circonst.	Comparisons, X^2 et p
Open-mindedness	Positive formulation (N=104, 1 no resp.)	37	41	26	37/41, $X^2=0,21$; NS
					37/26, $X^2=1,92$; NS
					41/26, $X^2=3,36$; NS (p.06)
	Negative formulation (N=47)	13	13	21	13/13, $X^2=0$; NS
					13/21, $X^2=1,88$; NS
					13/21, $X^2=1,88$; NS
	Total (N=151)	50	54	47	50/54, $X^2=0,15$; NS 50/47, $X^2=0,09$; NS 54/47, $X^2=0,49$; NS
Conscientious character	Positive formulation (N=103, 2 no resp.)	19	57	27	19/57, $X^2=19$; S
					19/27, $X^2=1,39$; NS
					57/27, $X^2=10,71$; S
	Negative formulation (N=47)	6	28	13	6/28, $X^2=14,24$; S
					6/13, $X^2=2,58$; NS
					28/13, $X^2=2,78$; NS
	Total (N=150)	25	85	40	25/85, $X^2=32,73$; S 25/40, $X^2=3,46$; NS (p.06) 85/40, $X^2=16,20$; S

Kindness	Positive formulation (N=47)	10	22	15	10/22, X²=4,50 ; S
					10/15, X ² =1 ; NS
					22/15, X ² =1,32 ; NS
	Negative formulation (N=105)	4	44	57	4/44, X²=33,33 ; S
					4/57, X²=46,05 ; S
					44/57, X ² =1,67 ; NS
Total (N=152)	14	66	72	14/66, X²=33,80 ; S	
				14/72, X²=39,12 ; S	
				66/72, X ² =0,75 ; NS	
Extraversion	Positive formulation (N=105)	46	40	19	46/40, X ² =0,42 ; NS
					46/19, X²=11,22 ; S
					40/19, X²=7,47 ; S
	Negative formulation (N=47)	13	22	12	13/22, X ² =2,31 ; NS
					13/12, X ² =0,04 ; NS
					22/12, X ² =2,94 ; NS (p.08)
Total (N=152)	59	62	31	59/62, X ² =0,07 ; NS	
				59/31, X²=8,71 ; S	
				62/31, X²=10,33 ; S	
Emotional stability	Positive formulation (N=47)	31	5	11	31/5, X²=18,78 ; S
					31/11, X²=9,52 ; S
					5/11, X ² =2,25 ; NS
	Negative formulation (N=105)	35	47	23	35/47, X ² =1,76 ; NS
					35/23, X ² =2,48 ; NS
					47/23, X²=8,23 ; S
Total (N=152)	66	52	34	66/52, X ² =1,66 ; NS	
				66/34, X²=10,24 ; S	
				52/34, X ² =3,77 ; NS (p.05)	
Total Positive formulations (N=406)	143	165	98	143/165, X ² =1,57 ; NS	
				143/98, X²=8,40 ; S	
				165/98, X²=17,07 ; S	
Total Negative formulations (N=351)	71	154	126	71/154, X²=30,62 ; S	
				71/126, X²=15,36 ; S	
				154/126, X ² =2,80 ; NS (p.09)	
General Total (N=757)	214	319	224	214/319, X²=20,68 ; S	
				214/224, X ² =0,23 ; NS	
				319/224, X²=16,62 ; S	

The table 3 shows that the attributions to the person are in the minority; that means that the accentuation of the actor's weight is a lot less frequent than what we see in the literature.

All dimensions taken together, either with positive or negative formulations associated or separated (*cf.* the last 3 lines), one observes that the attributions to the stimulus come systematically first (and this with a significant difference, compared with the attributions to the person, in 2 cases on 3).

And if one examines the 5 dimensions one by one while separating positive and negative formulations (that is to say 10 situations), one notices that the attributions to the person come first with a significant difference compared to the 2 others attributions only one time: in the emotional stability dimension formulated positively



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

1.2. Answers to the subpart 2

Table 4: answers obtained in the situation «informations provided» (subpart 2 of the global questionnaire), with positive formulations. For example, for the dimension «open-mindedness», when Kelley makes the hypothesis of an attribution to the person, we get 40 attributions to the person (P), no attribution to the stimuli (S) and 1 attribution to the circumstances (C). **NB:** we observed one no answer (for the dimension «open-mindedness»). In the last column are noted either S (when $p < 0,05$), either NS (in the case of no significant difference).

Dimensions	Hypo. of Kelley & Nb of re- sponses	Results			Comparisons, X ² & p
		Attrib. Person	Attrib. Stimuli	Attrib. Circonst.	
Open-minded- ness	P (N=41)	40	0	1	40/0, X ² =40 ; S
					40/1, X ² = 37,10; S
					0/1, X ² = 1; NS
	S (N=32)	4	26	2	4/26, X ² = 16,13; S
					4/2, X ² =0,67; NS
					26/2, X ² = 20,57; S
	C (N=78)	3	39	36	3/39, X ² =30,86; S
					3/36, X ² =27,92; S
					39/36, X ² =0,12; NS
	Total (N=151)	47	65	39	47/65, X ² =2,89; NS (p.08)
47/39, X ² =0,74; NS					
65/39, X ² = 6,50; S					
Conscientious character	P (N=42)	39	2	1	39/2, X ² =33,39 ; S
					39/1, X ² =36,10 ; S
					2/1, X ² =0,33 ; NS
	S (N=78)	5	66	7	5/66, X ² =52,41 ; S
					5/7, X ² =0,33 ; NS
					66/7, X ² =47,68 ; S
	C (N=32)	0	11	21	0/11, X ² =11 ; S
					0/21, X ² =21 ; S
					11/21, X ² =3,13 ; NS (p.07)
	Total (N=152)	44	79	29	44/79, X ² =9,96 ; S
44/29, X ² =3,08 ; NS (p.07)					
79/29, X ² =23,15 ; S					
Kindness	P (N=78)	66	8	4	66/8, X ² =45,46 ; S
					66/4, X ² =54,91 ; S
					8/4, X ² =1,33 ; NS
	S (N=32)	12	15	5	12/15, X ² =0,33 ; NS
					12/5, X ² =2,88 ; NS (p.08)
					15/5, X ² =5 ; S
	C (N=42)	1	12	29	1/12, X ² =9,31 ; S
					1/29, X ² =26,13 ; S
					12/29, X ² =7,05 ; S
	Total (N=152)	79	35	38	79/35, X ² =16,98 ; S
79/38, X ² =14,37 ; S					
35/38, X ² =0,12 ; NS					



Extraversion	P (N=32)	26	2	4	26/2, $X^2=20,57$; S
					26/4, $X^2=16,13$; S
					2/4, $X^2=0,67$; NS
	S (N=78)	22	46	10	22/46, $X^2=8,47$; S
					22/10, $X^2=4,50$; S
					46/10, $X^2=23,14$; S
	C (N=42)	2	7	33	2/7, $X^2=2,78$; NS (p.09)
					2/33, $X^2=27,46$; S
					7/33, $X^2=16,90$; S
	Total (N=152)	50	55	47	50/55, $X^2=0,24$; NS
					50/47, $X^2=0,09$; NS
					55/47, $X^2=0,63$; NS
Emotional stability	P (N=78)	72	3	3	72/3, $X^2=63,48$; S
					72/3, $X^2=63,48$; S
					3/3, $X^2=0$; NS
	S (N=32)	13	16	3	13/16, $X^2=0,31$; NS
					13/3, $X^2=6,25$; S
					16/3, $X^2=8,89$; S
	C (N=42)	2	7	33	2/7, $X^2=2,78$; NS (p.09)
					2/33, $X^2=27,46$; S
					7/33, $X^2=16,90$; S
	Total (N=152)	87	26	39	87/26, $X^2=32,93$; S
					87/39, $X^2=18,29$; S
					26/39, $X^2=2,60$; NS
Total Positive Formulations	P (N=271)	243	15	13	243/15, $X^2=201,49$; S
					243/13, $X^2=206,64$; S
					15/13, $X^2=0,14$; NS
	S (N=252)	56	169	27	56/169, $X^2=56,75$; S
					56/27, $X^2=10,13$; S
					169/27, $X^2=102,88$; S
	C (N=236)	8	76	152	8/76, $X^2=55,05$; S
					8/152, $X^2=129,60$; S
					76/152, $X^2=25,33$; S
	Total (N=759)	307	260	192	307/260, $X^2=3,90$; S
					307/192, $X^2=26,50$; S
					260/192, $X^2=10,23$; S

Table 4, which has about the 5 dimensions with positive formulations, shows that all our hypotheses are verified: the informations supposed to lead respectively to the attributions to the person, to the stimulus and to the circumstances, succeed effectively to these attributions, even though in 4 cases (on the 18 examined) one observes some *ex æquo* in 1st position (for «open-mindedness» and «conscientious character», when the informations were supposed to lead to the attributions to the circumstances, these circumstances are classified first, but they are level with the stimulus; in the same way, for «kindness» and «emotional stability», the stimulus is classified first when the information foresaw this ordering, but they are level with the attributions to the person).



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Table 5: answers obtained in the situation «informations provided» (subpart 2 of the global questionnaire), with negative formulations. **NB:** we observed 2 no answer (one for the dimension «open-mindedness» and one for the dimension «kindness»). In the last column are noted either *S* (when $p < 0,05$), either *NS* (in the case of no significant difference).

Dimensions	Hypo. of Kelley & Nb of responses	Results			
		Attrib. Person	Attrib. Stimuli	Attrib. Circonst.	Comparisons, X^2 & p
Open-mindedness	P (N=42)	35	5	2	35/5, $X^2=22,50$; S
					35/2, $X^2=29,43$; S
					5/2, $X^2=1,29$; NS
	S (N= 77)	24	47	6	24/47, $X^2=7,45$; S
					24/6, $X^2=10,80$; S
					47/6, $X^2=31,72$; S
	C (N= 32)	1	7	24	1/7, $X^2=4,50$; S
					1/24, $X^2=21,16$; S
					7/24, $X^2=9,32$; S
	Total (N=151)	60	59	32	60/59, $X^2=0,01$; NS
					60/32, $X^2=8,52$; S
					59/32, $X^2=8,01$; S
Conscientious character	P (N=78)	59	14	5	59/14, $X^2=24,74$; S
					59/5, $X^2=45,56$; S
					14/5, $X^2=4,26$; S
	S (N=42)	6	34	2	6/34, $X^2=19,60$; S
					6/2, $X^2=2$; NS
					34/2, $X^2=28,44$; S
	C (N=32)	0	12	20	0/12, $X^2=12$; S
					0/20, $X^2=20$; S
					12/20, $X^2=2$; NS
	Total (N=152)	65	60	27	65/60, $X^2=0,20$; NS
					65/27, $X^2=15,70$; S
					60/27, $X^2=12,52$; S
Kindness	P (N=32)	25	5	2	25/5, $X^2=13,33$; S
					25/2, $X^2=19,59$; S
					5/2, $X^2=1,22$; NS
	S (N= 42)	13	21	8	13/21, $X^2=1,88$; NS
					13/8, $X^2=1,19$; NS
					21/8, $X^2=5,83$; S
	C (N=77)	2	8	67	2/8, $X^2=3,60$; NS (p.05)
					2/67, $X^2=61,23$; S
					8/67, $X^2=46,41$; S
	Total (N= 151)	40	34	77	40/34, $X^2=0,49$; NS
					40/77, $X^2=11,70$; S
					34/77, $X^2=16,66$; S



Extraversion	P (N=78)	66	8	4	66/8, X²=45,46 ; S
					66/4, X²=54,91 ; S
					8/4, X ² =1,33 ; NS
	S (N=42)	10	24	8	10/24, X ² =5,76 ; NS (p.05)
					10/8, X ² =0,22 ; NS
					24/8, X²=8 ; S
	C (N=32)	1	12	19	1/12, X²=9,31 ; S
					1/19, X²=16,20 ; S
					12/19, X ² =1,58 ; NS
	Total (N=152)	77	44	31	77/44, X²=9 ; S
					77/31, X²=19,59 ; S
					44/31, X ² =2,25 ; NS
Emotional stability	P (N=42)	37	3	2	37/3, X²=28,90 ; S
					37/2, X²=31,41 ; S
					3/2, X ² =0,20 ; NS
	S (N=78)	25	48	5	25/48, X²=7,25 ; S
					25/5, X²=13,33 ; S
					48/5, X²=34,89 ; S
	C (N=32)	1	12	19	1/12, X²=9,31 ; S
					1/19, X²=16,20 ; S
					12/19, X ² =1,58 ; NS
	Total (N=152)	63	63	26	63/63, X ² =0 ; NS
					63/26, X²=15,38 ; S
					63/26, X²=15,38 ; S
Total Negative formulations	P (N=272)	222	35	15	222/35, X²=136,07 ; S
					222/15, X²=180,80 ; S
					35/15, X²=8 ; S
	S (N=281)	78	174	29	78/174, X²=36,57 ; S
					78/29, X²=22,44 ; S
					174/29, X²=103,57 ; S
	C (N= 205)	5	51	149	5/51, X²=37,79 ; S
					5/149, X²=134,65 ; S
					51/149, X²=48,02 ; S
	Total (N=758)	305	260	193	305/260, X ² =3,58 ; NS (p.05)
					305/193, X²=25,19 ; S
					260/193, X²=9,91 ; S

The table 5, which is about the 5 dimensions formulated negatively, also succeed to a systematic confirmation of our hypotheses: the informations supposed to provoke respectively the attributions to the person, to the stimulus and to the circumstances lead to these attributions, even though, as for the positive formulations of the table 4, we note 5 *ex aequo* in 1st rank (for «conscientious character», «extraversion» and «emotional stability», the circumstances come in 1st position as foreseen, but they are level with the stimulus; in the same way, for «kindness» and «extraversion», the stimulus comes first when as foressen, but it is level with the attributions to the person).



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Table 6: answers obtained in the situation «informations provided» (subpart 2 of the global questionnaire), positive and negative formulations together. **NB:** we observed 3 no answer (2 in the dimension «open-mindedness», and 1 in the dimension «kindness»), hence a general total of 1517 efficient answers instead of the 1520 expected (10 items for each of the 152 subjects). In the last column are noted either S (when $p < 0,05$), either NS (in the case of no significant difference).

Dimensions	Hypo. of Kelley & Nb of re-sponses	Results			Comparisons, X^2 & p
		Attrib. Person	Attrib. Stimuli	Attrib. Circonst.	
Open-mindedness	P (N=83)	75	5	3	75/5, $X^2=61,25$; S
					75/3, $X^2=66,46$; S
					5/3, $X^2=0,50$; NS
	S (N=109)	28	73	8	28/73, $X^2=20,05$; S
					28/8, $X^2=11,11$; S
					73/8, $X^2=52,16$; S
	C (N=110)	4	46	60	4/46, $X^2=35,28$; S
					4/60, $X^2=49$; S
					46/60, $X^2=1,85$; NS
	Total (N=302)	107	124	71	107/124, $X^2=1,25$; NS
					107/71, $X^2=7,28$; S
					124/71, $X^2=14,41$; S
Conscientious character	P (N=120)	98	16	6	98/16, $X^2=58,98$; S
					98/6, $X^2=81,38$; S
					16/6, $X^2=4,55$; S
	S (N=120)	11	100	9	11/100, $X^2=71,36$; S
					11/9, $X^2=0,20$; N
					100/9, $X^2=75,97$; S
	C (N= 64)	0	23	41	0/23, $X^2=23$; S
					0/41, $X^2=41$; S
					23/41, $X^2=5,06$; S
	Total (N= 304)	109	139	56	109/139, $X^2=3,63$; NS (p.05)
					109/56, $X^2=17,02$; S
					139/56, $X^2=35,33$; S
Kindness	P (N=110)	91	13	6	91/13, $X^2=58,50$; S
					91/6, $X^2=74,48$; S
					13/6, $X^2=2,58$; NS
	S (N=74)	25	36	13	25/36, $X^2=1,98$; NS
					25/13, $X^2=3,79$; NS (p.05)
					36/13, $X^2=10,80$; S
	C (N=119)	3	20	96	3/20, $X^2=12,57$; S
					3/96, $X^2=87,36$; S
					20/96, $X^2=49,79$; S
	Total (N= 303)	119	69	115	119/69, $X^2=13,30$; S
					119/115, $X^2=0,07$; NS
					69/115, $X^2=11,50$; S



Extraversion	P (N=110)	92	10	8	92/10, $X^2=65,92$; S
					92/8, $X^2=70,56$; S
					10/8, $X^2=0,22$; NS
	S (N=120)	32	70	18	32/70, $X^2=14,16$; S
					32/18, $X^2=3,92$; S
					70/18, $X^2=30,73$; S
	C (N=74)	3	19	52	3/19, $X^2=11,64$; S
					3/52, $X^2=43,65$; S
					19/52, $X^2=15,34$; S
	Total (N= 304)	127	99	78	127/99, $X^2=3,47$; NS (p.06)
					127/78, $X^2=11,71$; S
					99/78, $X^2=2,49$; NS
Emotional stability	P (N=120)	109	6	5	109/6, $X^2=92,25$; S
					109/5, $X^2=94,88$; S
					6/5, $X^2=0,09$; NS
	S (N=110)	38	64	8	38/64, $X^2=6,63$; S
					38/8, $X^2=19,57$; S
					64/8, $X^2=43,56$; S
	C (N=74)	3	19	52	3/19, $X^2=11,64$; S
					3/52, $X^2=43,65$; S
					19/52, $X^2=15,34$; S
	Total (N=304)	150	89	65	150/89, $X^2=15,57$; S
					150/65, $X^2=33,60$; S
					89/65, $X^2=3,74$; NS (p.05)
Total	P (N=543)	465	50	28	465/50, $X^2=334,42$; S
					465/28, $X^2=387,36$; S
					50/28, $X^2=6,21$; S
	C (N=441)	134	343	56	134/343, $X^2=91,57$; S
					134/56, $X^2=32,02$; S
					343/56, $X^2=206,44$; S
	S (N=533)	13	127	301	13/127, $X^2=92,83$; S
					13/301, $X^2=264,15$; S
					127/301, $X^2=70,74$; S
	Total (N=1517)	612	520	385	612/520, $X^2=7,48$; S
					612/385, $X^2=51,68$; S
					520/385, $X^2=20,14$; S

The exam of the table 6, in which are consigned the results gotten with the sum of the positive and negative formulations of each of the 5 dimensions, permits to note that the expected attributions are systematically gotten, even though, for «open-mindedness», the expected attributions to the circumstances, although efficient, are level with the ones to the stimulus, and if, for «kindness», the attributions to the stimulus, although preceding the attributions to the circumstances, are level with the attributions to the person.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

When one proposes to somebody to answer to personality's test, it is to establish his personological profile. It is certainly a truism, but that means a presupposed according to which the answers provided by this person will evidently be the consequences of the personality of this person. However, what do we note? That these attributions to the person depend on

complementary informations. More precisely that according to the provided informations¹², one succeeds either to make attributions to the person, either attributions to the stimulus, either attributions to the circumstances (2nd part of the study), the attributions are in the minority to the person. However the conducts evoked in personality's tests being deprived of these complementary informations, they would only have to be in the minority attributed to the person, and therefore only in the minority to lead to the development of a psychological profile.

It is here advisable to recall (*cf.* Beauvois 1990) that the establishment of a personological profile is a valutive act (and no descriptive), and that such an act is never gratuitous: it always have an utility, an objective: to get the elements permitting to decide the conducts to adopt opposite the tested individual (for example what sanction, positive or negative, to apply him). It means that this decision of action requires, to pretend to be justified, this personological profile; require this personological attribution, this attributional error. That is to say that to have for task (or to give oneself for task) to establish a personological profile with the ulterior objective to exercise an action on others, leads to not discern the committed attributional error; more precisely leads to take no notice of this error, or even leads to provoke it deliberately. Because without this error (but may we still call it an error?) no justification of the action could be advanced. Inversely, one observes here, with subjects who don't have for task, for order, to establish a personological profile leading to an action, that this «error» is not committed and that the attributions can take into account the context and not solely the personality.

We just spoke of the people who establish personological profiles in view of an action, while differentiating those achieving this task because of their function of those that give themselves, occasionally, this task. However, if one centers on the firsts, one cannot avoid to include there the psychologists. That means that if our previous reflection, proposed without specification of profession, is pertinent, this reflection would have, with the same pertinence, to apply to the psychologists. Then, this application leads us to the conclusion that the psychologist, whose function frequently implies the task to establish a personological profile in view of an action, is also, but in a very systematic way (since this task enters in its functions) driven to disregard the attributive «error» that it commits, or even driven to provoke it. Because without this error (but may we still call it an error?) he would not be any more able to continue his function. It is at great cost to the negation of the reality, or even to an untrue development of this reality, that the psychologist can continue to practise his profession. It is certainly possible to be somewhat embarrassed facing this cost to pay, but one can wonder if this cost is truly too elevated, and in case of affirmative answer to wonder about the existence of alternatives. Let's recall then that it is since their birth that one tempts to improve personality's tests.. without success at the appointment. Hence (one says) the proposition of some colleagues to replace the recruiting tests for example by a very simple dichotomic criteria: « This candidate has a head that pleases to me» *versus* «he has a head that displeases to me». One can doubt that this alternative is preferable...

Moreover, this «error» committed by the psychologist passes, and from afar, the simple defense of psychologist's function. It also constitutes a powerful strategic element of defense of the socio-political system within the framework of which it comes. Assigning the responsibility of the conducts to the author of these conducts and thus disregarding the external factor weight, it participates to the maintenance of these external factors: since the individual is considered as the unique responsible of his conducts, since the environment is not at all considered as causal factor of these conducts, it would not serve to anything to envisage any modification of this environment (the conducts depending on the individuals, they would remain the same,

¹² Information that specify, by a combination of the variables “consistence”, “distinctivity” and “consensus” of the proposed conducts, the context of apparition of these conducts.



whatever is this environment). Therefore, from this perspective, if one wants to change these conducts, these are the individuals that it is necessary to change, that it is necessary to educate, and on no account it is the social system that we have to wonder to transform.

Let's add to finish that all this only constitute (well evidently) hypotheses and that, if they proved to be exact, the role of the science (except «committed» science) would only be to make the report of it, without entering in a value judgement that only could be ideological...

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Annexe 1: first part of the questionnaire

Items 1 and 2 = dimension «conscientious character», formulated respectively in a positive and negative way; items 3 and 4 = dimension «open-mindedness»; items 5 and 6 = dimension «kindness»; items 7 and 8 = dimension «extraversion»; items 9 and 10 = dimension «emotional stability».

Choice A = attribution to the person, choice B = attribution to the stimulus, choice C = attribution to the circumstances.

On vous propose quelques phrases qui décrivent le comportement d'un personnage. Votre tâche est de décider quelle est, à votre avis, la cause de ce comportement. Pour cela encerclez la lettre A, B ou C qui précède votre choix (un seul choix par question).

1. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre minutieux.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer minutieux.

B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre minutieux.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer minutieux.

2. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre peu minutieux.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu minutieux.

B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre peu minutieux.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu minutieux.

3. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre large d'esprit.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer large d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre large d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer large d'esprit.

4. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre étroit d'esprit.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer étroit d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre étroit d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer étroit d'esprit.

5. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre agréable.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer agréable.

B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre agréable.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer agréable.

6. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre désagréable.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer désagréable.

B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre désagréable.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer désagréable.

7. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre sûr de lui.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer sûr de lui.

B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre sûr de lui.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer sûr de lui.

8. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre peu sûr de lui.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu sûr de lui.

B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre peu sûr de lui.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu sûr de lui.

9. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre calme.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer calme.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre calme.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer calme.

10. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre inquiet

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer inquiet.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre inquiet.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer inquiet.

Annexe 2: second part of the questionnaire

The 3 letters -S, P and C- send back respectively to an attribution having to concern (according to Kelley) the Situation, the Person and the Circumstances. Let's specify that these letters didn't appear in the questionnaires gave to the subjects (these letters were replaced by numbers numbering the questions).

Items 1 and 2 = dimension «conscientious character», formulated respectively in a positive and negative way; items 3 and 4 = dimension «open-mindedness»; items 5 and 6 = dimension «kindness»; items 7 and 8 = dimension «extraversion»; items 9 and 10 = dimension «emotional stability». Let's specify also that these numbers didn't appear in the questionnaires gave to the subjects..

Choice A = attribution to the person, choice B = attribution to the stimulus, choice C = attribution to the circumstances.



On vous propose quelques phrases qui décrivent le comportement d'un personnage. Votre tâche est de décider quelle est, à votre avis, la cause de ce comportement. Pour cela encerclez la lettre A, B ou C qui précède votre choix (un seul choix par question), *en tenant compte des trois informations complémentaires qui vont sont données.*

S1. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre minutieux que dans cette activité; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi minutieux dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré minutieux dans cette activité.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer minutieux.
- B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre minutieux.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer minutieux.

P1. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre minutieux dans toutes ses activités; en général, les gens se montrent peu minutieux dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré minutieux dans cette activité.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer minutieux.
- B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre minutieux.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer minutieux.

C1. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre minutieux que dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré minutieux dans cette activité.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer minutieux.
- B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre minutieux.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer minutieux.

S2. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre peu minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre peu minutieux que dans cette activité; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi peu minutieux dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré peu minutieux dans cette activité.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu minutieux.
- B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre peu minutieux.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu minutieux.

P2. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre peu minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre peu minutieux dans toutes ses activités; en général, les gens se montrent minutieux dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré peu minutieux dans cette activité.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu minutieux.
- B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre peu minutieux.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu minutieux.

C2. Dans cette activité, Paul se montre peu minutieux.

informations complémentaires: Paul n'est peu minutieux que dans cette activité; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré peu minutieux dans cette activité.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu minutieux.
- B- C'est cette activité qui induit qu'il se montre peu minutieux.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu minutieux.

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



S3. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre large d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre large d'esprit qu'avec ses amis; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi larges d'esprit avec leurs amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré large d'esprit avec ses amis.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer large d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre large d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer large d'esprit.

P3. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre large d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre large d'esprit avec tout le monde; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas larges d'esprit avec leurs amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré large d'esprit avec ses amis.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer large d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre large d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer large d'esprit.

C3. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre large d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre large d'esprit qu'avec ses amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré large d'esprit avec ses amis.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer large d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre large d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer large d'esprit.

S4. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre étroit d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre étroit d'esprit qu'avec ses amis; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi étroits d'esprit avec leurs amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré étroit d'esprit avec ses amis.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer étroit d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre étroit d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer étroit d'esprit.

P4. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre étroit d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre étroit d'esprit avec tout le monde; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas étroits d'esprit avec leurs amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré étroit d'esprit avec ses amis.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer étroit d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre étroit d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer étroit d'esprit.

C4. Avec ses amis, Paul se montre étroit d'esprit.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre étroit d'esprit qu'avec ses amis; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré étroit d'esprit avec ses amis.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer étroit d'esprit.

B- Ce sont ses amis qui induisent qu'il se montre étroit d'esprit.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer étroit d'esprit.

S5. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre agréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre agréable qu'avec les membres de sa famille; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi agréables avec les membres de leur famille;



dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré agréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer agréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre agréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer agréable.

P5. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre agréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre agréable avec tout le monde; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas agréables avec les membres de leur famille; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré agréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer agréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre agréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer agréable.

C5. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre agréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre agréable qu'avec les membres de sa famille; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré agréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer agréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre agréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer agréable.

S6. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre désagréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre désagréable qu'avec les membres de sa famille; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi désagréables avec les membres de leur famille; dans le passé Paul s'est toujours montré désagréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer désagréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre désagréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer désagréable.

P6. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre désagréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre désagréable avec tout le monde; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas désagréables avec les membres de leur famille; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré désagréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer désagréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre désagréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer désagréable.

C6. Avec les membres de sa famille, Paul se montre désagréable.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre désagréable qu'avec les membres de sa famille; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré désagréable avec les membres de sa famille.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer désagréable.
- B- Ce sont les membres de sa famille qui induisent qu'il se montre désagréable.
- C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer désagréable.

S7. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre sûr de lui que face à des inconnus; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi sûrs d'eux face à des inconnus ; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré sûr de lui face à des inconnus.

- A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer sûr de lui.

B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre sûr de lui.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer sûr de lui.

P7. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre sûr de lui avec tout le monde; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas sûrs d'eux face à des inconnus; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré sûr de lui face à des inconnus.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer sûr de lui.

B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre sûr de lui.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer sûr de lui.

C7. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre sûr de lui que face à des inconnus; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré sûr de lui face à des inconnus.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer sûr de lui.

B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre sûr de lui.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer sûr de lui.

S8. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre peu sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre peu sûr de lui que face à des inconnus; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi peu sûrs d'eux face à des inconnus; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré peu sûr de lui face à des inconnus.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu sûr de lui.

B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre peu sûr de lui.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu sûr de lui.

P8. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre peu sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre peu sûr de lui avec tout le monde; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas peu sûrs d'eux face à des inconnus; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré peu sûr de lui face à des inconnus.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu sûr de lui.

B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre peu sûr de lui.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu sûr de lui.

C8. Face à des inconnus, Paul se montre peu sûr de lui.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre peu sûr de lui que face à des inconnus; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré peu sûr de lui face des inconnus.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer peu sûr de lui.

B- Ce sont les inconnus qui induisent qu'il se montre peu sûr de lui.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer peu sûr de lui.

S9. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre calme.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre calme qu'en cas de difficulté; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi calmes en cas de difficulté; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré calme en cas de difficulté.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer calme.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre calme.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer calme.



P9. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre calme.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre calme même en l'absence de difficulté; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas calmes en cas de difficulté; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré calme en cas de difficulté.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer calme.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre calme.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer calme.

C9. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre calme.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre calme qu'en cas de difficulté; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré calme en cas de difficulté.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer calme.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre calme.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer calme.

S10. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre inquiet.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre inquiet qu'en cas de difficulté; en général, les gens se montrent eux aussi inquiets en cas de difficulté; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré inquiet en cas de difficulté.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer inquiet.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre inquiet.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer inquiet.

P10. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre inquiet.

informations complémentaires: Paul se montre inquiet même en l'absence de difficulté; en général, les gens ne se montrent pas inquiets en cas de difficulté; dans le passé, Paul s'est toujours montré inquiet en cas de difficulté.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer inquiet.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre inquiet.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer inquiet.

C10. En cas de difficulté, Paul se montre inquiet.

informations complémentaires: Paul ne se montre inquiet qu'en cas de difficulté; dans le passé, Paul s'est rarement montré inquiet en cas de difficulté.

A- C'est en lui, c'est dans sa nature de se montrer inquiet.

B- C'est la difficulté qui induit qu'il se montre inquiet.

C- Ce sont des circonstances particulières qui l'amènent à se montrer inquiet.

DER UEBERGANG VON DER ERSTEN ZUR ZWEITEN SYSTEMISCHEN THEORIE

Zeno GOZO

Universitatea „Tibiscus”, Facultatea de Psihologie
zenogozo@yahoo.com

INHALTANGABE

Der Konstruktivismus und die zweite Kybernetik kamen als eine epistemologische Errungenschaft der achziger Jahre. Fasziniert von der neuen Erkenntnistheorie waren auch Mitglieder der Schule von Palo Alto die damals in der systemischen Familientherapie grosse Fortschritte gemacht haben. Damit waren aber auch die Grenzen der ersten Systemik erreicht und die Zeit für neue Forschungsansätze war reif. Es wurde die Rolle des Therapeuten und der Familie als Beobachter und das therapeutische System als solches im Vordergrund gebracht. Der Therapeut wurde Mitglied dieses Systems um mit der Familie auf einen gemeinsamen Weg zu gehen. So wurde nicht nur die therapeutische Verantwortung im Vordergrund gebracht sondern auch die der Familie für ihr eigenes Wohlbefinden das mit dem Finden angepassterer und funktionellerer Verstehensweisen bessere Lebensmöglichkeiten bringen könnte.

REZUMAT

Constructivismul și a doua cibernetică au apărut ca o cucerire epistemologică a anilor 80. Membri școlii de la Palo Alto, fascinați de noua teorie a cunoașterii, erau pe atunci în plin avânt al terapiei sistemice familiale unde au avut importante dezvoltări. Prin aceasta însă s-au atins și limitele primei sistemice, și timpul pentru noi dezvoltări era pregătit. În noua orientare s-a impus rolul de observator al terapeutului și a familiei, iar sistemul terapeutic a fost adus în prim plan. Terapeutul devenea parte componentă a sistemului pentru a merge cu familia pe un drum comun. Așa a fost subliniată nu numai responsabilitatea terapeutică, dar și cea a familiei pentru propria bunăstare, prin găsirea unor modalități mai adaptate și mai funcționale de înțelegere.

Der Konstruktivismus ist in erster Linie eine neue Epistemologie, welche sich insbesondere mit dem Problem der Relativität der Erkenntnis befasst. Die Erkenntnis beginnt mit dem Erkennenden, welcher ein System aus strukturierenden und ordnenden Gesetzen (Kategorien) der „Realität“ aufbaut, so dass diese als konkrete Phenomene erscheinen. Der Eingriff des Zuschauers ist von Bedeutung und er kann nicht übersehen oder ausgeklammert werden, wie im Fall der klassischen Erkenntnis, um nur einen ontischen, vorliegenden Ausschnitt zu analysieren. In diesem Fall ist die Erkenntnis nur eine Kopie welche die Realität in einem kognitiven Diskurs oder mathematischen Formeln umsetzt. Das therapeutische System ist gemeinschaftlich aus der Vernetzung der Familie und des Therapeuten aufgebaut. Das verlangt vom Fachmann eine Offenheit oder Verfügbarkeit (was bei der Familie selbstverständlich ist) im Sinne der Kooperation in einem neuen System. Das setzt aber Gefühle, Gestik, Bewegungen und die Auswahl des Therapeuten, weil er nicht nur Beobachter ist, sondern auch beobachtet wird.

Die erste systemische Theorie setzt die Zusammenhänge und die Beobachtung derselben als wichtig voraus; die zweite systemische Theorie bringt den Therapeuten inmitten dieser Zusammenhänge. Die Familie kommuniziert mit dem Therapeuten in demselben Ausmass, in welchem dieser mit dieser im Austausch steht, was zu einem komplexen System mit vielen rekursiven Interaktionen führt, welche sich zwischen dem Familien- und therapeutischen System aufbauen. Wir können hier die integrative Modalität als Eigenschaft der Systeme erwähnen und

diejenige von Fridjof Capra vorstellen:

„Die systemische Perspektive versteht die Welt als Integration und Zusammenknüpfungen. Systeme sind integrative Totalitäten deren Eigenschaften nicht zu kleineren Teilen reduziert werden können. Die systemische Theorie konzentriert sich nicht auf kleine, Elementarteilchen, sondern auf organisatorische Grundprinzipien.“

Aus dieser Perspektive wird das Wahrheitsproblem ausgeschlossen, denn in dem neuen konstruktivistischen Paradigma ist der privilegierte Status des Experten für den Therapeuten verändert. Er befindet sich nicht mehr in einer Position der höheren Erkenntnis wodurch er die Familiensituation verändern könnte. Erst durch eine Anpassung der Familienrealität, der Erwartungen und Hoffnungen derselben könnte eine Änderung eingeleitet werden. Die Interpretationen sind anhand des Familien- und Therapeutendiskurses, als die Passendsten für eine gewisse Problematik angesehen. Der Selbstbezug der Erkenntnis muss einer konkreten Realität angepasst werden, was für die Familie Schwierigkeiten hervorrufen kann. Die Familien können sich manchmal vor Problemen blockieren und in diesem Fall liegt es am Therapeuten, diese auf neue Interpretationen, die viel angepasster sind, zu bringen. Es ist eine gemeinsame Suche, welche im therapeutischen System stattfindet und die gefundene „Wahrheit“ ist völlig neu, sowohl für die eine, als auch für die andere Seite. Im Konstruktivismus begleitet der Therapeut, er ist „im selben Boot“ mit der Familie um ein neues Modell, eine neue Vision vom Leben und deren Problemen zu gewinnen.

Die Schwerpunkte der konstruktivistischen Therapie sind folgende:

- es gibt keine objektive Erkenntnis – die Perspektiven der Familie und des Therapeuten sind nur eine mögliche Interpretation des Sachverhaltes; wir erinnern uns, dass der Therapeut in der ersten systemischen Theorie im Besitz des *know-how* war und die Familie duldet die Folgen des eigenen Fehlverhaltens;

- das System das sowohl die Familie als auch den Therapeuten beinhaltet hat die Eigenschaft der Selbstbeobachtung, welche kreisförmig funktioniert. Dieser Teufelskreis war der Familie bewusst, wurde aber von dieser in der ersten systemischen Theorie nicht gewürdigt;

F. Capra, *Wendezeit, Bausteine für ein neues Weltbild*, dtv Sachbuch, München, 1983, p. 294.

- Bedeutungen und nicht Verhaltensweisen sind zentral – das Problem liegt in der Bedeutungen welche man ihm beimisst; hier liegt wieder ein Unterschied zwischen der ersten, welche das Verhalten für wichtig und veränderungsfähig hält, und der zweiten systemischen Theorie vor;

- die Gleichsetzung des Therapeuten und Klienten – der erste ist nicht neutral sondern ein Teil des Systems den er zusammen mit seinem Kunden bildet; so wird die Bedeutung des „Fachmannes“ gemindert, um auf einem normal-menschlichen Niveau zu kommen;

- der Therapeut versucht nicht das System zu kontrollieren, er nimmt mit der Familie an einer gemeinsamen Konstruktion teil; so dass der hervorragende Status des Therapeuten aus der ersten systemischen Theorie abnimmt, denn beide Teile arbeiten für ein gemeinsamen Zweck;

- der Schwerpunkt fällt auf spontane, non-direktive Interventionen wie Humor, Spiel, Dramaturgie u.s.w., mit anderen Worten, wird das Verhalten des Therapeuten offener, leichter und naht sich der Familie;

- das Ich des Therapeuten (seine Bewegungen, Auswahlen, Gefühle u.s.w.) ist inbegriffen, weil diese seine einzigen Arbeitsinstrumente sind.

Der konstruktivistischen Therapie wurde ein fehlerhaftes therapeutisches Modell vorgeworfen, was der ersten systemischen Theorie in zahlreiche Richtungen und Schulen viel besser gelungen ist. Es ist andererseits richtig, dass der Konstruktivismus die Schulrichtung, sowie die dominanten und zu klaren Theorien, aber auch die hervorragende Rolle des Therapeuten vermeiden wollte. Die Neokybernetik ist weniger mit neuen therapeutischen



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Methoden aufgekommen, denn sie wollte die Fehler und Fehlanpassungen der alten Schule, aus der Perspektive einer neuen und faszinierenden Epistemologie, die die Grenzen der traditionellen Erkenntnis transzendiert, vermeiden. Das ist auch die Sachlage, aber aus der therapeutischen Perspektive fehlt es dem Konstruktivismus an Überzeugungskraft und Methodik in Bezug auf die Klienten. Die Fehlanpassung der erwähnten Strömung wurde in den 80 Jahren durch den sozialen Konstruktivismus und den narrativen Therapien kritisch bearbeitet; folgende Aspekte sind nennungswert:

1. Die unklare und unpräzise Redensart – zum Beispiel wird das Wort „Epistemologie“ ganz spezifisch verwendet, insofern ist der Konstruktivismus eher eine Philosophie als eine Therapie. Das ist auch sehr wahr; da die erste systemische Theorie innerhalb jeder Schule eigene theoretische Ansätze ausgebildet hat (denen vorgeworfen wurde, dass sie unpräzise, verwirrend oder metaforisch seien). Der Konstruktivismus kommt mit einer soliden Epistemologie (die auf konkrete neurobiologische Daten fusst) die er in der Familientherapie anwendet, um pragmatische Resultate zu erzielen.

2. Die Auffassung der Macht und des non-direktiven Verhaltens in der Therapie. In dieser Richtung meint J. Haley (die strategische Schule), dass in jeder Zusammenkunft, also auch in der Therapie, das Problem der Macht unausweichlich ist. Jede therapeutische Hilfe ist Manipulation, d.h. Machtausübung, auch wenn der Therapeut von seinen Studien und dem Vertrauen seiner Kundschaft unterstützt ist. Die Kunden wollen ja eigentlich, dass der Therapeut ihre Lage beeinflusst. Der non-direktive konstruktivistische Therapeut könnte hinter seiner Rolle und der Erwartungen seiner Kunden versteckt bleiben. Diese haben keine Ahnung von der Erkenntnisanhäufung des Konstruktivismus, sie wollen einfach ihre Probleme lösen und nicht Philosophen werden, die sich das Erkenntnisproblem stellen.

3. Golann (1988) sieht sogar eine Diskrepanz zwischen den therapeutischen Erwartungen und der Praxis der zweiten kybernetischen Theorie. Er stellt mehrere Abhandlungen vor, in denen die Manipulationsstrategien der Therapeuten sichtbar gemacht werden, und schliesst mit der Meinung, dass wir mit „einem therapeutischen Wolf in einem Schafspelz zweiter Ordnung zu tun haben“. Das Gelingen der Therapie impliziert wenigstens eine Meinungsmanipulation, die durch Umschreibung, als die konzeptuelle Gleiswechslung der zweiten Realität auftritt.

4. Nach Salvador Minuchin (die strukturelle Schule der ersten Systemik), der Konstruktivismus wurde eine „Ideologie“ indem er die Relativität des Erkenntnis und die Wichtigkeit einer neutralen und non-direktiven Strategie voraussetzt. In der Praxis aber ist es unmöglich das man nicht beeinflusst und als Therapeut ist man immer in der Position eines Experten, sowohl aus der eigenen als auch aus der Perspektive des Klienten. Dieser Status ist sogar erwartet und herausgefordert vom Klienten der einen braucht der ihm sein Problem von einem aussenstehenden und erkennenden Gesichtspunkt betrachtet. Obwohl Erkenntnis generell relativ ist, Klienten wollen ihr Problem kennen um es lösen zu können. Er (der Klient) ist viel zu eingefangen in seine eigenen Schwierigkeiten um noch in der Lage zu sein über epistemologische Aspekte, auch wenn sie sehr interessant, revolutionär oder erneuernd sind zu reflektieren. Der Klient oder die Familie die zum Therapeuten kommt sind in der konkreten und jetzigen Realität, im disfunktionellen und unausweichlichen den er (sie) nicht verkräften kann, befangen. Darum kommt er zum Therapeuten, der ein Experte sein sollte, ein Fachmann, der die Änderung durch seinen Status ermöglichen soll. Das nicht zu besichtigen hiesse sich hinter dem Finger verstecken zu wollen, aber sogar das zieht auf dem Spezialisten hin.

Die konstruktivistische Systemtheorie ladet jeden Therapeuten ein, seine eigene therapeutische Vision zu entwickeln: indem wir keine objektiven Wahrheiten haben, kann jedes Individuum seine eigenen, der Situation angepassten Lösungen finden. Die klassische Hierarchie, die von der ersten Systemik bewahrt wurde, sieht sich durch eine mitarbeitende Struktur verwechselt, die beide Seiten auf demselben Niveau stellt. Der Akzent fällt nicht



mehr auf die technische Virtuosität (wie in der ersten systemischen Theorie), sondern es wird die Zusammenarbeit zwischen beiden Seiten des therapeutischen System gesucht. Die Änderungen die der Therapeut durch seine Erkenntnis und technisches *know-how* induzieren könnte sind irrelevant; wichtig ist aber die Veranstaltung von Änderungssituationen, sowohl für die Familie, als auch für den Therapeuten. Es werden immer mehr nicht die innerfamiliaeren, sondern die zwischentherapeutischen Prozesse unterstrichen. Der für die erste systemische Theorie so wichtige Einklang wird in der therapeutischen Konversation uebertragen, um auf der uebergeordneten Ebene des Gesprächs über das Ausgesagte zu erlangen.

Die Offenheit des Therapeuten ist so gross, dass er nicht nur von der Familie beobachtet wird, sondern diese kann ihm sogar Fragen über seinen Status und Benehmen stellen; dies passiert gewiss um der Familie ein Indiz zur Fragestellung zu geben. Wenn diese Einstellungen in Frage gestellt werden, werden sie dadurch relativiert, was dann die Voraussetzungen für den Wechsel von Glaubensinhalten, die als solid, realistisch und objektiv, das heisst unveränderlich angesehen werden. Es ist klar, dass solche Erwartungen nur bei Familien die explorationsfähig sind und Konstruktionen von neuen Geschichten und Werten möglich machen, angepasst werden koennen.

Die erste systemische Theorie, die von der generellen Theorie der Systeme beeinflusst wurde, hat sich, genau wie die Psychoanalyse, von der Neuigkeit der therapeutischen Ansätze tragen lassen, denn diese schienen sehr angepasst zu sein. Die zweite systemische Theorie stellte sich als viel reifer dar, denn sie hat erstmal eine theoretische Basis entwickelt, auf der sie dann die Praxis aufgebaut hat, aber wie gesagt, das kann auch seine Hindernisse haben.

Ein sehr wichtiges ethisches Problem der konstruktivistischen Epistemologie mit tiefreichenden praktischen und therapeutische Konsequenzen ist die *Verantwortung*, denn „alles Ausgesagte wird von jemanden gesagt“ und „es gibt nichts ausserhalb des Beobachters“. Das heisst, dass wir für alles, was in unserem Leben passiert, verantwortlich sind; die Geschehnisse haben keine von unseren verbalen oder symbolischen Unterschieden getrennte Existenz. Anschauungen, Meinungen, Konzeptionen oder Glauben sind nur Kommentare über die Organisierung seines eigenen geschlossenen Systems. Aus dieser Perspektive scheint es schwierig und problematisch von „Familie“ zu sprechen, denn jeder Mitglied stellt in seinen Aussagen über sie nur seinen eigenen Gesichtspunkt dar, d.h., dass er nicht die Familie beschreibt, sondern seine eigene Meinung darüber. Jeder hat seine „eigene Familie“ von der er sprechen kann, was auch für den Therapeuten gültig ist. Jeder Beobachter bringt in seiner Beschreibung seine eigene Realität, Vision, Meinung oder Konzeption über das Präsentierte (seie das auch seine eigene Familie) dar. Insofern werden wir so viele Familien haben, wie viele Beschreibungen, therapeutische Beschreibung und Meinung inbegriffen. Ein wichtiger Aspekt der konstruktivistischen Perspektive ist die Idee, dass wir „kein Familienproblem“ haben können, denn diese kann nicht sprechen. Nicht die Familie als solche spricht über das Problem, sondern ihre Mitglieder, jeder für sich nach seinem eigenen Horizont. Diese Problematik beginnt und konstruiert sich in der Sprache, die in der therapeutischen Situation praesentiert wird.

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BIAIS ATTRIBUTIFS DANS LES DÉCISIONS JUDICIAIRES

Sandrine HARDY-MASSARD¹, Bernard GANGLOFF²

¹Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France).

hardypsychorouen@yahoo.fr

²Laboratoire PRIS, Département de Psychologie, Université de Rouen (France) et Département de Postgraduation en Gestion, Université Fédérale de Paraíba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

RÉSUMÉ

Nous savons depuis longtemps, du moins sur un plan théorique, que lorsque nous sanctionnons (positivement ou négativement) autrui, nous suivons un processus qui part de l'observation de conduites, pour passer à une évaluation de l'individu considéré être à la source des conduites, pour enfin aboutir à une sanction de cet autrui. Cela signifie, puisque nous ne pouvons pas sanctionner une conduite, que nous effectuons un transfert de la sanction de la conduite sur autrui, et que pour justifier de transfert, nous considérons, à tort ou à raison, l'individu responsable de cette conduite. Or sur un plan judiciaire, où il s'agit décider d'une sanction négative à la suite d'un crime ou d'un délit, cette attribution interne, qui est susceptible d'occulter de manière illégitime le poids d'éventuels facteurs environnementaux, peut être lourde de conséquences.

Nous avons, dans un récent travail, mis en place une série d'expérimentations dans chacune desquelles une infraction légale ou normative avait été commise, puis nous avons étudié, d'une part les sanctions prescrites et d'autre part les justifications de ces sanctions, notamment sur un plan attributif. C'est ce dernier point qui sera présenté, et nous discuterons des conséquences des biais attributifs mis en évidence.

Mots clés: *biais attributifs, infraction, sanction*

ABSTRACT

We know for a long time, at least on a theoretical plan, that when we punish (positively or negatively) somebody, we follow a process which starts from the observation of conducts, goes to an assessment of the individual considered to be the source of the conducts, and finally leads to the sanction his individual. It means, since we cannot punish a conduct, that we make a transfer from the sanction of the conduct to the sanction of an individual, and that to justify this transfer, we consider, rightly or wrongly, the individual responsible for this conduct. However on a judicial plan, where it is about to decide a negative sanction for a crime or an offence, this internal attribution, that is susceptible to occult illegitimately the weight of possible environmental factors, can have important consequences.

We made, in a recent work, a set of experimentations in each of which a legal or normative infringement had been committed, and we studied, on the one hand the prescribed sanctions and on the other hand the justifications of these sanctions, notably on an attributive plan. It is this last point that will be presented, and we will debate the consequences of the attributional biases that we detected.

Key words: *attributional biases, infringement, sanction*

1. INTRODUCTION

Lorsque nous sommes engagés dans une tâche cognitive qui consiste à devoir sanctionner autrui, que ce soit de manière positive ou négative, nous suivons un processus qui part de l'observation des conduites, pour passer à une évaluation de l'individu considéré comme étant à la source de ces conduites, pour enfin attribuer une sanction à cet autrui. C'est-à-dire que faute de pouvoir sanctionner directement la conduite observée, un transfert de la sanction est effectué de la conduite sur cet autrui. Mais pour justifier ce transfert, il faut pouvoir considérer, à tort ou à raison, l'individu comme étant effectivement responsable de cette conduite; ce qui signifie que l'on court toujours alors le risque de surestimer la part des facteurs internes et dispositionnels au détriment des facteurs externes et environnementaux. L'expression "d'erreur

fondamentale” utilisée en psychologie sociale et que l’on doit notamment à Ross (1977) prend alors tout son sens. Elle se définit en effet *“comme une tendance véritablement ancrée en nous qui fait en sorte que nous avons une propension à surestimer la part qui provient de l’individu: les causes internes, la personnalité, et à sous-estimer celle qui résulte de la situation: les causes externes, les circonstances”* (Leyens, 1979, p98).

Ce sont Jones et Harris (1967) qui, dans l’une de leurs expérimentations, mirent en évidence l’existence de cette “erreur”. Ils demandèrent à des étudiants, dont on savait par ailleurs qu’ils étaient opposés au régime de Fidel Castro, de juger de l’obéissance castriste d’une tierce personne d’après la dissertation que cette dernière venait de rédiger à propos du régime cubain. Selon les conditions expérimentales, les étudiants étaient avertis qu’ils liraient un essai soit en faveur de Castro soit en sa défaveur, et que l’orientation de cet essai reflétait les vues de son rédacteur ou au contraire qu’elles avaient été imposées par l’expérimentateur. Les résultats montrent que tous les étudiants ont jugé les dissertations anticastristes comme reflétant réellement un penchant anticastriste chez les auteurs de ces dissertations, qu’on leur ait dit que ces dissertations avaient été rédigées spontanément ou sur les injonctions de l’expérimentateur. De même, ils ont considéré les essais en faveur de Castro comme étant le juste reflet du penchant procastriste des auteurs quelle que soit la situation expérimentale dans laquelle ils se trouvaient, autrement dit qu’ils soient dans la situation où on leur avait dit que la dissertation reflétait les vues de son rédacteur ou dans celle où on leur avait dit qu’elle avait été rédigée suite aux ordres de l’expérimentateur. Ces résultats suggèrent ainsi qu’autrui est toujours plus perçu en termes de causalité interne : ce serait avant tout en termes de dispositions personnelles que les hétéro-attributions seraient faites.

Toutefois, d’autres études démontrèrent que cette erreur fondamentale n’était pas si systématique que cela, et qu’elle variait notamment selon que l’on procède à une auto-attribution plutôt qu’à une hétéro-attribution. On note effectivement une différence assez systématique entre la façon dont le sujet (acteur) explique sa propre conduite et la façon dont l’expliquent les observateurs. Les travaux de Jones et Nisbett (1971) montrent qu’il y a une forte propension chez l’acteur à attribuer ses propres actions aux caractéristiques de la situation, alors que l’observateur de cette situation tend à attribuer les mêmes actions à des dispositions personnelles stables. Par conséquent, Jones et Nisbett ont suggéré que l’on était en présence d’une tendance assez régulière de la part de l’acteur à attribuer ses actions aux facteurs situationnels là où l’observateur l’attribue plus volontiers aux facteurs personnels.

L’objectif de notre étude est de vérifier, dans un contexte particulier (celui des sanctions pénales), si le biais de surestimation du poids de l’acteur est également effectif lorsque l’on doit, comme «observateur», infliger à un délinquant une sanction pénale.

Dans un procès pénal, où il s’agit de décider d’une sanction négative à la suite de la commission d’un crime ou d’un délit, celui qui juge est en effet placé en situation d’hétéro-attribution. Selon l’hypothèse de Jones et Nisbett, il devrait donc tenir essentiellement compte des facteurs dispositionnels. Si tel est le cas, si une tendance à surestimer le poids des facteurs internes est effectivement observable, cela ne signifierait-il pas que le juge occulte de manière peut-être illégitime le poids d’éventuels facteurs environnementaux ayant conduit l’accusé à commettre l’infraction constatée? On perçoit bien qu’un tel fonctionnement cognitif serait alors lourd de conséquences pour la personne jugée...

Nous avons, dans un précédent travail, mis en place une série d’expérimentations dans chacune desquelles une infraction légale ou normative avait été commise, et nous avons étudié, d’une part les sanctions prescrites et d’autre part les justifications de ces sanctions, notamment sur un plan attributif. C’est ce dernier point qui sera présenté, pour discuter ensuite des conséquences de l’éventuelle application de ce biais attributif.

2. MÉTHODE

2.1. Les sujets

Au total 2013 sujets ont participé à cette expérimentation. Ils peuvent être répartis en trois populations :

- la première est constituée de 704 étudiants (hommes et femmes) inscrits en premier cycle de psychologie à l'université de Rouen¹.
- la deuxième est composée de 649 étudiants en droit (hommes et femmes) inscrits dans différentes facultés de droit (Rouen, Clermont Ferrand, Le Havre, Toulouse, Lille, et Paris) à compter de la deuxième année de DEUG jusqu'au DEA².
- la troisième population concerne des «juges naïfs»: elle est constituée de 660 individus «tout-venant» (hommes et femmes) choisis au hasard dans la rue.

2.1. Le matériel

Nous avons élaboré un questionnaire composé de 8 scénettes (4 ayant trait à des situations de la vie quotidienne et 4 se rapportant à des situations de la vie professionnelle) dans chacune desquelles un individu commettait une infraction à une règle légale ou à une norme sociale, infractions conduisant à un dommage enduré par une tierce personne ainsi placée en position de victime (annexes 1 et 2). Chacun des 8 cas se terminait par la présentation d'une prétendue enquête contenant 3 informations pouvant être utilisées comme 3 critères de jugement pour appliquer une sanction, informations qui, une fois opérationnalisées, prenaient 2 modalités (annexe 3).

L'un de nos objectifs expérimentaux étant d'étudier l'effet simple de 18 critères sur l'attribution de sanction et sur l'attribution de responsabilité, nous avons opté pour l'utilisation de plans en carré latin. Ainsi, nous aboutissons à 6 plans en carré latin contenant chacun 3 de nos 18 critères.

Tableau 1: Organisation de chacun des 6 plans en carré-latin (3 critères à 2 modalités par plan)

	Critère I en sa modalité 1	Critère I en sa modalité 2
Critère II en sa modalité 1	Critère III en sa modalité 1	Critère III en sa modalité 2
Critères II en sa modalité 2	Critère III en sa modalité 2	Critère III en sa modalité 1

Tableau 2: répartition des dix huit critères dans les six plans en carré latin

Plan 1	Consistance / Distinctivité / Consensus
Plan 2	Contrôle du comportement / Conscience de la faute / Conscience de la conséquence
Plan 3	Faute de la victime / Incitation d'autrui / Etat de nécessité
Plan 4	Beauté physique de l'acteur / âge de l'acteur / Sexe de la victime
Plan 5	Gravité des conséquences / Valence de l'événement émotionnel / Expression du remord
Plan 6	Sexe de l'acteur / Statut de l'acteur / Statut de la victime

Chaque plan en carré latin permettant de réaliser 4 combinaisons particulières de 3 critères (cf. tableau 1), nous aboutissons au total à 24 cases expérimentales (6 plans x 4 combinaisons). Chacune de nos 3 populations expérimentales fut répartie dans ces 24 cases, soit un total de 72 groupes expérimentaux indépendants les uns des autres (24 cases x 3 populations) comprenant chacun 20 à 30 individus.

¹ Population "d'experts" en psychologie, ou plus exactement de "futurs experts" en psychologie.

² Population "d'experts" en droit, ou plus exactement de "futurs experts" en droit.

Suite à la lecture de chacune de nos 8 situations, nos sujets expérimentaux étaient invités à se comporter comme des juges ayant à attribuer une sanction. La tâche expérimentale consistait d'une part à infliger une sanction³ (parmi cinq proposées) aux différents protagonistes de nos scénarios, et d'autre part à justifier en quelques lignes le choix de cette sanction. L'analyse de contenu des réponses obtenues à cette question ouverte constitue le thème de cette communication. Cette analyse met en évidence que nos sujets expérimentaux «justifient» les sanctions attribuées essentiellement en expliquant à qui ou à quoi ils «attribuent la responsabilité» de l'infraction commise, d'où le fait que nous nommions notre variable dépendante relative à ces justifications «attribution de responsabilité».

2.3. La procédure

Les individus composant nos populations d'étudiants en psychologie et d'étudiants en droit furent sollicités pour participer à ces différentes études à la fin de l'un de leurs cours. L'expérimentation se déroulait dans les amphithéâtres et salles de classe des différentes UFR après accord de leurs enseignants. Mais évidemment, bien que la passation fût collective, chaque participant répondait de manière individuelle à notre questionnaire.

En ce qui concerne les individus composant notre population de juges naïfs, ils furent sollicités dans la rue. Une fois leur accord obtenu pour participer à cette expérimentation et après avoir vérifié qu'ils correspondaient bien à notre échantillon expérimental, la passation individuelle débutait.

La tâche expérimentale consistait donc à infliger une sanction à l'auteur d'une infraction puis à justifier, suite à une question ouverte, le choix de cette sanction. Une analyse de ces discours justificatifs nous a permis de mettre en évidence que les justifications émises renvoyaient à des attributions de responsabilité et que celles-ci se distribuaient en cinq catégories: soit nos sujets expérimentaux ne font «aucune attribution», soit ils procèdent à des «attributions de responsabilité à la personne», soit à des «attributions de responsabilité à la situation», soit ils font des «attributions conjointes: à la personne et à la situation» ou bien encore proposent une «atténuation de la responsabilité».

A partir de ces résultats, nous avons réalisé des analyses dont l'objectif était de vérifier si, conformément aux résultats obtenus en psychologie sociale à propos de l'erreur fondamentale, il existait ou non une différence significative entre le nombre de fois où la catégorie «attribution de responsabilité à la personne» et la catégorie «attribution de responsabilité à la situation» ont été citées⁴. Pour le vérifier nous avons utilisé le test du χ^2 (avec un seuil de significativité de p à 0,05).

3. RÉSULTATS

Les 3 tableaux suivants indiquent notamment, pour chacun des 18 critères fournis aux sujets et en mettant ces critères en rapport avec les situations sociales *versus* professionnelles, le nombre d'attributions à la personne et le nombre d'attributions à la situation.

Le 1^{er} tableau concerne les étudiants en psychologie, le 2^{ème} les étudiants en droit, et le 3^{ème} les sujets naïfs.

Ces résultats sont assez simples à présenter. Nous observons en effet que quel que soit le critère étudié, quel que soit le lieu où se déroule l'infraction (c'est-à-dire en situation vie sociale

³ Nous ne ferons pas référence, dans cette communication, aux résultats obtenus quant à cette variable dépendante.

⁴ Puisque dans cette analyse nous nous sommes uniquement intéressés aux attributions de responsabilité à la personne et aux attributions de responsabilité à la situation, nous avons redistribué les résultats obtenus en double attribution (personne + situation) dans les catégories correspondantes.


Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

versus situation vie professionnelle), et quelle que soit la population concernée, nos sujets expérimentaux font systématiquement et de manière très significative (p systématiquement inférieur à 0.0000) plus d'attributions de responsabilité à la personne que d'attributions de responsabilité à la situation.

Tableau 3: résultats obtenus sur la population d'étudiants en psychologie

Situations :	Critères	Attrib. à la personne	Attrib. à la situation	Effectif théo.	DDL	Valeur du X ²	Seuil
Sociales	Consistance +	174	32	103	1	97.90	< 0.0000
	Consistance -	167	35	101	1	86.26	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Consistance +	144	46	95	1	50.55	< 0.0000
	Consistance -	147	45	96	1	50.20	< 0.0000
Sociales	Distinctivité +	175	40	107.5	1	84.77	< 0.0000
	Distinctivité -	166	27	96.5	1	100.11	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Distinctivité +	143	49	96	1	46.02	< 0.0000
	Distinctivité -	148	42	95	1	59.14	< 0.0000
Sociales	Consensus +	180	27	103.5	1	113.09	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	161	40	100.5	1	72.84	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Consensus +	152	42	97	1	62.37	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	139	49	94	1	43.08	< 0.0000
Sociales	C. du cpt +	174	30	102	1	101.65	< 0.0000
	C. du cpt -	177	28	102.5	1	108.30	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	C. du cpt +	150	42	96	1	60.75	< 0.0000
	C. du cpt -	145	52	98.5	1	43.90	< 0.0000
Sociales	C. faute +	189	31	110	1	113.47	< 0.0000
	C. faute -	162	27	94.5	1	96.43	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	C. faute +	149	43	96	1	58.52	< 0.0000
	C. faute -	146	51	98.5	1	45.80	< 0.0000
Sociales	C. csq +	178	29	103.5	1	107.25	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	173	29	101	1	102.65	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	C. csq +	148	47	97.5	1	52.31	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	147	47	97	1	51.54	< 0.0000
Sociales	Faute vct +	146	37	91.5	1	64.92	< 0.0000
	Faute vct -	169	30	98	1	98.62	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Faute vct +	136	37	86.5	1	56.65	< 0.0000
	Faute vct -	152	51	101.5	1	50.25	< 0.0000
Sociales	Etat de nec +	151	27	89	1	86.38	< 0.0000
	Etat de nec -	164	40	102	1	75.37	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Etat de nec +	136	46	91	1	44.50	< 0.0000
	Etat de nec -	152	42	97	1	62.37	< 0.0000
Sociales	Incit. d'autrui +	176	45	110.5	1	77.65	< 0.0000
	Incit. d'autrui -	139	22	80.5	1	85.02	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Incit. d'autrui +	164	49	106.5	1	62.09	< 0.0000
	Incit. d'autrui -	124	39	81.5	1	44.32	< 0.0000
Sociales	Beauté phys +	150	15	82.5	1	110.45	< 0.0000
	Beauté phys -	157	18	87.5	1	110.40	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Beauté phys +	152	30	91	1	81.78	< 0.0000
	Beauté phys -	130	33	81.5	1	57.72	< 0.0000
Sociales	Age de l'act +	159	16	87.5	1	116.85	< 0.0000
	Age de l'act -	148	17	82.5	1	104	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Age de l'act +	152	30	91	1	81.78	< 0.0000
	Age de l'act -	130	33	81.5	1	57.72	< 0.0000
Sociales	Victime H	134	12	73	1	101.94	< 0.0000
	Victime F	173	22	97.5	1	116.93	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Victime H	126	31	78.5	1	57.48	< 0.0000
	Victime F	156	32	94	1	81.79	< 0.0000
Sociales	Csq graves	153	17	85	1	108.80	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	148	21	84.5	1	95.44	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Csq graves	137	38	87.5	1	56	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	127	25	76	1	68.45	< 0.0000
Sociales	Valence évt +	148	16	82	1	106.24	< 0.0000
	Valence évt-	153	22	87.5	1	98.06	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Valence évt +	140	26	83	1	78.29	< 0.0000
	Valence évt-	124	37	80.5	1	47.01	< 0.0000
Sociales	Remords +	152	23	87.5	1	95.09	< 0.0000
	Remords -	149	15	82	1	109.49	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Remords +	129	35	82	1	53.88	< 0.0000
	Remords -	135	28	81.5	1	170.24	< 0.0000
Sociales	Acteur H	150	22	86	1	95.25	< 0.0000
	Acteur F	165	10	87.5	1	137.28	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Acteur H	128	32	80	1	57.60	< 0.0000
	Acteur F	142	19	80.5	1	93.97	< 0.0000
Sociales	Stat Act élevé	155	12	83.5	1	122.45	< 0.0000
	Stat act faible	160	20	90	1	108.88	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Stat Act élevé	122	24	73	1	65.78	< 0.0000
	Stat act faible	148	27	87.5	1	83.66	< 0.0000
Sociales	Stat vict élevé	164	16	90	1	121.69	< 0.0000
	Stat vict faible	151	16	83.5	1	109.13	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Stat vict élevé	149	27	88	1	84.57	< 0.0000
	Stat vict faible	121	24	72.5	1	64.89	< 0.0000



Tableau 4: résultats obtenus sur la population d'étudiants en droit

Situations :	Critères	Attrib. à la personne	Attrib. à la situation	Effectif théo.	DDL	Valeur du X ²	Seuil
Sociales	Consistance +	158	10	84	1	65.19	< 0.0000
	Consistance -	162	20	91	1	110.79	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Consistance +	155	36	95.5	1	74.14	< 0.0000
	Consistance -	148	48	98	1	51.02	< 0.0000
Sociales	Distinctivité +	158	16	87	1	115.88	< 0.0000
	Distinctivité -	162	14	88	1	124.45	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Distinctivité +	141	49	95	1	44.55	< 0.0000
	Distinctivité -	162	35	98.5	1	81.87	< 0.0000
Sociales	Consensus +	172	18	95	1	124.82	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	148	12	80	1	115.60	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Consensus +	163	41	102	1	72.93	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	140	43	91.5	1	51.41	< 0.0000
Sociales	C. du cpt +	165	12	88.5	1	132.25	< 0.0000
	C. du cpt -	149	10	79.5	1	121.31	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	C. du cpt +	145	41	93	1	58.15	< 0.0000
	C. du cpt -	130	35	82.5	1	54.69	< 0.0000
Sociales	C. faute +	158	9	83.5	1	132.94	< 0.0000
	C. faute -	156	13	84.5	1	121	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	C. faute +	135	25	80	1	75.62	< 0.0000
	C. faute -	140	51	95.5	1	41.47	< 0.0000
Sociales	C. csq +	161	11	86	1	130.81	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	153	11	82	1	122.95	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	C. csq +	137	34	85.5	1	62.04	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	138	42	90	1	51.20	< 0.0000
Sociales	Faute vct +	149	50	99.5	1	49.25	< 0.0000
	Faute vct -	149	11	80	1	119.25	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Faute vct +	140	43	91.5	1	51.41	< 0.0000
	Faute vct -	125	36	80.5	1	49.2	< 0.0000
Sociales	Etat de nec +	152	36	94	1	71.57	< 0.0000
	Etat de nec -	146	25	85.5	1	85.62	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Etat de nec +	126	37	81.5	1	48.59	< 0.0000
	Etat de nec -	139	42	90.5	1	51.98	< 0.0000
Sociales	Incit. d'autrui +	145	33	89	1	70.47	< 0.0000
	Incit. d'autrui -	153	28	90.5	1	86.32	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Incit. d'autrui +	141	31	86	1	70.35	< 0.0000
	Incit. d'autrui -	124	48	86	1	33.58	< 0.0000
Sociales	Beauté phys +	115	12	63.5	1	83.53	< 0.0000
	Beauté phys -	128	8	68	1	105.88	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Beauté phys +	108	17	62.5	1	66.25	< 0.0000
	Beauté phys -	131	22	76.5	1	77.65	< 0.0000
Sociales	Age de l'act +	122	10	66	1	95.03	< 0.0000
	Age de l'act -	121	10	65.5	1	94.05	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Age de l'act +	113	17	65	1	70.89	< 0.0000
	Age de l'act -	126	22	74	1	73.08	< 0.0000
Sociales	Victime H	163	12	87.5	1	130.29	< 0.0000
	Victime F	79	8	43.5	1	57.94	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Victime H	146	23	84.5	1	89.52	< 0.0000
	Victime F	93	16	54.5	1	54.39	< 0.0000
Sociales	Csq graves	120	10	65	1	93.08	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	127	4	65.5	1	115.49	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Csq graves	148	26	87	1	85.54	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	121	23	72	1	66.69	< 0.0000
Sociales	Valence evt +	133	9	71	1	108.28	< 0.0000
	Valence evt-	124	5	64.5	1	109.77	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Valence evt +	137	30	83.5	1	68.56	< 0.0000
	Valence evt-	132	19	75.5	1	84.56	< 0.0000
Sociales	Remords +	114	9	61.5	1	89.63	< 0.0000
	Remords -	143	5	74	1	128.67	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Remords +	126	23	74.5	1	71.20	< 0.0000
	Remords -	143	26	84.5	1	81	< 0.0000
Sociales	Acteur H	103	15	59	1	65.63	< 0.0000
	Acteur F	100	15	57.5	1	62.83	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Acteur H	103	26	64.5	1	45.96	< 0.0000
	Acteur F	116	23	69.5	1	62.23	< 0.0000
Sociales	Stat Act élevé	112	14	63	1	76.22	< 0.0000
	Stat act faible	91	16	53.5	1	52.57	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Stat Act élevé	103	30	66.5	1	40.07	< 0.0000
	Stat act faible	116	19	67.5	1	69.70	< 0.0000
Sociales	Stat vict élevé	96	17	56.5	1	55.23	< 0.0000
	Stat vict faible	107	13	60	1	73.63	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Stat vict élevé	101	25	63	1	45.84	< 0.0000
	Stat vict faible	118	24	71	1	62.22	< 0.0000

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 5: résultats obtenus sur la population de juges naïfs

Situations :	Critères	Attrib. à la personne	Attrib. à la situation	Effectif théo.	DDL	Valeur du X ²	Seuil
Sociales	Consistance +	136	23	79.5	1	80.31	< 0.0000
	Consistance -	132	18	75	1	86.64	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Consistance +	137	33	85	1	63.62	< 0.0000
	Consistance -	125	42	83.5	1	41.25	< 0.0000
Sociales	Distinctivité +	146	30	88	1	76.45	< 0.0000
	Distinctivité -	222	11	116.5	1	191.08	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Distinctivité +	142	39	90.5	1	56.61	< 0.0000
	Distinctivité -	120	36	78	1	45.23	< 0.0000
Sociales	Consensus +	128	26	77	1	67.56	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	140	15	77.5	1	100.81	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Consensus +	141	49	95	1	44.55	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	121	26	73.5	1	61.39	< 0.0000
Sociales	C. du cpt +	145	25	85	1	84.70	< 0.0000
	C. du cpt -	165	9	87	1	139.86	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	C. du cpt +	133	57	95	1	30.40	< 0.0000
	C. du cpt -	123	53	88	1	27.84	< 0.0000
Sociales	C. faute +	162	12	87	1	129.31	< 0.0000
	C. faute -	148	22	85	1	93.39	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	C. faute +	129	56	92.5	1	28.80	< 0.0000
	C. faute -	128	54	91	1	30.09	< 0.0000
Sociales	C. csq +	147	13	80	1	112.22	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	163	21	92	1	109.59	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	C. csq +	127	51	89	1	32.45	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	130	59	94.5	1	26.67	< 0.0000
Sociales	Faute vct +	135	32	83.5	1	63.53	< 0.0000
	Faute vct -	121	14	67.5	1	84.81	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Faute vct +	104	49	76.5	1	19.77	< 0.0000
	Faute vct -	115	53	84	1	22.88	< 0.0000
Sociales	Etat de nec +	115	25	70	1	57.86	< 0.0000
	Etat de nec -	141	21	81	1	88.89	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Etat de nec +	114	58	86	1	18.23	< 0.0000
	Etat de nec -	105	44	74.5	1	24.97	< 0.0000
Sociales	Incit. D'autrui +	136	25	80.5	1	76.53	< 0.0000
	Incit. D'autrui -	120	21	141	1	69.51	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Incit. D'autrui +	107	53	80	1	18.22	< 0.0000
	Incit. D'autrui -	112	49	80.5	1	24.65	< 0.0000
Sociales	Beauté phys +	110	28	69	1	48.72	< 0.0000
	Beauté phys -	131	23	77	1	75.74	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Beauté phys +	106	45	75.5	1	24.64	< 0.0000
	Beauté phys -	132	43	87.5	1	45.26	< 0.0000
Sociales	Age de l'act +	138	23	80.5	1	82.14	< 0.0000
	Age de l'act -	103	28	65.5	1	42.93	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Age de l'act +	121	43	82	1	37.10	< 0.0000
	Age de l'act -	117	45	81	1	32	< 0.0000
Sociales	Victime H	123	28	75.5	1	59.77	< 0.0000
	Victime F	118	23	70.5	1	64.01	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Victime H	111	54	82.5	1	19.69	< 0.0000
	Victime F	127	34	80.5	1	53.72	< 0.0000
Sociales	Csq graves	109	12	60.5	1	77.76	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	116	4	60	1	104.53	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Csq graves	100	31	65.5	1	36.34	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	124	26	75	1	64.03	< 0.0000
Sociales	Valence evt +	111	10	60.5	1	84.30	< 0.0000
	Valence evt-	114	6	60	1	97.20	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Valence evt +	109	26	67.5	1	51.03	< 0.0000
	Valence evt-	115	31	73	1	48.33	< 0.0000
Sociales	Remords +	108	8	58	1	86.21	< 0.0000
	Remords -	117	8	62.5	1	95.05	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Remords +	115	28	71.5	1	52.93	< 0.0000
	Remords -	109	29	69	1	46.38	< 0.0000
Sociales	Acteur H	159	11	85	1	128.85	< 0.0000
	Acteur F	140	23	81.5	1	83.98	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Acteur H	137	34	85.5	1	62.04	< 0.0000
	Acteur F	136	33	84.5	1	62.77	< 0.0000
Sociales	Stat Act élevé	162	12	87	1	129.31	< 0.0000
	Stat act faible	137	22	79.5	1	83.18	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Stat Act élevé	156	27	91.5	1	90.93	< 0.0000
	Stat act faible	117	40	78.5	1	37.76	< 0.0000
Sociales	Stat vict élevé	142	21	81.5	1	89.82	< 0.0000
	Stat vict faible	157	13	85	1	121.98	< 0.0000
Professionnelles	Stat vict élevé	136	40	88	1	52.36	< 0.0000
	Stat vict faible	137	27	82	1	73.78	< 0.0000

4. DISCUSSION ET CONCLUSION

Nos résultats montrent que nos sujets expérimentaux, qu'il s'agisse de juges experts ou de juges naïfs, sont capables, lorsqu'ils ont à déterminer la part de responsabilité qui incombe



à l'auteur d'une infraction, d'utiliser non seulement des informations concernant l'auteur de l'infraction mais aussi des informations concernant la situation ou bien encore des informations concernant la victime de cette infraction. Et en fonction de ces informations, ils attribuent la responsabilité de l'infraction commise non seulement à l'individu mais aussi parfois à la situation. Pour autant, nos analyses statistiques mettent surtout en évidence que nos sujets ont une forte tendance à privilégier les explications d'ordre dispositionnel à toute autre forme d'explication. Nous pouvons même parler, au regard des résultats obtenus, d'une prédominance systématique et très significative de la catégorie «attribution de responsabilité à la personne» sur la catégorie «attribution de responsabilité à la situation».

Il nous semble que cette prédominance peut en partie s'expliquer au regard des propositions et des conceptions théoriques notamment développées par Beauvois (1984, 1994) dans le domaine de la connaissance personnalologique. En effet, ce résultat peut s'expliquer par la probable mise en œuvre, chez nos juges-évaluateurs, d'un processus cognitif participant à la régulation sociale. L'utilisation de ces facteurs dispositionnels ont notamment pour avantage de renvoyer l'infraction commise à une simple déviance, à une simple transgression individuelle, alors que les facteurs situationnels la renverraient plus spécifiquement à un dysfonctionnement d'ordre social. Cette «stratégie cognitive» permet entre autres de préserver les lois et les valeurs socio-juridiques en vigueur dans la société à laquelle ils appartiennent. Ce raisonnement ne correspond pas, il nous semble, à une erreur de jugement mais plus véritablement à un besoin social: la préservation de l'ensemble de l'institution judiciaire, de son fonctionnement et de ses règles, et au-delà de tout le système de normes sociales, ce quelle que soit l'éventuelle injustice que cela risque d'engendrer pour l'individu jugé. L'impression qui s'en dégage est que le besoin du «général», c'est-à-dire de la société, prédomine sur le besoin du «particulier», c'est-à-dire de l'individu.

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ANNEXE 1: CONTENU DES QUATRE SITUATIONS “VIE QUOTIDIENNE”

Tom, comme chaque jour, prit le même itinéraire pour se rendre sur son lieu de travail. A un moment donné, il brûla un feu. Immédiatement un choc se fit sentir. Tom s'arrêta et s'aperçut qu'il venait de percuter un piéton. Malheureusement celui-ci gisait immobile sur le bas côté.

Sam alluma une cigarette dans une zone “non-fumeur”. La fumée que dégagea cette cigarette indisposa particulièrement une personne se trouvant à proximité de Sam. Cette personne se trouva soudainement prise d'une crise d'asthme si violente qu'elle dut être hospitalisée de toute urgence.

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



Bill, après un repas dans un restaurant, partit sans payer l'addition. Le serveur qui s'occupait de la table fut contraint de verser de sa poche l'équivalent du prix du repas non perçu.

Harry porte une arme à feu dans un lieu public. Pour impressionner ses amis, il exhibe cette arme quand soudain le coup de feu part et atteint un individu qui s'effondre immédiatement.

ANNEXE 2: CONTENU DES QUATRE SITUATIONS "VIE PROFESSIONNELLE"

Lionel, représentant en produit industriel, se rendit dans l'entreprise T, comme il en avait convenu avec le directeur commercial, afin de lui présenter les nouveautés que propose sa société. Lionel se gare sur un emplacement réservé à la direction. Si bien que monsieur Lauret, directeur commercial, voyant que l'emplacement qui lui est attribué est occupé et ne trouvant pas où garer sa voiture, décide de la garer à l'extérieur du parking de l'entreprise. A la fin de la journée, lorsqu'il compte regagner sa voiture, il comprend très vite qu'on la lui a dérobée.

Romuald est employé dans une papeterie. Il est conducteur d'une machine qui permet de couper les feuilles de papier à un format déterminé. Il travaille en collaboration avec un autre ouvrier dont le rôle est de fournir la machine en papier. L'une des règles de sécurité stipule que le conducteur doit annoncer à son collègue la mise en route de la machine afin que celui-ci cesse, à ce moment là, de remplir la machine en papier pour éviter toute coupure de la main par le coupe papier. Cependant Romuald remet la machine en route sans respecter cette règle de sécurité. Si bien que son collaborateur, surpris par la remise en route de la machine, n'eut pas le temps de retirer sa main. Le couteau lui trancha si profondément la main qu'une intervention chirurgicale s'avéra nécessaire.

Monsieur Adler, directeur d'entreprise, menaça sa secrétaire, madame Chazel, de renvoi si elle refusait un rendez-vous avec lui en dehors de ces heures de travail. Suite à cette menace, madame Chazel fit une importante dépression nerveuse qui nécessita un arrêt de travail de plusieurs semaines. Le prud'homme fut averti du comportement de monsieur Adler.

Jean-Marc, contremaître dans une usine de conditionnement de parfum, suite à une altercation avec l'une de ses employées africaines, sous ses ordres en vint à émettre des propos raciaux forts injurieux et désobligeants. L'employée, effondrée, quitta l'usine subitement dans le but de retourner chez elle pour se remettre de l'événement qui venait de se produire. Elle reçut quelques heures après un coup de téléphone de la boîte d'intérim qui lui annonçait une fin de mission pour faute professionnelle du fait d'avoir quitté son lieu de travail sans accord hiérarchique. Cette employée porta plainte contre Jean-Marc auprès de l'inspection du travail.

ANNEXE 3: EXEMPLE D'OPÉRATIONNALISATION DES DIX-HUIT CRITÈRES POUR LE SECOND SCÉNARIO "VIE QUOTIDIENNE"

Sam alluma une cigarette dans une zone "non-fumeur". La fumée que dégagait cette cigarette indisposa particulièrement une personne se trouvant à proximité de Sam. Cette personne se trouva soudainement prise d'une crise d'asthme si violente qu'elle dut être hospitalisée de toute urgence.

Consistance + : Sam fume toujours dans cette zone "non-fumeur"

Consistance - : C'est la première fois que Sam fume dans cette zone "non-fumeur"

Distinctivité + : Sam ne fume jamais dans les autres zones "non-fumeur"

Distinctivité - : Sam fume toujours dans les autres zones "non-fumeur"

Consensus + : Il est fréquent que des gens fument dans cette zone “non-fumeur”
Consensus - : Il est rare que des gens fument dans cette zone “non-fumeur”
Contrôle du comportement + : Sam n’était pas dépendant du tabac au point de ne pas pouvoir attendre pour allumer sa cigarette
Contrôle du comportement - : Sam était tellement dépendant du tabac qu’il n’a pas pu résister au besoin d’allumer sa cigarette
Conscience de la faute + : En allumant sa cigarette, Sam était conscient qu’il commettait une faute puisqu’il avait vu le panneau “interdiction de fumer”
Conscience de la faute - : En allumant cette cigarette, Sam n’était pas conscient qu’il commettait une faute puisqu’il n’avait pas vu le panneau “interdiction de fumer”
Conscience de la conséquence + : Sam était conscient des éventuelles conséquences que pouvait entraîner son geste
Conscience de la conséquence - : Sam n’était pas conscient des éventuelles conséquences que pouvait entraîner son geste
Faute de la victime + : cette personne asthmatique avait vu Sam allumer sa cigarette mais ne lui avait pas demandé de l’éteindre et n’avait pas cherché à se déplacer
Faute de la victime - : cette personne asthmatique n’avait pas vu Sam allumer sa cigarette
Etat de nécessité + : Sam n’avait pas fumé depuis plusieurs jours et était dans un état que l’on peut qualifier de manque
Etat de nécessité - : Sam, fumeur occasionnel, aurait pu attendre d’être en dehors de ce lieu “non-fumeur” pour allumer sa cigarette
Incitation d’autrui + : l’ami qui accompagnait Sam le “poussa” à allumer sa cigarette bien qu’il s’agisse d’un lieu “non-fumeur”
Incitation d’autrui - : l’ami qui accompagnait Sam ne l’avait aucunement “poussé” à allumer sa cigarette dans ce lieu “non-fumeur”
Acteur + de 40 ans, aspect physique avantageux, victime homme : Sam, un homme <i>particulièrement avenant</i> d’une <i>quarantaine d’années</i> , alluma une cigarette dans une zone “non-fumeur”. La fumée que dégagea cette cigarette indisposa particulièrement une personne se trouvant à proximité de Sam. <i>Cet homme</i> se trouva soudainement pris d’une crise d’asthme si violente qu’il dut être hospitalisé de toute urgence.
Acteur – de 25 ans, Aspect physique avantageux, victime femme : Sam, un homme <i>particulièrement avenant</i> d’environ <i>vingt cinq ans</i> , alluma une cigarette dans une zone “non-fumeur”. La fumée que dégagea cette cigarette indisposa particulièrement une personne se trouvant à proximité de Sam. <i>Cette femme</i> se trouva soudainement prise d’une crise d’asthme si violente qu’elle dut être hospitalisée de toute urgence.
Acteur 40 ans, aspect physique désavantageux, victime femme : Sam, un homme <i>particulièrement hideux</i> d’une <i>quarantaine d’années</i> , alluma une cigarette dans une zone “non-fumeur”. La fumée que dégagea cette cigarette indisposa particulièrement une personne se trouvant à proximité de Sam. <i>Cette femme</i> se trouva soudainement prise d’une crise d’asthme si violente qu’elle dut être hospitalisée de toute urgence.
Acteur 25 ans, aspect physique désavantageux, victime homme : Sam, un homme <i>particulièrement hideux</i> d’environ <i>vingt cinq ans</i> , alluma une cigarette dans une zone “non-fumeur”. La fumée que dégagea cette cigarette indisposa particulièrement une personne se trouvant à proximité de Sam. <i>Cet homme</i> se trouva soudainement pris d’une crise d’asthme si violente qu’il dut être hospitalisé de toute urgence.

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



<p>Conséquences graves ou bénignes : Sam alluma une cigarette dans une zone “non-fumeur”. La fumée que dégagea cette cigarette indisposa particulièrement une personne se trouvant à proximité de Sam. <i>Cette personne se trouva soudainement prise d’une crise d’asthme si violente qu’elle dut être hospitalisée de toute urgence. <u>Versus</u> cette personne se trouva prise d’une quinte de toux</i></p>
<p>Événement antérieur positif : Sam venait d’apprendre qu’il était reçu au concours auquel il s’était présenté</p>
<p>Événement antérieur négatif : Sam venait d’apprendre qu’il était recalé au concours auquel il s’était présenté</p>
<p>Remords + : Sam s’excusa d’avoir allumé cette cigarette</p>
<p>Remords - : Sam ne s’excusa aucunement d’avoir allumé cette cigarette</p>
<p>Acteur homme, acteur statut professionnel élevé, victime statut professionnel élevé : <i>Sam, directeur des ressources humaines d’une grande société</i>, alluma une cigarette dans une zone “non-fumeur”. La fumée que dégagea cette cigarette indisposa particulièrement une personne se trouvant à proximité de <i>Sam</i>. Cette personne, <i>qui se révéla être un responsable d’une compagnie d’assurance</i>, se trouva soudainement prise d’une crise d’asthme si violente qu’elle dut être hospitalisée de toute urgence.</p>
<p>Acteur homme, acteur statut professionnel bas, victime statut professionnel bas : <i>Sam, stagiaire en formation</i>, alluma une cigarette dans une zone “non-fumeur”. La fumée que dégagea cette cigarette indisposa particulièrement une personne se trouvant à proximité de <i>Sam</i>. Cette personne, <i>un autre stagiaire en formation</i>, se trouva soudainement prise d’une crise d’asthme si violente qu’elle dut être hospitalisée de toute urgence.</p>
<p>Acteur femme, acteur statut professionnel élevé, victime statut professionnel bas: <i>Sarah, directrice des ressources humaines d’une grande société</i>, alluma une cigarette dans une zone “non-fumeur”. La fumée que dégagea cette cigarette indisposa particulièrement une personne se trouvant à proximité de <i>Sarah</i>. Cette personne, <i>un stagiaire en formation</i>, se trouva soudainement prise d’une crise d’asthme si violente qu’elle dut être hospitalisée de toute urgence.</p>
<p>Acteur femme, acteur statut professionnel bas, victime statut professionnel élevé: <i>Sarah, stagiaire en formation</i>, alluma une cigarette dans une zone “non-fumeur”. La fumée que dégagea cette cigarette indisposa particulièrement une personne se trouvant à proximité de <i>Sarah</i>. Cette personne, <i>qui se révéla être un responsable d’une compagnie d’assurance</i>, se trouva soudainement prise d’une crise d’asthme si violente qu’elle dut être hospitalisée de toute urgence.</p>

ATTRIBUTIONAL BIASES IN THE JUDICIAL DECISIONS

1. INTRODUCTION

When we are engaged in a cognitive task which consists in having to sanction others, which it is in a positive or negative way, we follow a process which leaves the observation of the conduits, to pass to an evaluation of the individual considered as being to the source of these conduits, for finally allotting a sanction to this others. I.e. fault of being able to sanction control observed directly, a transfer of the sanction is carried out control on this others. But to

justify this transfer, it is necessary to be able to consider, wrongly or rightly, the individual as being indeed responsible for this control; what means that one runs the risk always then to over-estimate the share of the internal factors and dispositional with the detriment of the external and environmental factors. The expression of “fundamental error” used in social psychology and that one owes in particular in Ross (1977) takes all its direction then. It is defined indeed “as a tendency truly anchored in us who makes so that we have a propensity to over-estimate the share which comes from the individual: internal causes, personality, and to underestimate that which results from the situation: external causes, circumstances” (Leyens, 1979, p98).

It is Jones and Harris (1967) which, in one their experiments, reflect in obviousness the existence of this “error”. They asked students, which one could in addition that they were opposed to the mode of Fidel Castro, judge obedience castrist of a third person according to the essay that the latter had just written concerning the cuban mode. According to experimental conditions, the students were informed that they would read a test either in favour of Castro or in his discredit, and that the orientation of this test reflected the sights of its writer or on the contrary which they had been imposed by the experimenter. The results show that all the students considered the essays anti-castrists like really reflecting a leaning anti-castrist in the authors of these essays, that it was said to them that these essays had been written spontaneously or on the injunctions of the experimenter. In the same way, they considered the tests in favour of Castro as being the right reflection of the leaning pro-castrist of the authors whatever the experimental situation in which they were, in other words that they are in the situation where it had been said to them that the essay reflected the sights of its writer or in that where it had been said to them that it had been written following the orders of the experimenter. These results suggest thus that others are perceived always more in terms of internal causality: it would be above all in terms of personal provisions that hetero-attributions would be made.

However, other studies showed that this fundamental error was not so systematic only that, and that it varied in particular according to whether one rather carries out an car-attribution than with an hetero-attribution. One notes indeed a rather systematic difference between the way in which the subject (actor) explains its own control and the way in which the observers explain it. Work of Jones and Nisbett (1971) shows that there is a strong propensity in the actor to allot his own shares to the characteristics of the situation, whereas the observer of this situation tends to allot the same shares to stable personal provisions. Consequently, Jones and Nisbett suggested that one was in the presence of a rather regular tendency on behalf of the actor to allot his shares to the situational factors where the observer more readily allots it to the personal factors.

The objective of our study is to check, in a particular context (that of the penal sanctions), the assumption of Jones and Nisbett. We more precisely wondered whether the skew of over-estimate of the weight of the actor is effective when one must inflict with a delinquent a penal sanction.

In a penal lawsuit, where it is a question of deciding on a negative sanction following the commission of a crime or an offence, that which judge is indeed placed in situation of hetero-attribution. According to the assumption of Jones and Nisbett, it should thus take account of the factors dispositional primarily. If such is the case, if a tendency to over-estimate the weight of the internal factors is indeed observable, wouldn't it mean only the occult judge in a perhaps illegitimate way the weight of possible environmental factors having led the defendant to commit the noted offence? One perceives although such a cognitive operation would be then full of consequences for the judged person...

We had, in a preceding work, set up a series of experiments in each one whose a legal or normative infringement had been made, and we had studied, on the one hand the sanctions

prescribed and on the other hand the justifications of these sanctions, in particular on an attributive level. It is the latter point which will be presented, to discuss then the consequences of the possible application of this attributive skew.

2. METHOD

2.1. The subjects

On the whole 2013 subjects took part in this experimentation. They can be divided into three populations:

- first consists of 704 students (men and women) registered in first cycle of psychology at the university of Rouen⁵.

- second is made up of 649 students in right (men and women) registered in various Faculty of Law (Rouen, Clermont-Ferrand, Le Havre, Toulouse, Lille, and Paris) as from the second year of DEUG until the DEA⁶.

- the third population concerns “naive judges”: it consists of 660 individuals “crusher-run aggregates” (men and women) randomly selected in the street.

2.1. The material

We prepared a questionnaire made up of 8 scenarios (4 having been filled with situations from the everyday life and 4 referring to situations of the professional life) in each one where an individual committed an offence with a legal rule or a social standard, infringements leading to a damage endured by a third person thus placed in position of victim (appendices 1 and 2). Each of the 8 cases ended in the presentation of an alleged investigation containing 3 information being able to be used like 3 criteria of judgement to apply a sanction, information which, once operationnalized, took 2 methods (appendix 3).

One of our experimental objectives being to study the simple effect of 18 criteria on the attribution of sanction and attribution of responsibility, we chose the use of plans in Latin square. Thus, we end to 6 plans in Latin square containing each one 3 of our 18 criteria.

Table 1: Organization of each of the 6 plans in square-Latin (3 criteria with 2 methods per plan)

	Critère I en sa modalité 1	Critère I en sa modalité 2
Criterion I in its modalité 1	Critère III en sa modalité 1	Critère III en sa modalité 2
Critères II en sa modalité 2	Critère III en sa modalité 2	Critère III en sa modalité 1

Table 2: distribution of the ten eight criteria in the six plans in Latin square

Plan 1	Consistency/Distinctivity/Consensus
Plan 2	Controls behavior/Conscience of the fault/Conscience of the consequence
Plan 3	Fault of the victim/Incentive of others/State of need
Plan 4	Beauty of the actor/age of the actor/Sex of the victim
Plan 5	Gravity of the consequences/Valence of the emotional event/Expression of the regret
Plan 6	Sex of the actor/Statute of the actor/Statute of the victim

Each plan in Latin square allowing to carry out 4 particular combinations of 3 criteria (cf table 1), we end on the whole to 24 experimental boxes (6 plans X 4 combinations). Each one of our 3 experimental populations was distributed in these 24 boxes, that is to say a total of

⁵ Population “d’experts” en psychologie, ou plus exactement de “futurs experts “ en psychologie.

⁶ Population “d’experts” en droit, ou plus exactement de “futurs experts “ en droit



72 experimental groups independent from/to each other (24 boxes X 3 populations) including/ understanding each one 20 to 30 individuals.

Following the reading of each one of our 8 situations, our experimental subjects were invited to behave like judges having to allot a sanction. The experimental task consisted in on the one hand inflicting a sanction⁷ (among five proposed) with the various protagonists of our scenarios, and on the other hand to justify in some lines the choice of this sanction. The analysis of contents of the answers obtained to this open question constitutes the topic of this communication. This analysis highlights that our experimental subjects “justify” the sanctions allotted primarily by explaining to which or with what they “allot the responsibility” for the made infringement, from where the fact why we name our variable dependent relating to these justifications “attribution on responsibility”.

2.3. Procedure

The individuals made for populations of students in psychology and students in law were solicited to take part in these various studies at the end of the one their courses. The experimentation proceeded in the amphitheatres and classrooms of the various UFR after agreement of their teachers. But obviously, although making was collective, each participant answered in an individual way to our questionnaire.

In regard to the individuals' distributing our population of naive judges, they were requested in the street. Once their agreement to take part in this experimentation and after having checked that they corresponded well to our experimental sample, individual making began.

The experimental task thus consisted in inflicting a sanction with the author of an infringement then to justify, following an opened question, the choice of this sanction. An analysis of these justifying speeches enabled us to highlight which the emitted justifications returned to attributions of responsibility and which those distributed in five categories: either our experimental subjects do not make “any attribution”, or they carry out “attributions of responsibility to the person”, or with “attributions of responsibility to the situation”, or they make “joint attributions: with the person and the situation” or even propose a “attenuation of the responsibility”.

From these results, we carried out analyses whose objective was to check if, in accordance with the results obtained in social psychology in connection with the fundamental error, there was or not a significant difference between the number of times where the category “attribution of responsibility to the person” and the category “attribution of responsibility to the situation” were quoted⁸. To check it we used the test of X^2 (with a threshold of significativity of p with 0,05).

3. RESULTS

The 3 following tables indicate in particular, for each of the 18 criteria provided to the subjects and by putting these criteria in connection with the social conditions versus professional, the number of attributions to the person and the number of attributions to the situation.

The 1st table relates to the students in psychology, the 2nd students in right, and the 3rd subjects naive.

These results are rather simple to present. We observe indeed that whatever the studied criterion, whatever the place where the infringement proceeds (i.e. in situation social life

⁷ Nous ne ferons pas référence, dans cette communication, aux résultats obtenus quant à cette variable dépendante.

⁸ Puisque dans cette analyse nous sommes uniquement intéressés aux attributions de responsabilité à la personne et aux attributions de responsabilité à la situation, nous avons redistribué les résultats obtenus en double attribution (personne + situation) dans les catégories correspondantes.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

versus situation professional life), and whatever the population concerned, our experimental subjects make systematically and in a very significant way (p systematically lower than 0.0000) more attributions of responsibility to the person than for attributions for responsibility to the situation.

Table 3: results obtained on the population of students in psychology

Situations :	Criteria	Attrib. person	Attrib. situation	Effectif théo.	DDL	Value of	Seuil
Social	Consistency +	174	32	103	1	97.90	< 0.0000
	Consistency -	167	35	101	1	86.26	< 0.0000
Professional	Consistency +	144	46	95	1	50.55	< 0.0000
	Consistency -	147	45	96	1	50.20	< 0.0000
Social	Distinctivity +	175	40	107.5	1	84.77	< 0.0000
	Distinctivity-	166	27	96.5	1	100.11	< 0.0000
Professional	Distinctivity +	143	49	96	1	46.02	< 0.0000
	Distinctivity -	148	42	95	1	59.14	< 0.0000
Social	Consensus +	180	27	103.5	1	113.09	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	161	40	100.5	1	72.84	< 0.0000
Professional	Consensus +	152	42	97	1	62.37	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	139	49	94	1	43.08	< 0.0000
Social	C. behavior +	174	30	102	1	101.65	< 0.0000
	C. behavior -	177	28	102.5	1	108.30	< 0.0000
Professional	C. behavior +	150	42	96	1	60.75	< 0.0000
	C. behavior -	145	52	98.5	1	43.90	< 0.0000
Social	C. fault +	189	31	110	1	113.47	< 0.0000
	C. fault -	162	27	94.5	1	96.43	< 0.0000
Professional	C. fault +	149	43	96	1	58.52	< 0.0000
	C. fault -	146	51	98.5	1	45.80	< 0.0000
Social	C. csq +	178	29	103.5	1	107.25	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	173	29	101	1	102.65	< 0.0000
Professional	C. csq +	148	47	97.5	1	52.31	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	147	47	97	1	51.54	< 0.0000
Social	Fault vct +	146	37	91.5	1	64.92	< 0.0000
	Fault vct -	169	30	98	1	98.62	< 0.0000
Professional	Fault vct +	136	37	86.5	1	56.65	< 0.0000
	Fault vct -	152	51	101.5	1	50.25	< 0.0000
Social	State of need +	151	27	89	1	86.38	< 0.0000
	State of need -	164	40	102	1	75.37	< 0.0000
Professional	State of need +	136	46	91	1	44.50	< 0.0000
	State of need -	152	42	97	1	62.37	< 0.0000
Social	Incent. others +	176	45	110.5	1	77.65	< 0.0000
	Incent. others -	139	22	80.5	1	85.02	< 0.0000
Professional	Incent. others +	164	49	106.5	1	62.09	< 0.0000
	Incent. others -	124	39	81.5	1	44.32	< 0.0000
Social	Beauty phys +	150	15	82.5	1	110.45	< 0.0000
	Beauty phys -	157	18	87.5	1	110.40	< 0.0000
Professional	Beauty phys +	152	30	91	1	81.78	< 0.0000
	Beauty phys -	130	33	81.5	1	57.72	< 0.0000
Social	Age actor+	159	16	87.5	1	116.85	< 0.0000
	Age actor -	148	17	82.5	1	104	< 0.0000
Professional	Age actor+	152	30	91	1	81.78	< 0.0000
	Age actor -	130	33	81.5	1	57.72	< 0.0000
Social	Victim H	134	12	73	1	101.94	< 0.0000
	Victim F	173	22	97.5	1	116.93	< 0.0000
Professional	Victim H	126	31	78.5	1	57.48	< 0.0000
	Victim F	156	32	94	1	81.79	< 0.0000
Social	Csq graves	153	17	85	1	108.80	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	148	21	84.5	1	95.44	< 0.0000
Professional	Csq graves	137	38	87.5	1	56	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	127	25	76	1	68.45	< 0.0000
Social	Valence evt +	148	16	82	1	106.24	< 0.0000
	Valence evt-	153	22	87.5	1	98.06	< 0.0000
Professional	Valence evt +	140	26	83	1	78.29	< 0.0000
	Valence evt-	124	37	80.5	1	47.01	< 0.0000
Social	Regret +	152	23	87.5	1	95.09	< 0.0000
	Regret -	149	15	82	1	109.49	< 0.0000
Professional	Regret +	129	35	82	1	53.88	< 0.0000
	Regret -	135	28	81.5	1	170.24	< 0.0000
Social	Actor H	150	22	86	1	95.25	< 0.0000
	Actor F	165	10	87.5	1	137.28	< 0.0000
Professional	Actor H	128	32	80	1	57.60	< 0.0000
	Actor F	142	19	80.5	1	93.97	< 0.0000
Social	Stat Act raised	155	12	83.5	1	122.45	< 0.0000
	Stat act weak	160	20	90	1	108.88	< 0.0000
Professional	Stat Act raised	122	24	73	1	65.78	< 0.0000
	Stat act weak	148	27	87.5	1	83.66	< 0.0000
Social	Stat vict raised	164	16	90	1	121.69	< 0.0000
	Stat vict weak	151	16	83.5	1	109.13	< 0.0000
Professional	Stat vict raised	149	27	88	1	84.57	< 0.0000
	Stat vict weak	121	24	72.5	1	64.89	< 0.0000

**Table 4:** results obtained on the population of students studying law

Situations :	Criteria	Attrib. à la personne	Attrib. à la situation	Effectif théo.	DDL	Valeur du X ²	Seuil
Social	Consistency +	158	10	84	1	65.19	< 0.0000
	Consistency -	162	20	91	1	110.79	< 0.0000
Professional	Consistency +	155	36	95.5	1	74.14	< 0.0000
	Consistency -	148	48	98	1	51.02	< 0.0000
Social	Distinctivity +	158	16	87	1	115.88	< 0.0000
	Distinctivity-	162	14	88	1	124.45	< 0.0000
Professional	Distinctivity +	141	49	95	1	44.55	< 0.0000
	Distinctivity -	162	35	98.5	1	81.87	< 0.0000
Social	Consensus +	172	18	95	1	124.82	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	148	12	80	1	115.60	< 0.0000
Professional	Consensus +	163	41	102	1	72.93	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	140	43	91.5	1	51.41	< 0.0000
Social	C. behavior +	165	12	88.5	1	132.25	< 0.0000
	C. behavior -	149	10	79.5	1	121.31	< 0.0000
Professional	C. behavior +	145	41	93	1	58.15	< 0.0000
	C. behavior -	130	35	82.5	1	54.69	< 0.0000
Social	C. fault +	158	9	83.5	1	132.94	< 0.0000
	C. fault -	156	13	84.5	1	121	< 0.0000
Professional	C. fault +	135	25	80	1	75.62	< 0.0000
	C. fault -	140	51	95.5	1	41.47	< 0.0000
Social	C. csq +	161	11	86	1	130.81	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	153	11	82	1	122.95	< 0.0000
Professional	C. csq +	137	34	85.5	1	62.04	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	138	42	90	1	51.20	< 0.0000
Social	Fault vct +	149	50	99.5	1	49.25	< 0.0000
	Fault vct -	149	11	80	1	119.25	< 0.0000
Professional	Fault vct +	140	43	91.5	1	51.41	< 0.0000
	Fault vct -	125	36	80.5	1	49.2	< 0.0000
Social	State of need +	152	36	94	1	71.57	< 0.0000
	State of need -	146	25	85.5	1	85.62	< 0.0000
Professional	State of need +	126	37	81.5	1	48.59	< 0.0000
	State of need -	139	42	90.5	1	51.98	< 0.0000
Social	Incent. others +	145	33	89	1	70.47	< 0.0000
	Incent. others -	153	28	90.5	1	86.32	< 0.0000
Professional	Incent. others +	141	31	86	1	70.35	< 0.0000
	Incent. others -	124	48	86	1	33.58	< 0.0000
Social	Beauty phys +	115	12	63.5	1	83.53	< 0.0000
	Beauty phys -	128	8	68	1	105.88	< 0.0000
Professional	Beauty phys +	108	17	62.5	1	66.25	< 0.0000
	Beauty phys -	131	22	76.5	1	77.65	< 0.0000
Social	Age actor+	122	10	66	1	95.03	< 0.0000
	Age actor -	121	10	65.5	1	94.05	< 0.0000
Professional	Age actor+	113	17	65	1	70.89	< 0.0000
	Age actor -	126	22	74	1	73.08	< 0.0000
Social	Victim H	163	12	87.5	1	130.29	< 0.0000
	Victim F	79	8	43.5	1	57.94	< 0.0000
Professional	Victim H	146	23	84.5	1	89.52	< 0.0000
	Victim F	93	16	54.5	1	54.39	< 0.0000
Social	Csq graves	120	10	65	1	93.08	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	127	4	65.5	1	115.49	< 0.0000
Professional	Csq graves	148	26	87	1	85.54	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	121	23	72	1	66.69	< 0.0000
Social	Valence evt +	133	9	71	1	108.28	< 0.0000
	Valence evt-	124	5	64.5	1	109.77	< 0.0000
Professional	Valence evt +	137	30	83.5	1	68.56	< 0.0000
	Valence evt-	132	19	75.5	1	84.56	< 0.0000
Social	Regret +	114	9	61.5	1	89.63	< 0.0000
	Regret -	143	5	74	1	128.67	< 0.0000
Professional	Regret +	126	23	74.5	1	71.20	< 0.0000
	Regret -	143	26	84.5	1	81	< 0.0000



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Social	Actor H	103	15	59	1	65.63	< 0.0000
	Actor F	100	15	57.5	1	62.83	< 0.0000
Professional	Actor H	103	26	64.5	1	45.96	< 0.0000
	Actor F	116	23	69.5	1	62.23	< 0.0000
Social	Stat Act raised	112	14	63	1	76.22	< 0.0000
	Stat act weak	91	16	53.5	1	52.57	< 0.0000
Professional	Stat Act raised	103	30	66.5	1	40.07	< 0.0000
	Stat act weak	116	19	67.5	1	69.70	< 0.0000
Social	Stat vict raised	96	17	56.5	1	55.23	< 0.0000
	Stat vict weak	107	13	60	1	73.63	< 0.0000
Professional	Stat vict raised	101	25	63	1	45.84	< 0.0000
	Stat vict weak	118	24	71	1	62.22	< 0.0000

Table 5: results obtained on the population of naive judge

Situations :	Criteria	Attrib. à la personne	Attrib. à la situation	Effectif théo.	DDL	Valeur du X ²	Seuil
Social	Consistency +	136	23	79.5	1	80.31	< 0.0000
	Consistency -	132	18	75	1	86.64	< 0.0000
Professional	Consistency +	137	33	85	1	63.62	< 0.0000
	Consistency -	125	42	83.5	1	41.25	< 0.0000
Social	Distinctivity +	146	30	88	1	76.45	< 0.0000
	Distinctivity-	222	11	116.5	1	191.08	< 0.0000
Professional	Distinctivity +	142	39	90.5	1	56.61	< 0.0000
	Distinctivity -	120	36	78	1	45.23	< 0.0000
Social	Consensus +	128	26	77	1	67.56	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	140	15	77.5	1	100.81	< 0.0000
Professional	Consensus +	141	49	95	1	44.55	< 0.0000
	Consensus -	121	26	73.5	1	61.39	< 0.0000
Social	C. behavior +	145	25	85	1	84.70	< 0.0000
	C. behavior -	165	9	87	1	139.86	< 0.0000
Professional	C. behavior +	133	57	95	1	30.40	< 0.0000
	C. behavior -	123	53	88	1	27.84	< 0.0000
Social	C. fault +	162	12	87	1	129.31	< 0.0000
	C. fault -	148	22	85	1	93.39	< 0.0000
Professional	C. fault +	129	56	92.5	1	28.80	< 0.0000
	C. fault -	128	54	91	1	30.09	< 0.0000
Social	C. csq +	147	13	80	1	112.22	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	163	21	92	1	109.59	< 0.0000
Professional	C. csq +	127	51	89	1	32.45	< 0.0000
	C. csq -	130	59	94.5	1	26.67	< 0.0000
Social	Fault vct +	135	32	83.5	1	63.53	< 0.0000
	Fault vct -	121	14	67.5	1	84.81	< 0.0000
Professional	Fault vct +	104	49	76.5	1	19.77	< 0.0000
	Fault vct -	115	53	84	1	22.88	< 0.0000
Social	State of need +	115	25	70	1	57.86	< 0.0000
	State of need -	141	21	81	1	88.89	< 0.0000
Professional	State of need +	114	58	86	1	18.23	< 0.0000
	State of need -	105	44	74.5	1	24.97	< 0.0000
Social	Incent. others +	136	25	80.5	1	76.53	< 0.0000
	Incent. others -	120	21	141	1	69.51	< 0.0000
Professional	Incent. others +	107	53	80	1	18.22	< 0.0000
	Incent. others -	112	49	80.5	1	24.65	< 0.0000
Social	Beauty phys +	110	28	69	1	48.72	< 0.0000
	Beauty phys -	131	23	77	1	75.74	< 0.0000
Professional	Beauty phys +	106	45	75.5	1	24.64	< 0.0000
	Beauty phys -	132	43	87.5	1	45.26	< 0.0000
Social	Age actor+	138	23	80.5	1	82.14	< 0.0000
	Age actor -	103	28	65.5	1	42.93	< 0.0000
Professional	Age actor+	121	43	82	1	37.10	< 0.0000
	Age actor -	117	45	81	1	32	< 0.0000



Social	Victim H	123	28	75.5	1	59.77	< 0.0000
	Victim F	118	23	70.5	1	64.01	< 0.0000
Professional	Victim H	111	54	82.5	1	19.69	< 0.0000
	Victim F	127	34	80.5	1	53.72	< 0.0000
Social	Csq graves	109	12	60.5	1	77.76	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	116	4	60	1	104.53	< 0.0000
Professional	Csq graves	100	31	65.5	1	36.34	< 0.0000
	Csq faible	124	26	75	1	64.03	< 0.0000
Social	Valence evt +	111	10	60.5	1	84.30	< 0.0000
	Valence evt-	114	6	60	1	97.20	< 0.0000
Professional	Valence evt +	109	26	67.5	1	51.03	< 0.0000
	Valence evt-	115	31	73	1	48.33	< 0.0000
Social	Regret +	108	8	58	1	86.21	< 0.0000
	Regret -	117	8	62.5	1	95.05	< 0.0000
Professional	Regret +	115	28	71.5	1	52.93	< 0.0000
	Regret -	109	29	69	1	46.38	< 0.0000
Social	Actor H	159	11	85	1	128.85	< 0.0000
	Actor F	140	23	81.5	1	83.98	< 0.0000
Professional	Actor H	137	34	85.5	1	62.04	< 0.0000
	Actor F	136	33	84.5	1	62.77	< 0.0000
Social	Stat Act raised	162	12	87	1	129.31	< 0.0000
	Stat act weak	137	22	79.5	1	83.18	< 0.0000
Professional	Stat Act raised	156	27	91.5	1	90.93	< 0.0000
	Stat act weak	117	40	78.5	1	37.76	< 0.0000
Social	Stat vict raised	142	21	81.5	1	89.82	< 0.0000
	Stat vict weak	157	13	85	1	121.98	< 0.0000
Professional	Stat vict raised	136	40	88	1	52.36	< 0.0000
	Stat vict weak	137	27	82	1	73.78	< 0.0000

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Our results show that our subjects experimental, that it acts expert judges or naive judges, are able, when they have to determine the share of responsibility who falls on the author of an infringement, to use not only information concerning the author of the infringement but also of information concerning the situation or even of information concerning the victim of this infringement. And according to this information, they allot the responsibility for the infringement made not only to the individual but also sometimes to the situation. For as much, our statistical analyses especially highlight that, our subjects have a strong tendency to privilege the explanations of order dispositional to any other form of explanation. We can even speak, taking into consideration result obtained, of a systematic and very significant prevalence of the category “attribution of responsibility to the person” on the category “attribution of responsibility to the situation”.

It seems to us that this prevalence can be partly explained taking into consideration theoretical design and proposal in particular developed by Beauvois (1984, 1994) in the field of personologic knowledge. Indeed, this result can be explained by the probable implementation, in our judge-appraisers, of a cognitive process taking part in the social regulation. The use of these factors dispositional have in particular the advantage of returning the infringement made to a simple deviance, with a simple individual transgression, whereas the situational factors would more specifically return it to a dysfunction of a social nature. This “cognitive strategy” allows inter alia preserving the socio-juridical laws and values into force in the company to which they belong. This reasoning does not correspond, it seems to us, with an error of judgment but more truly with a social need: the safeguarding of the whole of the legal institution, its operation and its rules, and beyond all the system of social standards, this whatever the possible injustice that that is likely to generate for the judged individual. The impression which emerges some is that

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



the need for the “general”, i.e. of the company, prevails on the need for the “private individual”, i.e. of the individual.

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APPENDIX 1: CONTENTS OF THE FOUR SITUATIONS “EVERYDAY LIFE”

Tom, as each day, took the same route to go on his place of work. At a given time, it burned a fire. Immediately a shock was felt. Tom stopped and realized that it had just struck a pedestrian. Unfortunately this one lay motionless on the low side.

Sam lit a cigarette in a zone “no smoker”. The smoke which this cigarette released upset a person particularly being near Sam. This person was suddenly taken of an attack of asthma so violent that it urgently had to be hospitalized.

Bill, after a meal in a restaurant, left without paying the addition. The waiter which dealt with the table was constrained to pour its pocket the equivalent of the price of the meal not perceived.

Harry carries a weapon to fire in a public place. To impress his/her friends, it exhibe this weapon when suddenly the shot leaves and reaches an individual who breaks down immediately.

APPENDIX 2: CONTENTS OF THE FOUR SITUATIONS “PROFESSIONAL LIFE”

Lionel, representing in industrial product, went in the company T, as it had been appropriate about it with the sales manager, in order to present the innovations to him which its company proposes. Lionel is parked on a site reserved for the direction. So that Mr Lauret, sales manager, indicator that the site which is allotted to him is occupied and not finding or to park its car, decides to park it outside the carpark of the company. At the end of the day, when it intends to regain its car, it understands very quickly that it was concealed to him.

Romuald is employed in a paper mill. He is conductive of a machine which makes it possible to cut the paper sheets to a given format. He works in collaboration with another workman whose role is to provide the machine out of paper. One of the safety requirements stipulates that the driver must announce with his/her colleague the startup of the machine so that this one ceases, at this time there, to fill the paper machine to avoid any cut of the hand by the cut paper. However Romuald gave the machine without complying with on the way this safety requirement. So that his/her collaborator, surprised by the re-starting of the machine, time did not have to withdraw its hand. The knife so deeply sliced the hand to him which a surgical operation proved to be necessary.

Mr Adler, director of company, threatened his secretary, Mrs Chazel, of reference if it refused an appointment with him apart from these working hours. Upon this threat, Mrs Chazel followed an important nervous breakdown which required a stop of work of several weeks. The arbitrator was informed behavior of Mr Adler.

Jean-Marc, foreman in a factory of conditioning of perfume, following a dispute with one of its African employees, under its orders came from there to emit strong racial remarks abusive and unpleasant. The employee, broken down, suddenly left the factory with an aim of turning over to it to recover from the event which had just occurred. She accepted a few hours after a telephone call of the box of interim which announced to him an end of mission for professional misconduct because of of having left its place of work without hierarchical agreement. This employee carried felt sorry for against Jean-Marc near the factory inspectorate

APPENDIX 3: EXAMPLE OF OPERATIONNALISATION OF THE TEN EIGHT CRITERIA FOR THE SECOND SCENARIO “EVERYDAY LIFE”

Sam lit a cigarette in a zone “no smoker”. The smoke which this cigarette released upset a person particularly being near Sam. This person was suddenly taken of an attack of asthma so violent that it urgently had to be hospitalized.
Consistency +: Sam always smokes in this zone “no smoker”
Consistency -: It is the first time that Sam smokes in this zone “no smoker”
Distinctivity +: Sam never smokes in the other zone “no smoker”
Distinctivité -: Sam always smokes in the other areas “no smoker”
Consensus +: It is frequent that people smoke in this zone “no smoker”
Consensus -: It is rare that people smoke in this areas “no smoker”
Control behavior +: Sam was not depend on the tobacco at the point not to be able to wait to light his cigarette
Control behavior -: Sam was so depend on the tobacco which it could not resist the need to light his cigarette
Conscience of the fault +: By lighting his cigarette, Sam was conscious that it made a fault since it had seen the panel “prohibition to smoke”
Conscience of the fault -: By lighting this cigarette, Sam was not conscious that it made a fault since it had not seen the panel “prohibition to smoke”
Conscience of the consequence +: Sam was conscious of the possible consequences which its gesture could involve
Conscience of the consequence -: Sam was not conscious of the possible consequences which its gesture could involve
Fault of the victim +: this asthmatic person had seen Sam lighting her cigarette but had not asked him to extinguish it and had not sought to move
Fault of the victim -: this asthmatic person had not seen Sam lighting her cigarette
State of need +: Sam had not smoked for several days and was in a state which one can describe as “lack”
State of need -: Sam, occasional smoker, could have awaited to be apart from this place “no smoker” to light his cigarette
Incentive of others +: the friend who accompanied Sam it “pushed” to light his cigarette although it is about a place “no smoker”
Incentive of others -: the friend who accompanied Sam did not have it at all “thorough” to light his cigarette in this place “no smoker”
Actor + 40 years, advantageous physical aspect, victim man: Sam, a particularly pleasing man of forty years, lit a cigarette in a zone “no smoker”. The smoke which this cigarette released upset a person particularly being near Sam. This man was suddenly taken of an attack of asthma so violent that it urgently had to be hospitalized.
Actor - 25 years, advantageous physical Aspect, victim woman: Sam, a particularly pleasing man of approximately twenty five years, lit a cigarette in a zone “no smoker”. The smoke which this cigarette released upset a person particularly being near Sam. This woman was suddenly taken of an attack of asthma so violent that it urgently had to be hospitalized.
Actor 40 years, disadvantageous physical aspect, victim woman: Sam, a particularly hideous man of forty years, lit a cigarette in a zone “no smoker”. The smoke which this cigarette released upset a person particularly being near Sam. This woman was suddenly taken of an attack of asthma so violent that it urgently had to be hospitalized.



Actor 25 years, disadvantageous physical aspect, victim man: Sam, a particularly hideous man of approximately twenty five years, lit a cigarette in a zone “no smoker”. The smoke which this cigarette released upset a person particularly being near Sam. This man was suddenly taken of an attack of asthma so violent that it urgently had to be hospitalized.

Serious or benign consequences: Sam lit a cigarette in a zone “no smoker”. The smoke which this cigarette released upset a person particularly being near Sam. This person was suddenly taken of an attack of asthma so violent that it urgently had to be hospitalized. Versus this person was taken of a coughing fit

Positive former event: Sam had just learned that he was received with the contest to which he had presented himself

Negative former event: Sam had just learned that he was readjusted with the contest to which he had presented himself

Remorse +: Sam excused himself to have lit this cigarette

Remorse -: Sam at all did not excuse himself to have lit this cigarette

Actor man, actor high professional statute, victim high professional statute: Sam, director of human resources of a large company, lit a cigarette in a zone “no smoker”. The smoke which this cigarette released upset a person particularly being near Sam. This person, who proved to be a person in charge for an insurance company, was suddenly taken of an attack of asthma so violent which it urgently had to be hospitalized.

Actor man, actor professional statute low, victim professional statute low: Sam, trainee in formation, lit a cigarette in a zone “no smoker”. The smoke which this cigarette released upset a person particularly being near Sam. This person, another trainee in formation, was suddenly taken of an attack of asthma so violent which it urgently had to be hospitalized.

Actor woman, actor raised professional statute, victim professional statute low: Sarah, director of human resources of a large company, lit a cigarette in a zone “no smoker”. The smoke which this cigarette released upset a person particularly being near Sarah. This person, a trainee in formation, was suddenly taken of an attack of asthma so violent which it urgently had to be hospitalized.

Actor woman, professional actor low, victim high professional statute: Sarah, trainee in formation, lit a cigarette in a zone “no smoker”. The smoke which this cigarette released upset a person particularly being near Sarah. This person, who proved to be a person in charge for an insurance company, was suddenly taken of an attack of asthma so violent which it urgently had to be hospitalized.

CURRENT TENDENCIES IN PSYCHOTHERAPY

Irina HOLDEVICI, Petrișor ȚEPURLUI

Universitatea "Titu Maiorescu", București

RÉZUMÉ

La généralisation des tendances psychologiques qui abordent la psychothérapie dans une manière éclectique avec l'accent sur les thérapies brèves, centrées au symptôme, et avec l'accent sur l'intégration des stratégies humanistes dans le cadre de thérapies cognitivo-comportementales.

On fera des exercices pratiques; on discutera sur des études de cas; y concernant le concept de cas et la précision claire des objectifs et des étapes, l'abord des résistances et des obstacles apparus au temps de la démarche thérapeutique

REZUMAT

Generalizarea tendințelor de abordare eclectică în psihoterapie cu accent pe psihoterapiile scurte, centrate pe simptom și pe integrarea unor strategii de tip experiențial în cadrul terapiei cognitive-comportamentale.

Se vor avea în vedere exerciții practice pe studii de caz, cu accent pe conceptualizarea cazului și precizarea clară a obiectivelor și etapelor, abordarea rezistențelor și a obstacolelor în calea demersului terapeutic

Although renowned psychotherapeutic schools maintain their supremacy, a tendency for diversifying psychotherapy models within such schools can be assessed.

1. One of the modern tendencies in psychotherapy is represented by the **orientation of the larger and larger number of therapists towards short-term psychotherapies**. A psychotherapy session must not contain futile tests, redundant methods, extended breaks and useless speeches (Zeig and Gilian, 1990, p. 37).

Brief psychotherapies incorporate short-term psychodynamic therapies and other systems as well such as behavioural and cognitive therapies, rational emotive therapy, strategic therapy, therapy by paradoxical intervention and Ericksonian therapy.

An advantage of short-term psychotherapy is that if it has no results, at least we find out earlier.

Howard and Myers (1987) underline the factors that made possible successful therapeutic intervention:

- therapeutic approach focused on the problem;
- approaches based on the principles of learning;
- systemic approach in psychotherapy.

2. **Integration and eclecticism tendency in psychotherapy**, which takes form around the '80's.

More and more authors take over and combine techniques from various orientations, techniques which proved useful in the practical activity. In 1983, the Association for Exploiting the Integration Tendency in Psychotherapy was set up in the United States. Based on research, Norcross and Newman (1992) reached the conclusion that approximately 30 to 50% of the therapists and counsellors work in an eclectic manner.

One of the main reasons which led to this integrative tendency consists in the fact that no psychological theory is complex enough to fully explain the mechanisms of human conduct.

3. Appearance of certain preoccupations for the efficiency of psychotherapy.

The main factors which contribute to the efficiency of therapy:

- support factors: affective warmth, empathy, respect, acceptance, feedbacks as well as other factors depending on the therapeutic relationship;
- factors depending on the learning process (“insight”, cognitive learning, change of attitudes, convictions, self-acceptance);
- actional factors: the client’s expectations regarding the effects of psychotherapy, therapeutic processing, therapy focusing, use of clear strategies, accurate establishing of the therapy objectives;
- suggestive factors.

Paul (1967, cit. Corey, 2001, p. 487) isn’t the opinion and that the future research referring to the efficiency of psychotherapy should answer this question: “What type of psychotherapy, carried out by whom, is more efficient for this subject, who presents this specific problem in these circumstances”.

4. Assessment in psychotherapy.

A decrease in the use of psychological tests, consider classical, in assessment is noticed especially in cognitive-behavioral therapy, but also in short-term therapies.

The clinical semi-structured interview and self-assessment scales of the symptom-problems are more and more resorted to.

5. Cognitive-behavioural psychotherapy, in its various alternatives, tends to gain more and more land.

Thus, for example, in the United States of America this kind of therapy tends to be the only one accepted by the Health Insurance Funds.

6. An important aspect which is underlined more and more is **conceptualization of the case**, which represents drawing up an explanatory diagram as to the client’s problems from the point of view of cognitive-behavioural therapy.

Conceptualization of the case represents a work model which comprises several interdependent hypotheses which must be checked.

Case study

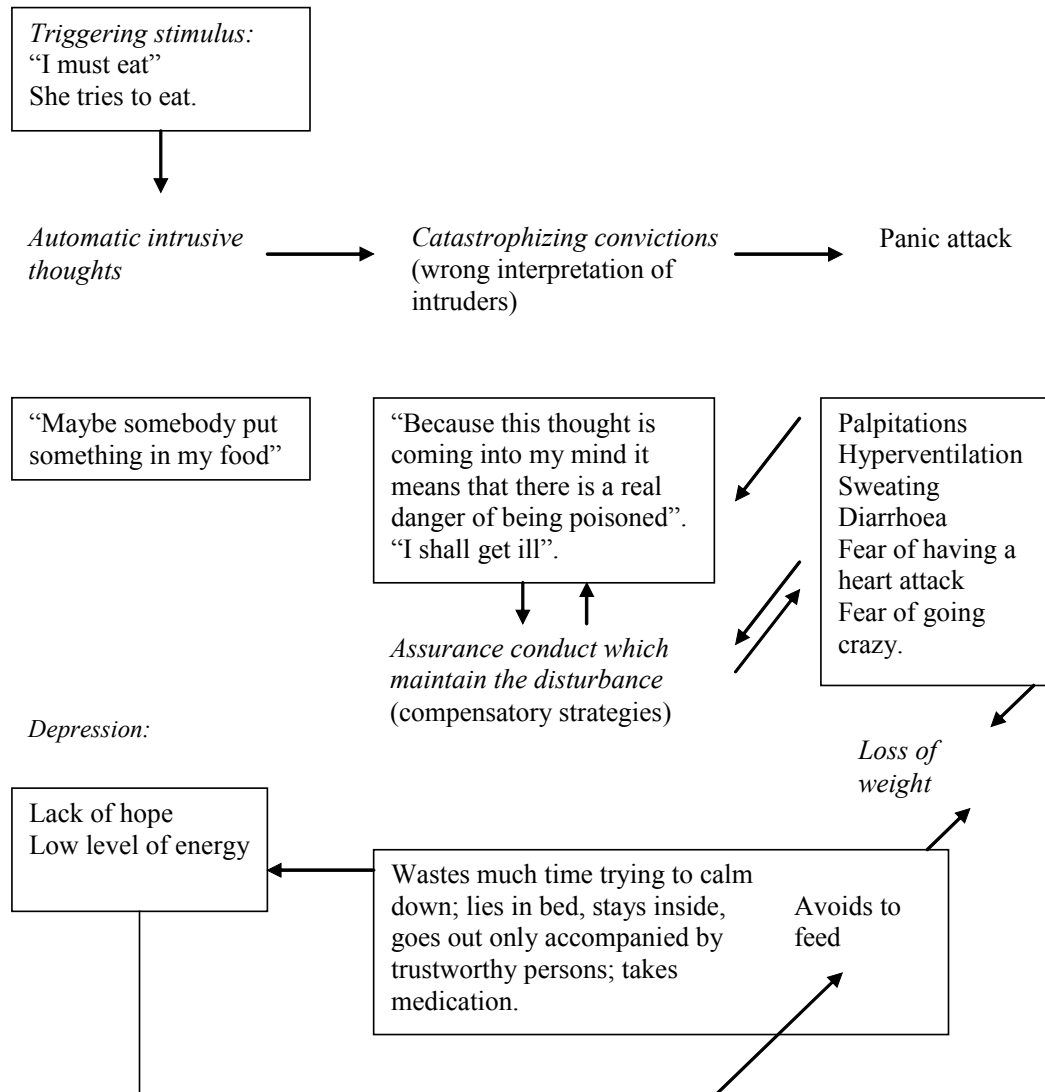
Cornelia, a student aged 21, underweight, shows a phobia of eating, a massive weight loss, depression, anxiety and deficit and social conduct.

She was recommended to a psychotherapist as a result of her failure to gain weight, fact which represents a major risk for the client’s health and life.

Although the client was very thin (42 kg at the height of 1.72 cm) and with a phobia of eating, she had a normal body image and wished dearly to gain weight. The phobic symptomatology interacted with obsessive-compulsive disturbances, panic and depression.

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Conceptualization of the case (adapted after Leahy, 2003, p. 9):



The conceptualization model of the case postulates the fact that when Cornelia tries to eat, automatic intrusive thoughts come into her mind connected to the fact that somebody is putting something into the food. The client construes such thoughts catastrophically, considering that they reflect the reality (somebody wants to poison her and if she eats, she shall get ill or die). Feeding and com nations associated to feeding shall trigger a panic attack was palpitations, hyperventilation, diarrhoea (which contributes to the loss in weight) and the fear that she is going crazy, shall get seriously ill due to the poisoning or shall have a heart attack.

The client has several panic attacks each day and, as a result to such attacks, triggers certain insurance behaviours which only maintain the symptoms (compensatory strategies); she isolates herself almost all the time in a dark room, lies in bed, takes her pulse, breathes deeply and avoids to eat. When she nevertheless eats, she is over-vigilant in connection with any gastrointestinal symptom. She goes out very seldom and when she does, only in the company of one of her parents.

According to the cognitive model, the assurance conducts prevent the client to refute her catastrophic convictions.

Stressed anxiety does not allow her to adapt to the triggering stimuli (the case of feeding herself).

Moreover, the absence of activities able to satisfy her, social isolation and the absence of progress following the treatment deepens her depression, the client feeling hopeless, apathetic,

resigned as well as angry with herself, elements which contribute to the difficulties to feed herself. Lack of food contributes, in its turn, to the depression.

The clinical interview underlines the fact that Cornelia was a sickly child, who spent a long time in hospitals during the first three years of life. Upon starting school, she had a short episode characterized by underlined anxiety, crying for nothing, phobia of the dark and pavor nocturnus. The parents, both engineers, were not excessively protective and had no psychopathological disorders. No major conflicts were signalled in the family, although the parents had lately started to feel that the problem was beyond them.

The therapist suggested – in a first stage – that the sessions take place three times a week for 35-40 minutes. Taking into account the seriousness of the case, Cornelia was informed that if she further loses another half kilogram, she will be hospitalized for perfusions.

The initial objective of the therapy constituted the panic attacks, the obsessive ideas connected to poisoning and the anxiety referring to feeding.

The client was explained the cognitive model of anxiety. With the approval of the family physician, the hyperventilation method was used in order to induce the panic attack and to fortify the client with strategies for opposing it.

During the following three weeks, the panic attacks were reduced to almost one half.

Ever since the beginning of the therapy, the cognitive restructuring of the obsessive thoughts referring to poisoning was worked upon. In order to desensitize the client to stimuli connected to feeding, a hierarchy of certain foods that the client was recommended to consume gradually, in small quantities, was made. Gradually, the loss in weight was stopped, the frequency of diarrheic stools decreasing they munch.

After approximately six weeks, a slight and gradual increase in weight was noticed, up to 47 kilograms. At this moment, the psychiatrist prescribed a small dose of anti depressive (Prozac).

The cognitive-behaviour therapy was associated with clinical hypnosis over a period of one year.

The client reached an almost normal weight (59 kilograms), moved into a studio all by herself and registered to attend the faculty of psychology.

Conceptualization of the case helps the therapist overcome any blocks occurred during therapy.

7. Emotional diagrams

Leahy (2003) underlines the fact that one of the critics brought to cognitive therapy refers to the fact that it does not pay enough attention to emotions within the therapeutic process. The author suggests a model of the emotional diagrams which postulates the following:

- Negative emotions, such sadness, feelings of loneliness, anxiety, anger, represent general-human phenomena.

- The subjects are different one from the other through the way in which they construct the significance of such emotions.

- Such construing refers to the convictions in connection with the time interval, controllable feature, intensity, complexity, pathological feature and moral colouring of emotions.

- Negative emotional diagrams referring to such construing increase the time interval and the intensity of negative emotions.

- Negative construing inhibits expressing, validation and processing of emotions.

By means of emotional diagrams the subject conceptualizes his/her emotions as:

- being incomprehensible;
- being different from those of other persons;
- lasting longer;
- beyond their control;
- Generating guilt and shame.

Case study (after the model drawn up by, 2003)

Denisa, a teacher aged 39, divorced, sought psychotherapy for the generalized anxiety, depression, low self esteem and abuse of alcohol. The client underwent treatment with Prozac, but discontinued this treatment three weeks before because she obtained no result. She scored 24 and 25 points, respectively, in the Beck depression inventory (BDI) and Beck anxiety inventory (BAI).

The client used to drink alcohol on a daily basis.

At the clinical interview, the patient voiced the following concerns: “I will be fired”; “I will forever remain alone”; “my daughter is angry with me”; “I will have no money and I shall end up in poverty”; “my boss is angry with me”; “I shall be ill and nobody will take care of me”.

The client’s emotional problems referred to her failure to accept affective conditions, lack of validation, simplistic approach, loss of control and ruminations with negative contents.

Both the client’s parents suffered of depression. The father was diagnosed with bipolar affective disorder, alcoholism and ideas with suicidal content. He physically harassed her or refused to talk to her. Her mother avoided approaching any problem connected to the emotional life.

The lesson that the client learned from her very early years was that she should have no affective states.

Her emotional socialization was based on rejection, disapproval and emotional disturbance.

The client sent that she had had several compulsive eating episodes, went on a diet and drank heavily over the years.

She stated that she had always been afraid to show her anger because she was afraid that she would be beaten by her father.

Denisa was afraid of many other things and when she felt lonely and scared she drank or ate compulsively to free herself of her negative affective states.

Conceptualization of the case

Dennis was initially diagnosed with major depression, generalized anxiety and alcohol abuse.

Her cognitive diagram was focused around her lack of personal value and her interpersonal diagram stated that people would assess her negatively and reject her.

Her emotional diagram referred to the idea that emotional states represent a sign of personal deficiency and that she had to free herself of them right away by eating or drinking, otherwise the affective states would overwhelm her and take her to the psychiatric hospital (like in the case of her father).

Because she considered that emotional feelings represented a deficiency, the client avoided to share them with others not to be rejected.

Denisa thought that if she cried in front of the therapist, he/she would consider her weak and she would totally close control.

Her automatic negative thoughts had the following contents:

“They believe I am a loser” (Reading of thoughts);

“I shall end up in poverty” (Catastrophizing forecast of the future);

“I am a fool” (Labelling);

“I have destroyed my whole life” (Thinking of the type of everything or nothing);

“Nothing of what I do succeeds” (Inconsideration of the positive).

Her concerns referred to money, professional activity and loneliness:

“I think of this all the time, maybe I shall find a solution”;

“I shall be ready”;

“If I am pessimistic I shall not be disappointed”;

“My concerns are overwhelming; I have no control over them”.

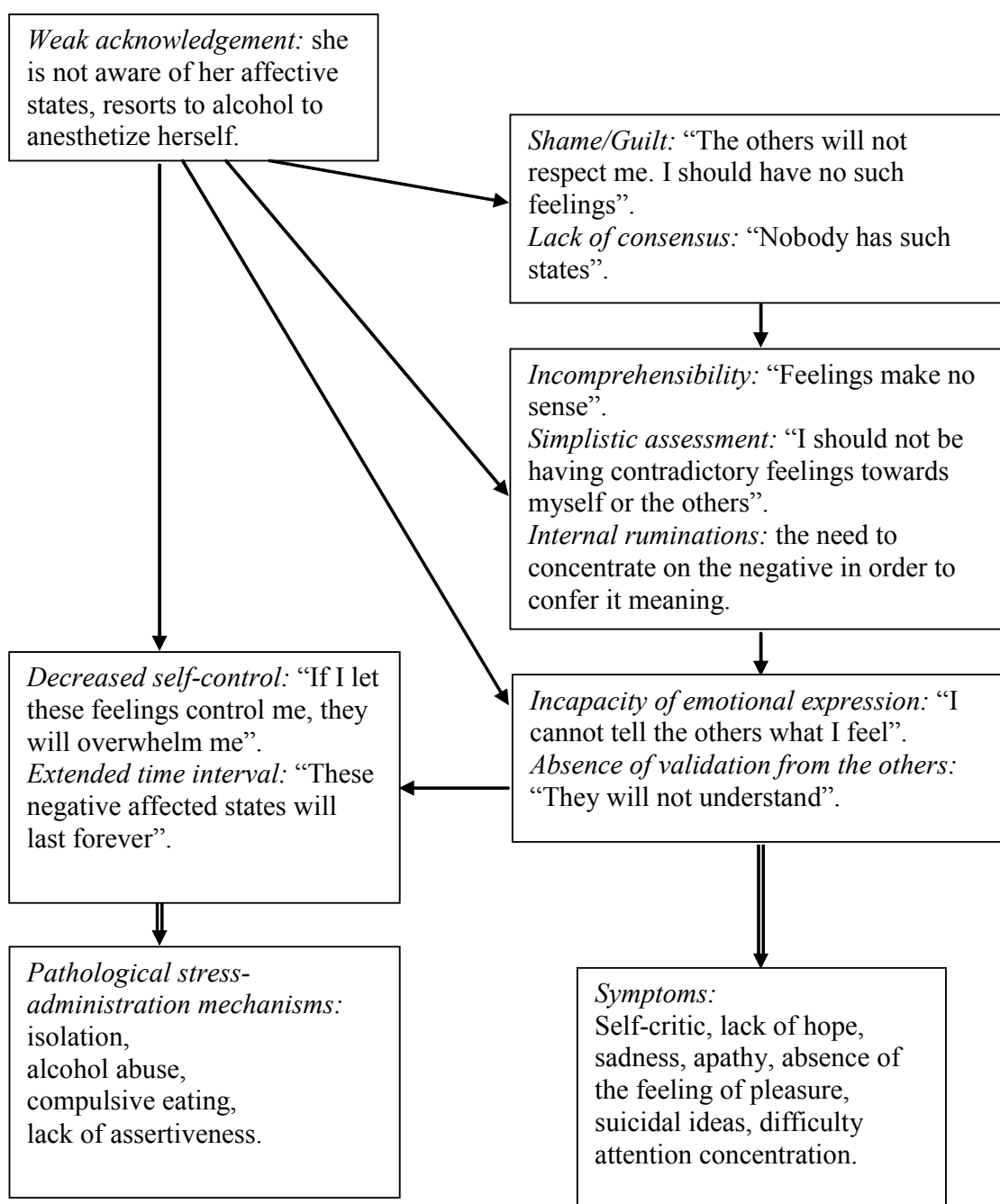
Denisa failed to acknowledge her affective states almost completely. She felt guilty and embarrassed, considering that the others have no such feelings, that such things come to no purpose and that she should not have contradictory feelings.

The client permanently ruminated thoughts and images with negative content, being of the opinion that she has no control whatsoever upon such faults and that her dysfunctional affective states shall last forever.

Denisa found it difficult to express these feelings and she did not expect the others to understand her.

Her strategies to cope with stress had a strong pass a logical content, including: isolation, out the fall of us, alcohol abuse, compulsive eating and lack of affirmation in the family and at work.

Emotional conceptualization diagram of the case (after Leahy, 2003, p. 108).



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



As results from the initial evaluation, Denisa had difficulties in accepting her emotional states. Asked by the therapist what emotional states she does not accept, the client stated the following:

“Anxiety and anger. I must free myself right away of these feelings. I must not be sad, I have a good life!”

Denisa considered that her emotional reactions could not be understood and that she could control them only if she abused alcohol. The client felt helpless and incapable of changing anything in her existence.

“If I do not drink, I feel worse and worse”. Due to the simplistic way in which she assesses her affective states, Denisa considered that she must not have contradictory feelings for herself or for others (“Things must be clear: I am either happy or depressed”).

The therapist helped her examine her conviction according to which if she expressed her feelings she would suffer a psychic decompensation.

Here below is a fragment of the therapeutic dialogue:

Therapist: Denisa, you cried during our meeting today. What did you think I would make of you?

Denisa: I was afraid you would consider me pathetic.

T: What do you think now?

D: I think you understand me. You seem a warm person.

T: Did you also think that if you express your feelings you would lose control and get psychically sick?

D: Yes, but that did not happen.

T: When you stay at home all by yourself, do you repeat to yourself: “I must free myself right away of these states because otherwise they will overwhelm me”. What if you would try to stop “drowning your problems in alcohol”? What do you do if you try not to drink anymore?

D: I read a book, I exercise.

T: see, there are several strategies to cope with negative affective states. One of them is alcohol abuse. Let us now examine the advantages and costs of the various ways in which you can cope with emotions.

In order to help Denisa understand her affective states, the therapist analyzed together with her the family’s genetic basis: her parents and her father’s grandmother had suffered of depression and an aunt had been schizophrenic. Her biological vulnerability and the family environment, where criticism, retreat and dissimulation of emotional states predominated, were offered as explanations for the client’s current condition.

The cognitive model also helped her acknowledge the fact that, because she was convinced that she had a deficiency, the client filtered the information that came in to support such conviction, forecasting rejection, abandonment and failure.

Such therapeutic interventions contributed to decreasing guilty feelings.

From here on, Denisa’s convictions were taken into consideration, according to which she should have only positive feelings towards her daughter, Mirela. The benefit and cost analysis strategy was applied (the cost consists in the fact that this conviction had a non-realistic character, Mirela had been diagnosed with conduct disturbances).

The therapist also applied the double standard technique, asking her what a friend whose daughter skipped school and stole money from home would say. The client’s answer was: “There are some things that I appreciate in my daughter, but there are also many things than I do not like”.

This strategy helped the client revise her simplistic vision upon people and emotions.

The therapist considered the fact that Denisa had reasons to be sad because of her daughter’s behaviour, fact which helped her understand the affective states better.

Because Denisa drank heavily to remove her anxiety, the therapist underlined the consumption must be reduced in between therapy sessions because as long as she drinks, the client shall have no access to her automatic negative thoughts and will not be able to replace them with rational ones.

Her emotional dysfunctional diagrams play an important role in maintaining her stress-coping pathological strategy (The negative conviction that her emotional states will overwhelm her, her guilty and misunderstanding feelings of her own experiences, as well as the condition that drinking represents an alternative to interior ruminations).

The home tasks were the following:

- Naming the affective states: sadness, anxiety, anger, a feeling of inner void, curiosity, etc.
- Acceptance of emotional feelings as being human: “I must be strong” versus “I must accept that I am a human being”;
- Acceptance Of ambivalence: “It is not realistic to expect myself to have only positive or negative feelings towards a certain individual or towards myself. Having contradictory feelings means being a complex person”;
- Normalization of feelings: “It is normal for me to sometimes feel lonely or upset”;
- Self control of emotional states: “Cid down in an armchair an offer yourself 20 minutes per day to worry”; “When you feel depressed, do exercises, take a walk, read a book, visit a friend, go shopping”;
- Reducing guilt: “It is not you who has decided to have a problem”; “There are a series of genetic and childhood factors which determined you to be vulnerable”; “Being depressed is not something to be ashamed of”.
- Reducing ruminations: “What pleasant or useful things could I do during the following days instead of thinking about my problems?”

The following strategies were developed in order to remove worries:

- Making a distinction between productive and non-productive worries: a productive worries represent steps taken towards solving the problem, whereas non-productive worries lead nowhere and our sheet as: “what if ...” and “lose control of ...”;
- Rationalization: “The fact that you feel anxious does not mean that the bad thing you are afraid of shall really happen”;
- Removing random connections: “You think that negative event did not take place because your worries prevented it. There are many bad things that do not happen and others that do happen, although you have not worried because of them”;
- Reducing the tendency for isolation by planning short-term and long-term activities.

Gradually, Denisa regain her self control and realized the fact that her affective states can be modified by means of the following strategies:

- establishing short periods during which she could abandon herself to her affective states;
- observance of such states without judging them;
- modification of negative thoughts and convictions;
- planning a positive activity;
- use of certain methods for solving her problems, which can help her find another job and manage her daughter’s conduct correctly;
- establishing contacts with supportive persons (friends), with whom she can share her feelings.

After two months of therapy, with two sessions per week, the client succeeded in reducing and then terminating alcohol consumption completely.

The spores in the depression and anxiety inventories were reduced to 9 and 8 points, respectively.

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Denisa resume and relationships with the high school friend whom she started to meet on weekends.

In school, Denisa became more assertive, she improved her relationship with the principal and stood for the 1st didactic degree examination.

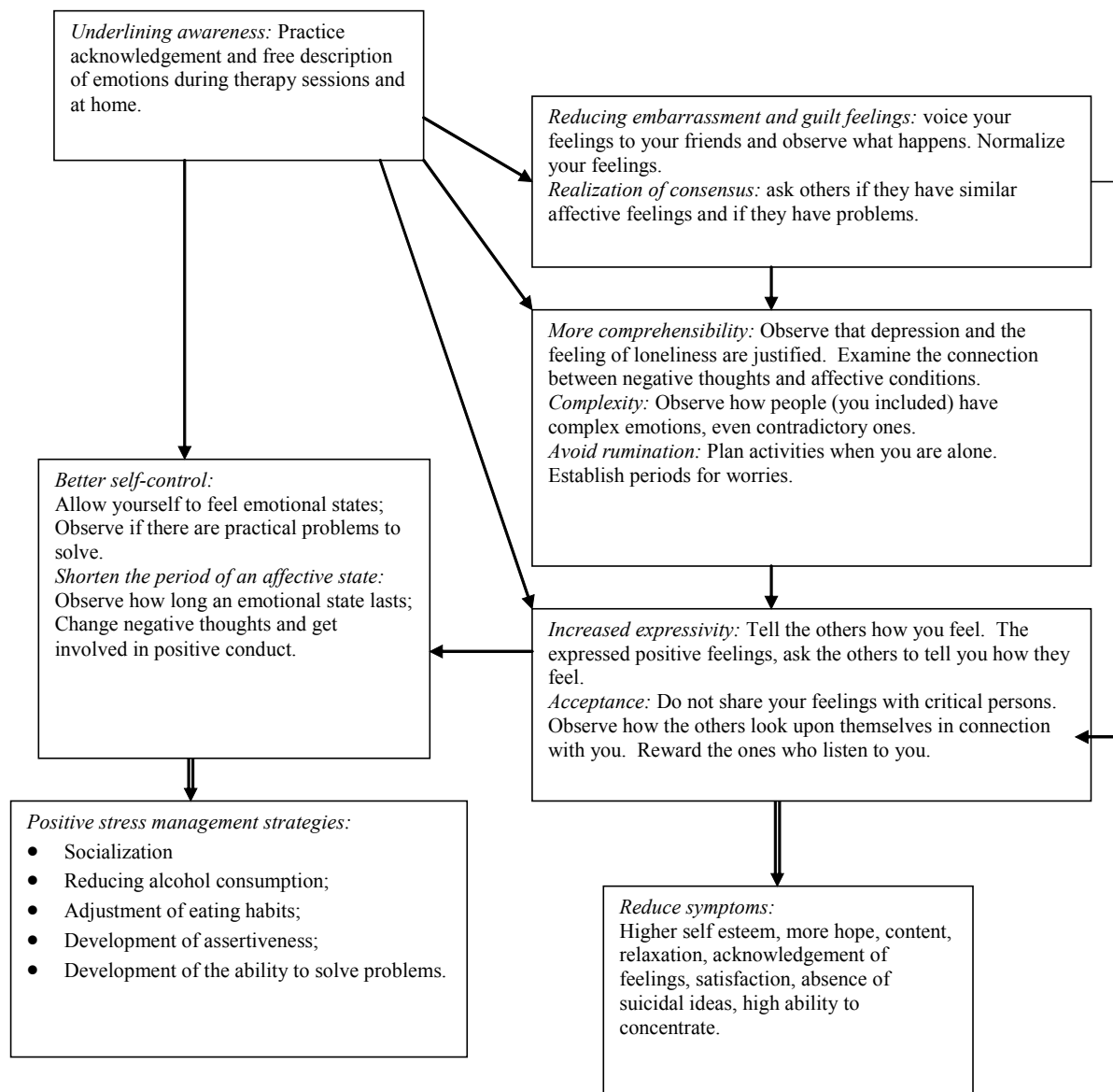
Moreover, she adopted a more firm attitude towards her daughter, whom she accepted to talk openly to.

The latter stopped skipping school and registered to attend a modern dance course.

The psychotherapy lasted 6 months, after which the client was seen a few more times by the therapist.

Aware of the client's vulnerability, the therapist warned her that there is a possibility of relapses, as well as to resume drinking if traumatizing life events occur. He explained to her that there no therapy is perfect and taught to accept and made efforts to evolve.

The therapeutic intervention diagram is presented below (after Leahy, 2003, p. 111):





8. Eclectic psychotherapy model used by us comprises the following strategies:

- Learning relaxation habits; weight and heat exercises within the Schultz autogenic training were used.
- Therapeutic suggestions for strengthening the ego, focused on the symptom;
- Technique of guided imagination (mental training) and systematic desensitization on mental plane;
- Clinical hypnosis (with classical or indirect induction, of Ericksonian orientation);
- Cognitive identification and modification strategies of automatic negative beliefs; alternative rational thoughts and conditions shall be transformed in suggestions managed during relaxation or hypnosis.
- Development strategies of certain communication skills and assertive behaviour.

Such strategies shall be used differently, depending on the specific of the problems underlined by each and every client.

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THE PATHOLOGY OF THE PUBLIC FUNCTION'S EXERCISE

Ivan Vasile IVANOFF

Secretar Consiliul Județean Dâmbovița și cadru didactic asociat la Facultatea de Științe Juridice
Sociale și Politice din Târgoviște
ivan_ivanoff2005@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

The term "pathology" belongs to the medicine and, not at all, to the law area. Therefore, the question: why is it such a problem approached in a scientific analysis within the law area? This term was chosen and also such an approach because the need of analyzing the multiple meanings of the 'diseases' that grind the exercise of the public functions and the above mentioned word was the only one that includes the two main aspects focused in the scientific analysis of these manifestations, as following: the causes and the symptoms of the diseases.

Therefore, it results from our analysis that all the pathological manifestations of the public function aren't known.

Moreover, I found out that there is no constant concern to identify and combat these diseases, together with, and in the same time, defining and knowing the causes of these diseases!

Within the heap of diseases that grind the public system there is an interaction of the them: one causes another, and, therefore, only a strategy of fighting against all the diseases could be efficient, knowing the causative chain that produces them!

What does make our research? It brings especially these corrections needed to the approach highlighting the identification, the definition and the knowledge of the 'diseases' that grind the public function.

Within this framework we tried to identify (by analytical and critical methods, and by interview and synthesis, having as a target group the local and county public servants and the national, county and local public dignitaries) most of these pathological manifestations of the public function.

Within the public function's active pathological manifestations category, we identified the following diseases: the politicizing process, the authority abuse, the bureaucracy, the corruption.

Within the public function's passive pathological manifestations category we identified, for the time being, the servility, still searching on the arbitrary.

REZUMAT

Termenul de „patologie” aparține medicinei și nicidecum dreptului, astfel încât se pune întrebarea: de ce se abordează o astfel de problemă într-o analiză științifică a dreptului? Alegerea termenului, precum și a abordării s-a făcut din necesitatea analizei înțelesurilor multiple ale „bolilor” care macină exercițiul funcțiilor publice, iar noțiunea susmenționată a fost singura care cuprindea două aspecte principale avute în vedere în analiza științifică a acestor manifestări, și anume: cauzele și simptomele bolilor.

Astfel, din analiza noastră rezultă că nu se cunosc toate manifestările patologice ale funcției publice.

Apoi, am constatat că nu există o preocupare constantă de identificare și combatere a acestor boli, împreună, concomitent cu definirea și cunoașterea cauzelor apariției acestor boli!

În noianul bolilor care macină sistemul public există o interacțiune a bolilor: una o determină pe cealaltă, astfel încât numai o strategie de combatere a tuturor bolilor va putea fi eficientă cunoscându-se lanțul causal care le determină!

Ce face studiul nostru? Aduce tocmai aceste corecții necesare abordării și anume pune accentual pe identificarea, denumirea și cunoașterea „bolilor” care macină funcția publică.

În acest context am încercat să identificăm (prin metodele analitice, critice, interviului și a sintezei având drept grup țintă funcționarii publici locali și județeni și demnitari publici locali, județeni și naționali) cât mai multe din aceste manifestări patologice ale funcției publice.

În categoria manifestărilor patologice active ale funcției publice am identificat: politizarea, abuzul de autoritate, birocrăția, corupția.

În categoria manifestărilor patologice pasive ale funcției publice am identificat, deocamdată, slugărnicia, fiind în cercetare arbitrarul.

The term “pathology¹” belongs to medicine and is not used too much within the law area. Therefore the question: why it is approached such a problem in a scientific analysis within the law area? It was chosen this term and also such an approach because the need of analyzing the multiple meanings of the ‘diseases’ that grind the exercise of the public functions and the above mentioned word was the only that includes the two main aspects focused in the scientific analysis of these manifestations, as following:

- the causes and
- the symptoms of the diseases

I understood by the public function, also as an explanation, only that of career. If we should propose to analyze all the public functions, and, therefore, also the functions of public dignity (chosen or appointed), the time and space wouldn’t be enough to limit ourselves at some hundred pages and to study several years this phenomenon. We can consider this approach just a beginning and the extension could be made further on.

After defining the public function, (taking into consideration the numerous theories mentioned within the specialty literature, we stopped to that accepted by the legislator, given by the Law no. 188/1999, belonging, of course, to the public law, not to the private one) we presented the pathological manifestations of the public function within the public function history in Romania, extending our analysis till the Project of the European Union Constitutional Treaty!

Having already explained the notions, we made an analysis of the honest exercise of the public function to see, as in a ‘mirror’, the normal behaviors, moral and legal, of the civil servant, highlighted and supported by several juridical and moral rules to, finally, make the identification and the analysis of the public function’s pathological manifestations.

Studying the phenomenon, but also the approaches made by all our post December 1989 rulers and politicians, or by various specialists from Romania and from abroad, I noticed that there is an insufficiency in knowing this phenomenon and also in its approach.

The ignorance resides on the ‘narrowness’ of the research is horizon and approach.

Therefore, based on our analysis, it results that people don’t know all the pathological manifestations of the public function. The disproportion of the approaches is huge! More precise, there are governmental strategies of fighting against corruption, and to accelerate this fight, but these don’t offer a correct definition of what corruption is and they don’t propose to identify the causes of corruption! Therefore, some clear strategies of fighting against a phenomenon that they don’t know very well appear! Calming down the effect, and not making a correct diagnose of the “disease”, we reach to a disarming inefficiency of such strategies leading to a worsening of the “disease” in such a manner that attacks the safety and the state body (as a general metastasis cancer!).

After this, I found out that there is no constant concern to identify and combat these diseases, together with, and in the same time, defining and knowing the causes of these diseases!

More precise, fighting against bureaucracy appears somewhere, collateral within the strategy of fighting against corruption, not knowing very well what exactly means ...bureaucracy. This, in its meaning of administrative structure, is benefic and necessary for any public system. There are some prestigious studies that support the necessity of organizing the bureaucratic systems based on scientific criteria (see the studies of Max Weber).

The vulgar, derogatory meaning is in fact a “disease” that grinds the system not the bureaucratic structure, organized based on scientific criteria, representing the bone system of the state body!

¹ Vasile Btreban, *The General Dictionary of the Romanian Language*, The Encyclopedic Edition, Bucharest, 1991, vol. II, pg.742

You will never find a strategy of fighting against the authority abuse and against politicizing the public function. Within the heap of diseases that grind the public system there is an interaction of the diseases: one causes another, and, therefore, only a strategy of fighting against all the diseases could be efficient, knowing the causative chain that produces them!

Other question, rhetoric however, is this: do we know all the diseases that grind the public function? The answer is, categorically, no! Why not, we will try to answer ourselves because there is not a national network made yet by specialists from various areas to study these phenomena in all their aspects. Therefore, the rulers left all strategy of fighting against corruption – as being the only pathological manifestation – as a task for the Justice Ministry and for the Domestic Affairs one, and there worked on this issue only the specialists in criminal law! We can see the consequence from a great distance! The inefficiency of the fight against corruption, the change of the “flags color” in yellow from red and worsening only the sanctions regime by aggravating the punishments and also by building some institutions focused on fighting against this disease. What miss to this strategy is exactly the causative, logical and interdisciplinary approach! We “could tighten the sanctions’ screw”... till breaking, but the phenomenon will continue to exist and will amplify....more.

Our foreseeing is based especially on these facts! The hypotheses of such of scenario we will present within the section: the pathological manifestations’ causes of the public function.

The approach is poor because misses from this ‘equation’ the interdisciplinary factors necessary for this research, and also the causative elements!

What does make our research? It brings especially these corrections needed to the approach focusing the identification, the definition and the knowledge of the ‘sphere’ that grind the public function.

Within this framework we tried to identify most of these pathological manifestations of the public function using different research methods.

THE RESEARCH METHODS

The research methods used by us are those offered by the administration science. More precise, the followings:

a) *The analytical method:*

Based on this method, we gathered the necessary information, having as background, the target group, respectively the county and local civil servants, and also the national, county and local dignitaries belonging to this geographical area. After gathering the primary information, we analyzed it trying to focus two types of behavior: the honest type and the pathological one. The behaviors have been searched during a period of 14 years and we tried to highlight the manifested anomalies at the public services level because the human factor having, however, the public function charge.

The research was oriented using the following marks for arranging the gathered information:

a.1) *The structure-object.* Based on this mark, we established the theoretical framework of the searched service beginning from the tasks of the searched public service and the scopes watched by the developed action. Therefore, we searched the judicial settlements focusing the searched body, and also other official sources (reports, investigations, received information from the civil servants). We used here also the *graphic method* searching different administrative

charts and also the comparison among different public functions.

a.2) *The jobs*. This mark guided me within the assessment of the jobs and of the civil servants' duties. From this we assessed exactly the civil servants' activity, their work's efficiency, eventual deficiencies and difficulties within the public services. Here we tried to find an answer to the following questions: who works, for whom, to whom is he/she subordinated, what does he/she work, where and by which means does he/she work, how does he/she work, when and what time does he/she work.? To answer at these questions we made records for each civil servant (see the 1st Annex).

a.3) Documents and positions. Therefore, we analyzed the documents used by the searched public services and the positions occupied by these documents within the respective administrative hierarchy. For the analysis of the information used by the public services, we used the *analysis diagram*. This has a table in which we put all the treated information by the respective public service. This table had a triple scope:

- to set up a list of the treated information for the respective public services and their analysis;

- to highlight the source of the respective information, also for the document used by the analyzed body;

- to highlight the users and the addressees of the information within the documents used by those public services. (the model of the analyzed diagram in the 2nd Annex)

a.4) *The administrative circuit*. Within the analysis phase we considered necessary the criterion of administrative circuit. This circuit offer me the possibility to observe permanently the pathological phenomenon, taking into consideration both the documents circuit and also chronological criterion. In this manner I realized if the documents circuit is rational or irrational (identifying the causes of some pathological manifestations as: bureaucracy, abuse of authority and so on).

a.5) *The used material means*. This criterion helped me to identify the equipment used by the public employees and also by the manner this is 'implanted' within the respective public service.

b) **The critical method**. After I made this analysis, I selected the vulnerabilities and I tried to find the solutions of solving these vulnerabilities. For this purpose I used the following criteria:

b.1) *The utility criterion of the respective public service and of the analyzed public function also*. We know that the public service should be made, abolish or modified if answers to a social need. Contrary, we detect the political interference and the authority abuse. I looked after the utility not only per general, but also for each part.

b.2) *The simplification criterion* represents a logical and coherent appreciation that I made concerning a function or a public service. I didn't go on the simplification principle, by hook, for a public service, but to use this criterion there where it needs, and only after the results made already in the analytical phase.

b.3) *The criterion of the respective public service cost* was taken into consideration to quantify the results obtained concerning the expenses made and for getting the conclusions imposed by this economical analysis.

b.4) *The time criterion within are developed the different activities of the analyzed public service*. The notion of **time** appears as necessary when is searched the time needed for the public employees to fulfill their tasks concerning the profitableness of a certain equipment. For the research of the working time it could be used *the poll* method which I used in the evaluation of the activity of certain public employees, noting the time of fulfilling their tasks or *the public employee's self-analyze method*. In the case of the repeated activities, it could be

used *the method of the measuring the elementary time*. Based on this method, the respective activity could be decomposed in its elementary movements, observing the needed time for the execution of each of them.

b.5) *The criterion of environmental factors' optimization and human relations*. I noticed, based on this criterion, the positive or negative influence of the environment (color, light, sound etc.) and also the human relations made where the public employee works and also the consequences coming from this observation.

c) **The interview method** has been used a lot in finding the existent subtleties at the level of many public functions being closer to humans using the intuitive psychological methods I learned during my career.

d) **The synthesis method** represented, in fact, the top of all methods corollary, finding this out at the end of the analysis. Within this end, I made a research project which I was shaping to lead to the presented conclusions in a research called "The public function pathology." Based on the aforementioned methods, I concluded the results used during my Ph.D. thesis. Therefore, I found two major pathological manifestations' categories of the public function:

- on the one hand are the active ones;
- on the other hand are the passive ones.

Within the public function's active pathological manifestations category, we identified the following diseases:

- the politicizing process;
- abuse of authority;
- bureaucracy;
- corruption.

As was noticed, we tried, this time, to classify them in a causative manner beginning with the "gate of all evils" considered to be the politicizing process, continuing with the abuse of authority, as intensifying the evil, coming to bureaucracy which creates 'the smoke screen' and 'the thicket' of the evils in which appears, develops and proliferates the evil of evils – corruption.

Within the public function's passive pathological manifestations category we identified, for the time being:

- servility

We are in the process of observing the public function's manifestations and we try now to outline the profile of another disease, an arbitrary one, which we have not developed and pronounced yet.

After this numeration, I would like to present further on, briefly, the aforementioned "diseases' physiognomy."

1. Politization process means to give a political character² to a certain problem within a context that this problem does not have such a character and it should not have a political character. I made a short history of the politicizing process and I found that, in time, it has not represented all time a pathological manifestation of the public function, thinking to the communist period after the presentation of the diverse forms of politicizing manifestation (by political force, process of political socialization, influence, symbolical power and by political prestige), I presented the analysis of the causes determining the public function politicizing:

- investing in a public function based on other criteria than competence;
- the insufficient regulation of the rights incompatibilities, interest conflicts and the obligations of the public employees;

² Vasile Breban, *The General Dictionary of the Romanian Language*, The Encyclopedic Edition, Bucharest, 1991, vol. II, pg. 451

- the deficient formation of the decisional and executive structures of the public services based on list votes and not based on list uninominal votes.

2. The abuse of authority. I present this as being the illegal action of a public employee acting beyond his duty, using in an exaggerated manner the power he/she has been invested with, and imposing to the people he/she serves a compulsory unnatural behaviour to those he/she serves³.

The factors that generate the abuse of authority are multiple. Among these we can mention: the institutionalized crisis, the weak influence of legal rules concerning the public employees' behavior, the tolerance manifested by those controlling the law's practice, the abuses of the public employees.

From these causes that determine the abuse of authority, I analyzed the following:

- the transition to the market economy;
- inadequate legislative framework;
- political causes;
- the motivation and payment of the public employees⁴;
- the inherited mentality;
- the moral consciousness;

Analyzing the manifestations forms of the abuse of authority we identified the following:

- promotion in a function based on criteria other than performance;
- embezzlement of public funds for personal use;
- exercise of the hierarchic control based on political criteria;

After we made these classifications and after explaining each manifestation, going on the research logic, we analyzed the effects of the abuse of authority. Within this approach we grouped the effects in the following categories:

- social;
- moral;
- psychological;
- pecuniary;

At the end of our research we proposed the following measures for fighting the abuse of authority:

- revision of the rules concerning the public service and the public function;
- the reform's acceleration within the public institution;
- the moral and institutional reform;
- improvement of the working conditions in administration;
- control and incentives for public employees;
- the public opinion stimulation concerning the public services;
- increasing medias role;

3. Bureaucracy

Trying to define bureaucracy we started from the dictionary⁵ till the specialty literature⁶ and I found out, on one side, that the meaning oscillates from the general acceptance recognized by the public to the structure acceptance defined by lawyers as being normal in a state based on law (J.K. Galbraith understands by public bureaucracy "the public employees, technicians,

³ Ivanoff Ivan Vasile, *The Pathologic Exercise of the Public Function*, editura Bibliotheca, Targoviste, 2005,pg.150

⁴ See Catalin Zamfir's book *Work and Satisfactions*, Editura Politica, Bucuresti,1980

⁵ Vasile Breban,op.cit.p.164 "*the leading or activity method concerning the public problems, characterized by a formalist work style, strictly administrative dominated by the exaggerated preoccupation for office works*"

⁶ Anton P. Parlăgi, *Dictionary of Public Administration*, Ed. Economica, Bucuresti,2000,p.28



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

lawyers publishers' sphere which act exclusively to bring together in accordance the economic activities with those of public administration⁷).

Based on our research we identified the next causes of bureaucracy:

- the existence of the other pathological forms of the public function exercise;
- the renouncement of the internal organization principals in public administration stated by Max Weber;
- fighting against the relation patterns of "political-bureaucracy" not corresponding to an honest exercise of the public function;
- fight against getting the power from politicians by bureaucracy;
- legislative incoherence;
- changing the retrograde mentalities;
- political decision exacerbation;
- the management inefficiency within administration maintaining older structures;
- the abdication of moral principals for an honest exercise of public function;

After the analysis of "pendulation" between positive and negative, we searched the bureaucracy effects which are similar to those of the abuse of authority and we found the solutions proposed to stop such a phenomena. These solutions are:

- to respect the Weberian principals of administrative organization;
- the depolitization of public administration, promoting the public employees based on competence criteria;
- the institutional and moral reform;
- coherent and stable legislative framework;
- the application of the internal administrative procedures;
- fighting against anomy state (Dukheim writings⁸);
- making the administration circuits more rational;
- making the administrative control more efficient;
- keeping the balance between the principles of subordination and separation against the political level⁹;

4. Corruption

Based on our research, we concluded that this was the only one considered to be as 'disease' indifferently of place and time. Its perenniality and longevity has deep roots in human beings being qualified as a human sin: greed. Therefore to propose the corruption eradication would mean to create a divine being which is, unfortunately, far to be...human. On the other side we do not fall in fatality because, keeping the balance of reality, it is possible to restrain corruption within the limits ... of bearable, going on zero tolerance concerning such a phenomena.

Trying to define corruption, we realized that difficulty of a complete definition. Therefore we preferred the meaning of "using the public function in personal interest" agreed by the majority of the authors¹⁰.

Based on the same causative analysis, we identified the next general causes of corruption:

- weaknesses and legislative incoherence;

⁷ ibidem

⁸ *Apud Sorin M.Radulescu, The legislative process as anomy factor within the transition period*, in Romanian Sociology, no. 1/1992.pg.11 and the next

⁹ Ioan Alexandru,*Public Administration, Second Edition,Ed. .Lumina Lex, Bucuresti,2001,pg.578*

¹⁰ Ivanoff Ivan Vasile, op.cit.pg.24 and the next

- monopoly and rent ;
- restrictive and interfering policies of the state;
- transition the existence of other pathological phenomena of the public function;
- the conflict of interests;
- the lack of decisional transparency;
- the control of dignitaries assets;
- the lack of administrative information;
- the general change of the relation public employee-citizen;
- the lack of administrative control;

The corruption mechanisms of functioning, we identified, are the following:

- preparing the ground and the attack-team;
- creating a deliberate state of confusion;
- putting the risk to the public service;
- creating phantom services;
- placing “moles” inside the state institutions;

We identify as effects of corruption the following:

- affecting the dignity, the professional integrity and credibility of the public employee;
- embezzlement of public funds;
- the aggravation of poverty, weakening the public services;
- attempt to the national security of the state;
- affecting the legislative process;
- the possibility to cause an economic crisis;

Our proposals to fight against corruption refer to the following:

- legislative area - adoption of the needed normative laws
- the simplification of the rules
- escaping of legislative inconsistencies and incoherence
- escaping of the public services monopoly ;
- fighting against restrictive and state interfering policies ;
- increasing the decisional transparency;
- depolitization of public administration;
- the institutionalization of the administrative control;
- destroying the principals and mechanisms of corruption;
- the completion of the rules concerning the public employee behavior;

5. Servility (obedience)

By *servility*, in an acceptation¹¹ it means: “the attitude of flattering within the reports with the people we receive or expect material advantages (bowing).”

After I analyzed the meanings of the term, I searched the historical roots of servility highlighting the vassality of the Romanian principalities to the empires during history and the vassality influences at the central state level, at the institutional and inter-human level.

Keeping the same research logic, we identified and analyzed the servility causes as follows:

- cultural and historical causes;
- the existence of other pathological forms of the public function;
- the incomplete, incoherent, permissive and inconsequential legislation;
- style and governing methods and leadership methods respectively;
- selection of political class and the formation of wrong decisional structures;

¹¹ <http://dexonline> (Dex .Source DEX 1998,1996, 1984, 1975)

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



- the abusive use of some communication techniques;
- renouncing to some Weberian principals used within public administration.

After the presentation of servility causes, we identified its causes, grouping them as follows:

- closing the vicious circle in case of some models presented by Peters;
- the inefficiency of the public service dominated by obedience;
- the moral, peculiar, social and psychological effects of the servility;

At the end of our research I propose the following measures of fighting against servility:

- political coherence, consistency and consensus concerning the public function;
- legislative coherence and consistency;
- using the same methods as in the case of fighting against abuse of authority.

Briefly this is the approach skeleton of our research concerning the public function, generally, and of the pathological manifestation of the public function, especially.

ANNEX # 1

Content of the attributions file:

- 1) the name, rank, work he/she does, the name of the hierarchic superior;
- 2) the duties of the public employee;
- 3) the time used to complete his/her duties;
- 4) the name of the operations per day, month and year;
- 5) the level that he/she interferes for each operation (the decision preparing, control and execution).

on the other side:

- 1) the collaborators number;
- 2) the rooms he/she uses for activity;
- 3) administrative equipment used .

ANNEX #2

Current #	The information	The document where the information is presented	Document Addressee	Observations

„L'OBÉDIENCE” SPIRITUELLE ET L'ÉCOUTE THÉRAPEUTIQUE

Eugen Jurca

Universitatea de Vest, Timișoara

A une autre époque,
en Chine, deux amies menaient leur vie.
L'un jouait merveilleusement de la harpe.
L'autre était doué d'un talent rare
Dans l'art d'écouter.
Un jour néfaste, celui qui écoutait tomba malade
et mourut.
Son ami coupa les cordes de la harpe et n'en joua plus jamais¹.

RÉSUMÉ

La problématique de l'obédience occupe une place centrale dans la spiritualité chrétienne, présentant d'importantes implications personologiques. La personne décide de se mettre sous l'obédience d'un prêtre expérimenté pour la connaissance de soi-même, pour la formation, l'évolution et la maturation chrétiennes. Dans certains cas, une obédience de type névrotique ou infantile (le conformisme), devient une modalité de s'esquiver face à l'action de s'assumer l'autonomie et la responsabilité personnelles, tout en retardant ou même empêchant le procès de développement psychologique et spirituelle. L'écoute thérapeutique et celle confessionnelle, pratiquées avec du professionnalisme – une écoute personnelle, authentique, qui personnalise le sujet écouté et écoute celui-ci en tant que lui-même, avec ce qu'il veut exprimer – sont des moyennes destinées à contribuer fortement à la connaissance de soi-même et au développement personnelle.

REZUMAT

Problematika ascultării ocupă un loc central în spiritualitatea creștină, având semnificative implicații personologice. Persoana decide să se pună sub ascultarea unui duhovnic experimentat pentru cunoaștere de sine, formare, creștere și maturizare creștină. În anumite cazuri, o ascultare de tip nevrotic sau infantil (conformism), devine o modalitate de eschivare de la asumarea autonomiei și responsabilității personale, întârziind sau chiar împiedicând procesul de dezvoltare psihologică și spirituală. Ascultarea terapeutică și cea de confesional, practicate în mod profesionist – o ascultare personală, autentică, ce personalizează subiectul ascultat; îl ascultă pe el ca el însuși, cu ceea ce vrea el să spună! –, sunt mijloace destinate a contribui substanțial la cunoașterea de sine și dezvoltarea personală.

1. L'OBÉDIENCE SPIRITUELLE

La problématique de l'obédience occupe une place très importante dans la théologie chrétienne, ayant comme point de départ la chute primordiale – par la „*désobéissance* d'un homme” (Romani 5, 19), Adam – jusqu'à l'Obédience *suprême* du Fils de Dieu, par l'acceptation de la mort sur la croix et même jusqu'à notre propre (dis)obédience (individuelle). Dans la théologie morale, tout *péché* est, en soi-même, une forme de *désobéissance* (quant aux commandements divins, à sa propre conscience, au bon sens, aux normes éthiques, etc.), avec les conséquences qui en découlent. L'obédience (prêter l'oreille) est le premier impératif exigé par Dieu au peuple choisi: „*Ecoute Israël*” (ebr. *šema' Yiśrā'el*, le Deutéronome 6, 4u).

¹ Apud Bruno Ferrero, *E cineva acolo sus? Istorie pentru suflet*, trad. Domnica Goția, vol. 9, Ed. Galaxia Gutenberg, 2005, p. 78-79.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Malheureusement, „l'homme *refuse* d'écouter, c'est de cela que son drame surgit; il est *sourd* aux appels du Dieu; ses oreilles et son cœur ne sont pas circonscrits”²². „Vous, les forts en orgueil et insensibles au cœur et aux oreilles, *vous vous levez pour toujours contre l'Esprit Saint*, tout comme vos parents!” (Faits 7, 51).

Les choses ne diffèrent guère de nos jours. A présent, dans l'époque de la communication, on a l'impression que personne n'entend plus rien ! La voix du Dieu (le Logos divin) devient toujours plus faible dans le tourbillon quotidien. La tranquillité (isihia) de l'Esprit Saint est progressivement remplacée par les névroses et l'hystérie de l'homme. La déception divine est plus présente que jamais: „O, si Mon peuple M'avait écouté, si Israël avait suivi Mes voies... Mais Mon peuple n'avait pas entendu Ma voix et Israël ne M'a pas écouté. Et Moi, Je les ai laissés poursuivre leurs besoins, dans l'appauvrissement de leur cœur” (Psaume 80, 10-12). Rien d'étonnant !

D'ailleurs, on sait bien que là où l'homme dit „Non”, ni même Dieu ne „peut” dire „Oui”! Il s'agit d'un paradoxe incroyable. *La liberté conditionne l'obéissance*. La liberté est une dimension fondamentale de l'amour, qui implique le respect de la liberté d'autrui (de la personne) jusqu'à atteindre le paroxysme. Dieu-Même respecte la liberté de choix de l'homme de L'écouter ou de ne pas L'écouter, de L'accepter ou de ne pas L'accepter, de croire en Lui ou de ne pas le faire. „L'obéissance est «la structure archétypale de l'homme, d'où dérivent, presque spontanément, toutes les choses et d'où surgissent toutes les autres» (Di Sante, 1985)... *L'Obéissance* est une *attitude* difficile. Elle exige de te concentrer sur l'autre, en t'oubliant toi-même... Il n'est pas exagéré d'affirmer même que *l'obéissance implique une certaine kenose*” („abandon de soi-même”)³.

L'Obéissance authentique exige l'accord de la personne. Il s'agit d'une *attitude personnelle*: la personne *décide* (oui ou non) d'obéir. Sans mon accord, l'obéissance devient obéissance „aveugle” et stérile. L'obéissance „inconditionnée” du monarque, est, dans son essence, inconditionnée (normalement, elle ne devrait être déterminée par aucun „conditionnement”): la personne se „place sous l'obéissance” d'un prêtre, délibérément, et exécute, volontairement (par sa propre volonté) tout ce qu'on lui demande, comme un besoin/volonté personnel/le, justement pour l'exercice et la maturation de sa propre volonté. On aura conséquemment une meilleure compréhension de l'apophtegme de Avvei Alonios: „*si l'homme désire vraiment quelque chose*, il sera atteint par la spiritualité dès l'aube jusqu'à la tombée du soir”⁴. Alors que la personne donne son accord, le Ciel même vient à son rencontre !

Dans ce contexte, on comprend pourquoi l'obéissance joue un rôle si important dans l'expérience mystique (spirituelle). D'une part, „Dieu parle à l'homme et l'invite à un rapport de communion et de vie, pour répondre aux exigences les plus profondes de l'âme humaine”, d'autre part, „on demande de l'homme une obéissance authentique et sincère, qui consiste dans un engagement existentiel, impliquant toutes les potentialités humaines, parce que Dieu-Même est Celui qui opère à l'intérieur de l'homme et avec celui-ci (co/labore)”⁵, alors que celui-ci „prête son oreille” aux paroles divines et désire vraiment écouter la Voix et les commandements de Dieu (à ne pas les comprendre comme simples „commandements” de nature juridique, mais plutôt comme des offres existentielles dynamiques et engageantes).

Dans la vie spirituelle, l'obéissance de/à Dieu est, dans une certaine mesure, moyennée par *l'obéissance au prêtre*. Il n'est pas question ici d'une simple obéissance ignorante, immature et impersonnelle, mais il s'agit plutôt de confier la volonté personnelle à une autorité spirituelle,

²² Xavier Léon-Dufour (sous la direction), *Vocabulaire de théologie biblique*, Les Éditions du Cerf, Paris, 1964, p. 241.

³ Angelo Brusco, *La relazione pastorale d'aiuto. Camminare insieme*, Edizioni Camilliane, Torino, 1993, p. 79.

⁴ *Patericul sau apoftegmele Părinților din pustiu*, trad. Cristian Bădiliță, Ed. Polirom, Iași, 2003, p. 90.

⁵ L. Borriello, E. Caruana, M.R. del Genio, N. Suffi (a cura di), *Dizionario di mistica*, Libreria Editrice Vaticana, Città del Vaticano, 1998, p. 163.



à un dirigeant expérimenté sur la voie d'une vie vécue dans l'Esprit Saint. Une obédience spirituelle authentique „n'est guère imposée, mais librement consentie; *le prêtre* ne prend notre volonté dans sa volonté que si nous la lui offrons en toute liberté; il ne détruit pas notre volonté, mais la reçoit de notre part comme un cadeau; une soumission par contrainte et sans notre volonté libre n'a, évidemment, aucune valeur morale... *L'ouvrage du prêtre spirituel ne vise pas la destruction de la liberté humaine, mais l'aide qu'il peut donner à l'homme pour aboutir à la vérité par soi-même: non la suppression de la personnalité, mais l'aide pour la découverte de soi-même, de son évolution et de la maturation du véritable soi.* Si dans certaines occasions, le prêtre spirituel exige une obédience inconditionnée et apparemment aveugle, cela ne constitue pas un but en soi-même et ne veut pas transformer la personne dans un esclave. Le but d'un tel „traitement de choc” est la libération de l'apprenti de son „ego” faux et illusoire, afin qu'il connaisse la véritable liberté. Le prêtre spirituel n'impose à personne ses idées et besoins, mais aide l'apprenti à découvrir *sa propre vocation*”⁶.

2. L'OBÉDIENCE NÉVROTIQUE ET/OU L'INFANTILISME SPIRITUEL

La culture occidentale fait une distinction nette entre *l'obédience spirituelle* (authentique) et *l'obédience de type infantile*, fortement imprégnée par immaturité et labilité émotionnelle (affective). La littérature de frontière (théologie-psychologie) des années du Concil II Vatican faisait déjà cette distinction entre les deux types d'„obédience”. Louis Beirnaert, un auteur français des années '60-70, attire pour la première fois l'attention sur la différence entre *l'enfance spirituelle* et *l'infantilisme*⁷ religieux (problématique du point de vue psychologique). Les termes ont été adoptés par le langage et les préoccupations actuelles de la littérature de spécialité, de sorte qu'aujourd'hui on discerne plus facilement entre une *obédience personnelle, mature* (la personne *décide* d'écouter ou de se mettre sous écoute!) et une „obédience” *infantile* („l'enfant”/militaire *exécute* mécaniquement l'ordre/la commande!), du type *obédience, esclavage* et *exécution conformiste* de certaines exigences et normes imposées arbitrairement /autoritairement.

Un auteur contemporain poursuit les préoccupations de Beirnaert, tout en précisant: „Il faut qu'on fasse une distinction entre *l'enfance (la pureté) spirituelle* et *l'infantilisme (religieux)*, pour ne pas tomber dans deux erreurs opposées: une première erreur se réfère à l'exaltation d'un esprit d'enfance mal comprise, jusqu'à donner peu d'importance à la maturation de la personnalité; l'autre, spécifique pour certains milieux psychologiques, catalogue comme infantilisme quelque chose qui est en effet une enfance spirituelle authentique. Il est nécessaire qu'on distingue entre *l'enfance spirituelle* et deux symptômes névrotiques: „*la passivité*” et „*l'angélisme*”. On est assez souvent tentés de confondre *l'enfance spirituelle* avec une *aisance de soumission* aux dogmes et aux directives de l'Eglise, de même qu'à tous les avertissements et conseils des pasteurs ou des directeurs spirituels, avec *un besoin constant d'être guidé et soutenu*, avec *une absence de la problématisation et de l'esprit critique*, en finalement, avec *une attitude de dépendance* menant jusqu'à la *dépersonnalisation totale*... On oublie pourtant que *l'attitude passive* peut être motivée par la *Crainte de s'assumer des responsabilités* et par un *besoin de sécurité* qui peut attirer l'élimination des risques implicites de l'action et de la réflexion personnelles... Il s'agit d'une *obédience névrotique et fausse*”. En réalité, celui qui obéit d'une manière inauthentique, a besoin de ne pas s'exposer à certains conflits, de ne pas supporter des doutes, de ne craindre aucun auto/reproche pour n'importe quel mauvais choix”⁸.

⁶ Kallistos Ware, *Împărăția lăuntrică*, trad. sœur Eugenia Vlad, Ed. Christiana, București, 1996, p. 72-74.

⁷ Voir Louis Beirnaert, *Esperienza cristiana e psicologia*, Ed. Borla, Torino-Leumann, 1965, p. 110- 118.

⁸ Pasquale Ionata, *Psicoterapia e problematiche religiose. Esperienze, potenzialità e limiti*, Città Nuova Editrice,

On peut donner ici l'exemple de tant de croyants et de jeunes gens, qui „ se placent sous obédience”, en demandant „d'être bénis” et „conseillés spirituellement” pour toutes sortes de bagatelles, parfois même hilares. De plus, il y en a assez de „prêtres” qui encouragent une telle attitude passive de même qu'une certaine dépendance d'eux-mêmes qui empêche l'autonomisation et la libre évolution de la personne(alité). Une telle obédience de type infantile plutôt déresponsabilise et dépersonnalise, qu'elle sauve la personne. Elle ne compromet pas l'absolution, mais elle ne la „personnalise” pas, non plus. On la pratique fréquemment parce qu'elle est très commode par rapport à tenter de s'assumer la propre liberté et la responsabilité personnelle. Une *spiritualisation de la liberté* implique un certain effort et responsabilité personnelle, tandis que „sous l'aile” du prêtre autoritaire ou „hyperprotecteur”, on est „protégés” face à toutes sortes d'intempéries, mais on ne peut pas empêcher quand même la stagnation psycho-affective, l'incapacité décisionnelle personnelle et la régression.

3. L'ÉCOUTE THÉRAPEUTIQUE

Selon notre savoir, „l'un des besoins fondamentaux de la personne humaine est celui de *communiquer* et de se sentir *écouté* par quelqu'un; mais le malheur le plus grave de la civilisation postmoderne, de la consommation et de la hâte, se concrétise par la solitude vide de celui qui ne se sent écouté ou compris par personne. L'homme, doué des moyens de communication raffinés (téléphone/portable, télex, fax, internet, mail, messenger, caméra web etc., n.n.), se sent encore plus seul, parce qu'il a trop de choses à écouter, qui, par malheur, ne remplissent pas son vide intérieur⁹, se sent bombardé par l'information, mais est trop peu „communié”. Il a trop de choses à *communiquer*, mais peu *communié*, selon l'expression du philosophe C. Noica.

On assiste à une sorte de „dialogue des sourds”, dans lequel tout le monde parle et personne n'entend/n'écoute personne et rien¹⁰. A un moment donné, ni l'homme ne s'entend non plus. De nos jours, les moyens de communication en masse ont *éliminé les espaces de tranquillité* et de *réflexion personnelle* – même les nouvelles médiatiques sont communiquées sur un fond musical bruyant! –, où l'homme pouvait rester avec soi-même (dans le silence, la méditation, la prière ou dans une lecture tranquille) et était plus ouvert pour recevoir les autres, pour „bavarder” avec les autres. Une fois la tranquillité et la disposition intérieure détruites, *la capacité d'écouter s'est atrophiée*¹¹ significativement. Deux slogans, fréquemment véhiculés dans les milieux communicationnels, ont pris conséquemment naissance: „il est très affligeant *d'avoir quelque chose à dire et de n'avoir personne à t'écouter*” et „*savoir écouter* est une capacité assez rare que *savoir parler*”¹².

Tout comme il y a un *art de parler* (ars oratorica), on distingue également un *art d'écouter*¹³. Dans ce cas-ci, on ne se réfère pas à un auditoire quelconque, mais à une *a(p)ttitude de bon écoutant* du thérapeute vis-à-vis de son *inter/locuteur*. Selon une simple définition de la littérature de spécialité, „ *écouter* signifie *recevoir et comprendre le plus fidèlement possible ce que l'autre transmet par ses paroles*”¹⁴, respectivement, écouter l'autre (sujet/patient/client)

Roma, 1991, p. 29.

⁹ Benito Goya, *Importanza psicologica dell'ascolto integrale*, dans „Rivista di vita spirituale”, Roma, no. 4-5/1989, p. 441.

¹⁰ Comme dans les étapes de l'ivresse: 1^{ère} phase – l'un parle, les autres écoutent; 2^{ème} phase – l'un parle, le voisin l'écoute; 3^{ème} phase – tout le monde parle, personne n'écoute plus.

¹¹ Bruno Giordani, *L'ascolto negli incontri di fraternità*, dans la revue „Vita consacrata”, no. 4/1989, p. 342.

¹² Benito Goya, *op. cit.*, p. 440.

¹³ Voir l'ouvrage de: Milton Cameron, *Arta de a-l asculta pe celălalt. Secretele unei comunicări reușite*, trad. Dana Zămosteanu, Ed. Polirom, Iași, 2006.

¹⁴ Bruno Giordani, *Psicoterapia umanistica da Rogers a Carkhuff. La terapia centrata sulla persona*, Cittadella Editrice, Assisi, 1988, p. 183.

dans une *manière personnelle* – pas „diagnostique”/”pénitentielle” – jusqu’au bout (même au-delà des paroles), *avec ce qu’il a à dire*, avec ses problèmes, ses dilemmes, ses peurs, ses tourments, ses incertitudes, etc., en lui accordant toute l’attention et la considération dues à la personne humaine.

L’attitude d’écoute – attentive, chaleureuse, participative et profonde – confère au sujet un sentiment de *rencontre humaine authentique*, d’aide psychologique, de valorisation personnelle, de confiance, sécurité, support (psychothérapeutique). Elle élimine la distance psychologique et encourage la possibilité d’ouverture d’esprit. Le besoin d’être écoutés est peut-être le plus grand besoin du client¹⁵. L’absence d’une telle attitude de la part de certains thérapeutes, formateurs ou conseillers spirituels est extrêmement nuisible. Elle ne permet pas d’établir une relation thérapeutique/spirituelle.

Dans le cas d’une „écoute” superficielle, expéditive, exercée sur des positions de „force” (offensive/défensive), on ne peut instaurer un climat de confiance, calme, respect, chaleur humaine etc., absolument nécessaires pour établir et bien fixer la relation d’aide thérapeutique/spirituelle. Ecouter l’autre „exige *du temps* et *de l’attention*, une aptitude d’ouverture, de bonne volonté et d’acceptation (de *savoir recevoir personnellement*, n.n.); l’absence de cette aptitude empêche voir les réalités existentielles de l’interlocuteur et la richesse de ses sentiments et des valeurs qui motivent son activité”¹⁶.

Le manque d’attention, l’intérêt précaire pour la personne (et accru pour ses limites!), la hâte, *la projection* sur le client de ses propres besoins ou frustrations (parfois le thérapeute/prêtre s’„écoute”/se reconnaît soi-même dans les problèmes du client /pénitent)¹⁷, deviennent de véritables *obstacles dans le procès d’écouter*. Parmi d’autres *tels obstacles* face à une écoute empathique, on peut citer: l’attachement aux propres schémas mentaux (si la rencontre débute avec des schémas idéologiques rigides, tels des interprétations pré-établies à toutes les situations, le thérapeute juge l’expérience de l’autre à partir de sa propre expérience, il donne des solutions identiques pour tous les problèmes, étant complètement opaque à la perspective de l’autre); la déficience dans l’acceptation des différences humaines: individuelles, culturelles, raciales, de condition sociale, etc.; les différences de sexe (certaines résonances affectives envers le sexe opposé peuvent apparaître, etc.); la diversité du langage (l’incapacité du thérapeute de se faire comprendre, de traduire „dans le langage” du client les expériences diverses ou des questions de spécialité)¹⁸.

Aujourd’hui, l’importance *de l’écoute dans la relation d’aide* est mise en évidence par toutes les écoles psychologiques et pastorales. Elle constitue „*la pierre angulaire* sur laquelle sont construites toutes les réponses génératrices d’aide psychologique... Quand quelqu’un se sent *écouté*, il se sent en effet *valeureux* aux yeux de l’interlocuteur”¹⁹, compris et accepté, sans être plus obligé de déposer un effort d’„embellissement” de l’image personnelle. La thérapie débute déjà, parce que souvent *la névrose* (et pas seulement celle-ci!) cache en soi-même un immense consume énergétique, doublé par de grands efforts, qui prennent parfois des années, de *di/ssimulation*, de tenter être ce qu’on n’est pas, de convaincre (sans résultat), d’agir d’une manière non-naturelle, dans la relation avec soi-même, avec les autres, avec la propre famille, professionnellement, etc.

Parmi *les modalités* les plus adéquates d’écoute thérapeutique, conçues de notre perspective (analytique-existentielle), on peut citer: *l’écoute vigile*, dans laquelle le thérapeute

¹⁵ Bruno Giordani, *L’ascolto nella relazione di aiuto*, dans la revue „Antoniano”, Roma, nr. 4/1989, p. 587.

¹⁶ Benito Goya, *Importanza psicologica...*, p. 443.

¹⁷ Dans une narration ne manquant guère d’humeur, un psychothérapeute avouait: „à un moment donnée je me suis rencontré avec mon patient sur la même branche et, dans un instant de dérute, je lui ai demandé: «Et qu’est-ce qu’on fait alors?»”.

¹⁸ Apud Benito Goya, *op. cit.*, p. 446.

¹⁹ Angelo Brusco, *op. cit.*, p. 79.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

accorde de l'attention à la signification exacte de ce que le client dit ou fait²⁰ – notamment une *écoute/regard phénoménologique*, non-interprétative (le thérapeute retient et constate, il n'interprète pas et n'émet pas des jugements de valeur; il n'offre pas des solutions „pré-fabriquées”) – et une *attitude réceptive*, une écoute qui ne juge pas, ne culpabilise pas, „non-autoritaire, non-indifférente (...) mais tolérante, une écoute qui reconnaît l'interlocuteur dans sa valeur personnelle et dans l'unicité de son individualité”²¹.

Mais pour *écouter*, il faut tout d'abord (savoir) *se taire*. Un bon thérapeute doit savoir instaurer le silence dans son propre for intérieur et être spécialisé dans *l'écoute et dans la connaissance de soi-même*. „Premièrement, il faut qu'on sache nous écouter nous-mêmes. Comment pourrions-nous être attentifs aux autres et bien les comprendre, si nous ne parvenons pas à nous entendre (avec, n.n.) nous-mêmes ? ... Pour écouter, il est nécessaire qu'on arrive à un état de *calme intérieur*, il faut qu'on renonce à tout effort de contrôler l'autre, tandis que l'attention doit être détendue et détachée. Il est important qu'on aille au-delà de ses propres perceptions et pensées, de ses propres conclusions et préjugés, qui s'interposent presque inévitablement entre soi-même et ce qu'on entend”²². Il est bien connu que souvent „on effectue l'écoute de l'autre à travers nos propres projections, ambitions, désirs, angoisses, n'écoulant que ce qu'on désire entendre, ce qui nous satisfait, nous convient, nous calme ou nous apaise la souffrance à un moment donné”²³. Par contre, pour écouter, il est nécessaire d'instaurer le silence tant à *l'intérieur*, qu'à *l'extérieur*.

„L'écoute et la tranquillité sont deux attitudes intimement liées. La tranquillité (le silence, n.n.)... devient la condition essentielle de l'écoute. Ce n'est que dans la tranquillité qu'on peut réellement entendre. Elle devient *la voie d'accès au secret de la personne* et le point où la personnalité se dévoile et se manifeste totalement. La tranquillité reçoit, en pratique, beaucoup de significations. Il y a une *tranquillité extérieure*, des réalités externes, et une *tranquillité intérieure*, envisagée comme un arrêt du flux de pensées, de sentiments, d'imaginations, du cœur-même, qui doit être laissée „tranquille”. Il y a une tranquillité qui signifie qu'«il n'y a rien à dire» et une autre qui montre que «tout reste à dire»... La tranquillité nécessaire pour écouter le client a été considérée par la *psychanalyse* (comme, d'ailleurs, par tout type de psychothérapie et spiritualité, n.n.) comme l'élément fondamental pour une intervention positive”²⁴.

Le slogan suivant a pris naissance de cette même manière: „Le colloque le plus réussi est celui où l'on observe – l'on „entend” – le silence”²⁵. Le silence devient la condition *sine qua non* de l'écoute. *Quand on apprend de se taire*, on apprend *d'entendre (le langage verbal)*, *de regarder (le langage non-verbal)*, *d'écouter*, *de percevoir* les messages et les significations réels, même au-delà des paroles et des moyens d'expression du client, et, paradoxalement, on apprend quand, comment, combien et quoi exactement *exprimer!* „L'art du dialogue, le secret suprême de toute communication humaine, s'exerce, car seulement il assure le succès de la démarche psychothérapeutique. La clé du dialogue réside dans la succession suivante: *écouter* le message, le *comprendre* et donner une *réponse* adéquate... *Le thérapeute doit savoir écouter* et il n'interviendra qu'au moment où il sera nécessaire de proposer, le plus prudemment possible, (parfois avec de la fermeté), une interprétation, afin d'expliquer un certain comportement”²⁶. Un psychothérapeute expérimenté et compétent devient un véritable „maître dans l'art du dialogue”, capable de mêler, d'une manière professionnelle, la parole au silence, le calme à l'énergie, l'acceptation à la motivation pour le changement thérapeutique.

²⁰ Bruno Giordani, *Psicoterapia umanistica*..., p. 183.

²¹ Idem, *L'ascolto*..., p. 599.

²² Milton Cameron, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

²³ *Ibidem*, p. 5.

²⁴ Benito Goya, *Importanza psicologica*..., p. 429.

²⁵ Bruno Giordani, *L'ascolto*..., p. 339

²⁶ Ion Vianu, *Introdúcere în psihoterapie*, Ed. Dacia, Cluj-Napoca, 1975, p. 60.

4. L'OBÉDIENCE EN CONFSSIONNAL

Dans un autre ordre d'idées, il faut préciser que, dans les milieux théologiques, on ne fait pas encore une distinction nette entre *l'obéissance spirituelle* et *l'obéissance en confessionnal*. Si la première (de nature *théologique*) prend la direction du croyant vers le prêtre et surtout vers Dieu, par l'intermédiaire du prêtre (j'écoute le prêtre), la seconde (de nature *psychologique*), prend la direction du prêtre vers le croyant (il *m'écoute*). Beaucoup de personnes persistent encore dans la confusion d'une obéissance „aveugle”, unidirectionnelle (d'en bas vers le haut!), synonyme de soumission totale, inconditionnée, envers le prêtre, sans se poser même la question d'un rapport inversé. Ils croient qu'il est suffisant qu'ils obéissent au prêtre. Mais en réalité, les choses se retrouvent plus nuancées: je peux écouter le prêtre, s'il, à son tour, *m'écoute jusqu'au bout*, avec tout ce que je désire lui avouer (et pas seulement ce qu'il veut entendre!), sans qu'il me contre, sans qu'il m'interrompe, sans qu'il me „donne des leçons”, sans qu'il me juge, sans qu'il me condamne, sans qu'il m'offre des réponses „pré-fabriquées”, extraites des livres religieux de douzaine.

Le croyant fait appel au prêtre comme à un parent, pour une *aide spirituelle*, et non comme à une instance de jugement. Il est suffisamment tourmenté dans son esprit, pour pouvoir encore supporter les accusations d'un „prêtre” intransigeant, moraliste et „comblé” par des canons vieilliss. On se trouve à ce moment dans une situation similaire à la (pseudo)communication parent-enfant. En tant que parents, on aime tellement être écoutés, selon le commandement: „fait honneur à ton père et à ta mère...”, mais on oublie la perspective inverse, par laquelle on nous exige: „parents, n'attirez pas (ne provoquez pas) vos enfants vers la colère...” (Efeseni 6,4). Si l'on désire être écoutés par nos enfants, nous devons premièrement les écouter nous-mêmes!

Assez souvent, nos enfants/adolescents, élevés dans un esprit plus autoritaire et „bien docile”, avouent de bonne foi et même avec une dose de naïveté, qu'il y a des situations où ils *n'écoulent* toujours les conseils de leurs parents. Je leur demande, en qualité de prêtre: „*mais, ils t'écoulent, toi?*” Dans un premier instant, ils restent étonnés, puis – alors qu'ils comprennent la question – ils sourient, parce que, parfois, les prétentions des parents sont *absurdes* en comparaison avec les possibilités et les désirs de l'enfant, et ne tiennent pas du tout compte de leurs particularités personnelles, de leurs aptitudes, de leurs limites et du spécifique de leur âge, de leurs besoins réels, pour ne plus parler du parent „mioritique” (autochtone) trop blasé pour avoir encore la curiosité d'ouvrir quelque livre sur la *psychologie de l'enfant*!? Car il détient la connaissance absolue des choses, vu qu'il est plus âgé! Beaucoup de parents ne connaissent et ne comprennent guère leurs propres enfants. De la même manière, un bon nombre de „prêtres” ne connaissent pas leurs propres „fils spirituels”, à l'intérieur de leur âme, parce qu'ils ne les écoutent réellement, comme personnes, mais sont attentifs à leur liste de péchés ou, encore plus gravement, ils les écoutent superficiellement et d'une manière „*second hand*”, à travers des canons „pré-fabriqués” ou des écritures pastorales médiévales. Au lieu de voir en ceux-ci des *gens*, ils les traitent comme des „pénitents”.

Sans doute, ni la qualité de *parent*, ni la *paternité spirituelle* ne peuvent être exercées arbitrairement. Tout comme chez nous il n'y a pas d'écoles *pour les parents*, qui leur enseignent *l'art d'être parent*, on ressent néanmoins fortement l'absence des *écoles pour les prêtres* dans les milieux théologiques, qui enseignent ceux-ci la problématique psychologique, psychopathologique et même spirituelle authentique du croyant, être attentifs aux besoins spirituels réels de l'homme, pouvoir faire la distinction entre les problèmes et les tensions de nature *psychologique* et ceux de nature *morale*, *savoir écouter la personne telle qu'elle est*, la



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

laisser être soi-même et avoir de la patience, pour que le changement vienne *naturellement*, progressivement, ne pas le lui imposer arbitrairement, lui accorder avec de l'affection la chance de la rédemption, l'aider de s'approcher de Dieu *avec bonheur, naturellement*, de pouvoir *évoluer spirituellement dans son rythme*, sans être forcé de participer à des programmes spirituels „alpinistiques”, destinés à attirer son échec, d'autant moins, les conduire à la limite du désespoir, par des attitudes punitives, par des canons impossibles et par des exigences expiatoires absurdes. Il nous faut comprendre que le prêtre ne soit ni juge, ni gendarme en service, ni „pédagogue d'école ancienne”, il doit écouter l'homme avec ses problèmes réels, dans son contexte biographique et actuel de vie, *l'écouter lui-même* et non „d'après de livre”!

Selon un auteur occidental, parmi les qualités d'une obéissance (de confessionnal) vraiment libératrice, on pourrait énumérer: 1. tout comme dans le cas du thérapeute, le confesseur (le prêtre) doit savoir *instaurer le silence à son intérieur*; 2. pendant qu'elle se centre sur le message transmis, l'écoute du confesseur doit se concentrer sur le Visage du Dieu, impliqué dans la confession prononcée (à la différence du colloque psychothérapeutique, pendant la confession, comme Sacrement, il faut tenir également compte de la *présence de la Parole Divine* dans notre dialogue spirituel: „là où se rassemblent deux ou trois pour Mon nom, là Je me retrouverai au milieu d'eux.”, Matei 18,20); 3. le prêtre ne doit pas oublier que la chaise de la confession est *un lieu de dialogue*, et non une salle de tribunal, il doit par conséquent éviter l'attribution de certaines étiquettes, l'émission des jugements de valeur et tout autre chose qui toucherait à la valeur personnelle du pénitent²⁷. L'homme regrette ses faits et ouvre son âme pour recevoir une chance de notre part et le pardon de la part de Dieu, et non pour que nous l'accusions encore plus fortement. On ne peut pas construire la transformation d'un homme si l'on se situe sur des positions moralisatrices et de „belferisme”.

Une réception chrétienne véritable implique, au-delà des aspects psychologiques, *une écoute effectuée avec de l'affection*: „écouter jusqu'au bout (ital. „fino in fondo”) une personne signifie être activement présents et participatifs et présenter pour l'interlocuteur une invitation efficace à l'expression. Une telle écoute ne doit se confondre ni à la „neutralité bienveillant” de Freud, ni à l'„empathie” de Rogers... *Le parent spirituel* est présent comme un *représentant du Dieu*, comme messenger de la Parole, comme interprète de la volonté du Dieu. Le croyant attend de sa part une aide qui dépasse le niveau humain... non seulement des besoins humains, mais une ouverture vers Dieu et vers le surnaturel... *L'attitude d'écoute* de la part du *parent spirituel* aide, tout d'abord, le croyant à *devenir conscient de sa qualité de croyant*, capable d'*écouter la parole du Dieu*. A part cela, elle contribue à la découverte de l'altérité radicale du Dieu envers nous, qui s'exprime par le silence et par une réponse plus vague aux besoins purement humains, de sorte qu'on induit à l'homme l'état de se détacher de soi-même, de se questionner et de se confronter aux valeurs spirituelles²⁸.

Dernièrement, n'oublions pas que l'écoute-l'obéissance/la réception/l'acceptation chrétiennes se construisent et sont fortifiées par la promesse de la Parole du Dieu: „celui qui vient chez Moi, Je ne l'en ferai sortir” (Ioan 6, 37).

²⁷ Alfred Vannese, *Écouter en confession*, dans la revue „Lumen Vitae”, Bruxelles, no. 1/1982, p. 60.

²⁸ Giordani Bruno, *Il colloquio psicologico nella relazione spirituale*, Editrice Rogate, Roma, 1985, p. 92.

ECOLOGÍAS ESCOLARES DE LA VICTIMIZACIÓN Y AGRESIÓN

Beatriz LUCAS MOLINA , Irene SOLBES CANALES

Developmental and Educational Psychology, UNIVERSIDAD COMPLUTENSE DE MADRID

blucasm@psi.ucm.es

irenesolbes@psi.ucm.es

ABSTRACT

La perspectiva ecológica de Bronfenbrenner (1979) ofrece un marco teórico adecuado para integrar los distintos factores relacionados con la violencia escolar. Estos factores van desde aquellos que conciernen al alumno como individuo hasta aquellos factores sociales, siguiendo distintos niveles de jerarquía (individuo, familia, clase, escuela, comunidad y cultura). Una de las cuestiones más importantes a la hora de investigar el tema de la violencia escolar ha sido el grado en que cada uno de estos factores ecológicos contribuye a la victimización y agresión en los recintos escolares (Khoury-Kasabri, Benbenishty, Avi Astor, & Zeira, 2004). El presente estudio pretende proporcionar una respuesta a esta cuestión, examinando los efectos de las variables individuales y escolares en los niveles de victimización y agresión escolar. Los participantes fueron 2050 niños de edades comprendidas entre 8 y 13 años de 27 escuelas de Educación Primaria de la Comunidad de Madrid. El total de la muestra fue diseñado para que representase a todos los alumnos entre 3º y 6º curso de Educación Primaria, tanto de escuelas públicas como concertado-privadas. Se usó un autoinforme para evaluar la victimización y agresión escolar. A los profesores y directores de las escuelas también se les administró un cuestionario en relación con las características de la escuela, normativas y clima escolares relativas a la violencia escolar, comportamientos violentos en la escuela y los programas de prevención e intervención sobre la violencia. Los modelos lineales jerárquicos (HLM) examinarán la relación entre los niveles de victimización y agresión informados por los alumnos y las variables individuales (género, edad) y escolares (p.ej., estatus socioeconómico de las familias del alumnado, tamaño de la escuela, tipo de escuela (pública o concertado-privada), y el clima y las normativas escolares relativas a la violencia escolar). Por último, se presentarán algunas implicaciones del estudio para los programas de prevención e intervención sobre la violencia escolar.

ABSTRACT

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological perspective offers a framework which integrates the various factors related to school violence. These factors range from those concerning the individual student to social factors, and follow many levels of hierarchy (individual, family, classroom, school, community, and culture). One of the most important research questions concerning school violence is the degree to which these nested ecological factors contribute to student victimization in the school grounds (Khoury-Kasabri, Benbenishty, Avi Astor, & Zeira, 2004). The current study attempts to provide an answer by examining the effects of students' individual characteristics and school-level variables on students' reports of both school victimization and aggression. Participants were 2050 children aged 8-13 from 27 Primary Schools of the Region of Madrid. The overall sample was designed to represent all students in grades 3th through 6th in both public and private schools. A self-report questionnaire was used in order to assess school aggression and victimization. Teachers and principals of the students were also administered a questionnaire on characteristics of the school, school policies and climate relevant to school violence, violent behaviors in school, and school violence prevention and intervention. Hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) will examine the relationships among students' reports of victimization and aggression and student-level (gender, age) and school-level variables (e.g. socio-economic status (SES) of the students' families, school size, school type (public vs. private), and school climate and policies relevant to school violence). Finally, implications for school violence prevention and intervention programs will be discussed.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La idea de que todo individuo está influido por multitud de contextos no es nueva (Espelage & Swearer, 2005). De hecho, se ha publicado ya mucho sobre las relaciones recíprocas entre el individuo, la familia, la escuela, la comunidad y la cultura de la sociedad en la que el individuo se encuentra (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Garbarino, 2001, Welsh, Greene, & Jenkins, 1999). Esta perspectiva socio-ecológica ha sido aplicada a nuestra forma de conceptualizar las situaciones de agresión y victimización entre compañeros (Olweus, 1993; Swearer & Doll, 2001). De este modo, la victimización y agresión escolares no son fenómenos que ocurren de forma aislada, sino que son bien estimulados o inhibidos como resultado de una compleja interacción entre el individuo, la familia, la escuela, la comunidad y la cultura (Espelage & Swearer, 2005).

La teoría ecológica de los sistemas defiende que todos los individuos forman parte de una serie de sistemas interrelacionados que sitúan al individuo en el centro y se van moviendo hacia el exterior incluyendo a todos los sistemas que afectan al individuo (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Según la teoría de Bronfenbrenner, el niño es una parte inseparable de una red social comprendida por cuatro sistemas interrelacionados: el microsistema, el mesosistema, el exosistema y el macrosistema. El niño está en el centro a la vez que está activamente implicado en esa interacción entre sistemas (Espelage & Swearer, 2005). El microsistema incluye las relaciones del individuo con un sistema (p.ej., familia o escuela). El mesosistema incluye las relaciones entre los distintos microsistemas (p. ej., entre la familia y la escuela). El mesosistema muestra la coherencia entre dos o más microsistemas, como la coherencia entre la familia y la escuela en relación con las conductas de victimización y agresión escolar. El exosistema incluye las influencias de otros contextos, como por ejemplo el efecto de los medios de comunicación sobre la violencia escolar. Y por último, el macrosistema hace referencia a las normas culturales, como pueden ser las actitudes existentes en una determinada sociedad hacia la violencia.

Gran parte de los estudios sobre violencia escolar pasan por alto la naturaleza multinivel del fenómeno, centrándose bien únicamente en los estudiantes o en las escuelas como unidades de análisis. Nuestro estudio está fuertemente influenciado por la teoría ecológica de Bronfenbrenner (1979), ya que concibe la violencia como un resultado de la interacción entre los distintos subsistemas. Además, pretende replicar otro estudio llevado a cabo por Khoury-Kasabri et al., (2004) con 10400 estudiantes entre 7° y 11° curso de 162 escuelas en Israel, que encontró que la varianza entre escuelas explicaba un 9-15% de la varianza en victimización. En este sentido, también cabe mencionar la existencia de otros estudios que han empleado una metodología multinivel, como son el de Welsh et al. (1999) con 7583 estudiantes de 11 escuelas norteamericanas que encontraron que la varianza entre escuelas explicaba un 4.1-4.5% de la varianza en violencia; y el de Martin (2007), estudio aún en prensa y realizado con 6131 alumnos pertenecientes a 88 escuelas de Brasil, en el que encontraron que la varianza entre escuelas explicaba únicamente un 2-2.03% de los niveles de violencia entre escolares.

El presente estudio pretende ampliar el conocimiento en este campo, adoptando un enfoque multinivel para el estudio de la violencia escolar. Este estudio examina los efectos de las variables individuales (género, edad y percepción del clima escolar) y las variables escolares (clima escolar, estatus socioeconómico de las familias de los alumnos, tamaño de la escuela y titularidad del centro (público o privado)) en los niveles de victimización y agresión que informan los alumnos.

FACTORES INDIVIDUALES

• *Edad*

Existe una clara tendencia entre los alumnos más jóvenes a informar de mayores niveles

de victimización y agresión que los más mayores. De hecho, estudios de todo el mundo sugieren que existe una fuerte relación inversa entre la edad y los distintos tipos de victimización/agresión. La probabilidad de ser victimizado por los compañeros es mucho mayor en los cursos de preescolar, decayendo de forma significativa a medida que el niño crece, con un posible ligero incremento en la preadolescencia. En el presente estudio, esperamos encontrar una relación inversa entre la edad y el nivel de victimización sufrido por los alumnos.

• **Género**

A pesar de la enorme cantidad de investigaciones realizadas durante las últimas décadas que señalan que los chicos son más agresivos que las chicas, algunas investigaciones más recientes señalan que estas diferencias no están del todo claras. Es decir, estas diferencias parecen depender de factores contextuales que pueden variar entre los distintos trabajos como la definición de agresión, el método de evaluación empleado y la edad del niño o adolescente. De forma general, los chicos tienden a sufrir más situaciones de victimización directa (p. ej., pegar, dar patadas, etc.), mientras que las chicas sufren mayor número de situaciones de victimización indirecta y relacional (p. ej., exclusión del grupo, hacer el vacío, etc.). De este modo, muchos investigadores están desarrollando o evaluando teorías evolutivas capaces de explicar estas diferencias de género. Estas teorías evolutivas con frecuencia implican la consideración de interacciones entre los alumnos y su entorno social, como los compañeros, la escuela y la familia. En este estudio pretendemos examinar la relación entre el género del alumno y los diferentes tipos de victimización y/o agresión.

• **Percepción del clima escolar**

El recinto escolar es el contexto por excelencia en el que se produce gran parte de la victimización y agresión entre compañeros. La violencia escolar crea un clima de miedo entre los estudiantes y los profesores, condona el esquema de dominio-sumisión entre los alumnos y puede ser un precursor de actividades violentas y delictivas posteriores, problemas de salud mental y en ocasiones de situaciones trágicas y fatales tanto para las víctimas como para los agresores.

Los niveles de victimización que sufren los alumnos están influenciados por su percepción del clima escolar. Esta percepción del clima escolar puede estar indirectamente asociada con, por ejemplo, el miedo a ir a la escuela debido a la violencia.

Aquellas escuelas con normas claras, consistentes y justas contrarias a la violencia escolar, serán más efectivas a la hora de hacerle frente que aquellas escuelas sin dichas normas. Además, es importante evaluar la medida en que la cultura escolar tolera a aquellos estudiantes que difieren de la norma. Relaciones cálidas entre profesores y alumnos reducirán la alienación de los estudiantes respecto a su escuela y les permitirá afrontar de forma más positiva sus problemas emocionales y de comportamiento. Asimismo, la participación de los estudiantes en los procesos de decisión así como en el diseño de medidas para prevenir la violencia escolar será efectiva. Por consiguiente, esperamos encontrar menores niveles de victimización y agresión en aquellas escuelas con un clima escolar positivo.

FACTORES ESCOLARES

• **Estatus socioeconómico de las familias de los alumnos (SES)**

Son muchos los estudios que han analizado la relación entre la violencia juvenil y el estatus socioeconómico de las familias (SES). Algunos de ellos han encontrado que aquellos niños cuyos padres tenían una historia de desempleo tenían mayor probabilidad de participar en comportamientos violentos frente a los hijos de padres con empleo (Dwyer et al., 2000; Farrington, 1989). Sin embargo, otros estudios no han encontrado relación alguna entre el SES



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

de los padres o la situación de desempleo de las madres y el hecho de que el hijo sea un agresor o una víctima. Es decir, tanto las víctimas como los agresores podrían tener cualquier estatus social. En el presente estudio, vamos a explorar si el SES de las familias de los alumnos de una escuela está asociado con el nivel de violencia escolar.

• **Titularidad del centro: público o concertado-privado**

En España existen principalmente dos tipos de escuelas: las públicas que están completamente financiadas por el gobierno y las concertadas-privadas, que están parcialmente financiadas con fondos privados (normalmente por las familias de los alumnos).

Este factor escolar está muy relacionado con el factor comentado con anterioridad, pues es de esperar que las familias de los estudiantes que asisten a escuelas concertadas-privadas tengan en general un estatus socioeconómico más alto que las familias de las escuelas públicas. Este estudio intenta explorar la relación entre estos dos tipos de escuela y los niveles de agresión y victimización de los alumnos.

• **Tamaño de la escuela**

Otro aspecto del nivel escolar de especial relevancia para el estudio de la violencia escolar es el tamaño de la escuela. Bowen, Bowen y Richman (2000) encontraron que los sentimientos de seguridad de los profesores y los alumnos eran menores en las escuelas grandes frente a aquellas más pequeñas. Sin embargo, Olweus (1993) no encontró relaciones positivas entre el nivel de los problemas de bullying y el tamaño de la escuela. En nuestro estudio, nosotros pretendemos encontrar una relación positiva entre el tamaño de la escuela y los niveles de victimización y agresión que se dan en ella

• **Percepción del clima de la escuela por profesores y directores**

Como ya hemos comentado con anterioridad, muchos investigadores han resaltado la importancia de desarrollar un clima escolar positivo para reducir la violencia escolar. Por lo tanto, nosotros consideramos fundamental conocer cómo los profesores y los directores perciben las normas y el clima escolares relativos a la violencia escolar en sus escuelas. De este modo, esperamos encontrar menores niveles de victimización y agresión en aquellas escuelas cuyos profesores y directores informen de un clima escolar positivo.

MÉTODO

• **Participantes**

Los participantes fueron 2050 niños de edades comprendidas entre 8 y 13 años (Media= 9.80, Dt= 1.24) de 27 escuelas de Educación de Primaria de la Comunidad de Madrid. La muestra total fue diseñada para que fuese representativa de todos los estudiantes entre 3º y 6º curso, tanto de escuelas públicas como privadas de dicha región.

La distribución en función del género fue: un 50.80% chicas (1041) y un 49.20% de chicos (1009). La distribución en función del curso fue: un 23% (471) de 3º, un 25.1% (514) de 4º, un 26.6% (545) de 5º y un 25.4% (520) de 6º.

De las 108 clases evaluadas, sólo 96 profesores-tutores contestaron el cuestionario de los profesores. Gran parte de ellos eran mujeres (77.1%), mientras que un 22.9% eran hombres.

La muestra de escuelas estaba formada por 17 públicas (58.2%) y 10 concertadas-privadas (42.8%) de las cinco zonas de la Comunidad de Madrid. Sólo 25 directores de las 27 escuelas evaluadas cumplieron el cuestionario de directores.

• **Medidas**

Variables dependientes

Victimización escolar. Los niveles de victimización en la escuela informados por los alumnos fueron obtenidos a través de un autoinforme que incluía 20 ítems sobre distintos episodios

de violencia. Los alumnos podían elegir entre una de las cuatro categorías para describir la frecuencia con la que habían sufrido alguna de las distintas situaciones de victimización durante los dos últimos meses: nunca, a veces, bastantes veces, muchas veces. Esta investigación se centraba en los siguientes dos tipos de victimización:

- Victimización verbal y social ($\alpha=0.87$): Esta subescala incluía 9 ítems relacionados con la victimización verbal y la exclusión social. Como ejemplos estaban: ser insultado o excluido de un grupo.

- Victimización física y ataques a la propiedad ($\alpha=0.91$): Esta subescala incluye 11 ítems relacionados con la victimización física (p. ej., empujar, pegar) y ataques a la propiedad (p. ej., alguien me ha robado algo).

Agresión escolar. Al igual que para la escala de victimización, los niveles de agresión entre escolares fueron obtenidos con un autoinforme que incluía 20 ítems sobre situaciones de agresión. Los alumnos tenían que elegir una de las cuatro categorías para señalar con qué frecuencia habían cometido actos de agresión hacia otros alumnos en los últimos dos meses: nunca, a veces, bastantes veces, muchas veces. La presente investigación se centra en los siguientes dos tipos de agresión:

- Agresión verbal y social ($\alpha=0.87$): Esta subescala incluía 9 ítems relacionados con las situaciones de agresión verbal y exclusión social. Como ejemplos estaban: burlarse, insultar o excluir a otros de un grupo.

- Agresión física y ataques a la propiedad ($\alpha=0.92$): Esta subescala incluye 11 ítems relacionados con la agresión física (p. ej., dar patadas, empujar a otros) y con los ataques a la propiedad (p. ej., robar cosas a otros).

Variables independientes

Nivel alumno

Género: Chicos y chicas fueron comparados en los niveles de victimización y agresión.

Edad. Comparamos a los alumnos en las distintas edades, desde los 8 a los 13 años.

Clima escolar. La información sobre el clima escolar fue obtenida a partir de las respuestas de los alumnos a un autoinforme. Esta subescala fue adaptada de Benbenishty & Astor (2005). A los alumnos se les pedía que evaluaran su nivel de acuerdo con una serie de afirmaciones que describían el clima escolar en tres dimensiones:

‘Normas escolares’ ($\alpha=0.82$): Esta subescala incluía 10 ítems sobre las opiniones de los estudiantes acerca de las normas escolares y los medios dirigidos a reducir la violencia escolar.

‘Disponibilidad por parte del profesor’ ($\alpha=0.76$): Incluía 7 ítems sobre las relaciones de ayuda entre los profesores y los alumnos.

‘Participación de los alumnos’ ($\alpha=0.51$). Incluía 3 ítems sobre la opinión de los alumnos acerca del papel desempeñado por los compañeros en el tratamiento de las situaciones de violencia. Es necesario tener en cuenta la baja consistencia interna obtenida en este factor a la hora de interpretar los resultados obtenidos.

Nivel escuela

SES de las familias de los alumnos. La información relacionada con el estatus socioeconómico de las familias de los alumnos fue obtenida a partir del cuestionario de los directores. Se diferenciaron cinco tipos de SES familiar: bajo, medio-bajo, medio, medio-alto y alto.

Titularidad del centro. Comparamos los niveles de agresión y victimización entre las escuelas públicas y las concertado-privadas.

Tamaño de la escuela. Obtenido a partir del número de alumnos y de profesores que asistían a la escuela.

Clima y normas escolares relativas a la violencia escolar. Obtuvimos dos tipos de respuestas relacionadas con esta variable: una obtenida a partir del cuestionario del profesor



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

y otra del cuestionario de directores. Ambos autoinformes fueron adaptados de Benbenishty y Astor (2005).

• **Procedimiento**

Se pidió en consentimiento autorizado a todo el alumnado. Los participantes podían abandonar libremente el estudio en cualquier momento y por cualquier razón. La confidencialidad fue asegurada a todos los participantes.

La recogida de datos de los estudiantes se realizó en el contexto clase. La gran parte de los alumnos completaban el cuestionario en 30 o 45 minutos.

Los directores y los tutores cumplieron sus respectivos cuestionarios de forma individual.

Después del estudio se entregaron informes con los resultados así como pautas de prevención y/o intervención en su caso, a cada uno de los 27 centros participantes.

• **Análisis de los datos**

Los análisis de datos siguieron el modelo multinivel o Modelo Jerárquico Lineal, según el criterio de Raudenbush y Bryk (2002), usando para ello el programa estadístico Raudenbush, Bryk y Congdon (2000) HLM: Hierarchical Linear Models. 6.0 Version. Chicago: Scientific Software Internacional.

Los estudiantes están anidados dentro de las escuelas: el modelo nivel-1 representa las relaciones entre las variables a nivel alumno y las variables dependientes; y el modelo nivel-2 capta la influencia de las variables a nivel escolar.

RESULTADOS

Nivel individual

Para analizar la importancia de los factores a nivel alumno sobre los niveles de agresión y victimización, estimamos la relación entre el género, la edad y el clima escolar, y las situaciones de victimización/agresión. La tabla 1.1. presenta los coeficientes de asociación (betas) para victimización y agresión, respectivamente, y el total de varianza explicada. De forma conjunta, las variables a nivel alumno que empleamos para predecir la victimización y/o agresión escolar explican una gran cantidad de varianza.

Tabla 1.1. Coeficientes de Asociación (Betas) de las variables individuales.

VARIABLES INDIVIDUALES	VICTIMIZACIÓN		AGRESIÓN	
	Física-Ataques Propiedad	Verbal-Exclusión Social	Física-Ataques Propiedad	Verbal-Exclusión Social
Género	-2.05***	-1.58**	-2.77***	-1.69***
Edad	-1.55***	-1.53***	-0.57***	-0.44***
Normativas Escolares	-0.07*	-0.05	-0.18***	-0.16***
Disponibilidad Profesr	-0.15***	-0.17***	-0.08*	-0.09*
Participación Estudiantes	0.05*	0.00	0.08*	0.07*
% Varianza Modelo explicada	95.82%	93.88%	97.74%	98.56%

Nota. Los predictores del Nivel-1 fueron 'grand mean centered'. El género toma valor 0 para chicos y 1 para chicas.

*p < .05 ; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Como podemos observar en la tabla, los chicos informan de mayores niveles de victimización y agresión por parte de otros escolares que las chicas. Las mayores diferencias en

relación con el género se dan entre la violencia física-ataques a la propiedad y las menores en la violencia verbal-exclusión social.

La edad de los alumnos contribuye a explicar la varianza entre estudiantes en sus niveles de victimización y agresión: sobre todo por lo que se refiere a la victimización. Los niños más pequeños informan participar en mayor número de situaciones de victimización y agresión.

Los normas escolares tienen un mayor poder predictivo para la agresión que para la victimización; mientras que la disponibilidad y ayuda del profesorado lo tiene más para la victimización que para la agresión. La participación de los estudiantes en los procesos de decisión y la solución de conflictos entre escolares tiene un bajo poder predictivo.

Nivel escuela

En el análisis del nivel escuela examinamos la relación entre las medias de las escuelas en los niveles de victimización y agresión de los alumnos y las variables escolares (variables nivel 2). En la tabla 1.2 se presentan los resultados de estos análisis separadamente para cada tipo de victimización y agresión.

Tabla 1.2. Coeficientes de Asociación (Betas) de las variables escolares.

VARIABLES ESCOLARES	VICTIMIZACIÓN		AGRESIÓN	
	Física-Ataques Propiedad	Verbal-Exclusión Scoial	Física-Ataques Propiedad	Verbal-Exclusión Scoial
Titularidad del centro	0.28	0.62	-1.13	-1.19
SES de las familias	-0.84*	0.38	-0.98*	-0.59
Tamaño Escuela: N ^o Alumnos	0.01*	0.00	-0.00	-0.00
Tamaño Escuela: N ^o Profesores	-0.15***	-0.09*	0.04	0.07
Normativas escolares contrarias violencia: Directores	-0.04*	-0.02	-0.04	-0.04
Normativas escolares contrarias violencia: Directores	-0.00	-0.01	-0.04	0.00
Ausencia normativas escolares contra violencia: Profesores	-0.08*	-0.09*	-0.04	-0.07
Normativas escolares contrarias violencia: Profesores	0.16**	0.08*	0.03	0.05
% Varianza Modelo explicada	1.09%	1.23%	1.76%	1.62%

Nota. Los predictores del Nivel-2 fueron 'grand mean centered'. El tipo de centro toma el valor 0 para concertado-privado y el 1 para público.

*p < .05 ; **p < .01; ***p < .001

A nivel general podemos decir que las características de la escuela resultaron poco efectivas a la hora de predecir la agresión escolar pero fueron bastante buenas prediciendo victimización. En la tabla 1.2. podemos ver cómo las variables escolares que hemos empleado para predecir la victimización y agresión escolar no explican una gran cantidad de varianza entre-escuelas.

El SES de las familias de los alumnos fue un buen predictor para las situaciones de victimización y agresión física-ataques a la propiedad, los estudiantes de familias con bajo SES informaron de mayores niveles de este tipo de victimización y agresión.

Respecto al tamaño de la escuela, encontramos que el número de profesores de la escuela era un predictor, aunque débil, para ambos tipos de victimización. Las escuelas con un mayor número de profesores informaron de menores niveles de victimización.

El clima escolar, tal y como es percibido por los profesores, fue sólo un predictor para los niveles de victimización. La existencia de normas escolares contrarias a la violencia estaba relacionada negativamente con la victimización de los alumnos, mientras que su ausencia lo estaba de forma positiva.

DISCUSIÓN

El presente estudio ha empleado un enfoque ecológico basado en las características de los alumnos, de las escuelas y de familias de los alumnos para predecir la victimización y la agresión en la escuela. Para ello hemos analizado una muestra representativa de escuelas de Educación Primaria de la Comunidad de Madrid y hemos utilizado modelos jerárquicos lineales para identificar el relativo poder predictivo de las variables a nivel alumno y a nivel escuela. Nuestros resultados indican que la mayor parte de la varianza en victimización y agresión escolar es debida a las características de los alumnos. En este estudio, examinamos la edad, el género y el clima escolar como predictores a nivel del alumno de la victimización y agresión en la escuela.

• **Edad**

Respecto a la edad de los alumnos, encontramos que los alumnos más jóvenes están expuestos a mayores niveles de victimización y agresión por parte de sus compañeros que los alumnos más mayores. Para explicar este resultado podemos considerar dos explicaciones complementarias: la perspectiva evolutiva y la del contexto social. Desde una perspectiva evolutiva, Smith et al. (1999) exponen diversas hipótesis para explicar el descenso de la victimización y agresión con la edad: 'los niños más pequeños no han sido aún socializados para entender que no está bien agredir a otros' y 'los niños más jóvenes aún no han adquirido las habilidades sociales y asertivas necesarias para afrontar de forma efectiva con los episodios de victimización'. Desde la perspectiva del contexto social se plantea que 'los niños más pequeños están con un mayor número de niños más mayores que ellos en la escuela que están en posición de victimizarlos' y 'los niños más pequeños tienen un menor estatus social que los alumnos mayores dentro de la escuela'.

• **Género**

Los chicos informaron sufrir mayor número de situaciones de victimización así como ejercer la agresión hacia los demás, con mayor frecuencia que las chicas en ambos tipos de violencia. Como se ha mencionado en la introducción de este artículo, muchos estudios anteriores han encontrado que los chicos son más violentos que las chicas (Block, 1983; Parke & Slaby, 1983). Aunque algunos investigadores (p. ej., Nansel et al., 2001; Olweus, 1999; Pellegrini & Long, 2002; Smith & Sharp, 1994; Sullivan, 2000) encontraron que las chicas emplean en mayor medida la violencia indirecta y relacional. En este estudio no encontramos que las chicas informasen sufrir o ejercer en mayor medida que los chicos la violencia de tipo verbal y exclusión social. Sin embargo, el poder predictivo del género fue mayor para la violencia física que para la verbal-exclusión social. Algunas teorías señalan que las diferencias en los niveles de victimización y agresión son debidas a distintos patrones de amistad entre chicos y chicas (Espelage, Holt, & Henkel, 2003; Pellegrini, 2000). Es importante examinar estas dinámicas de género con mayor profundidad y considerar la participación de las chicas como un importante recurso a la hora de prevenir la violencia escolar.

• **El clima escolar tal y como es percibido por los estudiantes**

Las características del clima escolar estuvieron relacionadas de forma negativa con los niveles de victimización y agresión. Los alumnos que percibían que en sus escuelas habían normas claras, consistentes y justas contrarias a la violencia, informaron de menores niveles de violencia. Las relaciones positivas entre alumnos y profesores también estuvieron asociadas con menores niveles de violencia. Sin embargo, la participación de los estudiantes en los procesos de decisión y de solución de conflictos no pareció tener un efecto claro. A pesar de que no podemos establecer un nexo causal entre el clima escolar positivo y menores niveles de violencia, nuestros resultados

apoyan las recomendaciones aportadas por distintos investigadores y educadores, que enfatizan la importancia de desarrollar un clima escolar positivo para reducir la violencia escolar.

Nuestros resultados muestran que las escuelas varían muy ligeramente en sus niveles agregados de victimización y agresión. Por lo tanto, la mayor parte de la varianza en los niveles de victimización y agresión de los alumnos es debida a diferencias individuales.

• **Nivel socioeconómico de las familias (SES)**

Las escuelas con una elevada proporción de alumnos procedentes de familias con bajo SES mostraron mayores niveles de victimización y agresión física y ataques a la propiedad. Resultados similares han sido encontrados examinando la relación entre violencia juvenil y el SES individual del individuo (Dwyer et al., 2000; Farrington, 1989). Sin embargo otros estudios no encontraron estos resultados (Olweus, 1993; Whiney & Smith, 1994). La poca consistencia de estos resultados y el hecho de que en nuestro estudio sólo se haya encontrado relación entre la violencia física y ataques a la propiedad y el SES de las familias de los alumnos, parece indicar la existencia de otros posibles factores que estén interviniendo en esta relación y que no hemos considerado (como por ejemplo el apoyo social y comunitario que reciben las familias, etc.).

• **Titularidad del centro**

No se encontraron diferencias en los niveles de victimización y agresión entre escuelas públicas y concertadas-privadas. Por lo tanto, parece que no existe una relación directa entre el SES de las familias de los alumnos que atienden a uno y otro tipo de escuela como esperábamos.

• **Tamaño de la escuela**

Existían dos indicadores para el tamaño de las escuelas: el número de alumnos y el número de profesores. El número de estudiantes resultó ser predictor débil de la victimización física-ataques a la propiedad. Mientras que el número de profesores apareció como un buen predictor de la victimización. Aquellas escuelas con un mayor número de profesores tenían niveles más bajos de victimización entre escolares.

• **El clima escolar percibido por profesores y directores.**

Se examinó el efecto del clima y normas escolares relativas a la violencia escolar, tal y como éstas eran percibidas por profesores y directores. No se encontró ninguna relación entre el clima escolar percibido por los directores y los niveles de agresión y victimización. Pero sí encontramos que aquellas escuelas en las que los profesores percibían un clima escolar positivo y adecuado para la prevención de la violencia escolar tenían menores niveles de victimización. Mientras que aquellas escuelas en las que los profesores percibían que no existían normas escolares claras relativas a la prevención de la violencia escolar, tenían mayores niveles de victimización. De nuevo, este resultado señala la importancia de desarrollar un clima escolar positivo para reducir la violencia escolar.

IMPLICACIONES PARA LA PRÁCTICA Y FUTUROS TRABAJOS

Los resultados relacionados con las variables a nivel alumno indican algunos puntos importantes para los programas de prevención e intervención sobre la violencia escolar. El primero de ellos, relacionado con las diferencias de edad, señala la importancia de implementar programas de prevención a las más tempranas edades con el fin de prevenir consecuencias negativas posteriores. El segundo de ellos, relacionado con las diferencias de género, señala la importancia de alentar la participación de las chicas en la prevención de la violencia escolar. Por último, como ya hemos comentado con anterioridad, el resultado relacionado con el clima escolar enfatiza la importancia de desarrollar un clima escolar positivo para reducir la violencia escolar.

En cuento a las variables a nivel escuela, aunque nosotros hemos incluido el SES de las familias de los alumnos como un variable agregada a las variables a nivel escuela (a partir del cuestionario del director), futuros análisis deberían incluir información sobre el SES de las familias de los alumnos como variables individuales. Este tratamiento multinivel del SES nos permitirá examinar si los estudiantes que atienden escuelas con una elevada proporción de familias con bajo SES tienen mayor riesgo de victimización y agresión, a pesar de su propio SES.

Nuestros resultados indican que los estudiantes que están expuestos a mayores niveles de victimización y agresión física-ataques a la propiedad, provienen de familias y escuelas con un bajo SES. Es importante, por tanto, proporcionar un mayor número de recursos a estas escuelas. Esto es, es probable que la violencia escolar se vea reducida si las escuelas implementan políticas adecuadas, que incluyan normas claras, consistentes y justas. Asimismo, las relaciones positivas entre los alumnos y los profesores, y la disponibilidad y ayuda de los profesores a aquellos alumnos de riesgo puede reducir los sentimientos de alineación de los alumnos e incrementar su sentimiento de pertenencia a la escuela, reduciendo con ello la probabilidad de ejercer o sufrir la violencia por parte de otros alumnos. En este sentido, tanto los profesores como el resto del personal del centro necesitan formación y entrenamiento para ayudarles a adquirir el conocimiento y las habilidades necesarias para implementar dichos cambios. Aún más, la cooperación entre los servicios sociales de la comunidad, los psicólogos educativos, los consejeros y el personal educativo, los padres y otros grupos de la comunidad, puede llevar a la creación de entornos seguros (tanto en la escuela como en sus alrededores) para todos los alumnos.

El resultado relativo a la pequeña influencia de las variables del nivel escuela sobre la victimización y agresión entre alumnos podría ser explicado por la peculiaridad de este tipo de comportamientos. Estos comportamientos están fuertemente conectados con las relaciones interpersonales entre el grupo de iguales y se ha observado que aparecen en todo tipo de recintos escolares. Una posible explicación para esto es que las situaciones de desequilibrio de poder (como las de victimización o agresión) aparecen con facilidad en todo contexto en el que se construyen relaciones entre iguales. Por lo tanto, sería interesante estudiar el efecto del grupo de iguales en los niveles de victimización y agresión de los alumnos. Además de lo ya mencionado, la pequeña proporción de varianza explicada por las variables a nivel de escuela podría estar reflejando una realidad española: la elevada homogeneidad entre las escuelas de Educación Primaria de España. En ese caso, el diseño y la implementación de un único programa de prevención de la violencia escolar con la flexibilidad suficiente para adaptarse a los distintos contextos escolares podrían resultar muy efectivos.

Otra posible explicación a la pequeña cantidad de varianza entre las escuelas podría estar relacionada con el hecho de que las respuestas de los directores y profesores sean menos fiables que las de los alumnos, como ciertos estudios ya han señalado con anterioridad (Cogesshall & Kingery, 2001). Por lo tanto, el efecto de otras posibles variables a nivel escolar, así como la inclusión de otros informantes (p. ej. familias, agentes externos a la escuela, etc.) deberían tenerse en cuenta en futuros estudios.

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SCHOOL ECOLOGIES OF VICTIMISATION AND AGGRESSION

INTRODUCTION

The idea that multiple environments influence individuals is not a new concept (Espelage & Swearer, 2005). In fact, much has been written on the reciprocal interplay between the individual, family, school, community, and culture (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Garbarino, 2001, Welsh, Greene, & Jenkins, 1999). This social-ecological perspective has been applied to our conceptualization of school victimisation and aggression behaviors (Olweus, 1993; Swearer & Doll, 2001). In a nutshell, school victimisation and aggression do not occur in isolation. Those phenomenon are encouraged and/or inhibited as a result of the complex relationships between the individual, family, school, community and culture (Espelage & Swearer, 2005).

Ecological-systems theory purports that all individuals are part of interrelated systems that locate the individual at the center and move out from the center to include all systems that affect the individual (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). According to Bronfenbrenner's theory, the child is an inseparable part of a social network comprised of four interrelated systems: microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem. The child is at the center of, and actively involved with this interplay of systems (Espelage & Swearer, 2005). The microsystem includes the child's relationship with one system (e.g., home *or* school). The mesosystem includes the interrelationship between microsystems in the child's life (e.g., home *and* school). The mesosystem depicts the congruence between two or more environments, such as the congruence between home and school regarding victimisation and aggression. The exosystem includes influences from other contexts, such as the effect of a school district's violence prevention policy. Finally, the macrosystem is the influence of cultural mores, such as society's attitudes toward violence behaviors.

Most of the studies on school violence overlook the multi-level nature of the phenomena, focusing either on students or on schools as units of analysis (Khoury-Kasabri et al., 2004). Our study is highly influenced by Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological developmental theory, as it conceives violence as an interplay among several relevant subsystems. Furthermore, it replicates another study carried out by Khoury-Kasabri et al., (2004) with 10400 students in grades 7-11 in 162 schools across Israel, which found that variance between schools accounted for 9-15% of the variance in student victimisation.

The current study aims to expand the knowledge in this field by addressing school violence from a multi-level perspective. It examines the effects of student's individual characteristics (gender, age/grade level, and personal perception of school climate) and school-level variables (school climate, socio-economic status of students' families, school and class size, and school type (public or private)) on both student's reports of school victimization and aggression.

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS

• Age

There is a consistent tendency for younger students to report greater victimisation than older students (Boulton & Underwood, 1992; Whitney & Smith, 1994). Indeed, all over the world studies suggest that there is a strong inverse relationship between age and specific types of victimisation (Olweus, 1999; Smith, Morita, Junger-Tas, Olweus, Catalano, & Slee, 1999;



Sullivan, 2000). The chances of becoming victimised by peers are much higher in the early elementary school grades and then drop significantly as a child grows older (Olweus, 1993), with a possible slight increase in the early stages of middle school (Pellegrini & Long, 2002). In the present study, we hypothesize that younger students will report more victimisation than older students.

• ***Gender differences***

Although a tremendous amount of research over the last several decades supports that boys are more aggressive than girls (Block, 1983), more recent research would also support that it depends (Knight, Gutherie, Page, & Fabes, 2002). That is, it depends on important contextual factors that may vary across investigations such as the definition of aggression, the method of assessment employed, and the age of the child/adolescent. Overall, boys tend to be victimised more often by direct forms of aggression (e.g., hitting, slapping), and girls are victimized more often by indirect and relational forms of aggression (e.g., rumors, exclusion from groups; e.g., Nansel et al., 2001; Olweus, 1999; Pellegrini & Long, 2002; Smith & Sharp, 1994; Sullivan, 2000). Thus, many scholars are developing and/or testing developmental theories that might explain why gender differences in aggression consistently emerge (Espelage, Holt, & Henkel, 2003; Pellegrini, 2002). These developmental theories often involve consideration of interactions among children and their social environments such as peers, schools, and families. In this study, we examine the relationship between gender and different types of victimization.

• ***Perception of School Climate***

The school setting is the primary context in which most childhood aggression and victimisation by peers occurs (Olweus, 1993). School violence creates a climate of fear among students and teachers, condones aggressive coercive-submissive interactions between students, and may be a precursor to later violent and criminal activities, mental health problems, and sometimes tragic and fatal circumstances among aggressors and victims.

Students' reports of victimization are influenced by their perception of school climate (Khoury-Kasabri et al., 2004). This perception of school climate may be indirectly associated with, for example, fear of attending school due to violence.

Schools with policies for dealing with violence that include clear, consistent, and fair rules may be able to reduce violence compared with schools without such a policy (Limper, 2000; Olweus, 1993; Smith & Sharp, 1994). In addition, it is important to evaluate the extent to which school cultures tolerate students who differ from the norm. Supportive positive relationships with adults may reduce student's alienation from their school and allow them to overcome their emotional and behavioral problems. Moreover, student participation in decision making and in designing ways to prevent school violence may be effective. Therefore, we hypothesize that lower victimisation rates will be reported in schools with positive school climate.

SCHOOL-LEVEL FACTORS

• ***Socioeconomic status of the student's family***

Previous studies have examined the relationships between youth violence and the socioeconomic status (SES) of the student's family. Some of them have found that children whose fathers had a history of unemployment were more likely to engage in violent behaviors than sons of fully employed fathers (Dwyer et al., 2000; Farrington, 1989). On the other hand, others found no relationship between the father's SES or the mother's employment status and a boy being an aggressor or a victim. That is, aggressors or victims could belong to any social background. In the present study, we explore whether SES of the student's families at a school are associated with school violence.

• **School type: public or private school.**

In Spain there are mainly two types of schools: public schools, which are totally financed with government founding; and private schools, which are partly financed with private founding (usually student's families founding).

This school-level factor is very related with the aforementioned one, as it is expected that students' families from private schools will have in general a higher SES than public school's families. This study tries to explore the relationship between these two types of schools and levels of student's victimization and aggression.

• **School size**

Other school-level aspect that is relevant to school violence is school size. Bowen, Bowen, and Richman (2000) found that feelings of personal safety are lowest in the largest schools and highest in the smallest ones. However, Olweus (1993) found no positive relationships between level of bully-victim problems and school size. In our study, however, we hypothesize a positive relationship between school size and levels of victimisation in school.

• **Perception of school climate by teachers and principals.**

As we have previously stated, many researchers have emphasized the importance of developing a positive school climate to reduce school violence. Thus, we consider essential to know how teachers and principals perceive school policies and climate relevant to school violence in their school. We hypothesize that lower victimisation rates will be reported in schools whose teachers and principals report a positive school climate.

METHOD

• **Participants**

Participants were 2050 children aged 8-13 (Mean= 9.80; Sd= 1.24) from 27 Primary Schools of the Region of Madrid. The overall sample was designed to represent all students in grades 3th through 6th in both public and private schools.

The gender distribution was: 50.80% of girls (1041) and 49.20% of boys (1009). The grade level distribution was: 23% (471) of students were in grade 3, 25.1% (514) in grade 4, 26.6% (545) in grade 5, and 25.4% (520) in grade 6.

From all the 108 assessed classes, only 96 teachers answered the Homeroom teachers' questionnaire. A majority of them were women (77.1%), while a 22.9% were men.

The sample consists of 17 public (58.2%) and 10 private schools (42.8%), from the five different areas of the Region of Madrid. Only 25 principals from all the 27 schools filled out the Principal's questionnaire.

• **Measures**

Dependent Variables

Student Victimization. Student reports of all forms of victimisation in schools were obtained with a self-report questionnaire which included 20 items on victimisation by several types of violent acts. Students could check one of four categories to describe how many times they were victimized in the last two months: never, a few, often, and a lot of times. The research presented here focuses on the following two types of victimisation:

- Verbal and social victimisation ($\alpha=0.87$): This sub-scale includes 9 items related to verbal and social exclusion victimisation. Examples include being mocked, insulted or excluded from a group.

- Physical and property attacks victimisation ($\alpha=0.91$): This sub-scale includes 11 items related to physical victimisation (e.g. being kicked, pushed) and property attacks (e.g. someone stole me something).



Student Aggression. As well as the *Student Victimization Sub-Scale*, student reports of all forms of aggression in schools were obtained with a self-report questionnaire which included 20 items on aggression by several types of violent acts. Students could check one of four categories to describe how many times they commit aggressive acts against others students in the last two months: never, a few, often, and a lot of times. The research presented here focuses on the following four types of aggression:

- Verbal and social aggression ($\alpha=0.87$): This sub-scale includes 9 items related to verbal and social exclusion aggression. Examples include mock, insult or exclude others from a group.

- Physical and property attacks victimisation ($\alpha=0.92$): This sub-scale includes 11 items related to physical aggression (e.g. kick, push others) and property attacks (e.g. steal something from others).

Independent variables

Student-Level Variables

Gender. Boys and girls were compared.

Grade level. We compared students in the various grades from grade 3 to 6.

School climate. Information on school climate was obtained through the student's responses in the self-report questionnaire. This sub-scale was adapted from Benbenishty & Astor (2005). Students were asked to rate their level of agreement with a series of statements describing school climate in three dimensions:

School policy ($\alpha=0.82$): This sub-scale included 10 items about student's opinions of school policies or procedures aimed at reducing violence.

Teacher support ($\alpha=0.76$): Included 7 items about teachers' supportive relationships with students.

Students' participation ($\alpha=0.51$). Included 3 items on the respondent's feeling of whether students play an important and active role in addressing issues of school violence. Low internal consistency should be taken into consideration in the interpretation of findings.

School-level Variables

Student's Families SES. Information related to the socioeconomic status of the student's families was obtained from de Principal's questionnaire. There were five types of family SES: low, middle-low, middle, middle-high and high SES.

School Type. We compared public and private schools.

School Size: Number of students attending and number of teachers at the school.

School policies and climate relevant to school violence. We have two types of responses related to this variable: one obtained from the teachers' questionnaire and the other one from the principal's. Both self-reports were adapted from Benbenishty and Astor (2005).

• Procedure

Parental consent was asked to all students. Participants were free to withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. Confidentiality was ensured to all participants.

Student data collection took place during class time. The vast majority of students completed the questionnaire in 30 to 45 minutes.

Principals and homeroom teachers were given questionnaires to complete individually.

After the study school reports were provided to every participant school.

• Data analysis

The data analysis have followed the usual multilevel or Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) according to Raudenbush & Bryk (2002) criteria, using the statistical program Raudenbush, Bryk & Congdon (2000) HLM: Hierarchical Linear Models. 6.0 Version. Chicago: Scientific Software International.

Students are nested within schools: A level-1 model represents the relationships between the student-level variables and the dependent variables, and the level-2 model captures the influence of school-level variables.

RESULTS

Student-Level Variables

To assess the importance of student-level factors in understanding to what extent students were victimised or committed aggression acts against others, we estimated the relationship between gender, age, and climate and victimisation/aggression. Tables 1.1 presents the association coefficients (betas) for victimisation and aggression, respectively, and the amount of variance explained. Overall, the student-level variables that we employed to predict school victimisation/aggression do explain a large amount of variance (between 93.88% and 98.56%).

The table indicates that male students report more victimisation and aggression than female students. The largest gender contrasts are with regard to physical-property violence, and the smallest concern verbal-social exclusion violence.

Table 1.1. Association Coefficients (Betas) of Student-level variables.

STUDENT-LEVEL VARIABLES	VICTIMISATION		AGGRESSION	
	Physical-Property	Verbal- Social Exclusion	Physical-Property	Verbal- Social Exclusion
Gender	-2.05***	-1.58**	-2.77***	-1.69***
Age	-1.55***	-1.53***	-0.57***	-0.44***
School Policy	-0.07*	-0.05	-0.18***	-0.16***
Teacher Support	-0.15***	-0.17***	-0.08*	-0.09*
Student's Participation	0.05*	0.00	0.08*	0.07*
Overall Model variance	95.82%	93.88%	97.74%	98.56%

Note. Level-1 predictors were grand mean centered. Gender takes value of 0 for males and 1 for females.

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

Student's age do contribute to explain variance among students in their levels of victimisation and aggression; this was specially true with regard to victimisation. Younger children report high levels of victimisation and aggression.

The school policies had a stronger predictive power for aggression than for victimisation; while the teacher s' support of students had a stronger predictive power for victimisation than for aggression. Student's participation in school decision making had a weak predictive power.

School-level Variables

In the school-level analysis, we examined the relationships between schools' means of student victimisation and aggression and school-level variables (level-2 variables). Table 1.2 presents the results of these analysis separately for each type of victimisation and aggression.

Table 1.2. Association Coefficients (Betas) of School-level variables.

SCHOOL-LEVEL VARIABLES	VICTIMISATION		AGGRESSION	
	Physical-Property	Verbal- Social Exclusion	Physical-Property	Verbal- Social Exclusion
School type	0.28	0.62	-1.13	-1.19
Families SES	-0.84*	0.38	-0.98*	-0.59
School Size: Number of Students	0.01*	0.00	-0.00	-0.00
School Size: Number of Teachers	-0.15***	-0.09*	0.04	0.07
School Policies Against Violence _ Principals	-0.04*	-0.02	-0.04	-0.04
No School Policies Against Violence _ Principals	-0.00	-0.01	-0.04	0.00
School Policies Against Violence _ Teachers	-0.08*	-0.09*	-0.04	-0.07
No School Policies Against Violence _ Teachers	0.16**	0.08*	0.03	0.05
Overall Model Variance	1.09%	1.23%	1.76%	1.62%

Note. Level-2 predictors were grand mean centered. School type takes value of 0 for private and 1 for public.

*p < .05 ; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Overall, school-level characteristics were quite ineffective in predicting school violence. Table 1.2 shows that school-level variables that we employed to predict school victimisation and aggression do not large amounts of variance (between 1.09% and 1.76%).

Student's families SES was a good predictor for physical-property victimisation and aggression, students from low SES families reported higher levels of physical victimisation and aggression.

Regarding the school size, we found that the school's number of teachers was a predictor, although a weak one, for both types of victimisation. Students from schools with a higher number of teachers reported lower levels of victimisation.

School climate, as it is perceived by teachers, was only a predictor for levels of victimisation. The existence of school policies against violence was negatively related to student victimisation, while the absence of school policies was positively related to victimisation.

DISCUSSION

The present study employed an ecological perspective based on the characteristics of the students, schools, and students' families, to predict victimisation and aggression at school. We studied a representative sample of Primary schools in the Region of Madrid and used a hierarchical linear model to identify the relative predictive role of variables at the student and the school level. Our findings indicate that most of the variance in school victimisation and aggression is accounted by student-level characteristics. In the present study, we examined age, gender, and school climate as student-level predictors of victimisation and aggression at school.

Age

We found that younger students are more exposed to victimisation and aggression from peers than older students. We can consider two different and complementary explanations: the developmental and the social context perspective. Using a developmental perspective, Smith et

al. (1999) present several hypotheses for the decline in victimisation and aggression with age: 'younger children have not yet been socialized into understanding that you should not bully others', and 'younger children have not yet acquired the social skills and assertiveness skills to deal effectively with victimisation incidents and discourage further victimisation'. Regarding social context perspective, 'younger children have more children older than them in school, who are in position to victimise them', and 'younger children have lower social status than older students'.

Gender

Boys reported both being victimized as being aggressor more frequently than girls for both types of victimisation and aggression. As we mentioned in the introduction of this paper, many previous studies have found that boys and men are more violent than men and women (Block, 1983; Parke & Slaby, 1983). Although some researchers (e.g. Nansel et al., 2001; Olweus, 1999; Pellegrini & Long; Smith & Sharp, 1994; Sullivan, 2000) have found out that girls are more indirect and relationally aggressive, in the present study we did not find that girls reported higher levels of verbal-social victimisation/aggression than boys. However, the predictive power of gender was stronger for physical than for verbal-social victimisation and aggression. Some theories point to the differences in the friendship patterns of boys and girls as the underlying reason for these different rates of victimisation (Espelage, Holt, & Henkel, 2003; Pellegrini, 2002). It is important to further examine these gender dynamics and to consider girls participation as an important resource for preventing violence at school.

School Climate perceived by students

School climate characteristics were negatively related to school level of victimisation and aggression. School with policies including clear, consistent and fair rules have lower levels of violence. Positive student-teacher relationships was also associated with less violence. However, student participation in decision making was not clearly associated. Although we cannot establish a causal link between positive climate and less violence, our findings strongly supports claims by many researchers and educators emphasizing the importance of developing a positive school climate to reduce school violence.

Our findings show that schools slightly vary in their aggregated levels of victimisation and aggression by school violence. Hence, most of the variance in students' reports of victimisation and aggression consists of individual differences.

Families SES

Schools with a large proportion of students from low SES families showed higher levels of physical victimisation and aggression. Similar findings have been obtained by examining the relationships between youth violence and the SES of the individual child (Dwyer et al., 2000, Farrington, 1989). However, other studies did not report effects of the SES and the children levels of aggression or victimisation (Olweus, 1993; Whitney & Smith, 1994). These inconsistency seems to reflect that could be other factors affecting this relationship.

School type

There were no differences between public and private schools in the report of victimisation and aggression. Thus, it looks like there is not a direct relationship between students' SES and attending to one or another kind of school as we expected.

School Size

We have two different indicators for the schools size: the number of students and the number of teachers in every school. The number of students did not appear to be a predictor of victimisation nor aggression, whereas the number of teachers appeared as a good predictor of victimisation. School with a higher number of teachers had lower levels of students' victimisation.

School Climate perceived by teachers and principals

We examined the effect of school climate and policies relevant to school violence as they are perceived by teachers and principals. We did not find any relationship between the school climate perceived by principals and victimisation or aggression levels. But we found out that school were teachers perceived a positive school climate for preventing school violence had lower levels of victimisation, whereas schools were teachers perceived the absence of school policies relevant to school violence prevention had higher levels of victimisation. This result highlight the importance of developing a positive school climate to reduce school violence.

The result of the smaller influence of the school- level variables on the student victimisation and aggression could be explained by the peculiarity of these types of behaviors. They are closely linked to the interpersonal relations in peer groups and they have been shown to appear in all type of school establishments. One possible explanation for that is that imbalance of power situations (like victimisation or aggression situations) easily appear in every context where peer relationships are being built up. Therefore, it would be interesting to study the effect of the peer group on the levels of victimisation and aggression. Besides thebefore mentioned, that is the small amount of variance explained by the school-variables could also be reflecting a Spanish reality: the small variability among Spanish Primary schools.

Another posible explanation is that the principals' and teachers' responses are less reliable than students' responses as some studies have already shown (Cogesshall & Kingery, 2001). Further school-level variables as multiple and different informers (e.g. families, external school agents) need to be examined and to be taken into account.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL MECHANISMS OF MEDITATION IN GOJU-KENSHA KARATE-DO

Florin Gheorghe MAGERIU

“Valahia” University, Târgoviște, Romania
fmagheriu@yahoo.fr

ABSTRACT

The above mentioned paper proposes an explanatory, holistic model of the psychological mechanisms used in forming and developing a person's capacity to control his/her imagination in the Chinese – Japanese school of martial arts entitled GOJU-KENSHA KARATE-DO.

The paper is structured in two chapters (if we exclude the “Introduction” and the “Final Conclusions”), namely:

Chapter I, “*The Cybernetics of the WU XING model of the human psychic system (HPS)*” —which lays out the theoretical base of the study, coming from the Chinese medical theory through acupuncture;

Chapter II, “*Meditation in GOJU-KENSHA KARATE-DO*” — which lays out the historical origins of this form of meditation, and deals with the psychological mechanisms deriving from its theoretical principles and the methodological principles of practice, finally explaining its usefulness as psychotherapy of creativity.

Key concepts: *functional–operational system, functional-operational phases, inter–phase functional rapports, cybernetic circuit.*

REZUMAT

În lucrarea cu titlul de mai sus, se propune un model explicativ, cu caracter holistic, asupra mecanismelor psihologice care sunt folosite pentru formarea și dezvoltarea capacității persoanei de a-și controla imaginația, în școala chino-japoneză de arte marțiale purtând numele de GOJU-KENSHA KARATE-DO.

Demersul lucrării este structurat pe doua capitole (dacă excludem „Introducerea” și „Concluziile finale”) și anume:

Capitolul I, „*Cibernetica modelului WU XING al sistemului psihic uman (SPU)*” — în care este expus fundamentul teoretic al studiului, acesta provenind din teoria medicinei chineze prin acupunctură;

Capitolul II, “*Meditația în GOJU-KENSHA KARATE-DO*” — unde sunt expuse originile istorice ale acestei forme de meditație, sunt tratate mecanismele psihologice decurgând din principiile sale teoretice și principiile metodologice ale practicii, în final explicându-se utilitatea acesteia ca psihoterapie a creativității.

Noțiuni cheie: *sistem operațional-funcțional, faze operațional-funcționale, raporturi funcționale interfazice, circuit cibernetic.*

INTRODUCTION

In the present work, we'll present a psychological study of a specific meditation. The meditation is part of the plan for preparation for the 4 DAN gradation of GOJU-KENSHA KARATE-DO students. I'll name this meditation “meditation GK”.

The general objective at this stage is to develop the practitioners' “capacity to anticipate” the adversaries' actions in a fight.

I learned “meditation GK” while specializing for a doctor's degree in 1991 (May-June) in Tokyo, under the guidance of instructors from The Japanese Federation of GOJU-KENSHA KARATE-DO and TAIJI QUAN.

The work during the probationary period focused, though, more on effective practice and too little on its psychological explanation. As a result of my interest in such an explanation I determined (in the following years) to relate observation of daily meditation to an ample bibliographical study on psychotherapy and its connected domains.

To formulate an explanatory model of “meditation GK,” it was necessary to prepare an adequate epistemological framework consisting of a theory that I named “the theory of interaction as operational system endowed with self-organization.”

I particularized it then, relating it to human processing under the name “the theory of the human psychic system as operational system endowed with self-organization”.

The scientific step started on these grounds led me to identify an entire family of meditation genres, different from “meditation GK” as regards procedure and therapeutic effect, but consistently and solidly defined inside the same logical-explanatory framework.

I. THE WU XING CYBERNETICS OF THE HUMAN PSYCHIC SYSTEM

The “WU XING cybernetics” of the human psychic system (H.P.S.) is a part of “the theory of the human psychic system as operational system endowed with self-organization,” namely, the one where one dwells on its self-adjustment.

The theory of the interaction as operational system endowed with self-organization is an interpretation, in the language of modern epistemology, of YIN-YANG and WU-XING paradigms of ancient Chinese metaphysics. Their validity results from several Chinese traditional practices based on them: medicine through acupuncture, QI GONG therapeutic exercises, martial arts etc.

Explaining the conditions under which this can constitute an operational system endowed with self-organization, the main theory dwells on the processing of interaction of two or more entities,

In the context of this theory, the identity of an interaction that is an operational system with self-organization has three dimensions:

- the functional dimension, which aims at the interaction’s systemic-operational phases at any moment of its functioning;
- the structural dimension, which aims at the types of interactional situations characteristic of interaction as possible states of its identity in every moment of its development;
- the energetic dimension, which expresses the fact that any interaction implies the existence of an energetic support specific to its identity;
- the informational dimension, which expresses the fact that any energetic support is a bearer of information.

Taking into account the subject of the present work, we’ll tackle only the functional dimension of the identity of an interaction as operational system and the H.P.S. identity as the same kind of system.

A. Defining the functional dimension of an interaction’s identity as an operational system endowed with self-organization

The interaction of two or more entities implies their reciprocal action.

In any such action, according to WU XING⁽¹⁾ (W.X.), in the most general way, only two distinct functional roles can be identified:

- *the subject* (s) of the action expresses the active, functional part of the action,
- *the object* (o) of the action expresses the receptive, functional part of the same action.

1 () Ion Ladea — “Acupunctura”, vol. I, Ed. Florile Dalbe, București, pp. 190 - 427

In the frame of interaction, the two functional roles can be achieved in four functional role modes, those representing the four constructive components of the functional dimension, $E(s,o)$, of the identity's interaction as operational system.

The operational definition of these four functional modes is made in the definitional context of interaction.

In this context, the interaction of two or more entities implies connecting the two functional roles in an ensemble which is accomplished by interactional entities, or it implies their assembling, $A(s,o)$, separately, in the role of *subject* or *object*, $S(s,o)$, specifying each entity's individuality.

Assembling the roles, $A(s,o)$, which defines the interaction's *ensemble-making* ("assemblative") sub-function, can be realized in only two functional modes:

- the disjunctive mode, noted with $A(s\wedge o)$, which expresses the fact that, in an interactional relation, the two roles are *distinct* relative to the same contents of the relation. The energetic characteristics of this functional mode are symbolically noted, in paradigm (W.X.), with the "energy" of principle **METAL (M)**;

- the conjunctive mode, noted with $A(s\vee o)$, which expresses the fact that, in an interactional relation, the two functional roles fuse, becoming *non-distinct* relative to the same contents of the relation. The energetic characteristics of this functional mode are symbolically noted, in paradigm (W.X.), with the "energy" of principle **WOOD (W)**.

Specifying the individualization of the roles of the interactional entities, which defines the interaction's "*separative*" sub-function, can, obviously, be also realized in only two functional modes:

- the mode of specification in the *subject* role, $S(s)$: the energetic characteristics of this functional mode are symbolically noted in paradigm (W.X.), with the "energy" of principle **FIRE (F)**;

- the mode of specification in the *object* role, $S(o)$: the energetic characteristics of this functional mode are symbolically noted in paradigm (W.X.), with the "energy" of principle **WATER(W)**.

According to the paradigm (W.X.), the realization of the functional dimension $E(s,o)$ of an interaction's identity as operational system implies the following conditions:

1. The four functional "*constructive*" parts of dimension $E(s,o)$ are to be realized as its "*constructive*" operational-functional phases, $\{ A(s\vee o)/(M), S(o)/(A), A(s\wedge o)/(L), S(s)/(F) \}$.

2. It is necessary that these four operational-functional phases be integrated in a single whole by a fifth operational-functional phase, named "*integrative*". Its characteristics are symbolically noted in paradigm (W.X.), with the "energy" of principle **EARTH (E)**, $int.(A,S)/(P)$.

3. It is necessary that between the five operational-functional phases there exists functional relations named "*functional inter-physical relations*," grouped in four categories, each category representing an operational-functional cycle. The four cycles are interdependent:

- relations of "*production (conditioning)*", noted with [\rightarrow]

- relations of "*adjustment (chasing)*," noted with [\rightarrow]

- relations of "*domination (defeat)*," noted with [\rightarrow]

- relations of "*opposition (braking)*," noted with [\dashv]

Using the notations defined above, we build, in figure 1, the diagram of the functional dimension, $E(s,o)$, which is, at the same time, the diagram of an interaction's identity as operational system.

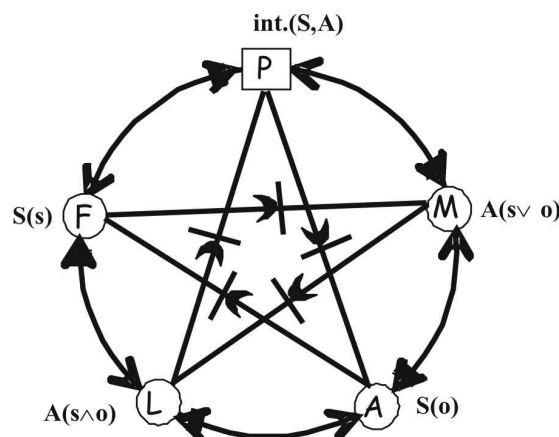


fig.1

Diagram $E(s,o)$ points out, in an homogeneous, consistent ensemble, the relation of each operational-functional phase with all the other ones.

Let's take, for example, the relations of phase $A(s\vee o) / (M)$:

- it *chases* phase $int. (A,S) / (P)$, but it *conditions* it;
- it *conditions* phase $S(o) / (A)$, but is *chased* by it;
- it *dominates* phase $A(s\wedge o) / (L)$, but is *braked* by it;
- it *brakes* phase $S(s) / (F)$, but is *dominated* by it.

B. The functional dimension of the operational system endowed with self-organization specific to human psychic processing

Interacting with the environment, the human individual achieves his own identity through behavior. His behavior is more or less adequate to interactional situations, depending on the their functional characteristics 'subject-making capacity ("subjectivation") through internal realization, in HPS, of the interaction's functional dimension, $E(s,o)$.

The realization, in HPS, of functional dimension $E(s,o)$ consists of the informational processing of its five operational-functional phases (defined in subchapter I. A.)

This kind of processing causes the realization of the function of psychic control over the individual's interactional behavior.

In Chinese medicine, through acupuncture, the problem of realizing this psychic control function is treated on the basis of (W.X.) theory⁽²⁾.

In the frame of this medical view, the fundamental processes of the human psychic system (H.P.S.) are defined as functional phases of an operational system. Each of these phases is governed by a specific category of psycho-functional energy:

- the functional phase $^{(\Psi)} A(o \vee s) / (M)$ — is governed by energy **PO**, involved in the sensorial-perceptive process⁽³⁾, (sp);
- the functional phase $^{(\Psi)} S(o) / (A)$ — is governed by energy **ZHI**, involved in the affective-motivational process, (am);
- the functional phase $^{(\Psi)} A(o \wedge s) / (L)$ — is governed by energy **HUN**, involved in the imagination process, (im);
- the functional phase $^{(\Psi)} S(s) / (F)$ — is governed by energy **SHEN**, involved in the thinking process, (gd);

2 C.Ionescu-Tîrgoviște — „Teoria și practica acupuncturii moderne”, Ed. Academiei Române, București, 1993

3 Ion Ladea — „Acupunctura”, vol. I, Ed. Florile Dalbe, București, 1999, pp. 367 - 368

- the functional phase int. $(^{(\Psi)} S, ^{(\Psi)} A) / (P)$ — is governed by energy **YI**, involved in the memory process, (me).

On the basis of these definitions, the fundamental psychic processes can be redefined from an informational point of view, namely:

- the sensorial-perceptive process (sp) is an operational H.P.S. subsystem of informational, constructive-phasic processing of disjunctive assembling, $^{(\Psi)} A(o \vee s) / (M)$;

- the affective-motivational process (am) is an operational H.P.S. subsystem of informational, constructive-phasic processing of specification as object, $^{(\Psi)} S(o) / (A)$;

- the imagination process (im) is an operational H.P.S. subsystem of informational, constructive-phasic processing of conjunctive assembling, $^{(\Psi)} A(o \wedge s) / (L)$;

- the thinking process (gd) is an operational H.P.S. subsystem of informational, constructive-phasic processing of specification as subject, $^{(\Psi)} S(s) / (F)$;

- the memory process (me) is an operational H.P.S. subsystem of informational integrative-phasic processing of all four constructive-phasic processings defined above, int. $(^{(\Psi)} S, ^{(\Psi)} A) / (P)$.

Thus, it can be said that the five H.P.S. fundamental psychic processes are operational-functional phases of H.P.S. “processing.”

As operational-functional phases, the five fundamental psychic processes interact with each other through the four categories of functional inter-phasic relations (defined in subchapter **I.A.**).

These four categories of functional inter-phasic relations specific to H.P.S. as operational system endowed with self-organization are nothing other than the manifestation, in the domain of human psychic processing, of the four kinds of feedback characteristic of the brain’s structural and functional organization⁽⁴⁾, namely:

- *anticipation* feedbacks \sum “*conditioning (production)*” relations, noted with [\rightarrow];

- *positive anti-entropic* feedbacks \sum “*adjustment(amplification)*” relations, noted with [\rightarrow];

- *retroactive evaluation* feedbacks \sum “*evaluative domination*” relations, noted with [\rightarrow];

- *negative* feedbacks \sum “*opposition (braking), restriction*” relations, noted with [\leftarrow];

Each category of functional inter-phasic relation constitutes a distinct operational-functional cycle, but all four such cycles are interdependent. Thus, through this interdependence is realized the self-regulation of H.P.S. as operational system endowed with self-organization.

If we compare these definitions with the occidental psychological definitions of the five fundamental psychic processes, we’ll be able to see that there are no contradictions between the two categories of definitions.

On the basis of this definitional context, we can now build (fig. 2) the diagram of functional dimension $^{(\Psi)} E(s,o)$ of the operational system of human psychic processing.

4 C. Arseni, M. Golu, L. Dănilă — „Psihoneurologia”, Ed. Academiei RSR, București, 1983, pp. 73 - 74

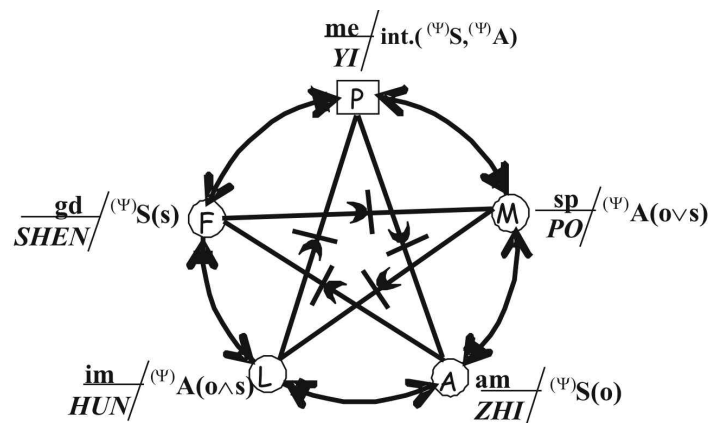


fig. 2

Two important observations can be made with regard to this diagram.

1. There is an interaction between each fundamental psychic process inside H.P.S., but each interaction is different.

Let's take, as an example, the relations of the sensorial-perceptive process (sp):

- it is *conditioned* by the memory process (me), which it *polishes*;
- it *conditions* the affective-motivational process (am), but is *polished* by it;
- it *dominates* the imagination process (im), but is *braked* by it;
- it is *dominated* by the thinking process (gd), but it *brakes* it.

The relations of any other psychic process with all the other ones can be determined in the same way.

Many of the relations that appear in diagram (W.X.) of H.P.S. are known in occidental psychology as well.

2. Each of the fundamental psychic processes, as fundamental, operational-phasic part of H.P.S., has a certain kind of functional supportive energy. The ensemble realization of the control function of H.P.S. implies the realization of a psycho-functional energetic field.

C. Self-regulation in the operational system endowed with self-organization of human psychic processing

Cybernetic-functional circuits (that is, circuits containing an inverse self-regulatory connexion) are structured in the development of human psychic processuality as an operational system endowed with self-organization based on the system's functional, inter-phasic relations.

A cybernetic-functional circuit is made of four operational blocks of cybernetic functions of the psycho-functional phases, interconnected through functional inter-phasic relations. The last of these connexions (the one that feeds back) realizes the self-regulation of the entire "circuit":

- the *programming* block (**pr**) – the one through which the image-program is introduced in the system, the image-program being the informational model of the task to fulfill through behavior;

- the *leading* block (**cd**) – the one that analyses the program relating to the execution conditions, distributes it on the effectuator's structure and emits the action decision;

- the *effectuatory* block (**ef**) – the one that executes the program uniting the means and the purpose;

- the *detectory-comparatory* block (**dc**) – the one that transforms the signals on effectuating the action. It compares them with the program's objectives and sends the necessary corrections to it in the *programatory* block.

On the basis of this definition, we build (in fig. 3) the essential scheme, in blocks, of a cybernetic circuit.

Each such H.P.S. “cybernetic circuit” causes its own “cybernetic-functional mode,” which can be defined on the basis of the first three connexions between the cybernetic operational blocks. Every such “cybernetic-functional mode” regulates itself through its inverse connexion, which is, functionally, complementary with the other three connexions, meaning that it is adequate to the specific self-regulation necessity of the reference cybernetic mode. Taking into account that in the H.P.S. operational system endowed with self-organization there are only four types of functional inter-phasic relations, we’ll be able to define only four “cybernetic-functional modes”. The *feedback* of each of these modes can be determined on the basis of the H.P.S. (W.X.) model (in fig. 2). The cybernetic circuits endowed with self-regulation of these four “modes” can easily be read on the diagram in fig.2, but, to differentiate them better, we show them separately in fig.4 (a,b,c,d).

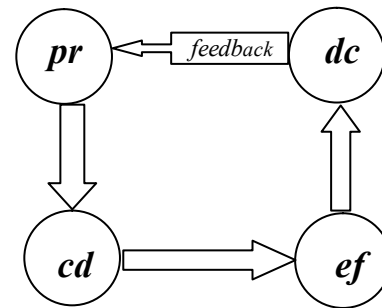


fig. 3

- a) the *anticipatory* mode with *evaluative* feedback

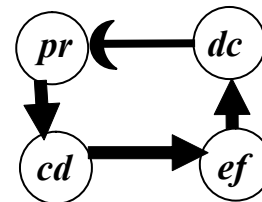


fig. 4a

- b) the *evaluative* mode with *amplifying* feedback

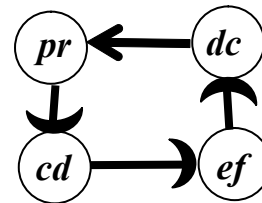


fig. 4b

- c) the *amplifying* mode with *restrictive* feedback

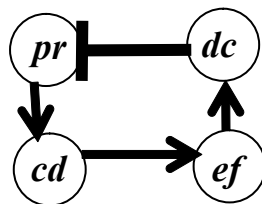


fig. 4c

- d) the *restrictive* mode with *anticipative* feedback

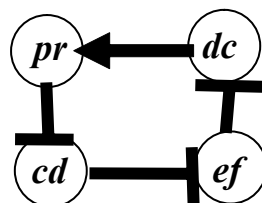


fig. 4d

In the development of any behavioral activity, the activity's psychic control is realized by the simultaneous functioning of several H.P.S. cybernetic-functional modes. Two of them have a distinct significance relating to the functioning of the psychic processing through which the reference behavioral activity is controlled.

Their distinct significance results from the fact of the two "modes" being determinative for both the realization of the behavioral task and the impact that this "realization" has on the H.P.S. ensemble; their cybernetic circuits intersect in the same psycho-functional phase of psychic processing.

This way, always depending on the task to effectuate, a H.P.S. cybernetic-functional mode (that we'll name "primary") will be activated, having its *effectuatory* (ef) block in the same psycho-functional phase, which is necessarily dominant in the psychic control of realizing the reference task.

For example, we can speak of a "sensorial-perceptive mode" when the task to effectuate is the perception of something, and, as a consequence, the *effectuatory* block is constituted in the sensorial-perceptive process. But the reference "task" being effectuated, the psycho-functional phase activated as *effectuatory* block inserts, at the same time, a "program-image" in the psychic processing, causing by this, now as *programming* block (pr), a second cybernetic-functional mode (we'll call it "secondary") that will induce a "propagated" change in the entire H.P.S.

So any behavior activates two major H.P.S. cybernetic-functional modes:

- the one we called "primary," which controls the effectuation of the behavior's task,
- the one we called "secondary," which determines the change propagated in the entire H.P.S. as a consequence of the effectuation of the reference task.

Such "double activations" of H.P.S. are produced continuously during an individual's whole life, thereby generating, by cumulation, his states and the tendencies of his personality, some of them having a more or less seriously dysfunctional nature.

By understanding these mechanisms, we can intervene, though, determining, voluntarily-therapeutically, the activation of the H.P.S. compensatory, even coercive cybernetic-functional modes.

On the basis of the mechanisms defined above, a classification of the elementary psycho-therapeutic procedures can be prepared, based on "The theory of H.P.S. as operational system endowed with self-organization."

The respective classification includes four "kinds" of these procedures, each of them being defined relative to the four H.P.S. cybernetic-functional modes that is necessary to activate as a "secondary" mode to realize some therapeutically determined objectives:

- the *anticipative* kind / the *anticipative* mode
- the *evaluative* kind / the *evaluative* mode
- the *amplifying* kind / the *amplifying* mode
- the *restrictive* kind / the *restrictive* mode

Each of the four "kinds" of elementary psycho-therapeutic procedure defined above includes five "species," each of them being defined relating to the H.P.S. psycho-functional phase, built as an *effectuatory* block (ef), in the "primary" cybernetic-functional mode," connected to the "secondary" mode, which is defining for the "kind" of the reference "species":

- the *memorative* species / memory = (ef) "primary"
- the *sensorial-perceptive* species / sensorial-perception = (ef) "primary"
- the *affective-motivating* species / affective-motivation = (ef) "primary"
- the *imaginative* species / imagination = (ef) "primary"
- the *rationalive* species / thinking = (ef) "primary"

II. MEDITATION IN GOJU-KENSHA KARATE-DO

A) Origin of principles and methodology

1. The origin of these principles seems to be in CHAN Buddhism (Zen in Japanese), having as first master patriarch Bodhidharma (450 - 532 A.C.). Through his works (elaborated in China), Buddhism assimilated Daoist influences.

2. The effective methodology of the respective meditation (as a systematized ensemble of practice) seems to have its origin in Master's Lin Ji school (? - 868 A.C., Rinzai, in Japanese).

B) Definitions

1. Meditation is, in essence, IMAGINATIVE behavioral activity (in model WU XING of H.P.S., imagination is the informational process through which the conjunctive assembling of the “*subject*” and “*object*” roles is processed by the person's psychic processing).

More precisely, it's about a behavioral activity in which imagination has a double role: the role of “*effectuator*,” as long as the task to effectuate consists of “*imagining*” something, and, at the same time, the role of “*programmer*,” as long as the “*product*” of imagining enters the processing of the whole H.P.S. through imagination, namely through a processing circuit, in which, from a cybernetic point of view, the “*programming block, (pr)*” is the psychic system called IMAGINATION, the “*conductive block, (cd)*” is the psychic subsystem called THINKING, the “*effectuative block, (ef)*” is the psychic subsystem called MEMORY, and the “*detectory-comparatory block, (dc)*” is the psychic subsystem called SENSORIAL-PERCEPTION.

2. Meditation is that psychic-physic activity in which “the effectuator/programmer, (*ef / pr*)” mentioned above is not usual IMAGINATION anymore (the one that functions in usual behavior), but another kind of imagination, called “VOID IMMAGINATION”.

“Void imagination” = the imagination that is not structured in an explicit manner, so that it can be permissive (with a real-time dynamic) for any structuring. More precisely, it's about an imagination that possesses creativity with no directions or preconditioned realization purposes.

C) Principles of realization

Meditation is realized in three stages:

(I) – The first stage is, in fact, a preparatory stage; it aims at obtaining “void imagination.” To obtain this, it is necessary to cover four phases (four “steps”), which are constituted on a cycle of “braking” inter-phasic functional relations (on the H.P.S. WU XING diagram) – this is how the principal similitude with KOAN appears – the feedback of the respective cycle being a “*conditioning-anticipation*” relation.

(II) – The second stage, which is the one of proper meditation, consists of the functioning of the imaginative process described at point (1) of paragraph (B) **Defining**.

(III) – The third stage is the one of exiting the meditation state (“the return”), which is obtained through a procedure of getting the imagination out of the “void” state.

D) Method -- (a) theory, (b) practice

(I) First stage (fig. 5):

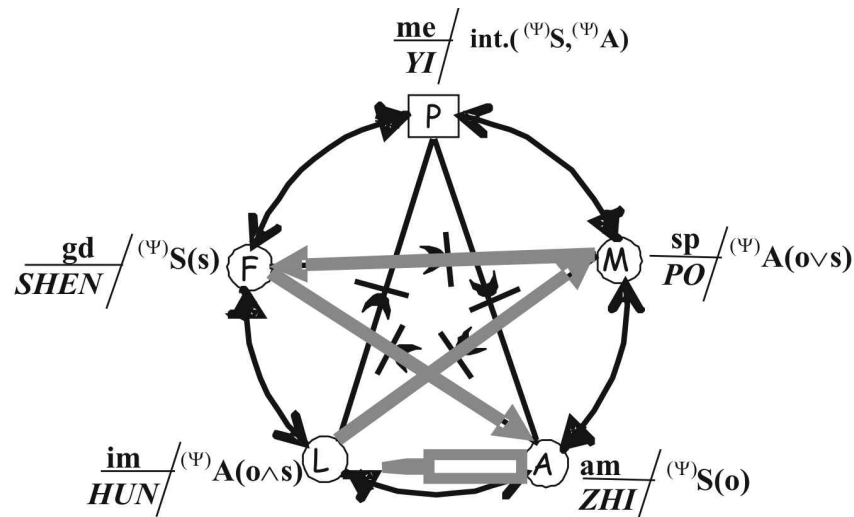


fig. 5

Phase 1:

(a) The first step in preparing meditation is the one by which IMAGINATION brakes the explicit structuring of SENSORIAL-PERCEPTION, tending to obtain the state of “empty sensorial-perception”

(b) Practically, this principle is applied by inducing a signal to imagination by means of a special message (the instructor’s, in the initiation period), which, fortifying the imagination’s action of braking sensorial-perception, leads to realizing in the imagination the contents of the suggestion. That is the state TSUKI NO KOKORO (“the spirit like the moon”) – looking at the perceptive field (interior and exterior) without being attached to and without privileging any of its elements.

Phase 2:

a) The SENSORIAL-PERCEPTION (“unstructured” this way) brakes the explicit structuring of THINKING, so as to obtain the state of “empty thinking.”

b) Practically, this principle is applied by realizing, in thinking, the state of MUSHIN (“empty spirit”), namely through a suggestive message (still the instructor’s, in the initiation period), to facilitate the braking of thinking’s active structuring by the already “unstructured” sensorial-perception – not to get attached to anything, to exist with no explicit intentions, to let the thoughts fluctuate freely in the mind without even the intention “of turning them off”.

Phase 3:

a) THINKING (“unstructured” this way) brakes the affective-motivation’s explicit structuring, tending to obtain the state of “empty affective-motivation.”

b) Practically, this principle is applied (in the initiation period, with the help of the instructor’s messages) by realizing, in the affective-motivation, the state of MIZU NO KOKORO (“the spirit like the water,” a phrase which evokes “the water of a lake with a perfectly still surface” – state of affective-motivational equilibrium, of calm, of relaxation), precisely by a suggestive message, to facilitate the braking of the affective-motivation’s active structuring by the already “unstructured” thinking.

Phase 4 (the one that feeds back):

a) AFFECTIVE-MOTIVATION (“unstructured” this way) conditions (enforced by a special message from the instructor) IMAGINATION, tending to obtain the state of “void imagination” (in the sense defined at point (2) of paragraph (B) Definitions).

(II) Practically, the meditation stage begins concurrently with the realization of *Phase 4*, preparatory, namely by the action of the imagination (fig. 6)- in the position of double cybernetic, operational block, *effectuator / programmer, (ef / pr)* on a conditioning-anticipation cybernetic circuit (described at point (1) of paragraph **(B) Definitions**) - on memory, having as a result the making effective of an EXPLICIT MEMORY, as actualization of implicit memory, by representing the whole of the person's being, something like a fusion with the entire universe – this has to do with that understanding of conjunctive assembling of the person's roles with each other (the *subject* and the *object* roles), realized through the person's interactions with the environment. When this stage is effected under the guidance of an instructor, the instructor emits special suggestive messages to support the practitioner's appropriate psychic activity.

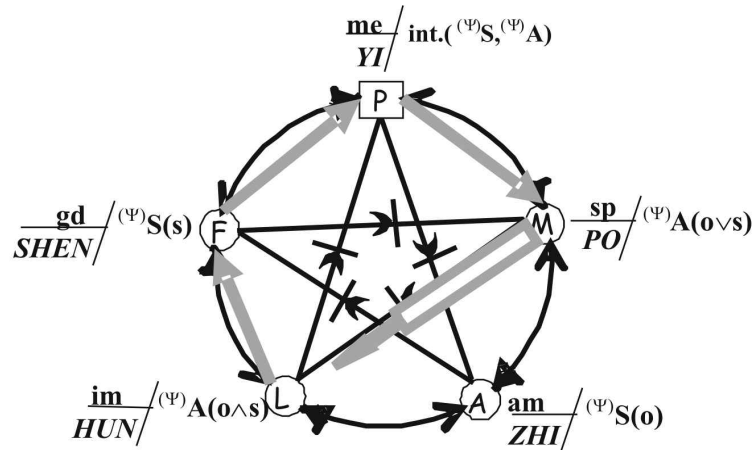


fig. 6

(III) Exiting meditation (“the return”, fig.7) — the procedure for this stage consists of starting a SENSORIAL-PERCEPTIVE behavioral activity, that is to say an activity in which sensorial -perception is “*effectuator / programmer, (ef / pr)*: “*effectuator*” (regarding the relation with the exterior), but also “*programmer*” (because the “product” of perception's effectuation is inserted in processing entire H.P.S.) — (*pr*) = sensorial – perception, (*cd*) = affective – motivation , (*ef*) = imagination, (*dc*) = thinking, and in which sensorial-perception, as (*ef / pr*), is gradually reconnected to having a relation with the real environment.

This procedure consists of an ensemble formed of five messages (emitted by the instructor in the initiation period) that are supposed to direct the attention to a physic perceptive field (the close environment and one's own body) and is associated with a special kind of breathing and to a cyclic muscular activity, of rhythmical, slow contraction-relaxation.

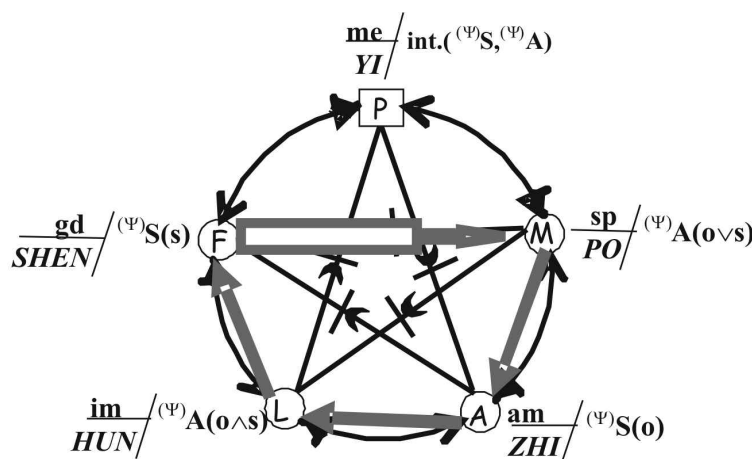


fig. 7

Observation:

It has to be underlined that the two framing stages of meditation—let's call them “auxiliary” (of preparation and return)—are as important as the actual stage of meditation:

- not completing the first, preparatory stage makes it impossible to complete the second stage, the one of actual meditation;

- not completing the third, return stage can determine more or less serious deregulations (pay attention, sometimes they're really very serious!) of H.P.S.'s functioning as an ensemble, some appearing even as persistent personality disorders.

As may be observed from the descriptive-explanatory model presented above, “GK meditation” appears as a psycho-therapeutic activity with a composite structure consisting of the elementary psycho-therapeutic procedure types (belonging to the classification defined in chapter I.C. of the present work):

- the first, preparatory stage is part of the *imaginative* species of the *restrictive* sort;
 - the second, effective stage is part of the *imaginative* species of the *anticipatory* sort;
 - the third, return stage is part of the *sensorial-perceptive* species of the *anticipatory* sort.

A FEW SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS

A first conclusion emphasizes the fact that, based on the psychological analysis of “meditation G.K.,” we can say this meditation is, in its essence, a complex activity of psycho-therapeutic intervention, having as general object the human individual's “liberation” from the conditioning accumulated by participating in daily life. Such an intervention is pre-eminently necessary to martial arts practitioners so that they develop an efficient, anticipative capacity, adaptable to any new fight situation.

A second conclusion refers to the methodology of the effectuated psychological analysis, emphasizing the epistemological value, by originality and consistency, of the conceptual descriptive-explanatory frame on the cybernetic mechanisms specific to the system of human psychic processing, which appears, at the same time, as open to ulterior developments and more profound studies.

A third conclusion aims at the practical value of the work, with special reference to the classification of elementary psycho-therapeutic procedures capable of being utilized in organizing practical, concretely defined, psycho-therapeutic intervention strategies.

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BRONCHIAL ASTHMA – A PSYCHOSOCIAL APPROACH

Mirona Ioana MARCU¹, Ruxandra RĂȘCANU², Ionel CIRCO³

¹ Ph.D. Candidate in University of Bucharest, Faculty of Psychology and Sciences of Education, Psychology Department

mirona_valean@yahoo.com

² University of Bucharest, Faculty of Psychology and Sciences of Education, Psychology Department

³ Sanatorium of Pneumology in Brad, Hunedoara

ABSTRACT

Bronchial asthma is an inflammatory disease of the respiratory tract which is frequent in most developed countries. Its prevalence seems to be higher in the urban rather than the rural areas and it is more common among disfavored socio-economic classes.

The present study looks at how the various psycho-social factors can account for the appearance and evolution of bronchial asthma. The two samples used consisted of 30 people who were diagnosed with bronchial asthma and 30 healthy people. The subjects were administered a series of psychological tests such as: anamnestic questionnaire, State-Trait Anxiety Inventory X2, the Rosenberg Scale, the Freiburg Personality Inventory.

Significant differences were noted in the two samples in regards to anxiety and the risk factors involved in the evolution of the disease.

An important role in the therapeutic process leading to an improved adaptation of the patient to the chronic status of his/her disease is played by information of a psychological nature.

REZUMAT

Astmul bronșic este o boală inflamatorie a căilor aeriene, frecventă în majoritatea țărilor dezvoltate. Prevalența afecțiunii pare a fi mai mare în mediul rural, remarcându-se în același timp și o asociere a acesteia cu categorii socio-economice defavorizate.

Studiul de față și-a propus să evidențieze legătura existentă dintre diverși factori psiho-sociali și apariția și evoluția astmului bronșic. Cele două eșantioane cuprinse în studiu au fost constituite din 30 de persoane diagnosticate cu astm bronșic și 30 de persoane fără astm bronșic. Subiecților li s-au aplicat o serie de probe psihologice dintre care amintim: Chestionarul anamnestic, State-Trait Anxiety Inventory X2, Scala Rosenberg, Inventarul de Personalitate Freiburg.

Diferențe semnificative între cele două loturi s-au obținut în privința anxietății și a factorilor de risc implicați în dezvoltarea astmului bronșic.

Un rol important în procesul terapeutic al bolnavului astmatic în vederea optimizării adaptării sale la caracterul cronic al bolii îl deține și informația de factură psihologică.

INTRODUCTION

Primarily, bronchial asthma is an illness of the respiratory tract, especially of the bronchia. Asthma appears in people who have a genetic predisposition to the disease, being generated by an exaggerated bronchial responsiveness to one or more environmental factors (allergens). This particular answer of the immunological system is called atopy.

Asthma has three principal forms: mild-intermittent asthma, chronic asthma and acute severe asthma, the last of which represents a complication of the disease.

Mild-intermittent asthma is the typical form with paroxysm of dyspnea. It occurs especially in children, whose allergic component is predominant.



Chronic asthma is a form of the disease which has an ancient history of asthma attacks and a severely developed airway obstruction. It is more frequent in patients over 40-50 years.

Acute severe asthma requires urgent medical care because of the proportion of its physiopathological and clinical disorders. Acute severe asthma is recognized as the first cause of mortality in asthma.

Information and education of the asthmatic patients represents a major requirement of the therapeutical process in order to obtain their active involvement. We must take into account the fact that the therapeutical process is likely to last for decades.

The education of the asthmatic patient ought to give importance to his/her individual and age peculiarities as well as to the characteristic elements of the illness such as: the severity, the measures of the treatment and of the monitoring.

The control of the environment and of the triggers of asthma exacerbations represent an essential step in the therapeutical approach to the asthmatic patient.

We specify a few of the psychosocial factors which can affect the symptomatology and the variability of the asthma such as: the lack of the support of patients, loneliness, unemployment.

Another factor which can have a role in the occurrence and worsening of the severity of the psychopathological disorders related to asthma is connected to the lower socio-economic status of the asthmatics. Poverty can be accompanied by a multitude of factors, irrespective of emotional stress. It is about the association between poverty and an inadequate or insufficient health care, high exposure to toxins or allergens. The poverty still remains an important emotional factor of stress and people with a lower socio-economic standard are deprived of the methods for decreasing their level of stress, many of them, ranging from psychotherapy to relaxed holidays, being considered expensive.

Key words: bronchial asthma, self-esteem, anxiety

Objectives :

- The impact of the bronchial asthma on the daily activities of the patients;
- The connection between presence / absence of the illness and the level of self-esteem;
- The relation between anxiety and illness.

Hypotheses:

- There are significant differences regarding anxiety in people with bronchial asthma as compared to those without bronchial asthma;
- There are significant differences regarding the level of self-esteem in people with bronchial asthma as compared to those without bronchial asthma.

METHODOLOGY

The description of the sample:

I used two samples, by procedures of convenience. The study sample consisted in 30 hospitalized people, diagnosed with bronchial asthma from the Sanatorium of Pneumology in Brad. The control sample of the study was formed by 30 people without bronchial asthma, selected for being in the same age group, and sharing the same background and marital status as those from the study sample. The people were aged 19-80.

Tests :

Anxiety – State-Trait Anxiety Inventory X2 (STAI –X2) consists of 10 items – anxiety as trait .

Self-esteem –Rosenberg Scale consists of 10 items and it was used for the assessment of self-esteem.

Saint George’s Hospital Respiratory Questionnaire was used for revealing the problems related to the airways problems of the people for three components: symptoms, activity and impact.

Results:

Hypothesis.1 There are significant differences regarding the level of self-esteem in people with bronchial asthma as compared to those without bronchial asthma;

Table no. 1 The results obtained after statistical data processing of Rosenberg Scale.

	Sample	Number	Average	Standard deviation	t
Self-esteem	People with asthma	30	26.46	3.39	-6,45**
	People without asthma	30	31.76	2.95	

**p<.01

Hypothesis 2. There are significant differences regarding anxiety in people with bronchial asthma as compared to those without bronchial asthma;

Table no. 2 The results obtained after statistical data processing of STAI –X2.

	Sample	Number	Average	Standard deviation	t
Anxiety	People with asthma	30	55,46	1,63	8,83**
	People without asthma	30	35,86	1,50	

**p<.01

Table nr. 3. The results obtained after statistical data processing of Saint George’s Hospital Respiratory Questionnaire.

Scale	Sample	Number	Average	Standard deviation	t
Symptoms	People with asthma	30	15.53	5.34	9,91**
	People without asthma	30	4.03	3.43	
Activity	People with asthma	30	12.26	4.28	12,85**
	People without asthma	30	1.60	1.52	
Impact	People with asthma	30	20.00	7.27	13,40**
	People without asthma	30	1.43	2.14	

**p<.01

Discussions:

The present study showed the existence of several differences between people diagnosed with bronchial asthma and people without bronchial asthma regarding anxiety and level of the self-esteem.

Hypothesis 1. There are significant differences regarding the level of self-esteem in people with bronchial asthma as compared to those without bronchial asthma – this was sustained by the data from Table 1.

Bronchia asthma is a disease which leads to difficulties in performing both family and professional roles so that it can be associated to a lower self-assessment of the patients. The asthmatics may feel as less useful in their activities, less important or involved at the workplace.



On the one hand, asthmatics might prefer routine and a security environment because of their treatment. On the other hand, the preference for routine activities and for the safety environments can be correlated with the level of the self-esteem. All these elements can protect patients from the repeated contacts with failure. The fear of failure represents another sign of the lower self - esteem. The sense of guilt and uselessness as a consequence of the depression can lead to passive and defensive attitude.

The feelings of being in love and competent represent two essential needs. If these are satisfied they will contribute to increasing the level of self-esteem. The asthmatic patients can feel less capable of problem-solving, of coping with a situation. At a behavioral level the devaluation of the asthmatic patients associated to these elements can have the following characteristics: hypersensitivity to other's opinion, doubts about their ability of being pleasant to others, lower resistance to other people's influences, tendency of giving in difficult situations.

The people without asthma had higher scores and thus a higher level of the self – esteem. At the behavioral level this may represent the exploration of various environments, searching of some strategies of personal development, a way of action to help them to accept their risks and failures. A higher self-esteem allowed all these steps which contribute in turn in keeping a high self-esteem.

Hypothesis 2- There are significant differences regarding anxiety in people with bronchial asthma as compared to those without bronchial asthma- this was sustained by the data from Table 2.

A source of the anxiety is the fear for one's life which represents an alarm signal for the individual. It may be the anxiety of the astmatic patient during his/her asthma crisis, when the need of air is deeply felt.

Anxiety and its preoccupation can be accompanied by additional symptoms such as: agitation, lack of the resistance to fatigue, of the concentration, muscular tension, sleep disorders.

Moreover, we revealed the differences of the three components (symptoms, activities and impact) of the Saint George's Hospital Respiratory Questionnaire (Table 3). It was used with an exploratory purpose. The assessment of the respiratory difficulties of the components mentioned above, in the two samples of the study, takes into account the last 12 months before the questionnaire was applied.

The results regarding the symptoms (coughing, dyspnea, wheezing) showed that patients had given a greater importance of their respiratory problems in the last 12 months as compared to healthy persons.

As far as the following everyday activities: dressing up, personal hygiene, climbing the stairs, walking, housework, faster walking, carrying objects upstairs, easy gardening, dancing and other sports, the respiratory difficulties confronting asthmatics slow down their the pace at which they would normally be accomplished.

Another significant difference was obtained at the following dimensions of patient's life : family, professional activity, interpersonal relations, communication. The patient appreciates his/her airflow condition to be their biggest problem. The impact of the bronchial asthma on the patient life can be found in the patients' giving up their hobbies. Thus bronchial asthma requires a reorganization of the whole life of the patients, especially their leisure.

CONCLUSIONS

The present study reveals the differences between the two samples at the anxiety and self-esteem levels.

Besides autonomy, the need for recognition has the same importance in establishing the self-esteem. People without bronchial asthma seem to be more satisfied, more secure. The



lower self-esteem of the patients is rather associated to defensive strategies, of avoiding risks and failures.

Anxiety symptoms are indicative of a defective management of bronchial asthma as well as of a defective functional status of the asthmatic.

A limitation of the present study may arise from the heterogeneous character of the samples as far as the educational background of the patients is concerned.

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DIFERENCIAS DE GÉNERO EN LA ADOLESCENCIA: SUPERANDO ESTEREOTIPOS

Gema MARTÍN SEOANE; Rosa PULIDO VALERO

Universidad de Alcalá
gema.martin@uah.es

ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationship between gender and risk behaviours in adolescence (violence and drug consumptions) in a representative sample of Spanish high school students. Participants were 1475 students (aged 14-18 years). Results indicated significant differences between boys and girls in violence behaviour and violence attitudes, drug abuse and the way of coping with these situations. Boys participated more often in violence situations (like victims, aggressors and witness), they have more intolerant and sexism attitudes, and they are more likely to use strategies as “ignoring the problem”, “keeping it to one self” and “evasion through physical activity” (while girls endorsed greater use of emotion-focused coping strategies, they were more likely to use “emotional support”, “investing in close friends”, “seeking belonging”, “self-blame”, “tension reduction”, “lack of coping”, “worrying”, “wishful thinking” and “problem-focused coping”). The implications of these findings are discussed.

RÉSUMÉ

Cette étude examine la relation entre le genre et quelques comportements de risque comme la violence ou la consommation de substances chez un échantillon représentatif de lycéens Espagnols. Nous avons évalué 1475 étudiants de 14 à 18 ans. Les résultats révèlent différences significatives entre chez les garçons et les filles de notre échantillon en quelques mesures: leurs comportements et attitudes violentes, leur consommation de substances et leurs stratégies d'affrontement de ce type de situations et d'autres problématiques. Les garçons ont participé plus fréquemment à des situations violentes comme victimes, agresseurs et observateurs. Ils ont été plus d'accord avec croyances intolérantes et sexistes. Par rapport à leurs stratégies d'affrontement, ils ont préféré quelques attitudes comme “ignorer le problème”, “le garder avec eux-mêmes” et “distraction physique”. De l'autre côté, les filles ont utilisé préférentiellement d'autres stratégies comme “appui émotionnel”, “recherche d'amitiés intimes”, “recherche de groupe d'appartenance”, “auto culpabilisation”, “réduction de la tension”, “rejet de l'affrontement”, “souci” et “centrement dans le problème”. Pour finir, nous avons inclut des implications et conséquences de ces résultats.

INTRODUCTION

La adolescencia se podría definir como el período de transición entre la infancia y la edad adulta, este período supone muchos cambios de diferente naturaleza (psicológicos, físicos, sociales...) y supone nuevos retos como la construcción de una identidad positiva y diferenciada o la creación de nuevas redes de grupos de iguales. Para afrontar estos nuevos retos el adolescente desarrolla su propio repertorio de estrategias que le permitan una adaptación a estas nuevas situaciones.

En este sentido, las estrategias de afrontamiento se definen como las respuestas cognitivas utilizadas por el individuo para manejar el esters (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Lazarus y Folkman (1984) clasificaron estas estrategias en dos tipos: las centradas en la solución del problema y las centradas en la emoción. Siguiendo esta clasificación los estudios han encontrado que tradicionalmente las mujeres utilizan en mayor medida estrategias centradas en la emoción mientras que los hombres utilizan más estrategias centradas en la solución del problema. (Compas et al.,1998; Frydenberg & Lewis,1999; Pikos, 2001; Galaif, Sussman, Chou, Wills, 2003).

Por otra parte, estudios también han encontrado diferencias de género en los comportamientos de riesgo. Lacasse y Mendelson (2007) estudiaron una muestra de agresores adolescentes encontrando que obtenían puntuaciones superiores en actitudes sexistas y una mayor implicación en comportamientos de riesgo como el abuso de sustancias y el alcohol. En este sentido, Malet (2007) obtuvo tasas más altas entre los chicos en agresión, consumo de sustancias y uso de armas en comparación a las chicas.

Centrándonos en el consumo de sustancias, las mujeres tradicionalmente manifiestan un mayor consumo de fármacos (McCabe, S. E.; Teter, Ch. J.; Boyd, C. J., 2006), mientras que el consumo de alcohol y sustancias ilegales suele ser superior en los hombres (Taylor, 2006). En el caso del consumo de tabaco, los resultados apuntan a que ellas fuman más pero los chicos parecen ser fumadores habituales (Rodham, K.; Hawton, K.; Evans, E.; Weatherall, R., 2005).

Finalmente, en relación a la violencia, y en concreto la violencia escolar que es la forma de violencia entre adolescentes más extendida como revelan numerosos estudios realizados en diferentes países (e.g., Australia: Rigby & Slee, 1991; Canada: Boivin, 1998; UK: Boulton & Underwood, 1992, Smith & Sharp, 1994; Países nórdicos: Olweus, 1978, 1998; España: Defensor del Pueblo, 2000), parece que las chicas están en un mayor contacto con la violencia psicológica (exclusión, violencia verbal, etc.) mientras que en los chicos es más frecuente la violencia física (Stephenson & Smith, 1989; Vieira, Fernández & Quevedo, 1989; Cerezo & Esteban, 1992, Defensor del Pueblo, 2000; Ortega, 2000; Díaz- Aguado, Martínez Arias & Martín Seoane, 2004).

En este estudio se examinaron las diferencias de género en dos comportamientos de gran relevancia en la adolescencia como son el consumo de sustancias y la violencia escolar, así como las estrategias que utilizan para afrontar estas situaciones. A partir de la bibliografía revisada, se esperaba encontrar una mayor participación de los chicos tanto como víctimas y como agresores que sus compañeras así como un mayor consumo de sustancias. En relación a las estrategias de afrontamiento, se esperaba encontrar un mayor uso de estrategias centradas en la emoción en las chicas.

MÉTODO

Participantes

Se seleccionó una muestra representativa de 1.475 adolescentes escolarizados de la Comunidad de Madrid, con edades comprendidas entre 14 y 18 años (media=15.89; DT=1.20), 49,4% chicas y 50,6% chicos de diferentes niveles educativos (59,6% Enseñanza Secundaria obligatoria, 22,8% Bachillerato, 7,5% Garantía Social). Para ello se llevaron a cabo un muestreo de conglomerados aleatorios, proporcionales al tamaño, utilizando como nivel de análisis el centro educativo.

Instrumentos

- *Cuestionario de Evaluación de la Violencia entre iguales en la Escuela y en el Ocio* (Díaz-Aguado, Martínez Arias, Martín Seoane, 2004). Evalúa las situaciones de violencia entre iguales que se producen en el contexto escolar y en el contexto de ocio; siguiendo, en este sentido, una metodología similar a las empleadas en otros estudios realizados sobre violencia entre iguales en la escuela. Para este estudio se seleccionaron los factores correspondientes al ámbito educativo “*agresión de gravedad extrema*” (que incluye comportamientos como violencia física o amenazas con armas), “*agresión de gravedad media*” (que incluye violencia verbal), “*exclusión*”, “*victimización de gravedad media*” y “*victimización de gravedad extrema*”. Estos factores explican un 53-65% de la varianza total y el estadístico Alpha de

Conbrach fue de .70 (IC 95%: .65-72) para la víctima de gravedad media, .67 (IC 95%: .63-.70) para la víctima de gravedad extrema, .86 (IC 95%: .86-.88) para la agresión de gravedad media, .87 (IC 95%: .86-.88) para la agresión extrema, lo que revela unos niveles de fiabilidad adecuados.

- La escala elaborada para la medición del consumo de sustancias (tabaco, alcohol y drogas ilegales) está basado en los utilizados en las investigaciones nacionales sobre los consumos (Plan Nacional sobre Drogas, 2004). Incluye preguntas sobre la edad del primer consumo, con qué frecuencia consume cada una de las sustancias durante el ultimo mes, usando una escala tipo likert de 5 puntos (0=nunca; 5=diariamente). Los consumos de alcohol incluyen diversos tipos de bebidas, desde el vino, la cerveza o los combinados. Los consumos de drogas ilegales incluyen diversos tipos de sustancias como cannabis, cocaína, LSD, drogas sintéticas e inhalantes.

- *Cuestionario de Actitudes a la Diversidad y la Violencia* (Díaz-Aguado, Martínez Arias, Martín Seoane, 2004). Este cuestionario consta de 72 afirmaciones en torno a las cuales se pide a los jóvenes que expresen su nivel de acuerdo o desacuerdo, siguiendo una escala tipo Likert de siete grados. Mide las siguientes dimensiones: 1) *Justificación de la violencia entre iguales como reacción y valentía*. Esta subescala está formada por 16 elementos a través de los cuales se asocia la violencia entre iguales con la demostración del propio valor. Este factor muestra un coeficiente de consistencia de .85; 2) *Creencias sexistas y justificación de la violencia doméstica*. Esta escala está formada por 18 elementos, que justifican el dominio patriarcal de la familia, la discriminación sexista, el maltrato infantil y la violencia contra la mujer. Muestra un coeficiente alpha de .85; 3) *Intolerancia y justificación de la violencia hacia minorías y como castigo*. Este factor está formado por 15 elementos, entre los cuales se incluye la xenofobia, el racismo, el rechazo a la tolerancia y a la diversidad, así como la justificación de la violencia hacia minorías que se perciben diferentes y como castigo. El coeficiente alpha de este factor alcanza el valor de .82.

- *Escala de Afrontamiento Emocional para Adolescentes (ACS)*. Este instrumento desarrollado por Erica Frydenberg y Ramon Lewis (*Adolescent Coping Scale*, 1995) es un inventario de autoinforme compuesto de 80 elementos: 79 de tipo cerrado en escala likert de 5 puntos y uno final abierto, que permiten evaluar con fiabilidad 18 estrategias de afrontamiento diferentes, estas 18 escalas presentan unos niveles de fiabilidad comprendidos entre .54 a .85, valores de alpha moderados pero que responden a la naturaleza dinámica del afrontamiento como apuntan los autores del instrumento (Frydenberg & Lewis, 2002). Estas 18 estrategias (búsqueda de apoyo social, centrarse en resolver el problema, trabajar duro, preocuparse, invertir en amigos íntimos, buscar pertenencia, desear que suceda lo mejor, acción social, reducción de la tensión, no afrontamiento, ignorar el problema, culparse, guardarlo para uno mismo, buscar apoyo espiritual, centrarse en lo positivo, buscar ayuda profesional, buscar diversiones relajantes, distracción física) se agrupan en dos estilos de afrontamiento: “afrontamiento productivo” y “afrontamiento negativo o improductivo”.

Procedimiento

Se contactó mediante carta escrita con los centros seleccionados para solicitar su colaboración en este estudio. Tras la respuesta afirmativa se concretaba una cita con los directores de los centros donde se comentaba con mayor detalle el objetivo de dicha investigación, los cuestionarios que se les iba a administrar a los alumnos y se concretaban las fechas de evaluación para cada centro y curso. La aplicación fue colectiva previa explicación a los y las adolescentes de las instrucciones e indicaciones necesarias ante posibles preguntas; no obstante, a lo largo de la sesión si surgían dudas la explicación de las mismas se hacía de forma individualizada.

RESULTADOS

Violencia escolar

A continuación se presentan los resultados correspondientes a las situaciones de violencia vividas por los adolescentes.

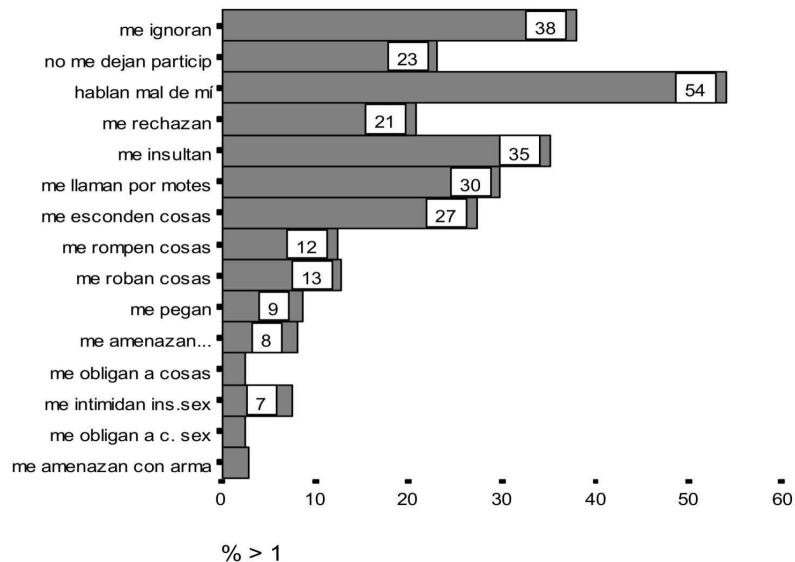


Figura 1. Porcentajes de violencia escolar sufrida “alguna vez” por el alumnado

Estos porcentajes se obtienen a partir de las situaciones que los adolescentes manifiestan haber vivido “alguna vez” durante los últimos tres meses. Las situaciones en las que se concentran los porcentajes más altos están vinculadas a exclusión social y a violencia psicológica (54% me critican, me ignoran 38%, me insultan 35%, 30% me ponen motes ofensivos, etc.). Las situaciones en las que sufren violencia física, aunque presentan un porcentaje mucho más bajo son de gran relevancia por la gravedad de estas situaciones (9% me pegan, etc.). A continuación se presentan los porcentajes correspondientes al rol de agresor.

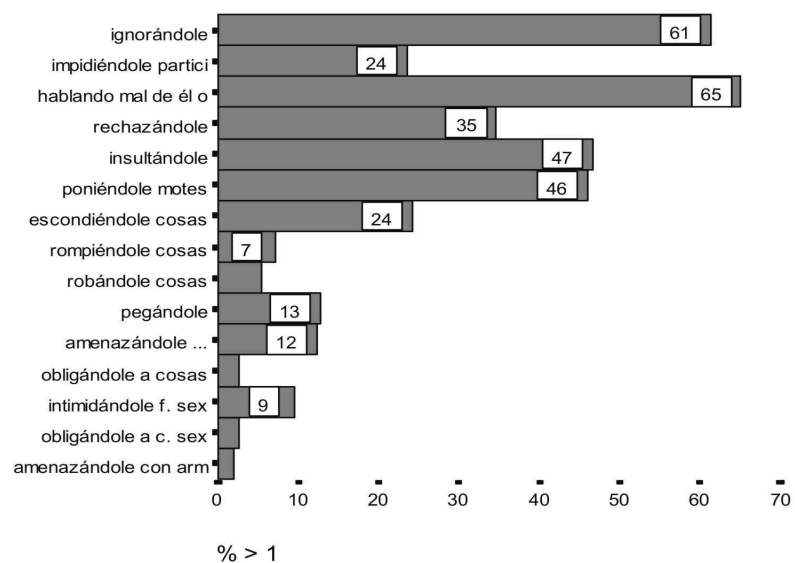


Figura 2. Porcentajes de situaciones en las que se ha ejercido “alguna vez” el rol de agresor

Como puede observarse, los resultados presentan el mismo patrón que en el caso de situaciones vividas como víctimas, siendo de nuevo los episodios relacionados con exclusión y violencia psicológica los más frecuentes.

Para analizar las diferencias en función del género, se utilizaron los factores que agrupa las situaciones descritas en dos dimensiones en relación a cada uno de los roles en función de la gravedad de las situaciones.

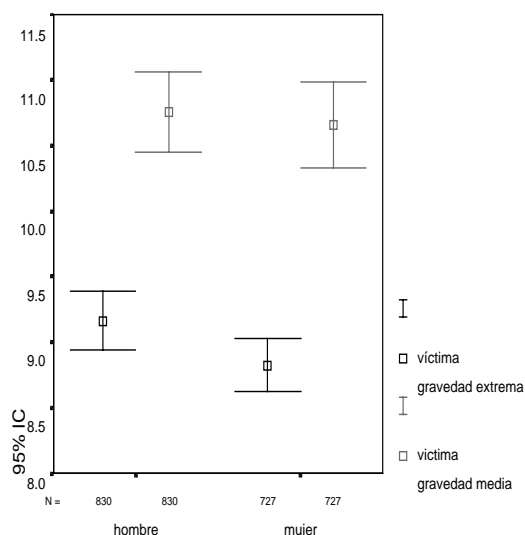


Figura 3. Victimización y género

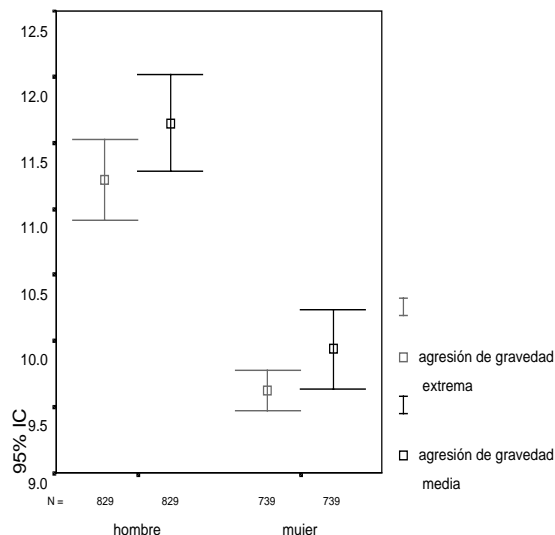


Figura 4. Agresión y género

Comparando estas dimensiones, a través del estadístico de contraste T de Student, se encuentran diferencias en los roles de víctimas y agresores en las siguientes direcciones: los chicos manifiestan vivir más situaciones de violencia tanto en el rol de víctimas como en el de agresor, sin embargo estas diferencias sólo resultan significativas en el caso de agresión (tanto en el factor de gravedad media como en el extrema).

Consumo de sustancias

A continuación se presentan los resultados obtenidos en relación al consumo de sustancias. Como puede observarse, los chicos obtienen medias superiores en la frecuencia de consumo de todas las sustancias, sin embargo el análisis de estas diferencias de medias revela que sólo resultan significativas, en el caso del alcohol, calimocho, vino y cerveza y en el caso de sustancias ilegales sólo el consumo de inhalantes.

Tabla 1. Consumo de sustancias y género

sustancia	género	N	Media	DT	T
calimocho	mujer	690	,65	,949	-2.591**
	hombre	798	,79	1,093	
Combinados	mujer	690	,83	1,076	-2.357
	hombre	798	,97	1,265	
Vino	mujer	690	,42	,887	-2.656**
	hombre	798	,56	1,056	
Cerveza	mujer	690	,59	1,059	-4.436***
	hombre	798	,88	1,387	
licores	mujer	690	,69	1,066	-1.108
	hombre	798	,76	1,115	
Cannabis	mujer	708	,69	1,347	-1.218
	hombre	835	,78	1,442	
Heroína	mujer	708	,00	,000	1541*
	hombre	835	,01	,142	
Cocaína	mujer	708	,06	,355	1467,85
	hombre	835	,06	,334	
anfetaminas	mujer	708	,03	,277	1.541
	hombre	835	,03	,258	
Alucinógenos	mujer	708	,02	,163	-1.463
	hombre	834	,05	,509	
sintéticas	mujer	708	,04	,232	-.913
	hombre	833	,05	,535	
inhalantes	mujer	708	,00	,053	-2.428**
	hombre	835	,03	,253	

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

Actitudes hacia los comportamientos de riesgo

En la siguiente figura se muestran los resultados obtenidos en relación a las diferencias de género en el grado de acuerdo en relación a la violencia, el sexismo y la intolerancia.

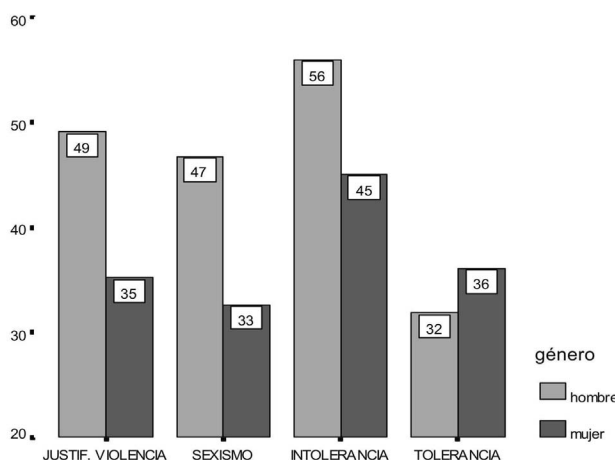


Figura 5. Actitudes hacia la violencia y género

Como puede observarse, los chicos obtienen medias significativamente superiores que sus compañeras en las tres de las cuatro dimensiones evaluadas: justificación de la violencia, creencias sexistas e intolerancia. En este sentido, las chicas obtienen medias superiores en la dimensión tolerancia.

Cómo afrontan los problemas

En relación a las diferencias en cómo afrontan chicos y chicas las dificultades cotidianas, es interesante destacar los resultados encontrados que se presentan en la siguiente figura y tablas. Como se observa, los chicos obtienen medias superiores en estrategias como “ignorar el problema”, “reservarlo para sí mismo” y “distracción física”. Las chicas destacan en estrategias como “buscar apoyo social”, “invertir en amigos íntimos”, “centrarse en resolver el problema”, “preocuparse”, “esperar un milagro”, “reducción de la tensión”, “autoculparse” y “buscar pertenencia”.

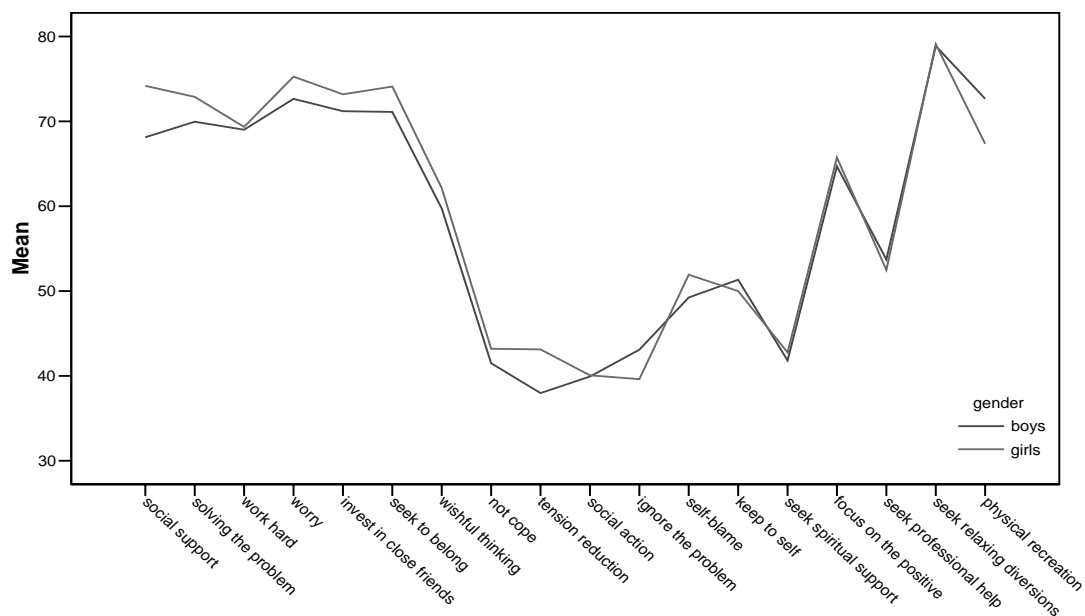


Figura 6. Diferencias de género y estrategias de afrontamiento

Tabla 2. Género y afrontamiento productivo

Afrontamiento productivo	GENERO	Media	DT	T (sig)
Centrarse en resolver el problema	chicas	72,88	12,98	3,93**
	chicos	69,95	13,85	
Trabajar duro	chicas	69,34	12,02	,49
	chicos	69,01	12,39	
Distracción física	chicas	67,35	21,27	4,67**
	chicos	72,66	19,78	
Centrarse en lo positivo	chicas	65,74	14,50	1,30
	chicos	64,69	14,54	
Buscar diversiones relajantes	chicas	79,09	15,28	,25
	chicos	78,87	16,16	
Búsqueda de apoyo social	chicas	74,18	15,42	6,95**
	chicos	68,12	16,06	
Invertir en amigos íntimos	chicas	73,19	14,08	2,46*
	chicos	71,20	15,04	
Buscar pertenencia	chicas	74,10	11,97	4,42**
	chicos	71,11	12,43	
Acción social	chicas	40,07	12,53	,20
	chicos	39,92	13,40	
Búsqueda de apoyo espiritual	chicas	42,76	12,94	1,25
	chicos	41,82	14,13	
Búsqueda apoyo profesional	chicas	52,48	17,99	-1,21
	chicos	53,71	18,52	

**p<.01 * p<.05

Tabla 3. Género y afrontamiento improductivo

Afrontamiento improductivo	GENERO	Media	DT	T (sig)
Preocuparse	chicas	75,26	12,60	3,75**
	chicos	72,65	12,55	
Hacerse ilusiones	chicas	62,13	13,68	3,07*
	chicos	59,73	14,53	
Falta de afrontamiento	chicas	43,19	12,79	2,40*
	chicos	41,49	12,81	
Reducción de la tensión	chicas	43,12	15,22	6,32**
	chicos	37,97	14,17	
Ignorar el problema	chicas	39,62	13,06	4,50**
	chicos	43,09	14,75	
Culparse	chicas	51,9282	17,613	2,93*
	chicos	49,2469	15,370	
Reservarlo para sí	chicas	49,9981	16,109	-1,54
	chicos	51,3371	15,253	

**p<.01 * p<.05

DISCUSION

Comportamientos de riesgo

En relación a la violencia escolar, se reproducen los resultados hallados en otros trabajos realizados en España (Defensor del Pueblo, 2000; Ortega, 2000; Martín Seoane, Pulido Valero, Vera Gómez, R. 2004): las situaciones más frecuentes de violencia entre iguales son las relacionadas con la exclusión social, seguida de la violencia verbal y la violencia hacia las propiedades. Situaciones de violencia como la violencia física o el abuso sexual aunque presenta un porcentaje mucho menor aunque la gravedad de estas situaciones hace necesario prestar una especial atención. Resulta relevante para la intervención, las diferencias de género entradas en el rol de agresor y víctima, que sitúa a los chicos en un contacto permanente con la violencia.

En relación al consumo de sustancias, los chicos obtienen puntuaciones superiores a las chicas en todas las sustancias, sin embargo estas diferencias sólo resultan significativas en el caso del alcohol, calimocho, vino y cerveza y en el caso de sustancias ilegales sólo el consumo de inhalantes como encuentran otros estudios (McCabe, 2006; Rodham, 2005). Esta diferencia cada vez menor en las diferencias de género puede estar relacionado con la generalización cada vez mayor del consumo, especialmente en el caso del alcohol.

Actitudes hacia los comportamientos de riesgo

Los resultados encontrados en esta investigación apuntan a la especial vulnerabilidad de los chicos en relación a uno de los comportamientos de riesgo analizados: la violencia entre iguales. Manifiestan participar en más situaciones de violencia como víctimas y como agresores y además muestran un mayor acuerdo con creencias intolerantes, sexistas y de justificación de la violencia. Este resultado refleja la relevancia de investigar y diseñar intervenciones desde una perspectiva de género que permita superar la asociación entre la identidad tradicionalmente masculina y la violencia.

Cómo afrontan los problemas

Los resultados hallados concuerdan parcialmente con los estudios realizados anteriormente en este sentido. Parece que las chicas siguen utilizando en mayor medida estrategias de afrontamiento basadas en la búsqueda de apoyo emocional como “invertir en amigos íntimos”, “buscar pertenencia”, estrategias que pueden resultar importantes factores de protección en relación a los comportamientos estudiados, mientras que otras estrategias como “culparse”, “reducción de la tensión (especialmente si el consumo se usa como una manera de reducir la tensión)” o la “falta de afrontamiento” pueden ser factores que aumenten la vulnerabilidad de las adolescentes hacia comportamientos que comprometan su desarrollo psicosocial. De igual manera, en el caso de los chicos, estrategias tradicionalmente masculinas como “ignorar el problema” o “guardarlo para uno mismo” pueden aumentar la probabilidad de determinados comportamientos de riesgo.

Sin embargo, parece que los estilos tradicionalmente masculinos o femeninos están cambiando como revela el hecho de que estrategias tradicionalmente masculinas como “centrarse en resolver el problema” o “trabajar duro” (aunque en esta estrategia la diferencia no llega a ser significativa), lo que apunta a la influencia de los cambios sociales que estamos viviendo y que nos orientan a una educación cada vez más igualitaria. En este sentido, conviene destacar que el afrontamiento es resultado de la interacción entre el contexto social, las características individuales, la percepción de la situación o las intenciones (Frydenberg, 2004), por lo que el estudio de los factores contextuales como la socialización diferencial y la identidad de género puede ayudar a entender las diferencias de género encontradas (Washburn-Ormachea et al, 2004).

Limitaciones e Implicaciones

Sería interesante la realización de estudios con diseños longitudinales que permitan profundizar en las relaciones analizadas. Sin embargo, los resultados hallados puntan a cuestiones relevante de cara a la intervención en la prevención de los comportamientos de riesgo estudiados, como es el papel de las estrategias de afrontamiento y las actitudes hacia comportamientos de este tipo.

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GENDER DIFFERENCES IN ADOLESCENCE: OVERCOMING STEREOTYPES

INTRODUCTION

Adolescence marks the transition between childhood and adulthood. It involves many physiological, psychological, social and cognitive changes. These changes include the formation of a personal identity, the establishment of new peer networks, and the development of abstract thinking skills. To manage these challenges, adolescents rely on their coping repertoire, so the way they cope with these situations is related to well adjustment.

Coping is defined as the cognitive and effective responses used by individual to manage stress (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) classified coping strategies according to problem-focused and emotion-focused modes, traditionally studies found that women used more emotion-focused strategies than men (Frydenberg & Lewis, 1999). Nowadays, differences in use of coping strategies, based on gender, have emerged from several



studies (Compas et al., 1998; Pikos, 2001; Galaif, Sussman, Chou, Wills, 2003). However, the findings have been inconsistent, and the reasons for these differences remain unclear.

About gender differences and risk behaviour, there are several studies which have pointed out a significant relation. Lacasse & Mendelson (2007) found in a Canadian sample that male perpetrators (of sexual offend) had more sexist attitudes than other male participants. Furthermore, all victims and perpetrators were more likely to be involved in other types of nonsexual deviance (such as drugs and alcohol). In a sample of 1,478 junior and senior secondary school students, from four major urban centres in Botswana, Maletse (2007) obtained that boys rated themselves higher on aggression, use of alcohol and drugs, and carrying and using dangerous weapons compared to girls. Furthermore, the Mississippi Youth Risk Behavior Survey, obtained from the Mississippi Department of Education, showed that low academic performance (students with mostly Cs or below) during the 12 months preceding the survey was more prevalent among males, non-Hispanic blacks, frequent smokers, binge drinkers, and marijuana users (Cox, R. G.; Zhang, L.; Johnson, W. D.; Bender, D. R., 2007).

Focusing on drug consumption, women generally reported higher past-year medical use rates than men (McCabe, S. E.; Teter, Ch. J.; Boyd, C. J., 2006), and drug use problems are significantly associated with male gender (Taylor, 2006). Although, even after controlling for differences in age, grade level, socioeconomic status, family structure, and residence, girls report significantly more drug offers from friends, cousins, and other peers than did boys. Compared to boys, girls also report a significantly higher sense of difficulty in dealing with drug offers from all sources (Rayle, A. D.; Kulis, S.; Okamoto, S. K.; Tann, S. S.; LeCroy, C. W.; Dustman, P.; Burke, A. M., 2006). On the other hand, in England, a sample consisted of 6020 pupils from 41 schools revealed that more males than females reported drinking and drug taking, more females reported smoking, but males were more likely to be heavy smokers (Rodham, K.; Hawton, K.; Evans, E.; Weatherall, R., 2005).

Finally, talking about violence and aggression in schools, we could say that they are problems in many countries around the world (e.g., Australia: Rigby & Slee, 1991; Canada: Boivin, 1998; England: Boulton & Underwood, 1992, Smith & Sharp, 1994; Scandinavia: Olweus, 1978, 1998; Spain: Ombudsman's Office-Defensor del Pueblo, 2000). The problem seems particularly acute in Spain schools, where the news media report a variety of disturbing incidents, in the same way as it has happened in other countries, like US (Pellegrini, Bartini & Brooks, 1999). Although it isn't a new phenomenon, not until the sixties decade began a systematic line of research about it in Europe, and in the nineties decade in Spain. A special kind of violence situations between peers is the bullying problem. Bullying among children can be considered as a form of abuse. It is intentional, unprovoked, and aims to cause pain and distress to another child. It is conducted by one or more children, and usually on repeated occasions, and it occurs to some extent in all schools (Olweus, 1978). Generally, bullying is perpetrated by an identifiable group of bullies who systematically victimize specific groups of their peers. Bullying is either physical or psychological, and verbal bulling is the most common form (Smith & Sharp, 1994). About gender differences, girls are involved more commonly in psychological bullying, whereas among boys physical bullying is more frequent than it is among girls (Stephenson & Smith, 1989). Similar results have been found in Spanish samples (Vieira, Fernández & Quevedo, 1989; Cerezo & Esteban, 1992, Defensor del Pueblo, 2000; Ortega, 2000; Díaz- Aguado, Martínez Arias & Martín Seoane, 2004).

In the present study we examined the incidence of school violence and drug consumption among Spanish adolescents, in a representative sample. The main objective of this research is to study the relationship between gender and risk behaviours in adolescence (violence and drug consumptions), and different ways of coping with these situations. It was hypothesized that boys participate (as victims and aggressors) more frequently than girls; that boys consume



illegal drugs more frequently than girls; and finally, that girls would report using more emotion-focused strategies and boys would report using more avoidant strategies.

METHOD

Participants

The research was conducted in Madrid schools: public (maintained using state funds or funds from the autonomous communities), private subsidized (private schools, whose obligatory levels are financed through agreements with public funds) or completely private (maintained with their own funds). The representative sample consisted of 1475 Spanish adolescents (aged 14-18 years), 49,4% girls and 50,6% boys, from different educational levels: Compulsory Secondary Education (59,6%), Baccalaureate (22,8%) and Specific/initial Training Courses (7,5%).

Instruments

- *CEVEO* (Díaz-Aguado, Martínez Arias & Martín Seoane, 2003). It measures violence situations between peers in the educational context, through different roles (victims, aggressors and spectators), and different situations (medium violence or psychological violence, and extreme or physical violence). The instrument distinguishes between 15 different types of violence: ignoring, not allowing participating, criticizing, rejecting, insulting, nicknaming, hiding things, breaking things, stealing, hitting, threatening in order to frighten, forcing to do things, intimidating with sexual insults, forcing to sexual situations, threatening with weapons. There are two differences with the 13 items used in the Ombudsman's Office study, as "rejecting" was included, and "sexually harassing" was divided into "intimidating with sexual insults" and "forcing to sexual situations". The finally categories (medium and extreme violence) were obtained with a factorial analysis. These situations were measured by a 5 point-Likert scale (1=never happens; 5=always happens). These factors explained 53-65% of the total variance and Conbrach's alpha was .70 (IC 95%: .65-72) for victim medium, .67 (IC 95%: .63-.70) for victim extreme, .86 (IC 95%: .86-.88) for aggression medium, .87 (IC 95%: .86-.88) for aggression extreme, indicating that this scale was an internally reliable measure.

- *A scale of substance use*. The questionnaire that measured substance use (tobacco, alcohol and illicit drugs) is based on the national survey about drugs (Plan Nacional sobre Drogas, 2004). It included questions about: age at first drug use, how often adolescents use each of these substances during the last month, using a 5 point-likert scale (0=never; 5=daily). Consumption of alcohol included several types of drinks as wine, beer or cocktails. Consumption of illicit drugs included several types of substance as cannabis, cocaine, LSD, inhalants, amphetamine and synthetics drugs.

- *CADV* (Díaz-Aguado, Martínez Arias, Martín Seoane, 2003). It measures violence, sexism, intolerance and tolerance attitudes, and participants agree or disagree with the 72 items of the questionnaire, using a 7 point-Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Factorial analysis of the scale-based items confirmed these dimensions. Conbrach's alpha was .85 for justification of violence, .85 for sexism and .82 for intolerance. Demographic questions were included to obtain background information from the students (age, gender).

- The way of coping was measured by the *Spanish version of the Adolescent Coping Scale* (Frydenberg & Lewis, 1997), an 80 item checklist that identifies 18 coping strategies commonly used by adolescents. The scale consists of 79 questions which elicit ratings of an individual's use of 18 coping strategies, plus a final open-ended question. Scores on the scales are standardised so that the respondent's preferred coping styles can be readily compared. The

items on the ACS comprise 18 different scales, each containing between three and five items, and each reflecting a different coping response (behaviour or a mind set). To record their responses, students indicate if the coping behaviour described was used “a great deal”, often, sometimes, very little or doesn’t apply, by circling numbers 4,3,2,1 or 0 respectively. All scales are reliable with alphas ranging from .54 to .85 with a median figure of .70. The stability of responses as measured by test retest reliability coefficients range from .41 to .81 and are in general moderate, but nevertheless satisfactory given the dynamic nature of coping (Frydenberg & Lewis, 2002).

The 18 coping strategies were “seek social support”, “focus on solving the problem”, “work hard and achieve”, “worry”, “invest in close friends”, “seek to belong”, “wishful thinking”, “social action”, “tension reduction”, “not cope”, “ignore the problem”, “self-blame”, “keep to self”, “seek spiritual support”, “focus on the positive”, “seek professional help”, “physical recreation” and “seek relaxing diversions”.

Procedure

Permission to conduct this study was obtained from school principals (by sending a letter with a description of the study, and an explanation about the voluntary nature of it). Students were approached in the school, in their own classes. They were told that the research was about adolescents. All students were asked to fill in self-administered questionnaires, measuring the variables under investigation. They were assured confidentially and that no one in the school would have access to their questionnaires, so that they could answer truthfully. Students were seated separately so as not to allow conferring, talking or helping. Administration was conducted by a researcher who was a psychologist.

RESULTS

School Violence

The percentages of the school’s violence incidence vary from the role. The following figure presents the percentage of Victims.

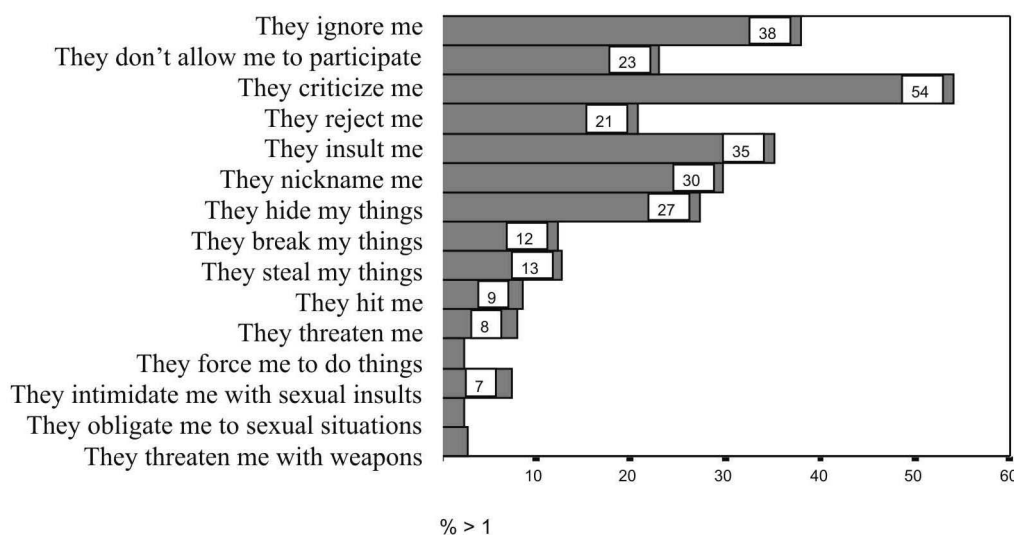


Figure 1. Victim percentages

Victims are criticized in 54% of the cases, they are ignored in 38 %, they are insulted in 35%, they are nicknamed in 30%, they aren’t allowed to participate in 23%, and they are rejected in 21%. Although less frequent, they suffer these physical situations: their things are

hidden in 27% of the cases, they are stolen in 13 %, their things are broken in 12%, they are hit in 9%, they are threatened in 8% and they are intimidated with sexual insults in 7%. The most dangerous situations (being forced to do things, being obligated to sexual situations, threatened with weapons) have occurred in 1-3% of the cases. The results, from the aggressor role, are in figure 2.

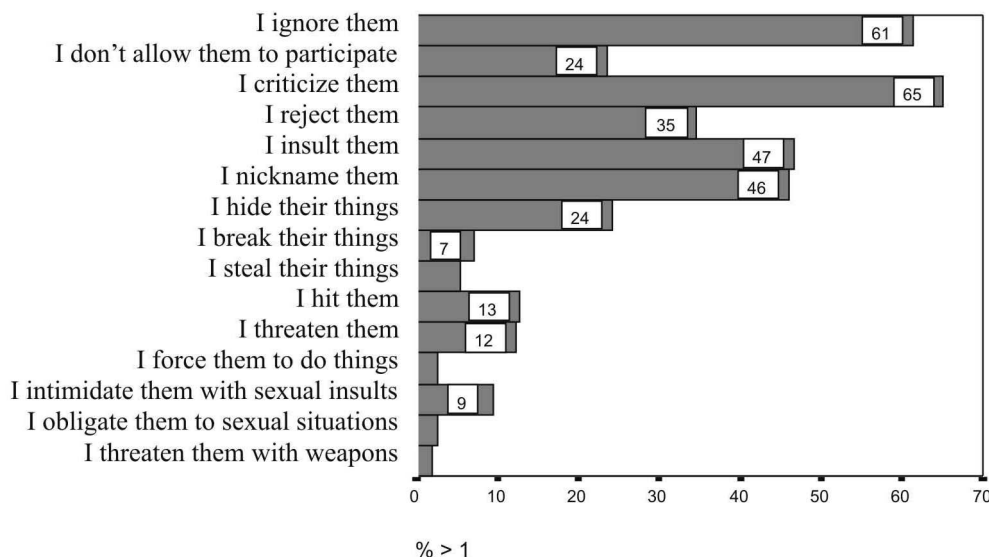


Figure 2. Aggressors percentages

The students recognize to participate in criticizing their peers in 65% of the cases, they ignore in 61%, they insult in 47%, they nickname in 46%, they don't allow participating in 24%, and they reject in 35%. Although less frequent, they cause this physical situations: they hide things in 24% of the cases, they steal in 6 %, they break things in 7%, they hit in 13%, they threaten in 12% and intimidate with sexual insults in 9%. The most dangerous situations (force to do things, obligate to sexual situations, threaten with weapons) have occurred in 1-3% of the cases.

About the gender (figure 5 and 6), there are statistically significant differences between victims and aggressors according to that variable ($p < .05$ in victims and $p < .001$ in aggressors). Boys are involved in violence situations more frequently than girls. This pattern occurs in all the different situations evaluated (extreme and medium violence), and from both roles: victim and aggressor.

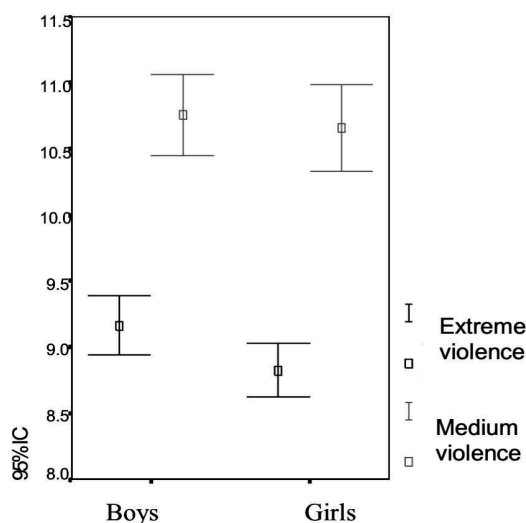


Figure 3. Victims and gender

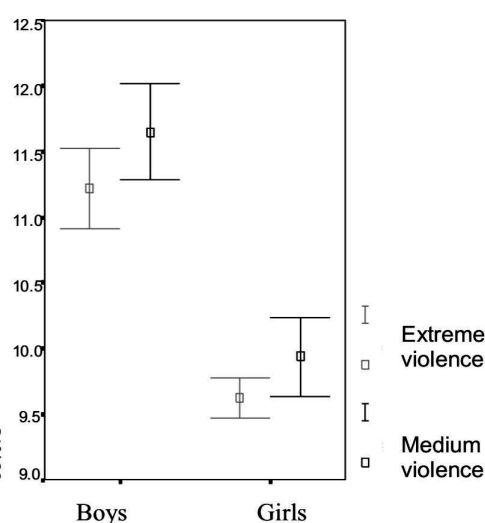


Figure 4. Aggressors and gender

Drug consumption

The results about gender differences and consumption (in the last week) are shown in table 1. Boys use drugs more often than girls, but these differences are significant only in the case of several types of alcohol (calimoch, wine and beer) and heroine and synthetic drugs.

Table 1. Gender differences in substance use

substance	gender	N	Mean	SD	T
calimoch	women	690	,65	,949	-2.591**
	men	798	,79	1,093	
Cocktel	women	690	,83	1,076	-2.357
	men	798	,97	1,265	
Wine	women	690	,42	,887	-2.656**
	men	798	,56	1,056	
Beer	women	690	,59	1,059	-4.436***
	men	798	,88	1,387	
licor	women	690	,69	1,066	-1.108
	men	798	,76	1,115	
Cannabis	women	708	,69	1,347	-1.218
	men	835	,78	1,442	
Heroine	women	708	,00	,000	1541*
	men	835	,01	,142	
Cocaine	women	708	,06	,355	1467,85
	men	835	,06	,334	
anfetamine	women	708	,03	,277	1.541
	men	835	,03	,258	
LSD	women	708	,02	,163	-1.463
	men	834	,05	,509	
sintéticos	women	708	,04	,232	-.913
	men	833	,05	,535	
inhalants	women	708	,00	,053	-2.428**
	men	835	,03	,253	

Attitudes

Figure 5 shows the gender differences in attitudes towards violence, sexism and intolerance. The obtained results show that the highest points are obtained by boys. They justify violence attitudes, sexism attitudes and intolerance oftener than girls.

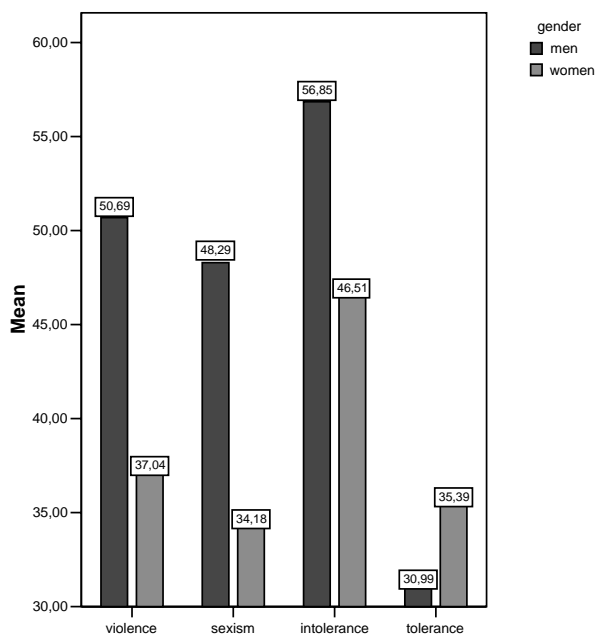


Figure 5. Attitudes and gender

Ways of coping

An other important result is the difference in the ways of coping, between boys and girls. As figure 8 shows, boys obtained higher means in strategies as “ignoring the problem”, “keeping it to one self” and “physical recreation”; while girls endorsed greater use of emotion-focused coping strategies.

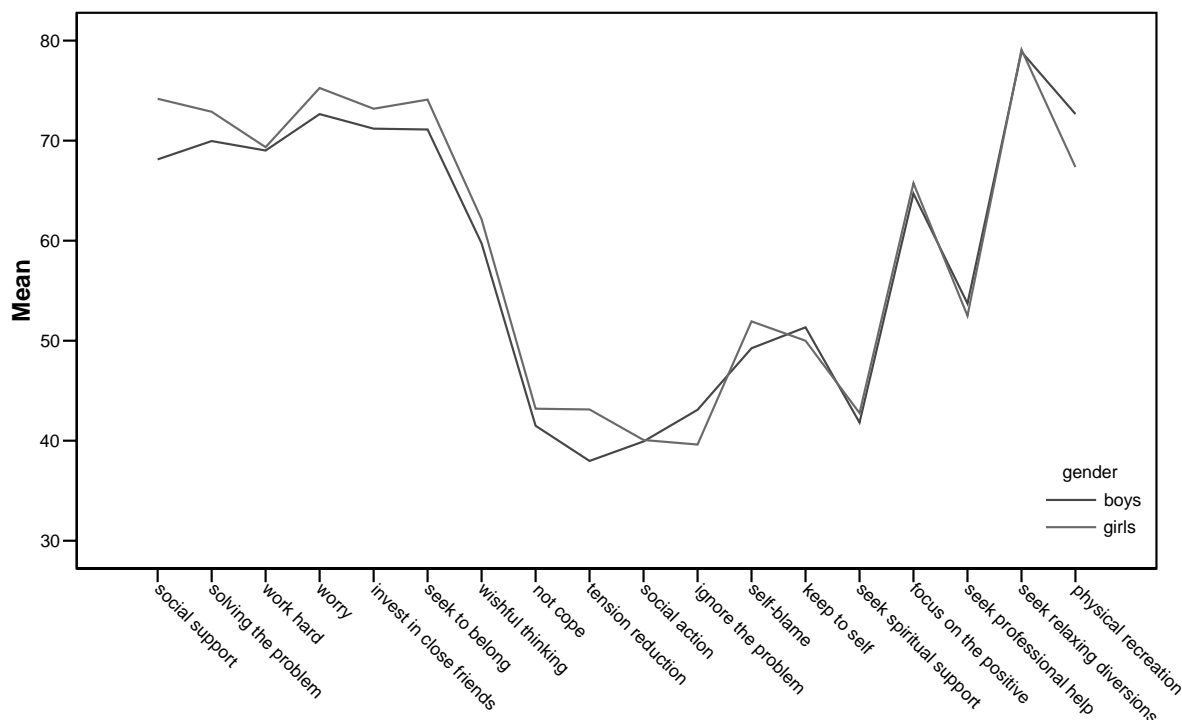


Figure 6. Gender differences in ways of coping

Table 2. Gender and productive solving

PROBLEM SOLVING STYLE	GENDER	Mean	S.D.	T (sig)
Focus on solving the problem	Girls	72,88	12,98	3,93**
	Boys	69,95	13,85	
work hard	Girls	69,34	12,02	,49
	Boys	69,01	12,39	
physical recreation	Girls	67,35	21,27	4,67**
	Boys	72,66	19,78	
focus on the positive	Girls	65,74	14,50	1,30
	Boys	64,69	14,54	
seek relaxing diversions	Girls	79,09	15,28	,25
	Boys	78,87	16,16	
Seek social support	Girls	74,18	15,42	6,95**
	boys	68,12	16,06	
invest in close friends	Girls	73,19	14,08	2,46*
	boys	71,20	15,04	
seek to belong	Girls	74,10	11,97	4,42**
	boys	71,11	12,43	
social action	girls	40,07	12,53	,20
	boys	39,92	13,40	
seek spiritual support	girls	42,76	12,94	1,25
	boys	41,82	14,13	
seek professional help	girls	52,48	17,99	-1,21
	boys	53,71	18,52	

Table 3. Gender and improductive coping

NON-PRODUCTIVE	GENDER	Mean	S.D.	T (sig)
Worry	girls	75,26	12,60	3,75**
	boys	72,65	12,55	
wishful thinking	girls	62,13	13,68	3,07*
	boys	59,73	14,53	
not coping	girls	43,19	12,79	2,40*
	boys	41,49	12,81	
tension reduction	girls	43,12	15,22	6,32**
	boys	37,97	14,17	
ignore the problem	girls	39,62	13,06	4,50**
	boys	43,09	14,75	
self-blame	girls	51,9282	17,613	2,93*
	boys	49,2469	15,370	
keep to self	girls	49,9981	16,109	-1,54
	boys	51,3371	15,253	

These differences between boys and girls are statistically significant (T Student test) in the next ways of coping (table 2 and 3). Girls obtained higher means in: “focus on solving the problem”, “seek social support”, “invest in close friends”, “seek to belong”, “worry”, “wishful thinking”, “not coping”, “tension reduction” and “self blame”. On the other hand, boys obtained higher means in “physical recreation” and “ignore the problem”.



DISCUSSION

About school violence, the results of our study are similar to those of different researchers in Spain (Defensor del Pueblo, 2000; Ortega, 2000; Martín Seoane, Pulido Valero, R.; Vera, R., 2004): the more frequent victimization situations are verbal and exclusion; following by verbal aggressions and violence against properties. It is a low, but important, percentage of adolescents that suffer extreme violence (eg. sexual abuse or being threaten with arms). The same pattern appeared with the aggressor role: the more frequent situations are verbal aggression and exclusion, violence against properties, and finally, extreme violence.

Finally, the findings of this investigation provide strong support to conclude that boys are a high risk group. They participate in violent situations more frequently than girls, in different roles (victims, aggressor and spectators), and also justify violence, sexism and intolerance attitudes more frequently. This high risk of boys is related with the association between intolerance and violence and traditional masculine attitudes. This result reveals the relevance of developing research and specific Programs according to these conditions.

About drugs consumption, results revealed differences, significant statistically, between gender and heroine and inhalants (once or in the past six months). In both cases, we can find that males are more frequently involved in substance use than girls, as it has been found in previous researches (McCabe, 2006; Rodham, 2005).

On the other hand, results indicated significant differences between boys and girls in the way of coping: boys were more likely to use strategies as “ignoring the problem”, “keeping it to one self” and “physical recreation”; while girls endorsed greater use of emotion-focused coping strategies, as we hypotesize, they were more likely to use “emotional support”, “invest in close friends”, “seek to belong”, “self-blame”, “tension reduction”, “not coping”, “worry”, “wishful thinking” and “focus on solving the problem”. Coping is a function of the situational determinants and the individual’s characteristics, perception of the situation, and coping intentions (Frydenberg, 2004). In this sense, the study of situational and contextual factors, differential socialization and gender identity should help in understanding these differences (Washburn-Ormachea et al, 2004).

Limitations of this work relate to the necessity of longitudinal designs, in order to make causal inferences. This study, however, makes it possible to provide initial information on school violence behaviors and drug consumption in Spain, where research on this problem is just starting. This study has explored gender differences related to this risk behavior in adolescence. This information is a necessary step towards tackling those problems. It is important that society face up to the existence of those stereotypes, and should tackle the problem. According to the obtained results, prevention of violence and drug consumption should develop attitudes against sexism, and focus on gender equality. On the other hand, preventive Programs should improve adolescent’s social skills to cope with those problems, also with a gender perspective.

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Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

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TYOLOGIES DIMENSIONNELLES ÉVOQUÉES DANS L'AUTO ET L'HÉTÉRODESCRIPTION SPONTANÉES

Alina MAZILESCU¹ et Bernard GANGLOFF²

¹Laboratorul PRIS, Departamentul de Psihologie, Universitatea Rouen (Franța), Universitatea Politehnica din Timișoara, DPPD;

alina.mazilescu@gmail.com

²Laboratorul PRIS, Departamentul de Psihologie, Universitatea Rouen (Franța), și Departamentul de Gestiune, Universitatea Federală Paraíba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

RÉSUMÉ

Parler de soi, parler d'autrui, se décrire ou décrire autrui, font partie des activités les plus courantes de la vie en société. Mais que dit-on lorsque, spontanément, on se décrit ou lorsque l'on décrit autrui ? Quels sont les aspects évoqués ? Ces aspects sont-ils les mêmes ou différents lorsque l'on parle de soi, d'une personne qui nous est sympathique, ou d'une personne qui nous est antipathique ? Tels sont les points que nous examinerons.

Nous avons demandé à 50 étudiants et étudiantes d'effectuer, de manière individuelle, trois descriptions successives, en utilisant librement les mots et expressions qu'ils désiraient: une description de soi, puis une description d'un étudiant (ou d'une étudiante) qui leur était sympathique, puis celle d'un étudiant (ou d'une étudiante) qu'ils jugeaient antipathique. L'analyse de contenu des réponses nous a alors permis d'établir une liste de 102 termes et expressions sémantiquement distincts que nous avons ensuite classés par catégories personnologiques hiérarchisées selon leur fréquence d'apparition.

Nous présenterons ici cette typologie, d'une part de manière globale puis différenciellement, en fonction de chacune des 3 cibles.

Mots clés: *autodescription, hétérodescription, personnalité.*

REZUMAT

A vorbi despre sine sau a vorbi despre celălalt, a te descrie pe tine sau a-l descrie pe celălalt sunt activități curente ale vieții noastre sociale. Dar ce spunem atunci când, în mod spontan, ne descriem pe noi sau descriem pe altcineva? Care sunt aspectele evocate? Sunt aceste aspecte identice sau diferite atunci când vorbim despre noi, despre o persoană simpatcă sau despre o persoană antipatică ? Acestea sunt punctele asupra cărora ne vom opri în acest studiu.

S-a solicitat unui grup de 50 de studenți și studente, realizarea individuală și succesivă, a trei descrieri libere: descrierea unui coleg simpatc, descrierea unui coleg antipatic și descrierea propriei persoane. Analiza de conținut a răspunsurilor a permis stabilirea unei liste de 102 termeni și expresii, distincte din punct de vedere semantic, care au fost clasificate în categorii personologice, ierarhizate după frecvența lor de apariție. Această tipologie va fi prezentată și global, dar și diferențiat în funcție de tipul descrierii solicitate.

Cuvinte cheie: *autodescriere, hetero-descriere, personalitate*

1. PROBLÉMATIQUE

La description d'une personne (qu'il s'agisse de soi ou d'autrui) semble fréquemment réalisée en termes descriptifs de personnalité. Une problématique de base très répandue parmi les études en psychologie de la personnalité a visé la structure, les unités ou composantes de base de cette personnalité. Pour répondre à ces interrogations, les chercheurs se sont servis de concepts comme «habitude, trait ou type». Ainsi, les traits ont occupé une place centrale dans

l'étude des descriptions de personnalité, même s'il a été admis que les traits ont une faible valeur descriptive et ne permettent pas d'effectuer des prédictions comportementales fiables (Le Poulter et Guéguen, 1991).

Pour Eysenck (1967) et Gray (1982) trois dimensions seraient suffisantes pour caractériser la personnalité. Eysenck a parlé dans sa théorie d'extraversion *vs* introversion, de neuroticisme *vs* stabilité émotionnelle et de psychoticisme *vs* force du moi, tandis que Gray a proposé une théorie fondée sur l'anxiété, l'impulsivité et l'agression. A l'origine du modèle de Cloninger (1986) se trouvent également trois dimensions (tempéraments): la recherche de nouveauté, l'évitement du danger et la dépendance à la récompense, mais en 1993 Cloninger et ses collègues (Cloninger, Svrakic et Przybeck, 1993) ont modifié ce modèle en passant de 3 à 7 dimensions (en ajoutant un tempérament – la persistance — et trois caractères – l'autodétermination, la coopération et la transcendance. Digman (1990) et Goldberg (1990) ont quant à eux trouvé 5 dimensions principales de la personnalité, tandis que Cattell (1957), Guilford et Zimmerman (1956) ont respectivement déterminé 16 et 14 traits de personnalité.

Des recherches montrent que les traits de personnalité tendent à entrer en corrélation les uns avec les autres (Costa, McCrae et Kay, 1995). Grâce à l'analyse factorielle, la multitude, parfois envisagée, des traits de personnalité a pu être diminuée et ramenée à un nombre plus restreint. Un aspect remarquable de la recherche sur la personnalité a été l'acceptation quasi générale du modèle de personnalité à cinq facteurs, le «Big Five». Le modèle du Big Five considère que la description des conduites peut se résumer à 5 dimensions de personnalité: le neuroticisme (N), l'extraversion (E), l'ouverture à l'expérience (O), l'agréabilité (A) et le caractère consciencieux (C). Les racines de ce modèle proviennent des études lexicales qui ont eu le but de déterminer les notions utilisées des individus pour se décrire eux-mêmes et entre eux. Ce genre de technique fait partie des techniques appelées descriptives, techniques descriptives qui couvrent aussi des procédés comme la méthode de tri, la méthode basée sur une liste standard et la méthode des échelles d'évaluation. Les taxinomies tirées des descriptions libres mettent ainsi en évidence l'importance de l'analyse du registre lexical.

Cattell (1957), Chaplin, John et Goldberg (1988) et John (1991) ont répertorié un ensemble d'indices qui ont permis d'établir tout un univers approprié pour la description des personnes. Park (1986), Ostrom (1975), Fiske et Cox (1979) et Prentice (1990) proposent des taxinomies en cinq ou sept catégories d'items, mais items débordant la pure personnalité puisqu'englobant, outre des traits de personnalité, des traits physiques, des attitudes, des informations démographiques, etc.

La méthode de description libre présente l'avantage d'accorder aux sujets une totale liberté de descriptions (ce qui donne la possibilité d'obtenir une description proche de l'impression du sujet), mais elle pose aussi des problèmes de dépouillement et de traitement du registre lexical. Généralement les taxinomies de descriptions libres varient en fonction des objectifs de la recherche, en fonction des techniques et consignes utilisées et en fonction des personnes qui perçoivent et décrivent. Ainsi, en ce qui concerne la prédominance des catégories selon leurs types, les opinions sont différentes: dans les études des Steers et Show (1993), les traits de personnalité sont dominants, alors que dans la hiérarchie de Fiske et Cox (1979) les traits physiques sont placés devant les traits de personnalité.

Notre étude a eu pour but d'identifier et d'établir des différences ou des ressemblances entre les catégories qui sont utilisées dans les autodescriptions et dans les hétéro-descriptions libres.

2. MÉTHODE

2.1. Les sujets

Les données de base ont été recueillies sur 50 étudiants et étudiantes de 1^{ère}, 2^{ème} et 4^{ème}

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



année de l'Université «Politehnica» de Timisoara, provenant de différentes facultés (Faculté d'Électronique, d'Automatisation, de Mécanique, de Management en Transport et Construction et Faculté de Chimie Industrielle). Furent ainsi interrogés 33 filles (de 18 à 31 ans) et 17 garçons (de 19 à 35 ans), l'âge moyen global étant de 22 ans.

2.2. La procédure

Tous ces sujets étaient inscrits à un module didactique optionnel (destiné à leur apprendre à enseigner les disciplines techniques au niveau du lycée), et c'est au cours d'un enseignement de psychologie de l'éducation entrant dans ce module que ces sujets ont été invités, sur la base du volontariat, à participer à cette étude.

Nous leur avons demandé de réaliser, par écrit et de manière individuelle, trois descriptions successives, en utilisant librement les mots et expressions qu'ils désiraient : une description d'un étudiant (ou d'une étudiante) qui leur était sympathique, celle d'un étudiant (ou d'une étudiante) qu'ils jugeaient antipathique, et enfin une description de soi. Pour chaque description ils ont eu à leur disposition 5 minutes, et chacune des 3 consignes leur a été indiquée juste avant chacune des descriptions: la première consigne a donc consisté à leur demander de décrire un étudiant (ou, à leur gré, une étudiante) sympathique; après les 5 minutes disponibles pour cette première description les étudiants ont reçu la deuxième consigne (décrire un étudiant ou une étudiante antipathique), et à la fin de cette deuxième description ils ont reçu la troisième consigne (se décrire soi-même).

2.3. Le mode d'analyse des réponses

Les réponses ont été traitées par une analyse de contenu permettant de répartir les termes et expressions obtenus en diverses catégories thématiquement homogènes et différenciatrices que nous avons concrétisées par des adjectifs, des substantifs, des verbes ou des périphrases. Ces catégories ont eu pour base des analyses de ressemblances/dissimilitudes de significations terminologiques ayant pour but de refléter le plus exactement possible le contenu des descriptions réalisées. L'argument pour ce mode d'élaboration des catégories se retrouve dans l'idée d'Allport qui considérait que «la valeur d'un trait excède sa dénomination» (Allport, 1966, p.1) et dans l'affirmation de Mollaret indiquant que «chaque trait fait potentiellement référence à au moins deux registres d'événements (les comportements et les états internes) ce qui permettra de les définir comme des adjectifs polysémiques» (Mollaret, 1998, p. 546). Par ailleurs, à côté d'un ou de plusieurs adjectifs, substantifs, verbes ou périphrases référant à une même catégorie, nous avons régulièrement inscrit des descriptifs de conduites exemplifiant les contenus de la catégorie concernée.

Pour illustrer ces analyses, voici la description d'un collègue sympathique effectué par le sujet n° 2 (féminin, 21 ans, Faculté d'Automatisation): «*Il s'agit d'une personne ambitieuse et timide. Il a 22/23 ans, les cheveux marrons et les yeux bruns. Il est intelligent.*»

Nous avons alors, à partir de cette description, établi les 5 catégories suivantes:

- «*Il s'agit d'une personne ambitieuse*» a conduit à la catégorie: «*Quelqu'un d'ambitieux, qui aime les défis et la compétition*» (l'ajout des termes «qui aime les défis et la compétition» provient de l'adjonction, dans cette catégorie, de termes voisins de celui d'ambitieux, termes issus d'autres descriptions),

- «*timide*» a conduit à la catégorie: «*Quelqu'un de peu communicatif, d'introverti, de timide, de discret, qui parle peu, que l'on ne remarque pas, qui n'aime pas attirer l'attention sur lui*» (l'ajout des termes «peu communicatif, ...» provient de l'adjonction, dans cette catégorie, de termes voisins de celui de timide, termes issus d'autres descriptions),

- «*il a 22/23 ans*» a conduit à la catégorie: «*Age*»,

• *"les cheveux marrons et les yeux bruns"* a conduit à la catégorie : *«Apparence physique»*,

• *"il est intelligent"* a conduit à la catégorie: *«Quelqu'un d'intelligent, qui est très perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes»* (l'ajout des termes *«qui est très perspicace,...»* provient de l'adjonction, dans cette catégorie, de termes voisins de celui d'intelligent, termes issus d'autres descriptions).

Par ailleurs, au-delà de ces premières catégories unipolaires, unidimensionnelles (ou catégories de premier niveau), nous avons établi, lorsqu'elles ne figuraient pas dans les descriptions spontanées des sujets, les catégories unipolaires inverses. Nous avons ainsi abouti, en reliant les 2 pôles, à des catégories bipolaires, bidimensionnelles (ou catégories de second niveau). Par exemple, en parallèle à la catégorie *«quelqu'un d'intelligent, qui est très perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes»* nous avons construit la catégorie inverse, soit *«quelqu'un qui n'est pas intelligent, qui manque de perspicacité, qui ne sait pas du tout analyser les choses, qui dit rarement des choses intéressantes et pertinentes»*, et nous avons relié ces deux pôles en une seule catégorie bipolaire (ou catégorie de second niveau): *«Quelqu'un d'intelligent, qui est très perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes/qui n'est pas intelligent, qui manque de perspicacité, qui ne sait pas du tout analyser les choses, qui dit rarement des choses intéressantes et pertinentes»*¹.

Nous avons ensuite comptabilisé, au sein de chacune des trois descriptions réalisées par nos 50 sujets, le nombre et la fréquence d'apparitions de chacune des catégories de premier niveau et de chacune des catégories de second niveau (en ne prenant évidemment en compte, dans chacune des trois descriptions, qu'une seule fois chacune de ces apparitions catégorielles²). Puis nous avons, par X^2 , comparé le nombre et la fréquence d'apparitions de ces catégories.

3. RÉSULTATS

Nous avons ainsi recueilli 150 descriptions (3 descriptions pour chacun des 50 étudiants et étudiantes) à partir desquelles nous avons pu établir une liste de 102 catégories unipolaires correspondant à 48 catégories bipolaires (soit 96 catégories unipolaires/2) et 6 catégories non dichotomisables (prénom, âge, apparence physique, milieu social, profession, centres d'intérêt), d'où un total de 54 catégories de second niveau réparties en 3 classes:

- 46 catégories psychologiques
- 4 catégories biologiques: âge, beau/laid, apparence physique, sexe.
- 4 catégories sociologiques: profession, milieu social, qui est né dans une ville ville/dans un village, prénom

Le nombre et la fréquence d'apparitions, dans chacune des 3 descriptions (sympathique, antipathique, soi-même), de ces 54 catégories, sont présentés dans le tableau 1 (par exemple, la description d'une personne sympathique a conduit à l'utilisation de 39 catégories psychologiques parmi les 46 possibles).

¹ Ajoutons que ces catégories bipolaires n'ont évidemment été réalisées que pour les catégories se prêtant à une dichotomisation, ce qui exclue par exemple l'âge, la profession, etc.

² Si un sujet, pour se décrire soi-même par exemple, fait plus d'une fois référence à la catégorie "intelligence,..." nous ne notons qu'une seule fois cette apparition.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 1: nombre (Nb) et fréquence (Fq) d'apparitions des 54 catégories. Ainsi, dans la description de quelqu'un de sympathique, 39 catégories psychologiques ont été utilisées, et elles le furent 293 fois.

	Sympathique	Antipathique	soi-même
Nb catégories psychologiques	39	38	41
Fq totale apparition catég. psycho	293 (87,72 %)	251 (90,94 %)	331 (92,2 %)
Nb catégories biologiques	4	4	4
Fq totale apparition catég. biologiques	38 (11,38 %)	18 (6,52 %)	23 (6,41 %)
Nb catégories sociologiques	2	3	3
Fq totale apparition catég. sociologiques	3 (0,9 %)	7 (2,54 %)	5 (1,39 %)
Nb total catégories	45	45	48
Fq totale apparition catég.	334 (100 %)	276 (100 %)	359 (100 %)

3.1. Analyses globales

Sur un plan global (c'est-à-dire sans entrer dans les détails de chacune des catégories), on remarque que la répartition, dans les 3 classes catégorielles, du nombre de catégories, n'est pas significativement différent entre les 3 descriptions (*cf.* tableau 2). Par contre, en termes de fréquences, on note une différence significative entre la description de quelqu'un de sympathique par rapport à la description de quelqu'un d'antipathique (*cf.* tableau 3).

Tableau 2: comparaison, inter-descriptions, du nombre de catégories utilisées (analyses verticales à partir du tableau 1).

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2=0,213, p=0,89$	$X^2=0,153, p=0,926$
Antipathique		$X^2=0,017, p=0,991$

Tableau 3: comparaison, inter-descriptions, de la fréquence des catégories utilisées (analyses verticales à partir du tableau 1)

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2= 6,53, p=0,038$	$X^2= 5,608, p=0,061$
Antipathique		$X^2= 1,11, p=0,574$

3.2. Analyses des descriptifs biologiques

Si l'on se centre maintenant sur les 4 descriptifs biologiques (*cf.* tableau 4), on note une répartition différente dans la description de quelqu'un de sympathique par rapport à l'auto-description (tableau 5).

Tableau 4: répartition, dans chacune des 3 descriptions, des fréquences d'utilisation des descriptifs biologiques.

	Sympathique	Antipathique	Soi-même
Fq. «âge»	4	1	3
Fq. «beau/laid»	7	4	9
Fq. «apparence physique»	22	10	10
Fq. «sexe»	5	3	1
Total	38	18	23

Tableau 5: comparaison, inter-descriptions, de la fréquence des catégories biologiques utilisées (analyses verticales à partir du tableau 4)

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2= 0,545, p=0,909$	$X^2= 4,12, p=0,0249$
Antipathique		$X^2= 3,363, p=0,339$

3.3. Analyses des descriptifs sociologiques

Pour les 4 descriptifs sociologiques (dont les données figurent au tableau 6), aucune différence significative n'apparaît entre les 3 descriptions (tableau 7)

Tableau 6: répartition, dans chacune des 3 descriptions, des fréquences d'utilisation des descriptifs sociologiques.

	Sympathique	Antipathique	Soi-même
Fq. «profession»	2	3	2
Fq. «milieu social»	0	3	1
Fq. «prénom»	0	1	0
Fq. «habitat ville/village»	1	0	1
Total	3	7	5

Tableau 7: comparaison, inter-descriptions, de la fréquence des catégories sociologiques utilisées (analyses verticales à partir du tableau 6)

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2=4,286, p=0,232$	$X^2=0,889, p=0,641$
Antipathique		$X^2=3,977, p=0,264$

3.4. Analyses des descriptifs psychologiques

Bien évidemment, ce sont les analyses en termes psychologiques qui nous intéressent le plus. En terme de fréquences d'apparition, les résultats présentés dans le tableau 1 nous montrent d'ailleurs que ces catégories psychologiques sont utilisées avec des proportions de 87,72 %, 90,94 % et 92,2 % pour (respectivement) les descriptions du sympathique, de l'antipathique et de soi-même. Cela signifie que les catégories psychologiques dominent bien les représentations de soi et les connaissances d'autrui, résultat qui est à rapprocher de ceux de Park (1986) et de Steers et Shaw (1993).

Nous avons, dans un 1^{er} temps, effectué nos analyses sur l'ensemble des catégories psychologiques, puis dans un 2^{ème} temps, nous avons effectué de nouvelles analyses en créant 2 sous-catégories faisant référence: d'une part aux descriptifs psychologiques directement liés à des situations d'interactions avec autrui (sous-catégorie 1, avec 21 descriptifs, par exemple: la catégorie 5 «qui accepte facilement les personnes différentes de lui/qui n'accepte pas les personnes différentes de lui,...»), la catégorie 6 «quelqu'un de franc, de sincère/quelqu'un de dissimulateur,...»), et d'autre part aux descriptifs psychologiques auto-centrés (sous-catégorie 2, avec 25 descriptifs comme par exemple la catégorie 3 «quelqu'un d'intelligent/ de peu intelligent,...»), ou la 9 «quelqu'un de sensible/d'insensible,..»)³.

Nous avons par ailleurs effectué ces analyses, d'abord en groupant les versants positifs et négatifs de chacun des descriptifs, puis versant par versant.

Le tableau 8 résume les données ainsi classifiées.

3 Seul la catégorie 16 («centres d'intérêts et loisirs») n'entre pas dans cette dichotomisation tout en étant incluse dans la catégorie des descriptifs psychologiques. Elle aboutit à 5 fréquences pour le sympathique, 3 pour l'antipathique et 15 pour soi-même.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Tableau 8: répartition, dans chacune des 3 descriptions, des fréquences d'utilisation de la catégorie psychologique et de ses 2 sous-catégories en fonction du versant considéré (positif vs négatif). Les fréquences totales comprennent les fréquences de la catégorie 16 (cf. nota 3).

	Sympathique			Antipathique			Soi-même		
	Positif	Négatif	P+N	Positif	Négatif	P+M	Positif	Négatif	P+M
Fq. Interactions	127	21	148	14	137	151	101	61	162
Fq. Auto-centrées.	127	13	140	15	82	97	109	45	154
Fq. Totales	254	34	293	29	219	251	210	106	331

3.4.1. Analyses des descriptifs psychologiques considérés globalement

On remarque ici (tableaux 9 à 11) que toutes les différences sont significatives, sauf pour la comparaison sympathique/soi-même sur le versant négatif (tableau 11).

Tableau 9: comparaison des trois descriptions entre elles (sympathique/antipathique, sympathique/soi-même, antipathique/soi-même) pour les catégories psychologiques prises globalement (versant positif et versant négatif groupés).

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2=113,646, p=0,001$	$X^2=77,737, p=0,001$
Antipathique		$X^2=125,431, p=0,001$

Tableau 10: comparaison des trois descriptions entre elles (sympathique/antipathique, sympathique/soi-même, antipathique/soi-même) pour les catégories psychologiques prises globalement et sur le versant positif.

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2=73,184, p=0,001$	$X^2=73,746, p=0,001$
Antipathique		$X^2=84,385, p=0,001$

Tableau 11: comparaison des trois descriptions entre elles (sympathique/antipathique, sympathique/soi-même, antipathique/soi-même) pour les catégories psychologiques prises globalement et sur le versant négatif.

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2=80,251, p=0,001$	$X^2=45,647, p=0,056$
Antipathique		$X^2=132,694, p=0,001$

3.4.2. Analyses des descriptifs psychologiques référant aux interactions sociales

On remarque ici (tableaux 12, 13, 14) que toutes les différences sont significatives, sauf pour la comparaison sympathique/soi-même versant négatif (tableau 14).

Tableau 12: comparaison des trois descriptions entre elles (sympathique/antipathique, sympathique/soi-même, antipathique/soi-même) pour les catégories psychologiques ayant trait aux interactions sociales (versant positif et versant négatif groupés).

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2=43,065$, $p=0,001$	$X^2=37,774$, $p=0,006$
Antipathique		$X^2=47,725$, $p=0,001$

Tableau 13: comparaison des trois descriptions entre elles (sympathique/antipathique, sympathique/soi-même, antipathique/soi-même) pour les catégories psychologiques ayant trait aux interactions sociales versant positif.

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2=32,95$, $p=0,005$	$X^2=36,187$, $p=0,01$
Antipathique		$X^2=44,809$, $p=0,001$

Tableau 14: comparaison des trois descriptions entre elles (sympathique/antipathique, sympathique/soi-même, antipathique/soi-même) pour les catégories psychologiques ayant trait aux interactions sociales versant négatif.

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2=51,497$, $p=0,001$	$X^2=19,571$, $p=0,106$
Antipathique		$X^2=80,357$, $p=0,001$

3.4.3. Analyses des descriptifs psychologiques référant aux descriptifs auto-centrés

On remarque ici (tableaux 15, 16, 17) que toutes les différences sont significatives, sauf pour les comparaisons sympathique/antipathique et sympathique/soi-même sur le versant négatif (tableau 17).

Tableau 15: comparaison des trois descriptions entre elles (sympathique/antipathique, sympathique/soi-même, antipathique/soi-même) pour les catégories psychologiques centrées sur soi (versant positif et versant négatif groupés).

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2=67,025$, $p=0,001$	$X^2=126,208$, $p=0,001$
Antipathique		$X^2=71,562$, $p=0,001$

Tableau 16: comparaison des trois descriptions entre elles (sympathique/antipathique, sympathique/soi-même, antipathique/soi-même) pour les catégories psychologiques centrées sur soi versant positif.

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2=33,529$, $p=0,01$	$X^2=37,421$, $p=0,007$
Antipathique		$X^2=33,388$, $p=0,01$

Tableau 17: comparaison des trois descriptions entre elles (sympathique/antipathique, sympathique/soi-même, antipathique/soi-même) pour les catégories psychologiques centrées sur soi versant négatif.

	Antipathique	Soi-même
Sympathique	$X^2=28,782$, $p=0,051$	$X^2=24,935$, $p=0,096$
Antipathique		$X^2=47,197$, $p=0,001$



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

3.4.4. Analyses complémentaires

Il nous a également semblé intéressant d'examiner les catégories psychologiques les plus fréquemment utilisées dans chacune des 3 descriptions. Si on regarde la hiérarchie des pourcentages des trois premières catégories (cf. tableaux 18, 19, 20) on trouve deux mêmes catégories dans chacune des 3 descriptions: l'aspect «agrabilité/désagrabilité» («quelqu'un de sympathique,.. / d'antipathique,..»), et l'aspect «altruiste/individualiste» («quelqu'un qui sait en comporter en ami,.. / qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami,..»).

Tableau 18: description d'une personne sympathique : contenu, pourcentage et rang des 3 premières catégories

	%	Rang
De sympathique, d'agréable, d'amical, de très sociable, auprès de qui on se sent bien, qui a beaucoup d'amis, que l'on aime facilement, de chaleureux, de gentil/ d'antipathique, de désagréable, de peu amical, de peu sociable, que l'on ne cherche pas à fréquenter, que l'on aime difficilement, de froid, de méchant	10,48	1
Qui sait se comporter en ami (e), qui est toujours là quand on a besoin de lui, qui est capable, qui se soucie des autres, qui tient compte des choix et des avis des autres, d'altruiste/qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami (e), qui n'est jamais là quand on a besoin de lui, qui n'est pas capable, d'égoïste, d'individualiste, qui ne se soucie pas des autres, qui ne tient aucun des choix et des avis d'autrui	9,58	2
d'intelligent, qui est très perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes/qui n'est pas intelligent, qui manque de perspicacité, qui ne sait pas du tout analyser les choses, qui dit rarement des choses intéressantes et pertinentes	7,78	3

Tableau 19: description de soi-même : contenu, pourcentage et rang des 3 premières catégories

	%	Rang
Qui sait se comporter en ami (e), qui est toujours là quand on a besoin de lui, qui est capable, qui se soucie des autres, qui tient compte des choix et des avis des autres, d'altruiste/qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami (e), qui n'est jamais là quand on a besoin de lui, qui n'est pas capable, d'égoïste, d'individualiste, qui ne se soucie pas des autres, qui ne tient aucun des choix et des avis d'autrui	7,8	1
De très communicatif, d'extraverti, de très bavard, qui monopolise les discussions, qui n'est pas timide, que l'on remarque, qui aime attirer l'attention sur lui/de peu communicatif, d'introverti, de timide, de discret, qui parle peu, que l'on ne remarque pas, qui n'aime pas attirer l'attention sur lui	6,68	2
De sympathique, d'agréable, d'amical, de très sociable, auprès de qui on se sent bien, qui a beaucoup d'amis, que l'on aime facilement, de chaleureux, de gentil/ d'antipathique, de désagréable, de peu amical, de peu sociable, que l'on ne cherche pas à fréquenter, que l'on aime difficilement, de froid, de méchant	6,12	3



Tableau 20: description d'une personne antipathique: contenu, pourcentage et rang des 3 premières catégories

	%	Rang
De sympathique, d'agréable, d'amical, de très sociable, auprès de qui on se sent bien, qui a beaucoup d'amis, que l'on aime facilement, de chaleureux, de gentil/d'antipathique, de désagréable, de peu amical, de peu sociable, que l'on ne cherche pas à fréquenter, que l'on aime difficilement, de froid, de méchant	10,15	1
De modeste, qui n'est pas du tout orgueilleux, pas du tout prétentieux, qui sait se moquer de lui-même/de lui, d'orgueilleux, de prétentieux, d'arrogant, qui ne tolère pas la moindre plaisanterie sur lui	9,42	2
Qui sait se comporter en ami (e), qui est toujours là quand on a besoin de lui, qui est fiable, qui se soucie des autres, qui tient compte des choix et des avis des autres, d'altruiste/qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami (e), qui n'est jamais là quand on a besoin de lui, qui n'est pas fiable, d'égoïste, d'individualiste, qui ne se soucie pas des autres, qui ne tient aucun des choix et des avis d'autrui	8,33	3

La catégorie référant à l'altruisme occupe une bonne place dans les descriptions de nos sujets. Généralement, l'altruisme est une valeur encouragée par la société avec l'objectif de constituer pour les individus un vecteur motivationnel. Dans les descriptions du sympathique et de soi-même on trouve fréquemment cette dimension qui met l'accent sur la disponibilité à aider les autres (9,58 % pour le sympathique et 7,8 % pour le soi. Inversement, dans les descriptions de l'antipathique c'est l'égoïsme et l'individualisme qui domine (8,33 %).

L'agréabilité, la gentillesse, la chaleur est une autre dimension bien appréciée dans les descriptions du sympathique (10,48 %) et de soi-même (6,12 %), avec *a contrario* 10,15 % pour l'antipathique qui est alors essentiellement décrit comme manquant d'agréabilité, qui est peu amical, froid et méchant.

La catégorie qui fait référence à l'extraversion, à la communication avec les autres est utilisée dans les proportions suivantes: 6,68 % (dans les descriptions de soi), 4,79 % dans les descriptions du sympathique et 4,35 % dans les descriptions de l'antipathique (*cf.* annexe 2).

L'intelligence est une autre catégorie avec une fréquence d'apparition élevée dans les hété-descriptions. La personne sympathique est ainsi perçue comme intelligente, perspicace qui analyse bien les choses (7,78 %). Dans une étude longitudinale réalisée entre 1982 et 1997 (sur des étudiants), la dimension intelligence a respectivement occupé la 2^{ème} place (1982) puis la 1^{ère} (1997) dans une hiérarchie des 15 valeurs appréciées d'après le critère «qu'est-ce qui est important pour vous». (Ilut, 2001). Cela signifie que, pour nos sujets, qui sont étudiants, l'intelligence est une valeur bien appréciée (l'étude des valeurs individuelles peut ainsi conduire à l'identification des valeurs d'un microgroupe).

DISCUSSION ET CONCLUSION

Les descriptions que nous avons obtenues mettent en évidence ce que valorise les gens dans leurs rapports sociaux. Les étudiants qui ont été interrogés dans cette étude ont mis l'accent sur «l'agréabilité» et sur «l'altruisme» dans les trois descriptions. En plus, on remarque l'utilisation fréquente de la catégorie «intelligence» dans la description d'une personne sympathique, de la catégorie «extraversion» dans la description de soi-même et de la catégorie «de fier, d'orgueilleux» dans la description d'une personne antipathique.

Srull et Gaelick (1983) ont également remarqué que les individus utilisent souvent les mêmes catégories pour décrire autrui et pour se décrire soi-même. C'est aussi le constat de Markus, Smith et Moreland (1985) qui ont observé que le jugement porté sur autrui s'effectue sur les mêmes dimensions que celles utilisées pour se juger soi-même. Ici également, nos résultats



montrent nos sujets ont généralement utilisé les mêmes catégories pour les autodescription que pour les hétéro-descriptions. On remarque cependant que les catégories utilisées pour la personne sympathique sont plus proches des catégories employées dans la description de soi que de celles employées pour décrire une personne antipathique. Cela s'observe surtout dans les versants négatifs des catégories psychologiques (tant pour les catégories directement liées aux interactions sociales que pour les catégories centrées sur soi). En ce qui concerne les indices biologiques les ressemblances concernent essentiellement la description du sympathique et de l'antipathique. Pour les indices sociologiques il n'y a pas de différences entre les trois types de descriptions.

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Annexe 1: les 54 catégories établies suite à l'analyse des 150 descriptions libres

1. son âge
2. de beau/de laid
3. d'intelligent, qui est très perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes/ qui n'est pas intelligent, qui manque de perspicacité, qui ne sait pas du tout analyser les choses, qui dit rarement des choses intéressantes et pertinentes
4. d'ambitieux, qui aime les défis et la compétition/ qui n'est pas ambitieux, qui n'aime ni les défis ni la compétition
5. qui accepte facilement les personnes différentes de lui, qui ne critique jamais les autres, qui semble apprécier tout le monde, qui pardonne facilement les défauts des autres/ qui n'accepte pas les étrangers ni les personnes différentes de lui, qui critique toujours les autres, qui semble n'apprécier personne, qui ne tolère pas les défauts des autres
6. de franc, de sincère, en qui on peut avoir confiance, qui respecte ses promesses, de bonne foi/ de dissimulateur, qui manque de franchise, en qui on ne peut pas avoir confiance, qui ne respecte pas ses promesses, de mauvaise foi
7. de moralement scrupuleux, de loyal, qui ne manipule jamais les gens/ d'arriviste, qui est sans scrupules, capable de tout pour atteindre ses objectifs, qui manipule les gens, qui profite d'eux
8. qui sait se comporter en ami (e), qui est toujours là quand on a besoin de lui, qui est fiable, qui se soucie des autres, qui tient compte des choix et des avis des autres, d'altruiste/ qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami (e), qui n'est jamais là quand on a besoin de lui, qui n'est pas fiable, d'égoïste, d'individualiste, qui ne se soucie pas des autres, qui ne tient aucun compte des choix et des avis d'autrui
9. de sensible/ d'insensible
10. qui n'est jamais ironique ou sarcastique avec autres/ qui est souvent ironique et sarcastique avec les autres
11. de bien élevé, qui dit toujours bonjour, qui parle toujours de manière convenable, sans jamais employer de mots d'argot ni dire de grossièretés/ de mal élevé, qui ne dit jamais bonjour,

**Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie**

qui emploie beaucoup de mots d'argot, qui dit souvent des grossièretés

12. sa profession

13. de paresseux, qui n'est pas travailleur, qui n'est pas persévérant, pas consciencieux, qui va rarement au bout de ce qu'il commence, qui se contente de peu, de peu exigeant/ de travailleur, qui n'est jamais paresseux, de persévérant, consciencieux, qui va au bout de ce qu'il commence, d'exigeant, de perfectionniste

14. d'optimiste, qui a un tempérament gai, qui aime la vie et tente de profiter de toutes les joies et de tous les bonheurs qu'elle peut procurer/ de pessimiste, qui a un tempérament triste, avec beaucoup de principes, qui n'ose pas ou ne sait pas profiter de la vie

15. de sympathique, d'agréable, d'amical, de très sociable, auprès de qui on se sent bien, qui a beaucoup d'amis, que l'on aime facilement, de chaleureux, de gentil/ d'antipathique, de désagréable, de peu amical, de peu sociable, que l'on ne cherche pas à fréquenter, que l'on aime difficilement, de froid, de méchant

16. ses loisirs et ses centres d'intérêt

17. qui est né et qui habite dans une grande ville/ qui est né et qui habite dans un village

18. de très communicatif, d'extraverti, de très bavard, qui monopolise les discussions, qui n'est pas timide, que l'on remarque, qui aime attirer l'attention sur lui / de peu communicatif, d'introverti, de timide, de discret, qui parle peu, que l'on ne remarque pas, qui n'aime pas attirer l'attention sur lui

19. qui plaisante souvent, qui rit facilement aux plaisanteries des autres/ qui plaisante rarement, qui rit rarement

20. de modeste, qui n'est pas du tout orgueilleux, pas du tout prétentieux, qui sait se moquer de lui-même/ de fier, d'orgueilleux, de prétentieux, d'arrogant, qui ne tolère pas la moindre plaisanterie sur lui

21. son apparence physique

22. qui ne juge pas les gens sur leur apparence, qui n'a pas de préjugés, qui ne catalogue pas les gens / qui juge les gens sur leur apparence, qui a beaucoup de préjugés, qui catalogue les gens

23. qui fait facilement confiance, qui se confie facilement, qui parle facilement de lui, qui n'essaie de cacher ses sentiments ni ce qu'il ressent / qui ne se confie jamais, qui ne dévoile jamais rien sur lui, qui n'essaie pas de cacher ses sentiments et ce qu'il ressent

24. de calme, de tranquille, de pondéré, qui n'est jamais pressé, jamais impatient/ qui est excessif, agité, qui déteste perdre son temps, qui est toujours pressé, toujours impatient, qui déteste attendre

25. qui veut toujours tout, même l'impossible/ qui adapte ses désirs à ses possibilités

26. qui s'intègre facilement / qui s'intègre difficilement

27. de très organisé / de peu organisé

28. qui a peu de défauts, qui ne fume pas, qui ne boit pas / qui a beaucoup de défauts, qui fume, qui boit

29. qui a beaucoup de compétences, qui apprend bien, qui a de bons résultats à l'université /qui a peu de compétences, qui n'a pas des bons résultats

30. de coquet, toujours à la mode / de pas du tout coquet, qui ne se préoccupe pas de suivre la mode

31. qui parle de manière très coulée, en liant bien les mots et les phrases / qui parle de manière très saccadée

32. qui mène une vie bien réglée / qui mène une vie dissolue, superficielle

33. qui donne de bons conseils, qui écoute et essaie de comprendre les autres, qui a du bon sens / qui ne sait pas conseiller les gens, qui n'écoute pas les autres, qui n'essaie pas de les comprendre, qui manque de bon sens



34. qui a bon goût / qui a mauvais goût
35. qui a su dépasser ses problèmes, qui a trouvé sa voie, qui a une image nette de lui-même, qui est autonome, responsable / qui n'a pas encore pu résoudre ses problèmes, qui n'a pas encore trouvé sa voie, qui a une image confuse de lui-même, qui manque de confiance en lui, qui n'est pas très autonome
36. avec qui il est facile d'être d'accord / avec qui il est difficile d'être d'accord
37. qui n'est pas du tout cancanier, qui ne diffuse pas de ragots, qui sait garder un secret / qui est cancanier, qui diffuse des ragots, qui ne sait pas tenir sa langue, qui ne sait pas garder un secret
38. de têtu, qui change rarement d'opinion, qui ne tolère pas d'avoir tort, de catégorique, de peu flexible / de flexible, qui n'est pas du tout têtu, qui accepte facilement de changer d'opinion, qui accepte d'avoir tort, qui reconnaît ses erreurs et ses défauts
39. qui est toujours ponctuel / qui n'est jamais ponctuel
40. qui ne cherche pas toujours à tout savoir, qui ne cherche pas à analyser les gens / qui veut toujours tout savoir, qui est inquisiteur, indiscret, qui aime bien analyser les gens
41. de stimulant, de dynamique, qui va de l'avant, qui est toujours ouvert à la nouveauté, qui n'a peur de rien, qui sait toujours se débrouiller, qui s'adapte facilement / de peu stimulant, qui manque de dynamisme, de courage, qui a peur de tout, qui n'arrive jamais à se débrouiller, qui s'adapte difficilement
42. de profond, qui croit au spirituel / de superficiel, de léger
43. qui aime avoir des amis, qui n'aime pas la solitude / que le manque d'amis ne dérange pas, qui aime la solitude;
44. de très envieux/qui n'est jamais envieux des autres
45. qui a une forte personnalité, qui a des idées bien à lui, qui arrive toujours à s'imposer, qui est autoritaire/qui a peu de personnalité, qui est effacé, qui n'arrive pas à s'imposer, qui n'est pas du tout autoritaire, qui répète les opinions des autres
46. de rêveur, d'idéaliste, qui a beaucoup d'illusions /de réaliste
47. qui a un caractère spécial, particulier, inhabituel, difficile à comprendre/qui a un caractère standard, sans particularités, facile à comprendre
48. qui a beaucoup d'imagination/qui a peu d'imagination
49. qui a eu une enfance heureuse, qui a eu une vie heureuse/qui a eu une enfance malheureuse, qui a eu une vie malheureuse
50. son milieu social
51. de direct, qui ne prend pas de gants pour dire les choses/de diplomate, qui prend des gants pour dire les choses
52. son prénom
53. son sexe
54. qui est puéril/qui est mature

Annexe 2: catégories obtenues dans chacune des 3 descriptions

Numéro attribué	Catégories de description d'une personne sympathique	Fq	%	Rang
15	de sympathique, d'agréable, d'amical, de très sociable, auprès de qui on se sent bien, qui a beaucoup d'amis, que l'on aime facilement, de chaleureux, de gentil/d'antipathique, de désagréable, de peu amical, de peu sociable, que l'on ne cherche pas à fréquenter, que l'on aime difficilement, de froid, de méchant	35	10,48	1
8.	qui sait se comporter en ami (e), qui est toujours là quand on a besoin de lui, qui est fiable, qui se soucie des autres, qui tient compte des choix et des avis des autres, d'altruiste/qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami (e), qui n'est jamais là quand on a besoin de lui, qui n'est pas fiable, d'égoïste, d'individualiste, qui ne se soucie pas des autres, qui ne tient aucun compte des choix et des avis d'autrui	32	9,58	2
3	d'intelligent, qui est très perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes/qui n'est pas intelligent, qui manque de perspicacité, qui ne sait pas du tout analyser les choses, qui dit rarement des choses intéressantes et pertinentes	26	7,78	3
21	son apparence physique	22	6,58	4
19	qui plaisante souvent, qui rit facilement aux plaisanteries des autres/qui plaisante rarement, qui rit rarement	19	5,68	5
41	de stimulant, de dynamique, qui va de l'avant, qui est toujours ouvert à la nouveauté, qui n'a peur de rien, qui sait toujours se débrouiller, qui s'adapte facilement/de peu stimulant, qui manque de dynamisme, de courage, qui a peur de tout, qui n'arrive jamais à se débrouiller, qui s'adapte difficilement	18	5,38	6
18.	de très communicatif, d'extraverti, de très bavard, qui monopolise les discussions, qui n'est pas timide, que l'on remarque, qui aime attirer l'attention sur lui/de peu communicatif, d'introverti, de timide, de discret, qui parle peu, que l'on ne remarque pas, qui n'aime pas attirer l'attention sur lui	16	4,79	7
6	de franc, de sincère, en qui on peut avoir confiance, qui respecte ses promesses, de bonne foi/de dissimulateur, qui manque de franchise, en qui on ne peut pas avoir confiance, qui ne respecte pas ses promesses, de mauvaise foi	12	3,59	8
13.	de paresseux, qui n'est pas travailleur, qui n'est pas persévérant, pas consciencieux, qui va rarement au bout de ce qu'il commence, qui se contente de peu, de peu exigeant/de travailleur, qui n'est jamais paresseux, de persévérant, consciencieux, qui va au bout de ce qu'il commence, d'exigeant, de perfectionniste	12	3,59	9
14	d'optimiste, qui a un tempérament gai, qui aime la vie et tente de profiter de toutes les joies et de tous les bonheurs qu'elle peut procurer/de pessimiste, qui a un tempérament triste, avec beaucoup de principes, qui n'ose pas ou ne sait pas profiter de la vie	12	3,59	10
7	de moralement scrupuleux, de loyal, qui ne manipule jamais les gens/d'arriviste, qui est sans scrupules, capable de tout pour atteindre ses objectifs, qui manipule les gens, qui profite d'eux	11	3,29	11
29	qui a beaucoup de compétences, qui apprend bien, qui a des bons résultats à l'université /qui a peu de compétences, qui n'a pas de bons résultats	10	2,99	12
33	qui donne de bons conseils, qui écoute et essaie de comprendre les autres, qui a du bon sens/qui ne sait pas conseiller les gens, qui n'écoute pas les autres, qui n'essaie pas de les comprendre, qui manque de bon sens	9	2,69	13
2	de beau/de laid	7	2,09	14
4	d'ambitieux, qui aime les défis et la compétition/qui n'est pas ambitieux, qui n'aime ni les défis ni la compétition	7	2,09	15
20	de modeste, qui n'est pas du tout orgueilleux, pas du tout prétentieux, qui sait se moquer de lui-même/de fier, d'orgueilleux, de prétentieux, d'arrogant, qui ne tolère pas la moindre plaisanterie sur lui	7	2,09	16
45	qui a une forte personnalité, qui a des idées bien à lui, qui arrive toujours à s'imposer, qui est autoritaire/qui a peu de personnalité, qui est effacé, qui n'arrive pas à s'imposer, qui n'est pas du tout autoritaire, qui répète les opinions des autres	7	2,09	17
16	Porte sur ses loisirs et ses centres d'intérêt	5	1,50	18
38	de têtu, qui change rarement d'opinion, qui ne tolère pas d'avoir tort, de catégorique, de peu flexible/de flexible, qui n'est pas du tout têtu, qui accepte facilement de changer d'opinion, qui accepte d'avoir tort, qui reconnaît ses erreurs et ses défauts	5	1,50	19
53	Sexe	5	1,50	20
1	son âge	4	1,20	21
5.	qui accepte facilement les personnes différentes de lui, qui ne critique jamais les autres, qui semble apprécier tout le monde, qui pardonne facilement les défauts des autres/qui n'accepte pas les étrangers ni les personnes différentes de lui, qui critique toujours les autres, qui semble n'apprécier personne, qui ne tolère pas les défauts des autres	4	1,20	22
9	de sensible/d'insensible	4	1,20	23
24	de calme, de tranquille, de pondéré, qui n'est jamais pressé, jamais impatient/qui est excessif, agité, qui déteste perdre son temps, qui est toujours pressé, toujours impatient, qui déteste attendre	4	1,20	24



28	qui a peu de défauts, qui ne fume pas, qui ne bois pas/qui a beaucoup de défauts, qui fume, qui bois	4	1,20	25
35	qui a su dépasser ses problèmes, qui a trouvé sa voie, qui a une image nette de lui-même, qui est autonome, responsable/qui n'a pas encore pu résoudre ses problèmes, qui n'a pas encore trouvé sa voie, qui a une image confuse de lui-même, qui manque de confiance en lui, qui n'est pas très autonome	4	1,20	26
11	de bien élevé, qui dit toujours bonjour, qui parle toujours de manière convenable, sans jamais employer de mots d'argot ni dire de grossièretés/de mal élevé, qui ne dit jamais bonjour, qui emploie beaucoup de mots d'argot, qui dit souvent des grossièretés	3	0,90	27
39	qui est toujours ponctuel/qui n'est jamais ponctuel	3	0,90	28
12	sa profession	2	0,60	29
26	qui s'intègre facilement/qui s'intègre difficilement	2	0,60	30
27	de très organisé/de peu organisé	2	0,60	31
34	qui a bon goût /qui a mauvais goût	2	0,60	32
36	Avec qui il est facile d'être d'accord /avec qui il est difficile d'être d'accord	2	0,60	33
37	qui n'est pas du tout cancanier, qui ne diffuse pas de ragots, qui sait garder un secret/qui est cancanier, qui diffuse des ragots, qui ne sait pas tenir sa langue, qui ne sait pas garder un secret	2	0,60	34
46	de rêveur, d'idéaliste, qui a beaucoup d'illusions /de réaliste	2	0,60	35
47	qui a un caractère spécial, particulier, inhabituel, difficile à comprendre/qui a un caractère standard, sans particularités, facile à comprendre	2	0,60	36
48	qui a beaucoup d'imagination/qui a peu d'imagination	2	0,60	37
51	de direct, qui ne prend pas de gants pour dire les choses/de diplomate, qui prend des gants pour dire les choses	2	0,60	38
17	qui est né et qui habite dans une grande ville/qui est né et qui habite dans un village	1	0,30	39
22	qui ne juge pas les gens sur leur apparence, qui n'a pas de préjugés, qui ne catalogue pas les gens/qui juge les gens sur leur apparence, qui a beaucoup de préjugés, qui catalogue les gens	1	0,30	40
23	qui fait facilement confiance, qui se confie facilement, qui parle facilement de lui, qui n'essaie de cacher ses sentiments ni ce qu'il ressent /qui ne se confie jamais, qui ne dévoile jamais rien sur lui, qui n'essaie pas de cacher ses sentiments et ce qu'il ressent	1	0,30	41
40	qui ne cherche pas toujours à tout savoir, qui ne cherche pas à analyser les gens/qui veut toujours tout savoir, qui est inquisiteur, indiscret, qui aime bien analyser les gens	1	0,30	42
42	de profond, qui croit au spirituel/de superficiel, de léger	1	0,30	43
49	qui a eu une enfance heureuse, qui a eu une vie heureuse/qui a eu une enfance malheureuse, qui a eu une vie malheureuse	1	0,30	44
54	qui est puéril/qui est mature	1	0,30	45
10	qui n'est jamais ironique ou sarcastique avec les autres/qui est souvent ironique et sarcastique avec les autres	0	0,00	
25	qui veut toujours tout, même l'impossible/qui adapte ses désirs à ses possibilités	0	0,00	
30	de coquet, toujours à la mode /de pas du tout coquet, qui ne se préoccupe pas de suivre la mode	0	0,00	
31	qui parle de manière très coulée, en liant bien les mots et les phrases/qui parle de manière très saccadée	0	0,00	
32	qui mène une vie bien réglée/qui mène une vie dissolue, superficielle	0	0,00	
43	qui aime avoir des amis, qui n'aime pas la solitude/que le manque d'amis ne dérange pas, qui aime la solitude ;	0	0,00	
44	de très envieux/qui n'est jamais envieux des autres	0	0,00	
50	son milieu social	0	0,00	
52	son prénom	0	0,00	
		334	99,9	

Numéro attribué	Catégories de description d'une personne antipathique	Fq	%	Rang
15	de sympathique, d'agréable, d'amical, de très sociable, auprès de qui on se sent bien, qui a beaucoup d'amis, que l'on aime facilement, de chaleureux, de gentil/d'antipathique, de désagréable, de peu amical, de peu sociable, que l'on ne cherche pas à fréquenter, que l'on aime difficilement, de froid, de méchant	28	10,15	1
20	de modeste, qui n'est pas du tout orgueilleux, de pas du tout prétentieux, qui sait se moquer de lui-même/de fier, d'orgueilleux, de prétentieux, d'arrogant, qui ne tolère pas la moindre plaisanterie sur lui	26	9,41	2
8	qui sait se comporter en ami (e), qui est toujours là quand on a besoin de lui, qui est fiable, qui se soucie des autres, qui tient compte des choix et des avis des autres, d'altruiste/qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami (e), qui n'est jamais là quand on a besoin de lui, qui n'est pas fiable, d'égoïste, d'individualiste, qui ne se soucie pas des autres, qui ne tient aucun compte des choix et des avis d'autrui	23	8,33	3



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

3	d'intelligent, qui est très perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes/qui n'est pas intelligent, qui manque de perspicacité, qui ne sait pas du tout analyser les choses, qui dit rarement des choses intéressantes et pertinentes	18	6,52	4
6	de franc, de sincère, en qui on peut avoir confiance, qui respecte ses promesses, de bonne foi/de dissimulateur, qui manque de franchise, en qui on ne peut pas avoir confiance, qui ne respecte pas ses promesses, de mauvaise foi	17	6,15	5
7	de moralement scrupuleux, de loyal, qui ne manipule jamais les gens/d'arriviste, qui est sans scrupules, capable de tout pour atteindre ses objectifs, qui manipule les gens, qui profite d'eux	17	6,15	6
5	qui accepte facilement les personnes différentes de lui, qui ne critique jamais les autres, qui semble apprécier tout le monde, qui pardonne facilement les défauts des autres/qui n'accepte pas les étrangers ni les personnes différentes de lui, qui critique toujours les autres, qui semble n'apprécier personne, qui ne tolère pas les défauts des autres	14	5,07	7
18	de très communicatif, d'extraverti, de très bavard, qui monopolise les discussions, qui n'est pas timide, que l'on remarque, qui aime attirer l'attention sur lui/de peu communicatif, d'introverti, de timide, de discret, qui parle peu, que l'on ne remarque pas, qui n'aime pas attirer l'attention sur lui	12	4,35	8
11	de bien élevé, qui dit toujours bonjour, qui parle toujours de manière convenable, sans jamais employer de mots d'argot ni dire de grossièretés/de mal élevé, qui ne dit jamais bonjour, qui emploie beaucoup de mots d'argot, qui dit souvent des grossièretés	10	3,62	9
21	son apparence physique	10	3,62	10
10	qui n'est jamais ironique ou sarcastique avec autres/qui est souvent ironique et sarcastique avec les autres	6	2,17	11
13	de paresseux, qui n'est pas travailleur, qui n'est pas persévérant, pas consciencieux, qui va rarement au bout de ce qu'il commence, qui se contente de peu, de peu exigeant/de travailleur, qui n'est jamais paresseux, de persévérant, consciencieux, qui va au bout de ce qu'il commence, d'exigeant, de perfectionniste	5	1,81	12
2	de beau/de laid	4	1,45	13
24	de calme, de tranquille, de pondéré, qui n'est jamais pressé, jamais impatient/qui est excessif, agité, qui déteste perdre son temps, qui est toujours pressé, toujours impatient, qui déteste attendre	4	1,45	14
28	qui a peu de défauts, qui ne fume pas, qui ne boit pas/qui a beaucoup de défauts, qui fume, qui boit	4	1,45	15
29	qui a beaucoup de compétences, qui apprend bien, qui a de bons résultats à l'université /qui a peu de compétences, qui n'a pas de bons résultats	4	1,45	16
38	de têtu, qui change rarement d'opinion, qui ne tolère pas d'avoir tort, de catégorique, de peu flexible/de flexible, qui n'est pas du tout têtu, qui accepte facilement de changer d'opinion, qui accepte d'avoir tort, qui reconnaît ses erreurs et ses défauts	4	1,45	17
41	de stimulant, de dynamique, qui va de l'avant, qui est toujours ouvert à la nouveauté, qui n'a peur de rien, qui sait toujours se débrouiller, qui s'adapte facilement/de peu stimulant, qui manque de dynamisme, de courage, qui a peur de tout, qui n'arrive jamais à se débrouiller, qui s'adapte difficilement	4	1,45	18
42	de profond, qui croit au spirituel/de superficiel, de léger	4	1,45	19
44	de très envieux/qui n'est jamais envieux des autres	4	1,45	20
45	qui a une forte personnalité, qui a des idées bien à lui, qui arrive toujours à s'imposer, qui est autoritaire/qui a peu de personnalité, qui est effacé, qui n'arrive pas à s'imposer, qui n'est pas du tout autoritaire, qui répète les opinions des autres	4	1,45	21
47	qui a un caractère spécial, particulier, inhabituel, difficile à comprendre/qui a un caractère standard, sans particularités, facile à comprendre	4	1,45	22
12	sa profession	3	1,09	23
16	Porte sur ses loisirs et ses centres d'intérêt	3	1,09	24
23	qui fait facilement confiance, qui se confie facilement, qui parle facilement de lui, qui n'essaie de cacher ses sentiments ni ce qu'il ressent /qui ne se confie jamais, qui ne dévoile jamais rien sur lui, qui n'essaie pas de cacher ses sentiments et ce qu'il ressent	3	1,09	25
31	qui parle de manière très coulée, en liant bien les mots et les phrases/qui parle de manière très saccadée	3	1,09	26
35	qui a su dépasser ses problèmes, qui a trouvé sa voie, qui a une image nette de lui-même, qui est autonome, responsable/qui n'a pas encore pu résoudre ses problèmes, qui n'a pas encore trouvé sa voie, qui a une image confuse de lui-même, qui manque de confiance en lui, qui n'est pas très autonome	3	1,09	27
36	Avec qui il est facile d'être d'accord /avec qui il est difficile d'être d'accord	3	1,09	28
49	qui a eu une enfance heureuse, qui a eu une vie heureuse/qui a eu une enfance malheureuse, qui a eu une vie malheureuse	3	1,09	29
50	son milieu social	3	1,09	30
53	Sexe	3	1,09	31
4	d'ambitieux, qui aime les défis et la compétition/qui n'est pas ambitieux, qui n'aime ni les défis ni la compétition	2	0,72	32



14	d'optimiste, qui a un tempérament gai, qui aime la vie et tente de profiter de toutes les joies et de tous les bonheurs qu'elle peut procurer/de pessimiste, qui a un tempérament triste, avec beaucoup de principes, qui n'ose pas ou ne sait pas profiter de la vie	2	0,72	33
22	qui ne juge pas les gens sur leur apparence, qui n'a pas de préjugés, qui ne catalogue pas les gens/qui juge les gens sur leur apparence, qui a beaucoup de préjugés, qui catalogue les gens	2	0,72	34
30	de coquet, toujours à la mode /de pas du tout coquet, qui ne se préoccupe pas de suivre la mode	2	0,72	35
32	qui mène une vie bien réglée/qui mène une vie dissolue, superficielle	2	0,72	36
34	qui a bon goût /qui a mauvais goût	2	0,72	37
37	qui n'est pas du tout cancanier, qui ne diffuse pas de ragots, qui sait garder un secret/qui est cancanier, qui diffuse des ragots, qui ne sait pas tenir sa langue, qui ne sait pas garder un secret	2	0,72	38
40	qui ne cherche pas toujours à tout savoir, qui ne cherche pas à analyser les gens/qui veut toujours tout savoir, qui est inquisiteur, indiscret, qui aime bien analyser les gens	2	0,72	39
54	qui est puéril/qui est mature	2	0,72	40
I	son âge	1	0,36	41
9	de sensible/d'insensible	1	0,36	42
19	qui plaisante souvent, qui rit facilement aux plaisanteries des autres/qui plaisante rarement, qui rit rarement	1	0,36	43
25	qui veut toujours tout, même l'impossible/qui adapte ses désirs à ses possibilités	1	0,36	44
52	son prénom	1	0,36	45
17	qui est né et qui habite dans une grande ville/qui est né et qui habite dans un village	0	0	
26	qui s'intègre facilement/qui s'intègre difficilement	0	0	
27	de très organisé/de peu organisé	0	0	
33	qui donne de bons conseils, qui écoute et essaie de comprendre les autres, qui a du bon sens/qui ne sait pas conseiller les gens, qui n'écoute pas les autres, qui n'essaie pas de les comprendre, qui manque de bon sens	0	0	
39	qui est toujours ponctuel/qui n'est jamais ponctuel	0	0	
43	qui aime avoir des amis, qui n'aime pas la solitude/que le manque d'amis ne dérange pas, qui aime la solitude ;	0	0	
46	de rêveur, d'idéaliste, qui a beaucoup d'illusions /de réaliste	0	0	
48	qui a beaucoup d'imagination/qui a peu d'imagination	0	0	
51	de direct, qui ne prend pas de gants pour dire les choses/de diplomate, qui prend des gants pour dire les choses	0	0	
		276	99,9	

Numéro attribué	Catégories de description du soi-même	Fq	%	Rang
8	qui sait se comporter en ami (e), qui est toujours là quand on a besoin de lui, qui est fiable, qui se soucie des autres, qui tient compte des choix et des avis des autres, d'altruiste/qui ne sait pas se comporter en ami (e), qui n'est jamais là quand on a besoin de lui, qui n'est pas fiable, d'égoïste, d'individualiste, qui ne se soucie pas des autres, qui ne tient aucun compte des choix et des avis d'autrui	28	7,80	1
18	de très communicatif, d'extraverti, de très bavard, qui monopolise les discussions, qui n'est pas timide, que l'on remarque, qui aime attirer l'attention sur lui/de peu communicatif, d'introverti, de timide, de discret, qui parle peu, que l'on ne remarque pas, qui n'aime pas attirer l'attention sur lui	24	6,68	2
15	de sympathique, d'agréable, d'amical, de très sociable, auprès de qui on se sent bien, qui a beaucoup d'amis, que l'on aime facilement, de chaleureux, de gentil/d'antipathique, de désagréable, de peu amical, de peu sociable, que l'on ne cherche pas à fréquenter, que l'on aime difficilement, de froid, de méchant	22	6,12	3
13	de paresseux, qui n'est pas travailleur, qui n'est pas persévérant, pas consciencieux, qui va rarement au bout de ce qu'il commence, qui se contente de peu, de peu exigeant/de travailleur, qui n'est jamais paresseux, de persévérant, consciencieux, qui va au bout de ce qu'il commence, d'exigeant, de perfectionniste	20	5,56	4
14	d'optimiste, qui a un tempérament gai, qui aime la vie et tente de profiter de toutes les joies et de tous les bonheurs qu'elle peut procurer/de pessimiste, qui a un tempérament triste, avec beaucoup de principes, qui n'ose pas ou ne sait pas profiter de la vie	16	4,45	5
16	Porte sur ses loisirs et ses centres d'intérêt	15	4,17	6
41	de stimulant, de dynamique, qui va de l'avant, qui est toujours ouvert à la nouveauté, qui n'a peur de rien, qui sait toujours se débrouiller, qui s'adapte facilement/de peu stimulant, qui manque de dynamisme, de courage, qui a peur de tout, qui n'arrive jamais à se débrouiller, qui s'adapte difficilement	15	4,17	7
5	qui accepte facilement les personnes différentes de lui, qui ne critique jamais les autres, qui semble apprécier tout le monde, qui pardonne facilement les défauts des autres/qui n'accepte pas les étrangers ni les personnes différentes de lui, qui critique toujours les autres, qui semble n'apprécier personne, qui ne tolère pas les défauts des autres	14	3,89	8



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

6	de franc, de sincère, en qui on peut avoir confiance, qui respecte ses promesses, de bonne foi/de dissimulateur, qui manque de franchise, en qui on ne peut pas avoir confiance, qui ne respecte pas ses promesses, de mauvaise foi	13	3,61	9
35	qui a su dépasser ses problèmes, qui a trouvé sa voie, qui a une image nette de lui-même, qui est autonome, responsable/qui n'a pas encore pu résoudre ses problèmes, qui n'a pas encore trouvé sa voie, qui a une image confuse de lui-même, qui manque de confiance en lui, qui n'est pas très autonome	13	3,61	10
3	d'intelligent, qui est très perspicace, qui analyse bien les choses, qui dit des choses intéressantes, pertinentes/qui n'est pas intelligent, qui manque de perspicacité, qui ne sait pas du tout analyser les choses, qui dit rarement des choses intéressantes et pertinentes	12	3,34	11
24	de calme, de tranquille, de pondéré, qui n'est jamais pressé, jamais impatient/qui est excessif, agité, qui déteste perdre son temps, qui est toujours pressé, toujours impatient, qui déteste attendre	12	3,34	12
4	d'ambitieux, qui aime les défis et la compétition/qui n'est pas ambitieux, qui n'aime ni les défis ni la compétition	11	3,06	13
20	de modeste, qui n'est pas du tout orgueilleux, de pas du tout prétentieux, qui sait se moquer de lui-même/de fier, d'orgueilleux, de prétentieux, d'arrogant, qui ne tolère pas la moindre plaisanterie sur lui	10	2,78	14
21	son apparence physique	10	2,78	15
38	de têtu, qui change rarement d'opinion, qui ne tolère pas d'avoir tort, de catégorique, de peu flexible/de flexible, qui n'est pas du tout têtu, qui accepte facilement de changer d'opinion, qui accepte d'avoir tort, qui reconnaît ses erreurs et ses défauts	10	2,78	16
2	de beau/de laid	9	2,50	17
19	qui plaisante souvent, qui rit facilement aux plaisanteries des autres/qui plaisante rarement, qui rit rarement	9	2,50	18
7	de moralement scrupuleux, de loyal, qui ne manipule jamais les gens/d'arriviste, qui est sans scrupules, capable de tout pour atteindre ses objectifs, qui manipule les gens, qui profite d'eux	8	2,22	19
23	qui fait facilement confiance, qui se confie facilement, qui parle facilement de lui, qui n'essaie de cacher ses sentiments ni ce qu'il ressent /qui ne se confie jamais, qui ne dévoile jamais rien sur lui, qui n'essaie pas de cacher ses sentiments et ce qu'il ressent	8	2,22	20
9	de sensible/d'insensible	7	1,95	21
42	de profond, qui croit au spirituel/de superficiel, de léger	6	1,67	22
46	de rêveur, d'idéaliste, qui a beaucoup d'illusions /de réaliste	6	1,67	23
39	qui est toujours ponctuel/qui n'est jamais ponctuel	5	1,39	24
43	qui aime avoir des amis, qui n'aime pas la solitude/que le manque d'amis ne dérange pas, qui aime la solitude ;	5	1,39	25
45	qui a une forte personnalité, qui a des idées bien à lui, qui arrive toujours à s'imposer, qui est autoritaire/qui a peu de personnalité, qui est effacé, qui n'arrive pas à s'imposer, qui n'est pas du tout autoritaire, qui répète les opinions des autres	5	1,39	26
26	qui s'intègre facilement/qui s'intègre difficilement	4	1,11	27
29	qui a beaucoup de compétences, qui apprend bien, qui a des bons résultats à l'université /qui a peu de compétences, qui n'a pas des bons résultats	4	1,11	28
1	son âge	3	0,83	29
10	qui n'est jamais ironique ou sarcastique avec autres/qui est souvent ironique et sarcastique avec les autres	3	0,83	30
11	de bien élevé, qui dit toujours bonjour, qui parle toujours de manière convenable, sans jamais employer de mots d'argot ni dire de grossièretés/de mal élevé, qui ne dit jamais bonjour, qui emploie beaucoup de mots d'argot, qui dit souvent des grossièretés	3	0,83	31
27	de très organisé/de peu organisé	3	0,83	32
33	qui donne de bons conseils, qui écoute et essaie de comprendre les autres, qui a du bon sens/qui ne sait pas conseiller les gens, qui n'écoute pas les autres, qui n'essaie pas de les comprendre, qui manque de bon sens	3	0,83	33
40	qui ne cherche pas toujours à tout savoir, qui ne cherche pas à analyser les gens/qui veut toujours tout savoir, qui est inquisiteur, indiscret, qui aime bien analyser les gens	3	0,83	34
12	sa profession	2	0,56	35
17	qui est né et qui habite dans une grande ville/qui est né et qui habite dans un village	2	0,56	36
25	qui veut toujours tout, même l'impossible/qui adapte ses désirs à ses possibilités	2	0,56	37
28	qui a peu de défauts, qui ne fume pas, qui ne bois pas/qui a beaucoup de défauts, qui fume, qui bois	2	0,56	38
32	qui mène une vie bien réglée/qui mène une vie dissolue, superficielle	2	0,56	39
51	de direct, qui ne prend pas de gants pour dire les choses/de diplomate, qui prend des gants pour dire les choses	2	0,56	40
22	qui ne juge pas les gens sur leur apparence, qui n'a pas de préjugés, qui ne catalogue pas les gens/qui juge les gens sur leur apparence, qui a beaucoup de préjugés, qui catalogue les gens	1	0,28	41
30	de coquet, toujours à la mode /de pas du tout coquet, qui ne se préoccupe pas de suivre la mode	1	0,28	42
36	Avec qui il est facile d'être d'accord /avec qui il est difficile d'être d'accord	1	0,28	43



47	qui a un caractère spécial, particulier, inhabituel, difficile à comprendre/qui a un caractère standard, sans particularités, facile à comprendre	1	0,28	44
49	qui a eu une enfance heureuse, qui a eu une vie heureuse/qui a eu une enfance malheureuse, qui a eu une vie malheureuse	1	0,28	45
50	son milieu social	1	0,28	46
53	sexe	1	0,28	47
54	qui est puéril/qui est mature	1	0,28	48
31	qui parle de manière très coulée, en liant bien les mots et les phrases/qui parle de manière très saccadée	0	0,00	
34	qui a bon goût /qui a mauvais goût	0	0,00	
37	qui n'est pas du tout cancanier, qui ne diffuse pas de ragots, qui sait garder un secret/qui est cancanier, qui diffuse des ragots, qui ne sait pas tenir sa langue, qui ne sait pas garder un secret	0	0,00	
44	de très envieux/qui n'est jamais envieux des autres	0	0,00	
48	qui a beaucoup d'imagination/qui a peu d'imagination	0	0,00	
52	son prénom	0	0,00	
		359	99,9	

TRAITS PSYCHOLOGIQUES DES PERSONNES AVEC DES AMPUTATIONS DES MEMBRES INFÉRIEURS

Alina-Maria MENDIAC, Gelu V. Todea (coord.)

L'association Clementina- Lugoj, La faculte du psychologie/ L'Universite Tibiscus, Timisoara, Romania
mendiacalina@yahoo.com

RÉSUMÉ

En train d'explorer la problématique des personnes avec des amputations des membres inférieurs (A.M.I.), cette étude comprend des aspects médicaux, sociaux, psychologiques d'intervention pratique pluridisciplinaire.

Cette étude veut aussi attirer l'attention sur le fait qu'il n'y a pas un réel intérêt pour un segment important de notre population- les personnes avec des amputations, les barrières, les discriminations , les problèmes que les personnes avec des handicaps physiques doivent affronter.

Les méthodes d'évaluation psychologiques ont été l'inventaire de personnalité NEO (NEO PIR) et le questionnaire tendances de désadaptation de la personnalité (TDP). On a utilisé des méthodes statistiques connues: la différence entre les moyennes, la corrélation simple.

Les sujets, choisis d'une manière aléatoire ont été 30 personnes avec des amputations des membres inférieurs ayant des prothèses montées dans le premier atelier du pays «Le Centre de prothèses et de rééducation fonctionnelle Handilug » et 30 personnes sans des amputations des membres inférieurs de Lugoj.

Sans prétendre de généraliser pour toute la population, les résultats obtenus montre des différences importantes entre les traits de personnalité des personnes avec des amputations des membres inférieurs et celles sans amputations des membres inférieurs. Structurées, ces différences peuvent former un « psycho-syndrome A.M.I. » (des réactions dépressives, timidité sociale, ouverture vers la fantaisie, ouverture vers la communication affective-émotionnelle, altruisme et motivation).

Les résultats de la recherche peuvent être utiles pour la psychodiagnose, la psychothérapie et le travail de conseiller avec les objectifs thérapeutiques suivants: s'apercevoir du schéma corporel, le développement de l'unité psycho-corporel, de l'estime de soi et de la confiance dans ses propres forces, le dépassement des blocages interrétionnels, l'encouragement de l'expression des émotions, socialisation.

Cette étude pourrait être utile aux spécialistes qui pratiquent la psychodiagnose et qui avec d'autres spécialistes (assistants sociaux, médecins, prothésistes, kinétothérapeutes) contribuent à l'intégration émotionnelle, cognitive, sociale et physique de la personne avec des amputations des membres inférieurs.

Mots-clé: *amputation, psycho-syndrome A.M.I., analyse multidisciplinaire, intégration*

REZUMAT

Explorând problematica persoanelor cu amputații de membre inferioare (A.M.I.), studiul de față surprinde aspecte medicale, sociale, psihologice de intervenție practică multidisciplinară.

Studiul de față vrea să fie și un semnal de alarmă pentru lipsa preocupării față de un segment important al populației noastre – persoanele cu amputații, de a aduce în centrul atenției barierele, discriminările și problemele cu care se confruntă persoanele cu dizabilități. Implicarea activă a specialiștilor în prevenție, tratament și readaptare, ar putea duce la îmbunătățirea calității vieții acestor persoane.

Metodele de evaluare psihologică utilizate au fost inventarul de personalitate NEO (NEO PI-R) și chestionarul tendințe de dezadaptare a personalității (TDP). S-au utilizat metode statistice cunoscute: diferența dintre medii, corelația simplă.

Subiecții, selectați aleator, au fost 30 persoane cu amputații de membre inferioare, protezați la primul atelier din țară „Centrul de protezare și reeducare funcțională Handilug” și 30 persoane fără amputații de membre inferioare din Lugoj.

Rezultatele obținute, fără pretenția de generalizare pe întreaga populație, arată diferențe semnificative între trăsături de personalitate ale persoanelor cu amputații de membre inferioare și cele fără amputații de membre inferioare. Structurate, aceste diferențe se pot constitui într-un „psiho - sindrom A.M.I.” (reacții depresive, timiditate socială, deschidere spre fantazie, deschiderea spre comunicare afectiv-emoțională,

altruism și motivație)

Rezultatele cercetării pot fi utile în psihodiagnoză, psihoterapie și consiliere, având ca obiective terapeutice: conștientizarea schemei corporale, dezvoltarea unității psiho-corporale, creșterea stimei de sine și a încrederii în forțele proprii, depășirea blocajelor interrelaționale, încurajarea exprimării emoțiilor, socializare.

Acest studiu ar putea fi util specialiștilor care fac psiho-diagnoza și care, împreună cu alți specialiști (asistenți sociali, medici, proteziști, kinetoterapeuți) contribuie la integrarea emoțională, cognitivă, socială și fizică a persoanei cu amputații de membre inferioare.

Cuvinte cheie: amputație, psiho-sindrom A.M.I., abordare multidisciplinară, integrare

Argument

L'amputation a toujours été un problème universel.

En Roumanie, le gouvernement au niveau central et l'administration au niveau local ne respectent pas les lois concernant l'accès des personnes handicapées. Les personnes avec des amputations ne sont pas toutes enregistrées, il y en a encore "cachées" au domicile (nombre inconnu). Comment est-ce que la politique actuelle de la Roumanie visant la reconnaissance des droits de l'homme envisage cette situation?

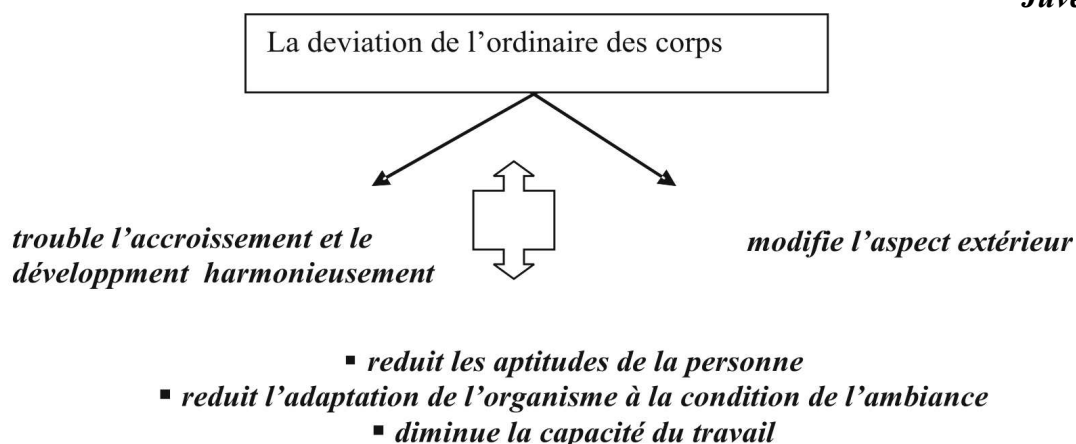
L'Organisation des Nations Unies (ONU), Disabled People International (D.P.I.), L'Union européenne par European Disability Forum (E.D.F.) et beaucoup d'autres organisations internationales, accordent constamment une attention particulière à la problématique du handicap, en reconnaissant le fait que ces personnes aux handicaps existent partout dans le monde et à tous les niveaux de la société. Conformément aux statistiques de l'ONU et aux études de l'Organisation Mondiale de la Santé le nombre de ces personnes représente plus de 10% de la population de tout pays.

Le fait que, à présent, on ne connaît pas le nombre réel et les problèmes de ce segment social constitue un motif d'inquiétude. Les informations parviennent tout d'abord des patients qui ont passé par le système de santé roumain et ont été confrontés les premiers à sa déficience.

1. LES BASES THEORIQUES

"Mens sana in corpore sano" – "Sain esprit en sain corps."

Juvenal



L' amputation ⇒ la perte d' un membre ou la part d'un membre
 ⇒ l'interruption sévère des capacités physiques

Nous demandons que physiques ?

Les amputations des membres inférieures (A.M.I.) sont 11 fois plus fréquent que les membres supérieures.

2. LES PREMISSES THEORIQUES

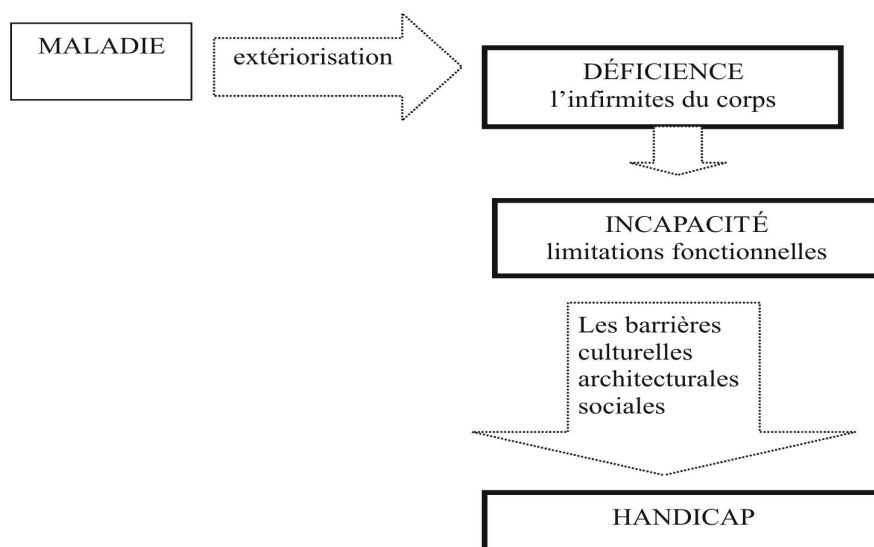


Fig. 1 Terminologie proposée par prof. H.Wood (1970)

Conformément à la Classification Internationale du Fonctionnement, Disabilité et de la Santé (CIFDS – 2001), le terme HANDICAP a été abandonné. Actuellement s'utilise le terme DISABILITÉ.

Le handicap c'est un terme générique pour l'affectations, limitations des activités et restrictions en participations.

Cette classification Internationale permet l'aborder des personnes amputées dans une perspective biopsychosociale.

3. LA MÉTHODOLOGIE DE LA RECHERCHE

3.1. Les hypothèses de la recherche

1. Il y a des différences importantes entre les traits de personnalité des personnes avec des amputations et celles sans amputations.

2. Il y a des corrélations importantes entre les tendances désadaptatives et les dimensions de personnalité,

3.2 Les objectifs de la recherche

- Évaluer le niveau du neuroticisme, de l'extraversion, de l'ouverture vers le nouveau, de l'agréabilité, de la correctitude et des facettes de ces dimensions de personnalité aux personnes avec A.M.I. et sans A.M.I.

- Évaluer le niveau de l'honnêteté, des tendances psychasténiques, des tendances dépressives, de l'imaturité et de la labilité émotionnelle, les tendances skisoïdes, revendicatives, démonstratives, psychopathoïdes, la résistance à la frustration, l'équilibre émotionnel, et la motivation aux personnes avec et sans A.M.I.

- Mesurer les différences qui existent entre les personnes avec A.M.I. et sans A.M.I. visant les dimensions de personnalité et les tendances désadaptatives.

- Établir les corrélations qui existent entre les tendances désadaptatives et les dimensions de personnalité

4. LA STRUCTURE DE L'ÉCHANTILLON

L'Échantillon de la recherche a compris 60 personnes avec A.M.I. et sans A.M.I. La répartition par sexe des sujets a été environ égale. La moyenne d'âge des sujets est de 35,9 ans.



- LOT 1- des personnes avec A.M.I., sélectionnées de façon aléatoire des personnes qui ont appelé les services du Centre des prothèses et de rééducation fonctionnelle “Handilug” de Lugoj.
- LOT 2- les personnes sans A.M.I. sélectionnées de la même façon aléatoire des employés de l’École populaire d’art et de la société “Witex” Lugoj.

5. LA PRESENTATION ET L’INTERPRETATION DES RESULTATS

Pour la vérification de la première hypothèse “ Il y a des différences importantes entre les traits de personnalité des personnes avec amputation et celles sans amputation”, l’échantillon initial a été séparé en deux lots: le 1^{er} lot formé des personnes avec A.M.I. et le 2^e lot formé des personnes sans A.M.I.. On a utilisé le test Student (t) pour des échantillons indépendants.

Tableau 1. Les différences entre les traits de personnalité et les tendances désadaptatives, des personnes avec A.M.I et des personnes sans A.M.I

Variables	LOT avec AMPUTATIONS		LOT sans AMPUTATIONS		t	p
	m_1	σ_1	m_2	σ_2		
N ₁ (anxiété)	16.36	3.89	15.60	4.33	0.72	>.05
N ₂ (hostilité)	16.83	4.16	16.10	5.47	0.58	>.05
N₃ (depression)	16.16	4.37	13.83	5.49	2.32	<.05
N₄ (timidité)	17.90	5.01	15.83	3.22	2.06	<.05
N ₅ (impulsivité)	15.66	4.17	15.10	3.88	0.54	>.05
N ₆ (vulnérabilité)	11.46	4.13	10.96	4.55	0.44	>.05
E	107.83	15.34	106.83	14.61	0.25	>.05
E ₁ (chaleur)	21.26	3.92	19.26	3.99	1.95	>.05
E ₂ (grégarité)	17.86	4.13	16.90	4.37	0.88	>.05
E ₃ (assertivité)	15.53	4.64	16.13	4.19	-0.52	>.05
E ₄ (activité)	17.03	5.58	19.03	3.71	-1.63	>.05
E ₅ (recherche sensations)	17.93	3.17	17.00	3.52	1.07	>.05
E ₆ (émotions positives)	18.40	3.49	18.76	5.41	-0.31	>.05
O	116.86	11.77	104.76	15.43	0.58	>.05
O₁ (fantaisie)	16.60	4.46	13.73	3.22	2.84	<.01
O ₂ (esthétique)	18.00	5.13	18.43	4.73	-0.34	>.05
O₃ (sentimentalisme)	16.43	3.12	18.26	3.85	-2.02	<.05
O ₄ (action)	13.53	2.99	14.30	2.14	-0.96	>.05
O ₅ (idées)	19.00	4.59	19.73	4.05	-0.65	>.05
O ₆ (val)	16.36	3.07	17.30	3.10	-1.16	>.05
A	114.73	14.86	109.53	14.49	1.37	>.05
A ₁ (confiance)	18.06	4.79	17.33	4.22	0.62	>.05
A ₂ (justice)	19.40	5.33	19.30	6.02	0.06	>.05
A₃ (altruisme)	22.50	2.95	20.30	3.80	2.50	=0.1
A ₄ (accord)	16.60	3.38	15.60	3.56	1.11	>.05
A ₅ (modestie)	16.50	3.83	16.46	4.17	0.03	>.05
A ₆ (sensibilité)	21.36	2.35	20.16	3.33	1.61	>.05
C	121.70	16.21	117.70	12.53	1.06	>.05
C ₁ (compétence)	18.26	3.70	18.66	2.49	-0.49	>.05
C ₂ (ordre)	19.50	3.88	18.30	3.58	1.24	>.05
C ₃ (devoir)	23.16	4.02	22.66	3.16	0.53	>.05
C ₄ (réussite)	21.90	3.77	20.36	3.44	1.64	>.05
C ₅ (autodiscipline)	20.10	4.22	20.16	3.33	-0.06	>.05
C ₆ (délibération)	18.96	5.44	17.70	4.14	1.01	>.05
Honneteté	1.36	0.88	1.20	0.84	0.74	>.05
Antécédents personnels	1.13	1.35	1.26	1.04	-0.42	>.05
T. psychasthéniques	3.90	2.44	3.50	1.90	0.70	>.05
T. dépressifs	2.96	2.70	2.20	2.32	1.17	>.05
Im., labilité émotionnelle	4.13	2.50	3.10	1.62	1.89	>.05
T. schizod'es	3.50	2.28	3.26	2.13	0.40	>.05
T. revendic.	2.90	2.72	2.76	2.17	0.21	>.05
T. démonstrativité	3.33	1.70	2.60	1.79	1.62	>.05
T. psychopathiques	3.50	2.16	3.96	2.41	-0.78	>.05
Compréhension verbale	1.96	1.92	1.40	1.61	1.23	>.05
Résistance à la frustration	3.10	1.58	3.63	1.56	-1.31	>.05
Equilibre émotionnel	5.83	2.13	5.16	2.27	1.17	>.05
Motivation	1.46	1.47	2.40	1.88	-2.13	<.05

m_1 - la moyenne des scores obtenus par le lot avec A.M.I.; σ_1 - écart standard des scores du lot avec A.M.I

m_2 - la moyenne des scores obtenus par le lot sans A.M.I.; σ_2 - écart standard des scores du lot sans A.M.I.

t- les différences entre les 2 lots; p –le seuil de signification des différences entre les 2 lots

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Après avoir analysé les informations de ce tableau on a observé qu'il y a des différences importantes entre les deux lots, en ce qui concerne les dimensions de la personnalité suivantes;

- dépression ($t= 2.32, p<.05$),
- timidité sociale ($t= 2.06, p<.05$),
- l'ouverture vers fantaisie ($t= 2.84, p<.01$),
- l'ouverture vers des sentiments ($t=-2.02, p<.05$),
- altruisme ($t= 2.50, p=.01$),
- motivation ($t= 2.13, p<.05$).

La première hypothèse se confirme de façon partielle parce que les différences importantes apparaissent seulement à la dépression, timidité sociale, l'ouverture vers la fantaisie, vers les sentiments, altruisme et motivation.

En ce qui concerne les autres dimensions et tendances, il y a des différences entre les deux lots, mais sans importance.

Pour vérifier la 2^e hypothèse "Il y a des corrélations importantes entre les tendances désadaptatives et les dimensions de personnalité", on a réalisé l'étude de corrélation (covariation) pour laquelle on a utilisé le test statistique r (Bravais-Pearson). On peut ainsi déterminer les relations qui existent entre les dimensions de personnalité et les tendances désadaptatives.

Tabel 2: Les coefficients de corrélation linéaire entre les tendances désadaptatives et les dimensions de personnalité mesurées

	T.psihast	T.dep	I.l.em	T.sch.	T.rev	T.dem	T.psihpat	R.fr.	Ec.em	Mot.
N	.618**	.696**	.709**	.381**	.475**	.370**	.292*	-.026	.523**	.053
	.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.023	.841	.000	.689
E	-.243	-.371**	.020	-.192	.017	.176	.201	-.102	-.054	-.310*
	.062	.004	.877	.143	.895	.177	.123	.439	.681	.016
O	.022	.093	.020	.033	.144	.139	.062	-.044	-.041	.128
	.868	.481	.879	.800	.272	.290	.635	.740	.755	.330
A	.021	.041	-.079	-.180	-.076	-.065	-.189	-.152	.040	-.236
	.875	.757	.550	.170	.565	.622	.148	.247	.759	.070
C	-.166	-.199	-.329*	-.124	-.165	-.202	-.349**	-.053	.260*	-.181
	.206	.126	.010	.374	.207	.121	.006	.685	.045	.167

** La corrélation est significative à un seuil $p<.01$

* La corrélation est significative à un seuil $p<.05$

Parce que la plupart des tendances désadaptatives se trouvent en corrélation significative avec le neuroticisme on a considéré comme nécessaire une analyse des corrélations entre les tendances désadaptatives et les facettes du neuroticisme.

Tabel 3: Les coefficients de corrélation entre les facettes du neuroticisme et les tendances désadaptatives et leurs seuils de signification

	T.psihast	T.dep	I.l.em	T.sch.	T.rev	T.dem	T.psihpat	R.fr.	Ec.em	Mot.
N1	.530**	.570**	.482**	.174	.302*	.214	.175	-.158	.367**	.021
	.000	.000	.000	.184	.019	.101	.181	.227	.004	.873
N2	.337**	.415**	.445**	.230	.378**	.112	.406**	-.158	.366**	.021
	.009	.001	.000	.076	.003	.392	.001	.227	.004	.873
N3	.477**	.608**	.573**	.359**	.471**	.417**	.150	.039	.195	.006
	.000	.000	.000	.005	.000	.001	.245	.766	.136	.965
N4	.479**	.442**	.487**	.280*	.239	.259*	.084	-.095	.462**	-.051
	.000	.000	.000	.030	.065	.046	.522	.472	.000	.700
N5	.229	.245	.437**	.263*	.183	.233	.250	.039	.355**	-.030
	.079	.059	.000	.043	.161	.073	.054	.768	.005	.819
N6	.514**	.606**	.540**	.180	.273*	.315*	.147	.184	.415**	.117
	.000	.000	.000	.168	.035	.014	.263	.160	.001	.375

** La corrélation est significative à un seuil $p<.01$

* La corrélation est significative à un seuil $p<.05$

6. CONCLUSIONS

Cette recherche relève l'existence de certaines différences entre les traits de personnalité des personnes avec A.M.I. et celles sans A.M.I. On constate donc des différences importantes entre les deux lots concernant la dépression, la timidité sociale, l'ouverture vers la fantaisie, l'ouverture vers les sentiments, l'altruisme et la motivation.

Les traits différenciés peuvent se constituer dans un psycho-syndrome A.M.I. caractérisé par:

- des sentiments de dépression, tristesse, impuissance, isolation;
- des états émotionnels de honte, gêne et inquiétude en présence des autres;
- l'évasion de la réalité en se créant un monde intérieur;
- l'ignorance de ses propres états émotionnels;
- la préoccupation pour le bien-être des autres;
- la prise en conscience des conduites et des attitudes imposées par la société, mais manifestation de comportement plus difficile.

Les résultats obtenus, sans prétendre de les généraliser pour toute la population avec A.M.I. sont utiles pour la psychodiagnose de certains cas pareils et peuvent constituer des points de référence pour l'élaboration des modèles et des méthodes de travail nouvelles qui contribuent à l'intégration active des personnes avec A.M.I.

5.1 Des utilisations pratiques

Cet ouvrage représente l'intervention pratique du psychologue dans le Centre des prothèses et rééducation fonctionnelle "Handilug" de Lugoj. La technologie moderne, les matériaux de qualité supérieure utilisés dans ce centre, **complétés par une assistance psychologique individualisée peuvent mener à l'amélioration et la diversification des services offerts.**

L'activité de psychothérapie et de récupération pour l'intégration des personnes avec A.M.I. fait part d'un programme complexe, où un rôle important est occupé par ***l'intervention de l'équipe multidisciplinaire de récupération.***

L'implication active des spécialistes en prévention, traitement et réadaptation pourrait mener à l'amélioration de la qualité de la vie.

Les résultats de la recherche peuvent être utiles pour la psychodiagnose, psychothérapie et les conseils ayant comme objectifs thérapeutiques: la prise en conscience du schéma corporel, le développement de l'unité psychocorporelle, l'augmentation de l'estime de soi et de la confiance en propres forces, le dépassement des blocages interrelationnels, l'encouragement à exprimer ses émotions, socialisation.

5.2. Des limites et de nouvelles directions de poursuivre la recherche

La recherche a ses limites.

On n'a pas pris en considération les influences que pourraient avoir:

- La cause de l'amputation (maladie ou traumatisme)'
- Le niveau de l'amputation,
- Le type et la qualité de la prothèse,
- Le sexe, l'âge, le statut socio-professionnel.

Il serait intéressant de comparer les informations test aux informations anamnestiques, d'élaborer d'autres études visant de façon directe les tendances anxieuses, dépressives, les réactions émotionnelles après l'amputation, l'estime de soi.

La personnalité des personnes avec amputations de membres inférieurs est un aspect qui nécessite une étude continue.

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DE L'EFFET DU CONTEXTE SUR LA VARIABILITÉ INTRA-INDIVIDUELLE DES RÉPONSES AU BIG FIVE

Daniel PASQUIER¹, Bernard GANGLOFF²

¹ Avenir & Entreprise, laborator P.R.I.S. Université de Rouen (France).

dpasquier@avenirentreprise.fr

² Laborator PRIS Université de Rouen (France); Université de Paraiba (Brésil).

bernard.gangloff@univ-rouen.fr

RÉSUMÉ

Les psychologues caractérisent souvent les individus par des traits de personnalité. C'est-à-dire qu'ils observent des comportements, ou bien ils analysent les descripteurs langagiers des comportements puis, de cette observation ou de cette analyse, ils infèrent des traits de personnalité qu'ils attribuent aux individus. Ils en infèrent le plus souvent cinq traits, puisqu'actuellement le modèle des traits le plus utilisé est le modèle en cinq facteurs (le Big Five), modèle considérant que les individus peuvent être caractérisés, de manière stable à travers le temps et les situations, par cinq dimensions bipolaires et indépendantes.

Nous nous sommes ici demandés si l'accent ainsi mis sur l'acteur ne constituait pas une occultation illégitime d'un éventuel effet du contexte. C'est-à-dire que nous avons voulu savoir si les conduites référant aux dimensions du modèle en cinq facteurs étaient effectivement stables, quel que soit le contexte situationnel.

Nous avons utilisé 100 adjectifs référant aux 5 dimensions du modèle en cinq facteurs (10 adjectifs pour chacun des 2 pôles des 5 dimensions) et demandé à 37 hommes et femmes de réaliser, à partir de ces adjectifs, 5 autodescriptions (format Q-sort). L'opérationnalisation de la variation du contexte a consisté à proposer à nos sujets, pour chacune des 5 autodescriptions, une situation particulière dans laquelle ils devaient s'imaginer.

Après une présentation du questionnaire et de la procédure utilisés, nous indiquerons les principaux résultats obtenus, ce qui nous permettra de questionner la validité des inférences psychologiques tirées des questionnaires de personnalité.

Mots clés: big five, variabilité, contexte, psychologisation.

REZUMAT

Psihologii caracterizează adesea indivizii cu ajutorul trăsăturilor de personalitate. Adică, ei observă comportamente sau analizează descriptori verbali ai comportamentelor; și apoi, plecând de la această observație sau analiză, inferează trăsături de personalitate pe care le atribuie indivizilor. Cel mai frecvent, ei inferează cinci trăsături, pentru că modelul cel mai utilizat, acum, este modelul celor cinci factori (Big Five) în care se consideră că indivizii pot fi caracterizați, de o manieră stabilă de-a lungul timpului și situațiilor, prin intermediul a cinci dimensiuni bipolare și independente.

Noi ne întrebăm în această lucrare dacă accentul pus pe actor nu constituie o ocultare ilegală a vreunui eventual efect de context. Adică, am vrut să știm dacă conduitele referitoare la dimensiunile modelului celor cinci factori sunt efectiv stabile, indiferent de contextul situațional.

Am utilizat 100 de adjective referitoare la cele 5 dimensiuni ale modelului în cinci factori (10 adjective pentru fiecare din cei doi poli ai celor 5 dimensiuni) și am cerut unui grup de 37 bărbați și femei, să realizeze, plecând de la aceste adjective, 5 autodescrieri (format Q-sort). Operaționalizarea variației contextului a constat în a propune subiecților noștri, pentru fiecare din cele 5 autodescrieri, o situație particulară în care ei trebuiau să se imagineze.

După o prezentare a chestionarului și a procedurii utilizate, vă prezentăm principalele rezultate obținute, ceea ce ne va permite să chestionăm validitatea inferențelor psihologice deduse din chestionarele de personalitate.

Cuvinte cheie: variabilitate, context, psihologizare

1. INTRODUCTION

Le modèle des cinq facteurs -M.C.F.- s'appuie sur l'idée selon laquelle le langage serait, d'une façon générale, le reflet de différenciations psychologiques. Cette approche psycholinguistique pose en effet comme hypothèse générique que: «...les différences individuelles les plus importantes dans les transactions humaines viendront à être encodées comme des termes singuliers dans l'un ou dans tous les langages du monde» (Golberg, 1990, p. 1216)¹.

Cette idée reste cependant insuffisante pour utiliser les mots dans un outil d'évaluation de la personnalité. Dans la mesure où évaluer sert à prévoir, il faut y ajouter une autre condition: celle de la stabilité de ces différenciations au niveau d'une même personne à travers le temps et les différents contextes situationnels². En ce sens, Costa & McCrae affirment que «...trois cinquièmes de la variance des scores vrais pour les traits de personnalité sont stables durant toute la vie adulte» (1994, p. 33)³. Pervin contredit cette affirmation et postule que: «Les individus ont des patrons de stabilité et de changement dans leur comportement, à la fois au fil du temps et au travers des situations» (Pervin, 1994, p. 110)⁴.

Cette communication s'intéressera à la variabilité intra-individuelle de l'image que les gens se font d'eux-mêmes lorsqu'on les invite à s'imaginer dans différentes situations. L'hypothèse générale de cette étude, qui s'inscrit plutôt dans la perspective de Pervin, postule que par le moyen de la contextualisation d'une consigne auto-descriptive, on peut orienter le profil de réponse dans la direction induite par cette contextualisation. L'incidence du biais de désirabilité sociale est également envisagé.

La discussion essaiera de tirer les conséquences des résultats obtenus au niveau de l'interprétation des résultats des questionnaires auto-descriptifs.

2. MÉTHODE

2.1. Le questionnaire utilisé

Le questionnaire utilisé est un questionnaire original élaboré selon les principes méthodologiques du *Q-sorting*⁵ élaborés par Stephenson (1935a, 1935b) afin d'évaluer les faits mentaux qui relèvent de la subjectivité. Ce type de format de réponse se caractérise par une distribution forcée des réponses, généralement d'une forme gaussienne⁶.

Dans le questionnaire utilisé, les répondants avaient à classer 100 descripteurs (en l'occurrence 100 adjectifs⁷) en sept classes, et selon des effectifs à respecter: dans un premier temps, expression des choix par «5 adjectifs qui vous décrivent **le mieux**» -choix cotés 7 points-; «11 adjectifs qui vous décrivent **bien**» -choix cotés 6 points-; «21 adjectifs qui vous décrivent **assez bien**» -choix cotés 5 points-; puis dans un second temps, expression des rejets

¹ «...the most important individual differences in human transactions will come to be encoded as single terms in some or all of the world's languages».

²Sans oublier les contextes émotionnels, motivationnels...

³«...three-fifths of the variance in true scores for personality traits is stable over the full adult life span».

⁴«Individuals have patterns of stability and change in their behavior, both over time and across situations».

⁵ De *Quotations Sort*, tri de citations.

⁶ Dans sa forme originale, la procédure comporte trois tris successifs des items inscrits sur des cartes. Un premier tri consiste à former trois piles: items «vrais», items «faux», items écartés. Un second tri consiste à répartir les items «vrais» en n piles du plus vrai au moins vrai, puis les items «faux» en n piles du plus faux au moins faux, n étant choisi par l'auteur du questionnaire. Le dernier tri correspond à la distribution forcée: il faut ajuster le nombre d'items par pile en fonction de la distribution choisie, celle-ci étant là encore choisie par l'auteur du questionnaire. Ainsi, à trois reprises les items sont mis en concurrence et classés en fonction des facteurs opérants de la subjectivité propre à chacun.

⁷ Par exemple: ombrageux, turbulent, maître de soi,...



par «5 adjectifs qui vous décrivent **le moins bien**» -choix cotés 1 point-; «11 adjectifs qui vous décrivent **mal**» -choix cotés 2 points- et enfin «21 adjectifs qui vous décrivent **assez mal**» -choix cotés 3 points-. Les 28 adjectifs non choisis, donc neutres, ou incompris, ou jugés inadaptés sont cotés 4 points.

Les 100 adjectifs descripteurs se réfèrent aux 5 dimensions du modèle en cinq facteurs à raison de 10 adjectifs pour chacun des 2 pôles des 5 dimensions: conscience, ouverture, gentillesse, extraversion et névrosisme⁸. Ils ont été validés par rapport à la version française du questionnaire *Alter Ego* (Pasquier, 2006).

La cotation globale ne prend pas en compte une sommation de points, comme dans le cas d'un format Likert par exemple, mais la ou les corrélations du patron de réponses (classement des items) d'un répondant avec un patron de réponses du même répondant obtenu à un autre moment ou bien dans un autre contexte, d'un autre répondant ou d'un groupe de répondants ou encore d'un prototype élaboré par des experts. On peut ainsi élaborer des analyses en clusters de répondants. Dans la présente étude, chaque répondant a été successivement soumis à 5 passations du questionnaire, chacune de ces 5 passations renvoyant à un contexte particulier opérationnalisé par une consigne spécifique. On prendra donc ici en compte les corrélations entre les cinq patrons de réponse de chacun des répondants obtenus à chacune de ces cinq passations successives.

2.2. La contextualisation des consignes

Chacune des cinq passations de ce même questionnaire de 100 descripteurs appartenant aux cinq dimensions bipolaires du modèle en cinq facteurs avait pour visée d'examiner l'éventuel effet du contexte sur la stabilité des réponses, et d'observer si cet éventuel effet se retrouvait de manière identique quelle que soit la dimension en cause. Pour ce faire, le questionnaire était accompagnée d'une consigne contextualisante spécifique pour chacune des cinq passations.

Passation T (travail): afin d'optimiser les choix relevant de la dimension *conscience* (C), la mise en contexte suivante figurait en haut de page du questionnaire : «Penser à la situation suivante : vous êtes en train de **réaliser un travail important**. Indiquez, parmi la liste qui figure ci-dessous, les numéros des 5 adjectifs qui s'appliquent **le mieux** à vous-même dans les moments où **vous travaillez**»⁹.

Passation N (nouauté): pour la dimension *ouverture* (O): «Penser à la situation suivante: **vous découvrez une nouveauté très intéressante**. Indiquez, parmi la liste qui figure ci-dessous, les numéros des 5 adjectifs qui s'appliquent **le mieux** à vous-même quand **vous découvrez une nouveauté**» (consigne N).

Passation EC (être cher): pour la dimension *gentillesse* (G): «Penser à la situation suivante : vous vous occupez de **quelqu'un qui vous est très cher**». Indiquez, parmi la liste qui figure ci-dessous, les numéros des 5 adjectifs qui s'appliquent **le mieux** à vous-même quand **vous vous occupez d'un être cher**» (consigne EC).

Passation C (convaincre): pour la dimension *extraversion* (E): «Penser à la situation suivante : vous devez **convaincre quelqu'un à tout prix**. Indiquez, parmi la liste qui figure ci-dessous, les numéros des 5 adjectifs qui s'appliquent **le mieux** à vous-même quand **vous devez convaincre**» (consigne C).

Passation D (danger): enfin, pour la dimension *névrosisme* (N): «Penser à la situation suivante: vous affrontez une situation **extrêmement dangereuse**. Indiquez, parmi la liste qui

⁸ Ainsi, pour le pôle positif de la dimension "conscience", nous avons les 10 adjectifs suivants: consciencieux, méticuleux, pointilleux, persévérant, déterminé, acharné, minutieux, réfléchi, ordonné, tenace.

⁹ Les répondants avaient ainsi à indiquer ces 5 adjectifs qui s'appliquaient **le mieux** à eux-mêmes, puis les 11 adjectifs s'appliquant **bien**, puis les 21 s'appliquant **assez bien**, puis les 5 s'appliquant **le moins bien**, puis les 11 s'appliquant **mal**, puis les 21 s'appliquant **assez mal**. Cette procédure était reprise dans les 4 autres passations.

figure ci-dessous, les numéros des 5 adjectifs qui s'appliquent **le mieux** à vous-même quand **vous devez affronter une situation dangereuse**» (consigne D)¹⁰.

2.3. Population

Sept étudiantes¹¹ ont passé elles-mêmes le questionnaire dans ses cinq modalités de consignes et l'ont donné à trente personnes de leur entourage, toutes de sexe féminin et de différents âges (étendue des âges: de 19 à 84 ans; $m=42$ ans; $\sigma=17$ ans). Les liasses des cinq passations étaient agrafées selon un ordre aléatoire établi par un générateur de nombre aléatoire. On a obtenu ainsi 185 Q -sorts.

2.4. Hypothèses opérationnelles

On s'attend à ce que les corrélations entre les profils de réponse obtenus aux cinq passations soit certes positives, mais modérées; on s'attend également à ce que les variations ne soient pas entièrement aléatoires ni liées uniquement à l'erreur de mesure, mais qu'elles répondent bien à la logique inductive sous-tendue par le contenu contextualisant des consignes.

3. RÉSULTATS

On a d'abord procédé à une analyse comparative globale des corrélations inter-situations. Dans un second temps, on a étudié les fluctuations des scores aux 10 sous-dimensions en fonction des situations. Enfin, une troisième analyse se focalisera sur les incidences du biais de désirabilité sociable.

3.1. Analyse comparative globale

L'étendue de la distribution des corrélations inter-situations va de 0,26 à 0,51, la corrélation moyenne se fixant à 0,40. La stabilité des réponses varie donc entre 6,76% et 26,01% de variance et en moyenne la stabilité recouvre 16% de variance.

De manière complémentaire, l'effet de reclassement varie de $1-0,51^2=74\%$ à $1-0,26^2 = 93\%$ de variance, avec un effet moyen de 84% de variance, soit 5,25 fois plus de variation que de stabilité.

On peut argumenter que l'effet de reclassement comprend l'erreur de mesure. La fidélité du Q -sort a été appréciée par un test-retest à deux semaines d'intervalle en consigne neutre auprès de 40 étudiants de psychologie et elle s'élève à 0,93. On peut en déduire que si l'erreur de mesure pèse 13,51% de variance, le reclassement inter-passations prend 70,49% de la variance, soit 4,40 fois plus que la stabilité.

On peut également comparer l'importance des effets liés à la corrélation test-retest et la corrélation moyenne inter-situations¹², soit $d_{r=0,40} = 0,87$ et $d_{r=0,93} = 5,06$. La stabilité de l'image de soi inter-situations est donc 5,81 fois plus faible que la stabilité test-retest.

On se posera maintenant la question de la variabilité des corrélations selon les couples de situations. Le tableau 1 et la figure 1 indiquent clairement que les corrélations des quatre couples de situations comprenant la situation D (face à un danger) sont nettement plus basses que les autres.

¹⁰ Signalons que, dans cette situation "Danger", on s'attend à deux types d'inflexion des patrons de réponses : soit vers plus de stabilité émotionnelle (optimisation du contrôle de soi), soit vers plus de névrosisme (réaction de peur).

¹¹ Qu'elles soient encore une nouvelle fois remerciées de leur collaboration.

¹² $d=2r\sqrt{1-r^2}$.

Tableau 1: caractéristiques (m : moyenne; σ : écart type) des corrélations inter-situations (T : travail; N : nouveauté; EC : être cher; C : convaincre; D : danger).

Couples	T/N	T/EC	T/C	T/D	N/EC	N/C	N/D	EC/C	EC/D	C/D
m	0,45	0,48	0,52	0,33	0,48	0,45	0,26	0,51	0,28	0,28
σ	0,18	0,17	0,18	0,25	0,18	0,18	0,23	0,16	0,29	0,25

Sur la figure 1, on voit une rupture nette entre T/D et T/N avec une différence de 15 points de corrélation. Le d de Cohen s'établit à 0,55 soit un effet notable¹³ ($t=2,36$; $p=0,02$).

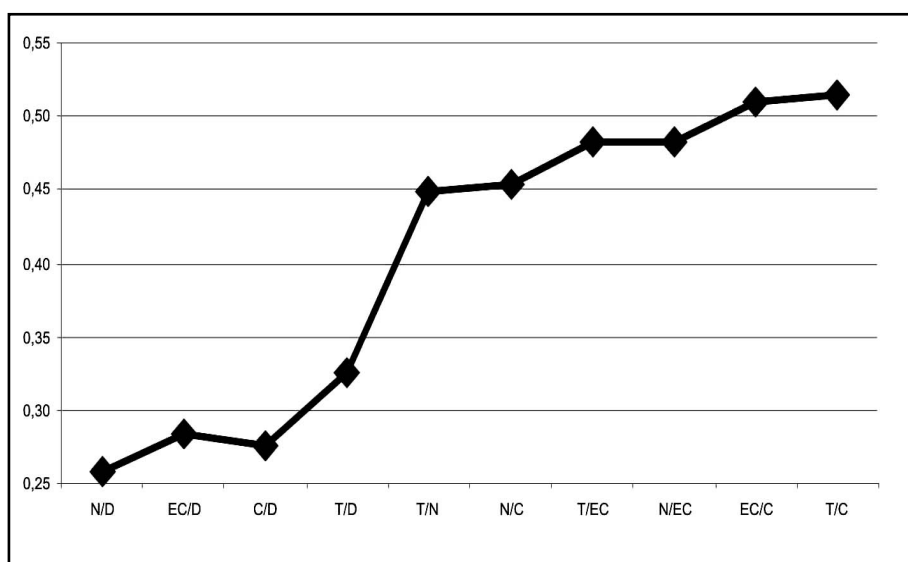


Figure 1: caractéristiques des corrélations inter-situations ordonnées par ordre croissant (T : travail; N : nouveauté; EC : être cher; C : convaincre; D : danger).

On peut également matérialiser les deux groupes de corrélations par le graphe de la structure factorielle obtenue après rotation Oblimin (fig. 2).

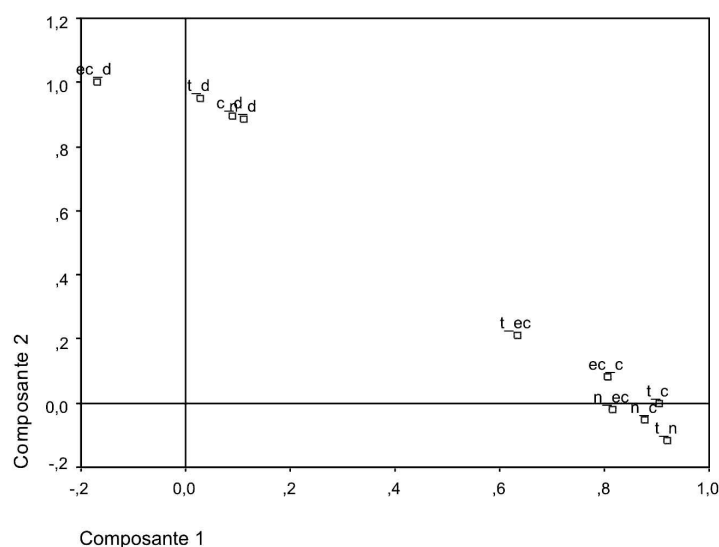


Figure 2: structure factorielle des corrélations intra-situations (T : travail; N : nouveauté; EC : être cher; C : convaincre; D : danger).

¹³ En référence aux propositions de Cohen (1977) : effet négligeable si d vaut autour de 0,20 ; effet intermédiaire si d vaut autour de 0,50 ; effet notable si d vaut autour de 0,80. Corroyer & Marion (2003, p. 243) proposent les limites suivantes : 0 à 0,35 effet négligeable ; 0,35 à 0,65 effet intermédiaire ; plus de 0,65 effet notable.

La corrélation entre les deux facteurs s'établit à 0,29 (soit un d à 0,60 pour un effet intermédiaire), ce qui constitue un autre indicateur de la stabilité structurale relative des patrons de réponse.

L'effet de reclassement n'est donc pas équivalent selon la nature des situations évoquées. Le facteur émotionnel fort induit par l'évocation d'une situation potentiellement dangereuse induit un reclassement nettement plus marqué que les autres situations.

On retiendra de cette première analyse que la contextualisation des consignes auto-descriptives induit un reclassement en moyenne quatre fois supérieur à la stabilité affirmée par certains théoriciens des traits.

Toutefois, ces reclassements des items ne sont-ils que du désordre, conséquence d'une certaine déstabilisation liée au changement de consigne ou bien de simples artefacts liés à la lassitude d'avoir à répondre plusieurs fois de suite..., ou bien dans quelle mesure répondent-ils effectivement à la logique induite par la construction des rapports situations/dimensions.

3.2. Fluctuations des scores des dimensions en fonction des situations

On partira de la lecture du tableau 2 qui présente la moyenne et l'écart type de chacune des dimensions par situation.

Tableau 2: caractéristiques des scores aux dimensions bipolaires selon la situation évoquée. En gras, les moyennes les plus élevées, en souligné les moyennes les plus basses pour une étendue de 1 à 7.

		C+	C-	O+	O-	G+	G-	E+	E-	N+	N-
travail T	m	5,56	<u>2,75</u>	4,58	3,20	4,39	3,16	4,62	3,70	4,48	3,59
	σ	1,12	1,19	1,08	1,13	1,08	1,22	1,38	1,25	1,43	1,37
nouveau N	m	4,86	3,23	5,18	<u>3,14</u>	4,69	3,08	4,57	3,23	4,57	3,49
	σ	1,14	1,08	1,27	1,17	1,16	1,23	1,46	1,28	1,23	1,39
être cher EC	m	4,89	2,92	4,49	3,40	5,39	<u>2,66</u>	4,54	3,27	4,98	3,46
	σ	1,09	1,00	1,07	0,96	1,27	1,08	1,37	1,21	1,14	1,35
convaincre C	m	5,27	2,96	4,69	3,36	4,60	3,07	5,14	<u>3,01</u>	4,53	3,38
	σ	1,16	1,13	0,97	1,01	1,27	1,13	1,42	1,08	1,33	1,28
danger D	m	4,73	3,19	4,20	3,50	4,33	3,56	4,10	3,86	<u>4,21</u>	4,51
	σ	1,26	1,29	0,99	1,10	1,34	1,44	1,46	1,38	1,70	1,77

Les scores moyens des dimensions C+, O+, G+ et E+ vont dans le sens des effets attendus par la contextualisation situationnelle des consignes. Il en est de même pour les dimensions C-, O-, G- et E-. Pour ces quatre traits du M.C.F. chacune des quatre consignes contextualisées correspondantes génère une augmentation du nombre des choix d'items du pôle positif et une diminution du nombre des choix d'items du pôle négatif et en conséquence majore l'écart des scores entre les deux pôles de chaque dimension (fig. 3): sous consigne Travail, les répondants se montrent plus consciencieux (C+) et moins inconscients (C-) que sous les autres consignes, sous consigne Nouveauté, ils se montrent plus ouverts et moins fermés que sous les autres consignes, sous consigne Etre cher, ils se montrent plus gentils et moins durs que sous les autres consignes et enfin, sous consigne Convaincre, ils se montrent plus extravertis et moins introvertis que sous les autres consignes.

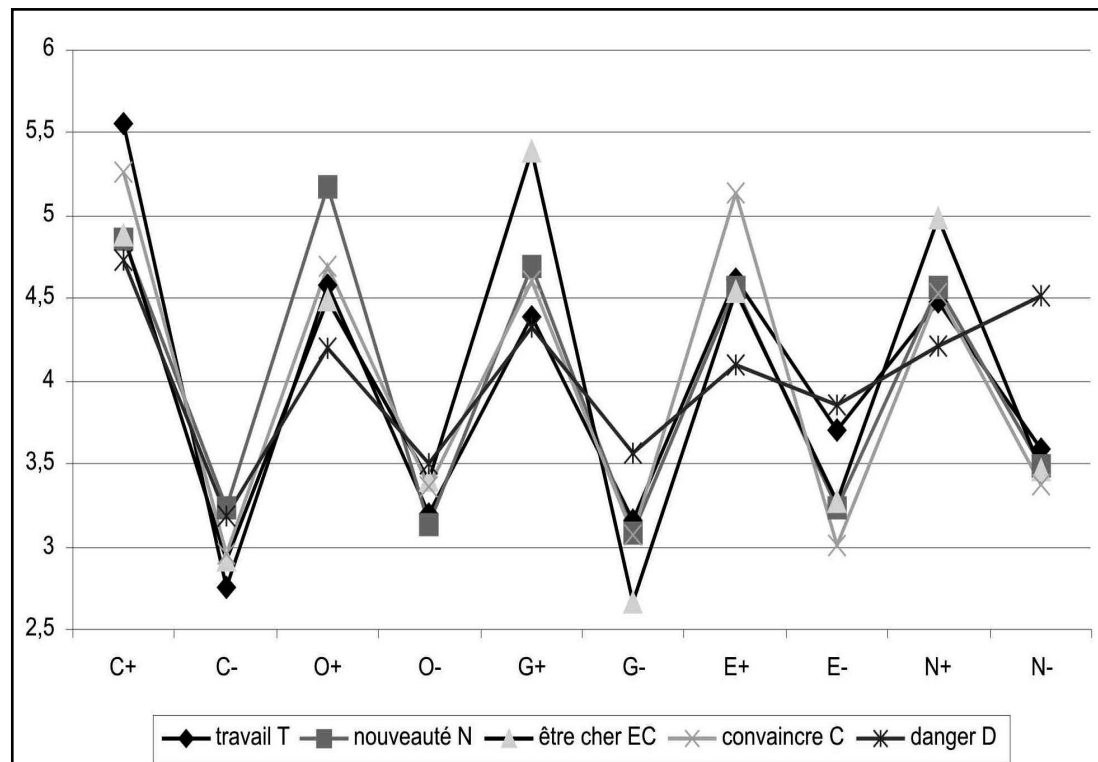


Figure 3: scores moyens par dimensions par situations.

Ce constat présente une variante pour la dimension N. On obtient une inversion de l'écart au profit de N- vs N+ dans la situation danger, ce qui va dans le sens de l'hypothèse d'une réaction contrastée envers le danger, soit vers plus de stabilité émotionnelle, soit et surtout vers plus de peur: sous consigne Danger, les répondants se montrent plus névrosistes et moins émotionnellement stables que sous les autres consignes. Le tableau 3 donnent les indices de significativité statistique et d'importance des effets attendus.

Tableau 3: comparaison des scores des dimensions manipulées par la consigne aux scores globalisés aux autres dimensions: significativité statistique et importance des effets attendus. (T: travail; N: nouveauté; EC: être cher; C: convaincre; D: danger); (Int.: intermédiaire; Nég.: négligeable; Not.: notable).

	C+/T vs autres	C-/T vs autres	O+/N vs autres	O-/N vs autres	G+/EC vs autres	G-/EC vs autres	E+/C vs autres	E-/C vs autres	N+/D vs autres	N-/D vs autres
t de student	2,93	1,54	3,42	1,13	3,93	2,47	2,61	2,20	1,69	3,88
p	0,004	0,123	0,000	0,250	0,000	0,014	0,010	0,028	0,092	0,000
d de Cohen	0,53	0,28	0,63	0,21	0,72	0,45	0,48	0,40	0,31	0,71
effet	Int.	Nég.	Int.	Nég.	Not.	Int.	Int.	Int.	Nég.	Not.

On observe que pour les quatre premiers traits l'induction porte essentiellement sur le choix d'un nombre plus important d'items des pôles positifs plutôt que sur le choix d'un nombre moins important d'items des pôles négatifs, ce qui renvoie au rôle de la désirabilité sociale dans le processus auto-descriptif sous consignes contextualisées.

3.3. Le jeu de la désirabilité sociale

Dans un autre cadre de recherche appliquée, chacun des items a été paramétré du point de vue de la désirabilité sociale à partir des résultats d'un panel de 31 experts psychologues et professionnels de la gestion des ressources humaines qui répondirent au questionnaire avec comme consigne de décrire quelqu'un de socialement désirable. Pour notre échantillon, la corrélation moyenne des patrons de réponses avec le prototype désirabilité sociale s'élève à 0,50, soit un effet notable ($d=1,15$).

Tableau 4: corrélations désirabilité sociale définie par les experts du panel (DS) et patrons de réponses par situation. (Int.: intermédiaire; Not.: notable).

Corrélation	travail/DS	Nouveauté/DS	être-cher/DS	convaincre/DS	danger/ DS
M	0,51	0,55	0,66	0,56	0,25
σ	0,21	0,15	0,13	0,20	0,32
D	1,18 Not.	1,31 Not.	1,75 Not.	1,35 Not.	0,51 Int.

Le tableau 4 montre que ces corrélations sont du même ordre de grandeur à l'exception de la situation de danger pour laquelle les choix des items dépendent moins de la désirabilité sociale.

Tableau 5: caractéristiques des corrélations partielles inter-situations (T: travail; N: nouveauté; EC: être cher; C: convaincre; D: danger).

couples	T/N	T/EC	T/C	T/D	N/EC	N/C	N/D	EC/C	EC/D	C/D
m	0,23	0,23	0,32	0,24	0,20	0,21	0,16	0,22	0,17	0,16
σ	0,17	0,15	0,16	0,16	0,17	0,15	0,16	0,14	0,18	0,18

On a calculé les corrélations partielles entre les patrons de réponses aux cinq situations afin de voir les effets de reclassement à désirabilité sociale égal (tab. 5). L'étendue de la distribution des corrélations inter-situations va de 0,16 à 0,32, la corrélation moyenne se fixe à 0,21. La stabilité des réponses varie donc entre 2,40% et 10% de variance et en moyenne la stabilité recouvre 5% de variance, soit nettement moins que pour les corrélations entières. Plus précisément on passe de 16% à 5% et on peut en conclure que la stabilité des classements peut être affectée pour les 2/3 à la désirabilité sociale et pour 1/3 à la personne.

Il reste à répondre à la question de l'influence de la désirabilité sociale dans la variation des dimensions. On a pour ce faire recalculé les scores par dimension en faisant la différence entre le score observé et le score désirabilité sociale produit par le panel des experts (tab. 6).

Tableau 6: caractéristiques des scores aux dimensions bipolaires selon la situation évoquée, minorés des scores de désirabilité sociale. En gras, les moyennes les plus élevées, en souligné les moyennes les plus basses

		C+	C-	O+	O-	G+	G-	E+	E-	N+	N-
travail T	m	0,91	<u>-0,44</u>	-0,23	-0,06	-0,83	0,40	-0,01	0,28	-0,62	0,47
	σ	0,34	0,31	0,59	0,27	0,39	0,35	0,35	0,37	0,40	0,59
nouveauté N	m	0,21	0,03	0,37	<u>-0,12</u>	-0,53	0,31	-0,06	-0,19	-0,53	0,37
	σ	0,35	0,17	0,69	0,50	0,33	0,45	0,40	0,38	0,32	0,51
être cher EC	m	0,24	-0,27	-0,32	0,14	0,17	<u>-0,10</u>	-0,09	-0,14	-0,12	0,33
	σ	0,27	0,15	0,39	0,50	0,42	0,44	0,37	0,23	0,32	0,43
convaincre C	m	0,62	-0,24	-0,12	0,10	-0,62	0,30	0,51	<u>-0,41</u>	-0,57	0,25
	σ	0,54	0,32	0,42	0,37	0,28	0,29	0,43	0,56	0,33	0,61
danger D	m	0,08	0,00	-0,61	0,24	-0,89	0,79	-0,53	0,45	<u>-0,89</u>	1,38
	σ	0,40	0,22	0,53	0,50	0,73	0,72	0,62	0,53	0,79	0,83

Globalement, on obtient la même structure des résultats, dans le sens des effets attendus. La taille des effets est-elle du même ordre de grandeur ?

Tableau 7: comparaison des scores des dimensions, minorés des scores de désirabilité sociale, manipulées par la consigne aux scores globalisés aux autres dimensions: significativité statistique et importance des effets attendus. (T: travail; N: nouveauté; EC: être cher; C: convaincre; D: danger); (Int.: intermédiaire; Nég.: négligeable; Not.: notable).

	C+/T vs autres	C-/T vs autres	O+/N vs autres	O-/N Vs autres	G+/EC vs autres	G-/EC vs autres	E+/C vs autres	E-/C vs autres	N+/D vs autres	N-/D vs autres
t de student	19,39	0,51	15,67	6,24	23,57	14,13	18,67	14,39	11,16	20,47
p	0,00	0,60	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
d de Cohen	1,59	0,04	1,28	0,51	1,93	1,16	1,53	1,18	0,91	1,68
effet	Not.	Nég.	Not.	Int.	Not.	Not.	Not.	Not.	Not.	Not.

En comparant les tableaux 3 et 7, on constate que les notes épurées de la désirabilité sociale font ressortir des effets de contexte de plus grande amplitude. En effet, on comptabilise maintenant 8 effets notables (vs 2 péalablement); les t de Student moyens sont plus élevés pour les scores épurés (13,75 vs 2,44), de même que les d moyens de Cohen (1,13 vs 0,45). En d'autres termes, le biais de désirabilité sociale atténue les effets des consignes contextualisantes.

On retiendra de cette troisième analyse qu'une part non négligeable de la stabilité des classements inter-situations est imputable à la désirabilité sociale et que ce biais atténue la saillance des effets produits par les mises en situations évoquées par les consignes contextualisantes, réduisant d'autant le pouvoir de différenciation du questionnaire.

4. DISCUSSION

On montre dans cette étude qu'en faisant varier les consignes dans le sens d'une contextualisation situationnelle, les répondants à un même questionnaire produisent des profils de réponses largement diversifiés, diversification équivalente à 4,4 fois la stabilité donnée par un test-retest en passation non contextualisée. On montre également que les choix des répondants peuvent, en cas de contextualisation, se modifier dans un sens prédictible quant aux dimensions du MCF. On montre enfin que le biais de désirabilité sociale minore les différenciations psychologiques de l'image de soi. Ces constats vont dans le sens du point de vue de Pervin vs celui de Costa & McCrae.

Placée dans des situations différentes, une même personne se décrit en grande partie différemment. On peut en déduire que ce ne serait pas tant la stabilité des traits que la stabilité des changements d'image en fonction des situations qui serait au fondement de la permanence de soi. C'est peut-être également ce type de variabilité intra-individuelle qui fonde la singularité d'une personne en termes de capacités et de flexibilité adaptatives.

Sur un plan pratique les conséquences ne sont pas neutres. En effet, dans le cadre des passations non contextualisées de type «décrivez-vous comme vous êtes en général», on peut supposer que le répondant choisit, plus ou moins consciemment, de se voir dans telle ou telle situation pour opérer ses choix de réponse. On s'éloigne alors encore plus de la situation évaluative idéale «toutes choses égales par ailleurs», et la porte reste largement ouverte aux stratégies d'auto-présentation.

La stabilité des réponses étant en partie un artefact lié au biais de désirabilité sociale, il



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

devient possible d'envisager les validités prédictives attribuées au M.C.F., mais principalement et pratiquement exclusivement, comme l'observent Barrick, Mount, & Judge (2001), pour la dimension conscience, et qui est non pas comme une expression personologique singulière mais plutôt comme un degré d'adhésion à ce qui serait une norme de désirabilité sociale, une norme du professionnellement correct: se présenter comme quelqu'un de consciencieux.

Concrètement, ces résultats permettent d'envisager d'autres conceptions, d'autres pratiques et d'autres lectures des questionnaires de personnalité basés sur le M.C.F.

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PERFIL PSICOSOCIAL DE LOS ADOLESCENTES ESPAÑOLES: ENFOQUE ECOLÓGICO

Rosa PULIDO VALERO; Gema MARTÍN SEOANE

Universidad de Alcalá

rosa.pulido@uah.es

ABSTRACT

El presente estudio analizó el rol de diversas variables de protección y de riesgo, en una muestra representativa de 1475 estudiantes Españoles (con edades comprendidas entre 14 y 18 años). Los estudiantes completaron los cuestionarios, que incluyeron medidas de consumo de sustancias (tabaco, alcohol y sustancias ilegales), situaciones de violencia (exclusión, violencia verbal, violencia física y vandalismo) y variables organizadas desde el enfoque ecológico (satisfacción con la escuela, actividades de ocio, variables familiares,...). Los resultados indican que la exclusión social y la violencia verbal son un fenómeno común entre los adolescentes españoles. También se ha obtenido una correlación entre consumo de sustancias y variables como baja satisfacción en distintos contextos y violencia escolar. El análisis de regresión múltiple revela que, para el consumo de alcohol, el conjunto de variables predictoras fueron: fumar, la edad, actividades de ocio como salir a discotecas y pubs, estar fuera en parques y plazas. En el caso del consumo de sustancias ilegales, las variables predictoras fueron: fumar, beber, actitudes violentas y sexistas, reducción de la tensión, actividades de ocio como ir a discotecas o pubs, estar fuera en parques y plazas. Implicaciones para futuras investigaciones e intervenciones en factores de riesgo y protección serán ampliadas en la discusión.

ABSTRACT

The present study investigated the role of several risk and protective factors, in a representative sample of 1475 Spanish high school students (aged 14-18 years). Students filled out questionnaires that included measures of substance use (tobacco, alcohol and illegal substance), types of violence (exclusion, verbal violence, physical violence and vandalism) and variables from an ecological approach (school satisfaction, spare time activities, family variables...). Results indicate that social exclusion and verbal violence were a common phenomenon among Spanish adolescents. Also there is a correlation between substance abuse and variables as reduced life satisfaction and school violence. Multiple regression analyses revealed that, in the case of alcohol, the block of predictor variables were: smoking, age, spare time activities as going out to discos or pubs and staying outside. In the case of illegal substance, the predictor variables were: smoking, drinking, violence and sexist attitudes, tension reduction, spare time activities as going out to discos or pubs and staying outside. Implications for further research and intervention on risk and protective factors are being discussed.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Comportamientos de riesgo, como conductas violentas y abuso de sustancias, son problemas crecientes entre los adolescentes en España, como diversos estudios han encontrado (Ortega & Mora-Merchán, 1999; Defensor del Pueblo, 2000; Martín Seoane, Pulido & Vera, 2004, Plan Nacional de Drogas, 2004). El concepto tradicional de adolescente, caracterizado por ser un período tormentoso, no se mantiene en la actualidad. Aunque, la gran cantidad de cambios que deben ser afrontados (cognitivos, sociales, afectivos, físicos,..) pueden ser una de las claves a la hora de entender por qué algunos adolescentes se inician en comportamientos de riesgo.

En relación al concepto de consumo de sustancias, aplicado a la adolescencia, puede señalar una situación de riesgo, dado que un consumo esporádico o experimental puede convertirse en

un abuso que se inicia en dicho período. El consumo de sustancias es definido con el uso de alcohol y otras drogas en diferentes maneras que afectan negativamente en las actividades de la vida diaria. Dichos efectos negativos pueden ser físicos (por ejemplo problemas de salud), emocionales (como irritabilidad) o comportamentales (como absentismo, disminución del rendimiento académico) o legales (por ejemplo ser arrestado). La mayor parte de los adolescentes que consumen alcohol y drogas no lo hacen de forma que se pueda considerar abuso. Pero el consumo iniciado en edades tempranas, sin embargo, incrementa la probabilidad de que se produzca una escalada y se convierta en abuso (Forman, Bry & Urga, 2006). Investigaciones llevadas a cabo desde organismos españoles muestran que, en el caso de las drogas, la edad media del primer consumo ha decrecido en los últimos años, y la prevalencia del consumo ha aumentado (Plan Nacional de Drogas, 2004). En el caso del tabaco, la edad media del primer consumo es de 13,2 en el 2004 (13,9 diez años después) y el porcentaje de consumo es de 37,4 (31,1 diez años después). La prevalencia del consumo de alcohol es de 65.6 % mientras que la media del primer consume es de 13.7. La prevalencia del cannabis es de 25.1% (12.4 diez años después) y la media de edad del primer consume es de 14.7 (18.2 diez años después).

En relación al problema de la violencia, diversas investigaciones han encontrado que los comportamientos de violencia en la adolescencia suponen un gran riesgo de continuar con elevados niveles de conducta violenta y otros problemas externalizantes en los últimos años de la adolescencia y adultez temprana (Lipsey & Derzon, 1998). Centrándonos en el fenómeno de la violencia escolar, este se refiere a todo aquel tipo de comportamiento que dificulta las relaciones dentro del contexto escolar, cuando una persona o grupo de personas son insultadas, agredidas físicamente, socialmente excluidas o rechazadas, amenazadas o intimidadas por uno o varios compañeros, quienes dirigen estos comportamientos hacia la víctima/s con total impunidad. Dichos comportamientos podrían ser meros incidentes, pero si se cronifican en el tiempo, estos pueden convertirse en un subtipo de violencia escolar denominada bullying, las víctimas se encuentran a sí mismos psicológica, física y socialmente indefenso debido a la reducción en su autoestima, su seguridad personal y la incapacidad para cesar dicho comportamiento por parte del agresor/es, la ausencia o escasez de ayuda por parte de los otro y la continuidad de esta situación (Ortega, 2000).

Los estudios llevados a cabo en España sobre violencia escolar y bullying han señalado que la exclusión y la agresión psicológica son los más frecuentes (Defensor del Pueblo 2000; Martín Seoane, Pulido & Vera, 2004).

Por otra parte, diversos estudios han señalado la relación entre el consumo de sustancias y el comportamiento violento en los adolescentes. Fraser (2001) estudió una muestra de menores infractores y encontró dos patrones de consumos de sustancias. El primero de ellos se caracterizaba por un elevado consume de alcohol, marihuana y drogas de diseño. Este patrón se acompañaba de elevados niveles de situaciones de maltrato, incluido el abuso físico, el abuso emocional/psicológico, así como haber presenciado situaciones de violencia en el ámbito familiar. El patrón de poli consumos también se acompañaba de elevados niveles de comportamiento delincuente. El segundo patrón de consumos se acompañaba de elevados niveles de comportamiento disruptivo, comportamientos agresivos y violentos. Molcho, Harel & Dina (2004) examinaron la relación entre el consumo de sustancias y el comportamiento violento en una muestra representativa de adolescentes. Encontraron que el consumo diario de tabo, el consumo de drogas ilegales, antecedentes de borracheras fueron los mejores predictores de comportamientos violentos. Kinlock, Battjes & Gordon (2004) estudiaron los factores relacionados con el autoinforme de infractores de 178 adolescentes en lista de espera para tratamientos de toxicomanía. Los resultados pusieron de manifiesto que el incremento en la severidad del delito cometido se relacionaba con ser varón, el consumo de drogas, como alcohol y marihuana, participación en situaciones de bullying y comportamientos de crueldad hacia

otras personas, elevados niveles de comportamiento inadecuado hacia los iguales, problemas escolares y mantener relaciones sexuales sin protección.

Diferentes teorías y modelos han encontrado explicaciones en relación a dichos comportamientos de riesgo durante la adolescencia. El enfoque adoptado en el presente estudio enfatiza el desarrollo de perspectivas que entienden la orientación al riesgo como parte de un comportamiento más general, como un desarrollo hacia el riesgo (Jessor, Turbin & Costa, 1998), a la vez que como un objetivo de clave en el desarrollo del adolescente (Jessor, Donovan & Costa, 1991). En esta línea, dichas conductas de riesgo frecuentemente covarían, de modo que un comportamiento de riesgo se asocia con otro comportamiento de riesgo (e.g. Scal, Ireland & Borowsky, 2003; Rhoads, 2004; Swahn & Donovan, 2004), incrementando la probabilidad de verse implicado en dichos comportamientos. Los jóvenes que están realmente implicados en comportamientos delictivos, consumos de sustancias, abandono de la escolarización, embarazos adolescentes o comportamientos violentos tienen una mayor probabilidad de verse implicados en varios de ellos.

Dentro del marco del enfoque ecológico (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), todos estos problemas de la adolescencia permiten analizar como comparten diversos factores de riesgo comunes. Los adolescentes están insertos in diversos contextos sociales simultáneamente, y el enfoque ecológico los considera a todos ellos de manera conjunta. Un equipo de investigadores de la Universidad de Washington en Seattle (Stark, K., 1995) ha llevado a cabo una investigación revisando más de treinta años de investigación sobre consumos de sustancias y comportamiento delictivo, identificando diversos factores de riesgo para los adolescentes. Dichos investigadores concluyen que, en el nivel de la comunidad se pueden considerar factores de riesgo los siguientes: la accesibilidad de las drogas y la percepción de la facilidad para conseguirlas, la accesibilidad de las armas de fuego, las leyes y normas favorables hacia el consumo de drogas, la tenencia de armas y el crimen (a través de las distintas políticas, prácticas sociales, y las expectativas que los miembros de la comunidad tienen de los jóvenes), la transmisión que se hace a través de los medios de comunicación (uso de estrategias de solución de problemas a través de la violencia, comportamientos violentos, ...), inadecuado vínculo con el vecindario y desorganización de la comunidad (bajos niveles de participación electoral, bajos niveles de implicación parental en las escuelas), extrema deprivación económica. En el sistema familiar, se enfatiza la historia familiar de problemas de comportamiento (historia de adicciones al alcohol u otras drogas, historia de actividad criminal, madres adolescentes), maneras inadecuadas de manejar los conflictos (falta de expectativas claras de comportamientos, incapacidad de los padres para controlar el comportamiento de sus hijos, castigos excesivamente severos o inexistentes), conflictos familiares (persistentes, serios conflictos entre los cuidadores, violencia doméstica), actitudes parentales (padres que disculpan el comportamiento delictivo de sus hijos, padres que animan a sus hijos a utilizar comportamientos agresivos hacia extraños, padres que involucran a sus hijos en su propio consumo de drogas o alcohol, por ejemplo pidiéndoles que les enciendan un cigarro o que les traigan un cerveza de la nevera). Desde el nivel de la escuela, se han señalado especialmente el inicio temprano y persistente en comportamientos antisociales (portarse mal en la escuela, meterse en peleas con otros niños), fracaso escolar en primaria (la experiencia de fracaso, no necesariamente la habilidad), falta de adherencia a la escuela (en el sentido de que muchos jóvenes abandona su rol como estudiantes porque este supone la sensación de “vendido” a la cultura del grupo mayoritario). Desde el punto de vista del grupo de iguales, se señala la importante relación con amigos que están implicados en comportamientos de riesgo (y este factor probablemente sea el predictor más consistente que la investigación ha identificado). Y, finalmente, a nivel individual, se señala la relación con el aislamiento y el comportamiento rebelde, actitudes favorables hacia los problemas de comportamiento, el inicio precoz en problemas de comportamiento, así como factores constitucionales (orientación

a la búsqueda de sensaciones, baja tolerancia a la frustración, falta de control de impulsos) están relacionados con los comportamientos de riesgo. Por otra parte, en relación a los factores de protección se han identificado características individuales (resiliencia, temperamento, una adecuada actitud prosocial, inteligencia), vínculos positivos (familiares, de amigos, con la escuela o la comunidad), creencias positivas y objetivos claros.

El presente estudio plantea como objetivo principal examinar el rol de diferentes factores de riesgo y de protección, relacionados con los comportamientos de violencia escolar y de consumos de sustancias. La muestra se obtuvo a través de la recopilación de información de 1475 estudiantes adolescentes españoles (con edades comprendidas entre los 14 y los 18 años).

METODO

Participantes

La muestra representativa obtenida estuvo compuesta por 1475 adolescentes españoles (con edades comprendidas entre los 14 y los 18 años), 49,4% mujeres y 50,6% varones, de diferentes niveles educativos: Secundaria obligatoria (59,6%), Bachillerato (22,8%) y Ciclos Formativos de Grado Medio (7,5%). Se llevó a cabo un muestreo por conglomerados, con un error máximo de 5% y un nivel de confidencialidad de 95%. La unidad de análisis fue el centro educativo, manteniendo la proporcionalidad de los centros públicos, privados y concertados de la población.

Instrumentos

La medida de los comportamientos de riesgo

El cuestionario para la medición del consumo de sustancias (tabaco, alcohol y drogas ilegales) está basado en los utilizados en las investigaciones nacionales sobre los consumos (Plan Nacional sobre Drogas, 2004). Incluye preguntas sobre la edad del primer consumo, con qué frecuencia consume cada una de las sustancias durante el último mes, usando una escala tipo likert de 5 puntos (0=nunca; 5=diariamente). Los consumos de alcohol incluyen diversos tipos de bebidas, desde el vino, la cerveza o los cockteles. Los consumos de drogas ilegales incluyen diversos tipos de sustancias como cannabis, cocaína, LSD, drogas sintéticas e inhalantes.

El CEVEO (Díaz-Aguado, Martínez Arias, Martín Seoane, 2003) es un cuestionario basado en instrumentos previos para el estudio de la violencia escolar (Defensor del Pueblo, 2000; Olweus, 1995), y mide la violencia entre iguales en el contexto educativo (exclusión, violencia física, violencia hacia las propiedades, etc), desde el punto de vista de los tres roles implicados: víctima, agresor y observador. El instrumento incluye 15 situaciones de violencia: ignorar, no permitir participar, criticar, rechazar, insultar, poner mote, esconder cosas, romper cosas, robar, amenazar par meter miedo, obligar a hacer cosas, intimidar con insultos de carácter sexual, obligar a participar en situaciones de carácter sexual y amenazar con armas. Estas situaciones fueron medidas con una escala tipo Likert de 5 puntos (1=nunca ha ocurrido; 5=siempre ocurre). La realización posterior de un análisis factorial permitió obtener dos dimensiones: violencia de gravedad media, que incluye situaciones de exclusión violencia psíquica, y violencia de gravedad extrema que incluye violencia física. Estos factores explicaron un 53-65% del total de la varianza y obtuvieron un alpha de Cronbach de .70 (IC 95%: .65-.72) para las situaciones de gravedad media .67 (IC 95%: .63-.70) para las situaciones de victimización extrema, .86 (IC 95%: .86-.88) para agresores de gravedad media, .87 (IC 95%: .86-.88) para agresores de gravedad extrema, indicando que esta escala tiene unos adecuados niveles de fiabilidad.

La medida de factores de riesgo y de protección

El CADV (Díaz-Aguado, Martínez Arias, Martín Seoane, 2004) es un instrumento para

la medición de actitudes sexistas, tolerantes y de justificación de la violencia. Los participantes tienen que mostrar su acuerdo o desacuerdo, usando una escala tipo Likert de 7 puntos. Los análisis factorial realizados posteriormente confirmaron dichas dimensiones. El alfa de Cronbach fue de .85 para justificación de la violencia, .85 para sexismo y .82 para intolerancia.

El cuestionario CRA (Martín Seoane, 2003), mide diferentes factores de protección y de riesgo como la satisfacción percibida en distintos contextos (escuela, familia y amigos) o las actividades de ocio. Este instrumento incluye además una escala de 37 ítems relacionados con comportamientos de riesgo. El análisis factorial permitió agrupar los ítems en 4 factores: comportamiento antisocial, orientación al riesgo, presión de grupo y trastornos de alimentación. Debido a los objetivos del presente estudio solo se utilizaron las dos primeras dimensiones. Estas dimensiones explican el 45% del total de la varianza y tienen un alfa de Cronbach de .89 (IC 95%: .88-.91) para el primer factor, .74 (IC 95%: .70-.77) para el segundo.

La Escala de Estrategias de afrontamiento para adolescents (Frydenberg & Lewis, 1997) se compone de 80 elementos en escala likert de 5 puntos que permite medir 18 estrategias de afrontamiento utilizadas por los adolescents. Las 18 escalas presentan unos niveles de fiabilidad comprendidos entre .54 a .85.

Procedimiento

Se obtuvo permiso para llevar a cabo el estudio a través de los directores de los centros educativos.

Para ello se les enviaron una carta, describiendo el objetivo del estudio, y explicando la naturaleza voluntaria del mismo. Todos los participantes completaron los cuestionarios en clase, y la recogida de datos se llevó a cabo por un investigador, conformación es Psicología. Se aseguró a los participantes la confidencialidad de sus respuestas, así como que nadie tendría acceso a sus cuestionarios.

RESULTADOS

En primer lugar, para obtener una mayor comprensión de las características psicosociales de los adolescents españoles, se han usado análisis descriptivos de las variables que se han medido: satisfacción en distintos contextos de la vida, actividades de ocio, estrategias de afrontamiento, comportamientos de riesgo. En segundo lugar, se han incluido análisis de regresión, con el fin de examinar el rol de los distintos factores de protección y de riesgo.

Descripción de los Factores de riesgo y protección

Satisfacción en distintos contexto de la vida

Los adolescents españoles obtienen elevadas medias en los diferentes elementos evaluados en la escala de satisfacción percibida. La media más elevada la obtiene el ítem de los “amigos” y el más bajo lo obtiene la satisfacción con la escuela. Estos resultados ponen de manifiesto la importancia del grupo de iguales y las dificultades que se encuentran en el entorno escolar.

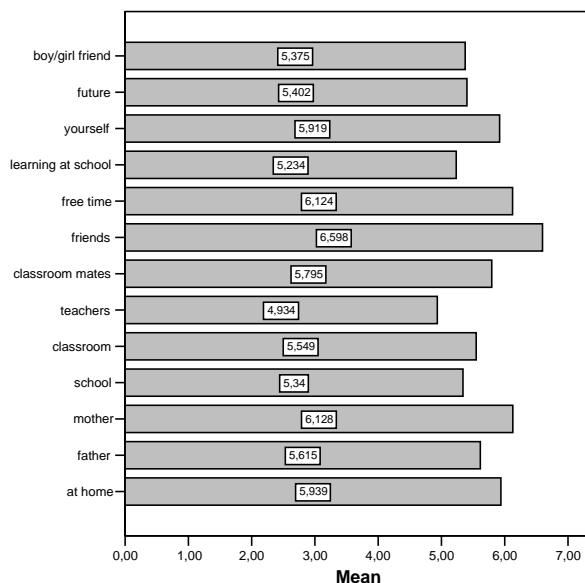


Figura 1. Satisfacción: ¿Cómo me siento con...?

Se llevó a cabo un análisis factorial para reducir el número de elementos y facilitar los posteriores análisis. Se obtuvieron los siguientes tres factores: “satisfacción con la escuela”, incluyendo *profesores, lo que aprendo, la escuela, los compañeros de clase*; “satisfacción personal y relaciones de intimidad”, incluye *conmigo mismo, futuro, amigos, tiempo libre novio/novia* y “satisfacción familiar”, incluye *padre, madre y en casa*. Es en este último factor “satisfacción familiar” en el que se encuentran diferencias significativas en relación al consumo de sustancias, aquellos adolescentes que consumen alcohol y otras drogas de forma habitual muestran una media significativamente menor en su nivel de satisfacción familiar que aquellos compañeros cuyo consumo no es regular.

Actividades de ocio y tiempo libre

Los adolescentes españoles suelen llevar a cabo las siguientes actividades: salir, ir a pubs o a discotecas, ir a casa de un amigo, como se recoge en la Figura 2.

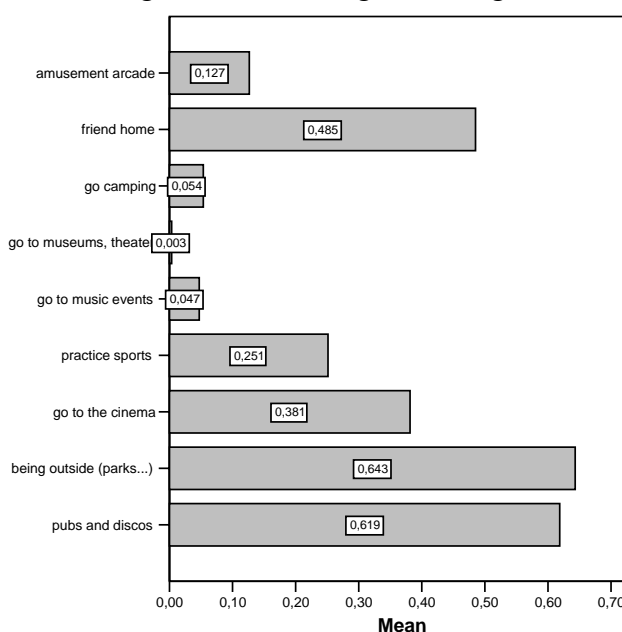


Figura2. Actividades de ocio y tiempo libre

Estrategias de resolución de problemas

Los análisis descriptivos de las estrategias, medidas con el ACS, han puesto de manifiesto que los adolescents españoles usan más las estrategias del tipo de *compartir actividades relajantes, invertir tiempo en estar con los amigos, preocuparse, solucionar los problemas y buscar apoyo social* (Figura 3).

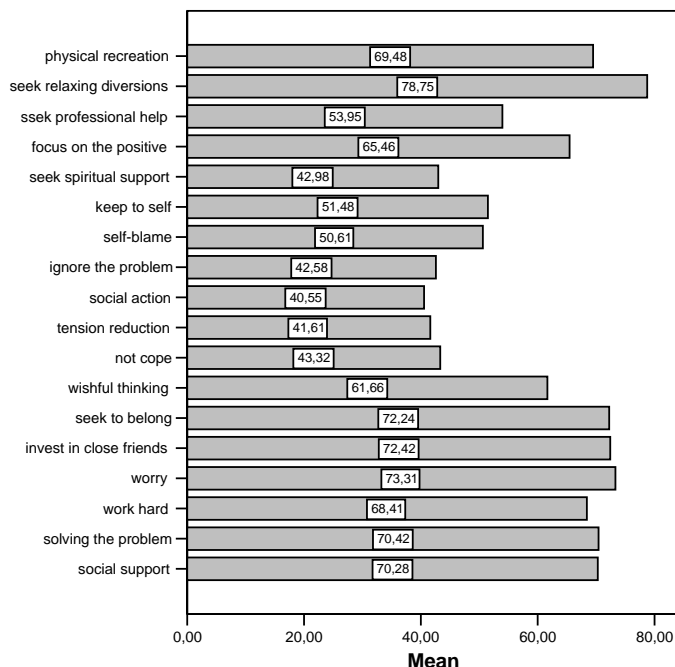


Figura 3. Estrategias de afrontamiento

El análisis factorial realizado redujo el número de estrategias. Después de intentar diversas agrupaciones, el número de factores elegidos fueron dos: “estrategias productivas y no productivas”, de acuerdo con la autora de la escala. Las estrategias productivas incluyen items como *trabajar duro, preocuparse, resolver problemas y apoyo social*. Por otro lado, las no productivas incluyen estrategias como *realizar actividades de relax, guardárselo para uno mismo, autoculparse, y no afrontarlo*.

Comportamiento de riesgo: violencia escolar y consumo de sustancias

Los resultados descriptivos indican que la exclusión social y la violencia verbal son fenómenos frecuentes en los adolescentes. Los porcentajes de víctimas que han sido criticadas es de un 54%, son ignorados en un 38 % de los casos, son insultados en un 35%, les ponen mote en un 30%, no les permiten participar en un 23%, y son rechazados en un 21%. Aunque menos frecuente, sufren las siguientes situaciones de agresión física: les esconden cosas en un 27% de los casos, les roban cosas en un 3 %, rompen sus cosas en un 12%, son golpeado un 9%, son amenazados en un 8% y son intimidados con insultos sexuales en un 7%. Las situaciones más peligrosas (ser obligado a participar en situaciones de carácter sexual, ser amenazados con armas) han ocurrido en un 1-3% de los casos. Por otro lado, los resultados desde el rol de agresor son los siguientes. Los estudiantes reconocen participar criticando en un 65% de los casos, ignorando en un 61%, insultando en 47%, poniendo otes en un 46%, no permitiendo participar en un 24%, y rechazando en un 35%. Aunque menos frecuente, también se producen situaciones de agresión física: esconden cosas en un 24% de los casos, roban cosas en un 6 %, rompen cosas en un 7%, golpean en un 13%, amenazan en un 12% e intimidan con frases



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sexuales en un 9%. Las situaciones más peligrosas (obliga a hacer cosas, obliga a situaciones de carácter sexual, amenazar con armas) han ocurrido en un 1-3% de los casos.

Con la intención de analizar los anteriores resultados, se llevó a cabo un análisis factorial, obteniendo los siguientes factores (que explican un 53-65% del total de la varianza, con elevadas correlaciones entre factores (.492-.538):- *víctimas de violencia extrema* (con ítems como amenazar con armas, obligar a hacer cosas, ...), - *víctimas de violencia media* (con ítems como rechazar, esconder cosas, romper cosas, insultar, ...), - *agresores de violencia extrema* (con ítems como amenazar con armas, obligar a hacer cosas, ...) y- *agresores de violencia media* (con ítems como rechazar, ignorar insultar, ...).

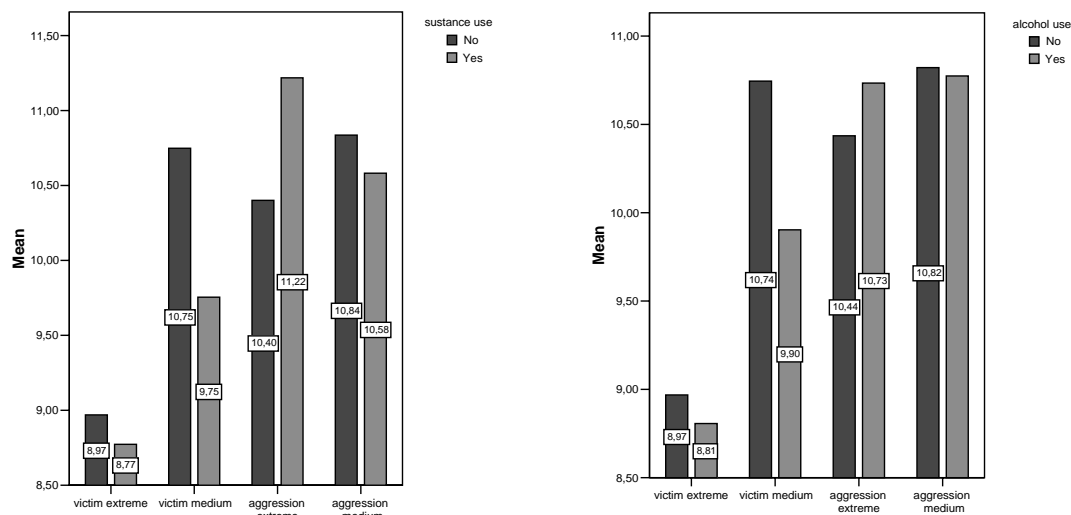
El índice de correlación de Pearson fue usado para determinar la relación entre las variables estudiadas. Se examinó la relación entre las dimensiones de violencia escolar, obteniendo una correlación significativa entre víctima de gravedad media y extrema ($r=.555$) y agresor de gravedad media y extrema ($r=.555$). Los resultados también ponen de manifiesto que relación entre ser agresor en la escuela (violencia física y amenazas) y actitudes sexistas ($r=.338$, $p<.001$), intolerantes ($r=.269$, $p<.001$) y justificación de la violencia ($r=.467$, $p<.001$). En el caso de agresión de gravedad media (exclusión y violencia psicológica), las correlaciones resultan significativas también. Estas correlaciones revelan que los adolescentes que usan la violencia contra sus compañeros presentan altos niveles en el acuerdo con creencias sexistas, intolerantes o de justificación de la violencia.

Profundizando en el análisis de las dimensiones de violencia escolar, se encuentra que la agresión en la escuela correlaciona de forma significativa con la conducta antisocial, tanto en su modalidad de gravedad media ($r=.207$, $p<.001$) como en el caso de la agresión extrema ($r=.294$, $p<.001$). En el mismo sentido, se encuentra una correlación significativa entre la orientación al riesgo y la agresión de gravedad extrema ($r=.223$, $p<.001$).

Por otro lado, el patrón de consumo de sustancias, el alcohol es la sustancia más consumida (un 52% de los adolescentes encuestados manifiestan beber al menos una vez a la semana), en el caso de las sustancias ilegales, el cannabis es la más consumida (79,2%). Examinando la relación entre las diferentes sustancias, los resultados revelan una correlaciones altas y significativas, en el caso del alcohol y cannabis ($r=.456$, $p<.001$) y tabaco ($r=.411$, $p<.001$). En el caso de la cocaína, resulta significativa su relación con el cannabis ($r=.337$, $p<.001$), anfetaminas ($r=.405$, $p<.001$), LSD ($r=.228$, $p<.001$), drogas sintéticas ($r=.324$, $p<.001$) e inhalantes ($r=.316$, $p<.001$).

Para el un mejor entendimiento de la relación entre los comportamientos de riesgo, comparamos las dimensiones de violencia de la escuela en grupos diferentes según el empleo de sustancia. Estos grupos fueron elaborados convirtiendo la variable “ frecuencia de uso en el último mes” en una nueva variable nominal con dos valores: uno si el nivel de consumo fuera alto (a diario) y el otro si el nivel de consumo fuera bajo (empleo esporádico o experimental).

El contraste de medias T de Student determinó diferencias significativas entre los grupos de consumidores en relación a la violencia de la escuela. Como se observa en la figura incluida a continuación, los adolescentes que no usa drogas ilícitas a diario mostraron una media significativamente más alta ($p<.01$) en la dimensión de violencia escolar: víctima, mientras que en el caso de los consumidores habituales obtienen medias superiores en la dimensión agresión de gravedad extrema. En el caso del consumo de alcohol, a pesar de las diferencias encontradas en todas las dimensiones de violencia escolar, sólo resultan significativas las que corresponden a la víctima de gravedad media, dimensión en la que los adolescentes que no consumen alcohol habitualmente obtienen medias significativamente superiores.



Figures 4. Diferencias en las dimensiones de violencia escolar en función del consumo de sustancias.

La predicción de los comportamientos de riesgo

El análisis de regresión múltiple reveló que en el caso del alcohol, los predictores: fumar, edad, actividades de tiempo libre como ir a la discoteca/pubs y estar en la calle. Este modelo explica un porcentaje de la varianza de la variable dependiente (consumo de alcohol) moderado, como revelan los resultados del estadístico Cox snell (.253).

Table 1. Coefficients (alcohol)

Variables	B	E.T.	Wald	gl	Sig.	Exp(B)
fumar	.524	.056	87.251	1	.000	1.688
Ir a discotecas/pubs	1.665	.129	167.149	1	.000	5.284
Estar en la calle	.320	.130	6.086	1	.014	1.377
edad	.117	.046	6.501	1	.011	1.124
Constante	-2.941	.732	16.133	1	.000	.053

En el caso de las sustancias ilegales, las variables predictoras resultaron ser fumar, beber habitualmente, actitudes sexistas y de justificación de la violencia, la estrategia de afrontamiento reducción de la tensión y actividades de tiempo libre como ir a la discoteca/pubs y estar en la calle. Este modelo explica el 34% de la varianza de la variable dependiente consumo de sustancias ilegales.

Table 2. Coefficients (illegal substance)

Variables	B	E.T.	Wald	gl	Sig.	Exp(B)
fumar	.743	.049	226.811	1	.000	2.102
Ir a pubs y discotecas	.773	.185	17.492	1	.000	2.166
Estar en la calle	.448	.157	8.102	1	.004	1.565
beber	1.588	.208	58.029	1	.000	4.894
Actitudes violentas	.017	.004	15.316	1	.000	1.017
Afrontamiento improductivo	-.003	.002	3.993	1	.046	.997
Reducción de la tensión	.012	.006	3.534	1	.060	1.012
Constante	-4.196	.456	84.845	1	.000	.015

DISCUSION

Violencia escolar

Los resultados mostraron una alta relación entre las diferentes dimensiones de violencia escolar (agresión y victimización media y extrema) y algunas actitudes como el sexismo, la intolerancia o la justificación de violencia. Este hecho podría revelar un continuo en la violencia de la escuela: de una relación inadecuada entre iguales caracterizada por el uso de la violencia psicológica y la exclusión a la intimidación (el camino más extremo de violencia de la escuela). Según esto, la prevención de violencia debería mejorar la capacidad del adolescente para resolver los problemas y desarrollar actitudes contra la violencia, como la tolerancia y la tolerancia.

Consumo de sustancias

Los resultados revelaron correlaciones altas y significativas entre las diferentes sustancias, que podría reflejar diferentes patrones en el consumo de sustancias. Un patrón que incluiría el empleo de alcohol, cannabis y tabaco; un segundo patrón caracterizado por un policonsumo de sustancias ilícitas (la cocaína, el cannabis, drogas sintéticas, anfetaminas, inhalantes, ...) y finalmente un tercer patrón caracterizado por un empleo específico de dos drogas ilícitas: LSD y drogas sintéticas. La consideración de estos patrones podría ser útil de cara a la intervención.

Relación entre los diferentes comportamientos de riesgo

Los resultados mostraron diferencias significativas entre los consumidores habituales de alcohol y los no consumidores en las dimensiones de la violencia escolar. Los adolescentes que no beben el alcohol diariamente mostraron una media más alta la dimensión víctima de gravedad media de violencia escolar (exclusión y violencia psicológica) que los que usan esta sustancia diariamente (a diario). Esto sugiere que probablemente el consumo de alcohol sea empleado por el grupo de iguales como una forma de integración en el grupo, y los que no beben están en riesgo más alto para ser discriminado en la escuela.

Además, los resultados mostraron una correlación significativa entre la agresión de gravedad extrema en la escuela y comportamientos de riesgo como el comportamiento antisocial o el empleo de sustancia. El patrón de correlaciones entre la violencia de la escuela, el comportamiento antisocial y el consumo de sustancias sugiere la existencia de un síndrome de comportamiento de problema adolescente (Jessor et al, 1998) como un estilo de vida (Nutbeam, Aaro & Catford, 1989; Balaguer, 2002).

Factores de riesgo y protección: una aproximación ecológica

Los resultados revelan, en el caso de alcohol, las siguientes variables predictoras: fumar, edad, actividades de ocio como ir a discotecas o pubs y estar en la calle. En el caso de sustancias ilegales, las variables predictoras resultan: fumar, beber, agresión escolar y actitudes sexistas y violentas, reducción de tensión y actividades de tiempo libre como ir a discotecas o pubs y estar en la calle.

Sobre las actividades de tiempo libre, es importante destacar la alta exposición de los adolescentes españoles a los contexto de riesgo (Díaz Aguado, Arias de Martínez y Martínez, 2000). Hay una relación importante entre ir a la discoteca o pubs y el consumo de drogas. Estos resultados sugieren la necesidad de crear actividades alternativas, en las que los adolescentes no estén tan expuestos al riesgo.

Por otro lado, se contrasta el resultado encontrado en otros estudios sobre la relación entre la reducción de tensión, como una estrategia de afrontamiento, y el consumo de drogas,



(Frydenberg, 1999; Rollin et Al-, 1999; Piko 2001; Díaz-Aguado y Arias de Martínez, 2004). Este dato revela el el papel del afrontamiento improductivo, como un factor de riesgo. Según esto, la prevención de consumo de droga debería mejorar las estrategias de afrontamiento de los problemas de los adolescentes.

En relación a la satisfacción vital, los pensamientos negativos sobre la calidad de vida plasmada en el nivel de satisfacción con los diferentes contextos con los que se relaciona el adolescente, parece convertirse en un factor de riesgo, especialmente en el caso del consumo de sustancias (Zulling, Valois, Huebner, Oeltmann, Drane, 2001).

Finalmente, consumidores de sustancias ilegales y agresores (en la violencia de la escuela) obtuvieron una media más alta en actitudes de violencia y el sexismo. Estas variables pueden ser consideradas factores de riesgo, y situadas dentro de un planteamiento ecológico (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) a nivel de macrosistema, puesto que reflejan las actitudes sociales. En diferentes reuniones internacionales, se ha advertido del incremento de la intolerancia y violencia, como una respuesta a los cambios sociales actuales (la UNESCO, 1996). En este sentido, estas actitudes intolerantes y violentas podrían ser consideradas un modo de enfrentarse con la incertidumbre que el período adolescente supone.

Implicaciones

Este estudio es de naturaleza correlacional y por lo tanto las relaciones encontradas entre los factores de riesgo y los diferentes comportamientos no pueden ser consideradas como relaciones causales. Por otra parte, todas las medidas estaban basadas en el autoinforme, y aunque nosotros controláramos la deseabilidad social, las asociaciones encontradas podrían haberse visto afectadas. Sin embargo, los datos indicaron dos importantes tendencias que creemos que deben ser tenidas en cuenta de cara a la intervención con adolescentes. Primero, las intervenciones para prevenir la violencia de la escuela y el consumo de sustancias deberían centrarse en el trabajo a tres niveles: pensamientos, comportamientos y actitudes (relacionadas con los componentes cognoscitivos, emocionales y conductuales). Segundo, la relación entre los distintos comportamientos de riesgo, revela la necesidad de intervenciones globales encaminadas a mejorar el estilo de vida del adolescente y a su relación con los distintos contextos en que interacciona: familia, escuela y grupo de iguales.

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PSYCHOSOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS IN SPANISH ADOLESCENTS: AN ECOLOGICAL APPROACH

INTRODUCTION

Risk behaviours, as violence and substance use, are growing problems among adolescents in Spain, as several studies have found (eg. Ortega & Mora-Merchán, 1999; Ombudsman's Office-Defensor del Pueblo, 2000; Martín Seoane, Pulido & Vera, 2004, Plan Nacional de Drogas, 2004). The traditional concept of adolescence, characterized by turmoil and upheaval, is not maintained nowadays. Although, the great amount of changes that they have to cope with (cognitive, social, affective, physical,...), can explain why some adolescents initiate risk behaviors.

The concept of substance use, applied to adolescence, reveals a risk situation due to this sporadic or experimental use that can develop a substance abuse that begins in this period. Substance abuse is defined as the use of alcohol and other drugs in ways that negatively affect life functions. These negative effects can be physical (e.g. injuries), emotional (e.g. irritability) or behavioural (e.g. truancy, impaired academic performance) or legal (e.g. arrests). Most adolescents who use alcohol and drugs do not use them in ways that are considered abuse. The use that begins earlier than an average age, however, increases the probability that use will escalate into abuse (Forman, Bry & Urga, 2006). Information from some Spanish institutions (Plan Nacional de Drogas, 2004) shows that, in the case of drugs, the mean age of first use has been decreasing over time and the prevalence of consumption is increasing. In the case of tobacco, the mean age of first use is 13.2 in 2004 (13.9 ten years before) and the percentage of consumption is 37.4 (31.1 ten years before). The prevalence of alcohol consumption is 65.6 % while the mean age of first use is 13.7. The prevalence of cannabis is 25.1% (12.4 ten years before) and the mean age of first use is 14.7 (18.2 ten years before).

On the other hand, about the problem of violence, research finds that violent behaviour in adolescence places youth at greater risk for continued high levels of violent behaviour and other externalizing problems in late adolescence and early adulthood (Lipsey & Derzon, 1998). Focusing on the phenomenon of school violence, it refers to all behaviours that difficult relations at school, when a person or group of people are insulted, physically assaulted, socially excluded or isolate, harassed, threatened or intimidated by one or several peers, who do those things to the victim(s) with impunity. If these behaviors are not mere incidences, but are rather repeated, a special type of school violence it begins called bullying, "the victim finds himself psychologically, physically or socially defenseless due to a decrease in self-esteem, personal safety and initiative capacity caused by the action of the aggressor(s), the absence or scarcity of outside help and the continuous nature of this social situation" (Ortega, 2000). Spanish studies about school violence and bullying have revealed that exclusion and psychological aggression are the most frequent ways of school violence (Defensor del Pueblo 2000; Martín Seoane, Pulido & Vera, 2004).

Several studies indicated associations between substance use and violence in adolescents. Fraser (2001) studied a sample of young offenders and found two substance use patterns. The first pattern was characterized by high use of alcohol, marijuana and street drugs. This substance use profile was accompanied by high rates of childhood maltreatment, including physical abuse, emotional/psychological abuse and witnessing family violence. Additionally, poly-substance

use pattern was accompanied by high rates of versatile delinquent identification. The second substance use pattern was accompanied by high rates of covert disruptive behaviour, in the absence of violence or aggression. Molcho, Harel & Dina (2004) examined the co-morbidity of substance use and violence among a representative sample of adolescents. They found that daily smoking, use of illicit drugs, history of drunkenness and binge drinking were the best predictors of violent behaviours. Kinlock, Battjes & Gordon (2004) studied the factors associated with the severity of self-reported pre-treatment offending of 178 adolescents entering outpatient substance abuse treatment. Results indicated that increased severity of crime was related to male gender, use of drugs other than alcohol and marijuana, bullying and being physically cruel to people, high levels of deviant behaviour among peers, school problems, and having sex without a barrier.

Different theories and models have been offered to explain those risk behaviour during adolescence. The approach adopted in the present study emphasizes the developmental perspective that define risk taking as a part of problem-behaviour proneness and as a maladaptive trait (Jessor, Turbin & Costa, 1998), but also as functional and goal directed and as an important part of development in adolescence (Jessor, Donovan & Costa, 1991). Furthermore, they often covary, with one risk behaviour related to other risk behaviours (e.g. Scal, Ireland & Borowsky, 2003; Rhoads, 2004; Swahn & Donovan, 2004), increasing the likelihood of engagement in such behaviours. Young people who are seriously involved in juvenile delinquency, substance abuse, school dropout, teenage pregnancy, or violence are more likely to engage in one or more of the other problem behaviours.

Withing the framework of ecological theory (Bronfrenbrenner, 1979), all of these teen problems share many common risk factors. Youth are embedded within multiple social contexts simultaneously, and the ecological approach tries to consider all together. A team of the University of Washington in Seattle (Stark, K., 1995) has conducted a review of thirty years of youth substance abuse and delinquency research and identified risk factor for adolescents. They conclude that, in the community level, we can consider as risk factors the followings: the availability of drugs and also the perceived availability of drugs, the availability of firearms, community laws and norms favourable toward drug use, firearms, and crime (through laws and written policies, through social practices, and through the expectations that members of the community have of young people), media portrayal of violence (violent problem-solving strategies, violent behaviours,...), low neighbourhood attachment and community disorganization (low surveillance of public places, lower rates of voter participation, lower rates of parental involvement in schools), extreme economic deprivation. In the family level, they emphasise the relation with: family history of problem behaviour (a history of addiction to alcohol or other drugs, history of criminal activity, teenage mother), family management problems (lack of clear expectations for behaviour, failure of parents to monitor their children, excessively severe or inconsistent punishment), family conflict (persistent, serious conflict between caregivers, domestic violence), parental attitudes (parents who excuse their children for breaking the law, parents who display violent behaviour towards those outside the family, parents who involve children in their own drug or alcohol behaviour, asking them to lit the parent's cigarette or get the parent a beer from the refrigerator). From the school level they point out the early and persistent antisocial behaviour (misbehaving in school, skipping and getting into fights with other children), academic failure beginning in elementary school (the experience of failure, not necessarily ability), lack of commitment to school (meaning that young person has ceased to see the role of student as a viable one, or the feeling that you have "sold out" to the majority culture). From the point of view of peer risk factors, they mark the relation with friends who engage in the problem behaviour (and this is one of the most consistent predictors



that research has identified). And finally, at the individual level, they conclude that alienation and rebelliousness, favourable attitudes toward the problem behaviour, early initiation of the problem behaviour and constitutional factors (sensation-seeking, low harm-avoidance, lack of impulse control) are involved with risk behaviour. On the other hand, in regards to protective factors they identified individual characteristics (resilient temperament, a positive social orientation, intelligence), positive bonding (families, friends, school or community), healthy beliefs and clear standards.

This study builds on these findings to examine the role of several risk and protective factors, related to school violence and drug consumption. The data were collected in a representative sample of 1475 Spanish high school students (aged 14-18 years).

METHOD

Participants

The representative sample consisted of 1475 Spanish adolescents (aged 14-18 years), 49,4% girls and 50,6% boys, from different educational levels: Compulsory Secondary Education (59,6%), Baccalaureate (22,8%) and Specific/initial Training Courses (7,5%). A sampling by clusters was carried out, with a maximum sampling error of 5% and a confidence level of 95%, the primary sampling units being all the groups from the public, grant-aided and private schools in Madrid.

Instruments

The measurement of risk behaviours

The questionnaire that measured substance use (tobacco, alcohol and illicit drugs) is based on the national survey about drugs (Plan Nacional sobre Drogas, 2004). It included questions about: age of first drug use, how often adolescents use each of these substances during the last month, using a 5 point-Likert scale (0=never; 5=daily). Consumption of alcohol included several types of drinks as wine, beer or cocktails. Consumption of illicit drugs included several types of substance as cannabis, cocaine, LSD, inhalants, amphetamine and synthetic drugs.

The CEVEO (Díaz-Aguado, Martínez Arias, Martín Seoane, 2003) is a questionnaire, based on instruments for bullying (Defensor del Pueblo, 2000; Olweus, 1995), that measures violence situations between peers in the educational context (exclusion, verbal aggressions, violence against properties and physical aggression) according to three roles: victims, aggressors and observers. The instrument includes 15 different types of violence: ignoring, not allowing participating, criticizing, rejecting, insulting, nicknaming, hiding things, breaking things, stealing, hitting, threatening in order to frighten, forcing to do things, intimidating with sexual insults, forcing to sexual situations and threatening with weapons. These situations were measured by a 5 point-Likert scale (1=never happens; 5=always happens). A factorial analysis of the scale-based items indicated two dimensions: medium violence, that included situations as exclusion and psychological violence (medium aggression and medium victim) and extreme violence that included physical violence (extreme aggression and extreme victim). These factors explained 53-65% of the total variance and Cronbach's alpha was .70 (IC 95%: .65-.72) for victim medium, .67 (IC 95%: .63-.70) for victim extreme, .86 (IC 95%: .86-.88) for aggression medium, .87 (IC 95%: .86-.88) for aggression extreme, indicating that this scale was an internally reliable measure.

The measurement of risk and protective factors

The CADV (Díaz-Aguado, Martínez Arias, Martín Seoane, 2004) is an instrument to



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

measure attitudes like *sexism, intolerance and violence justification*. Participants agree or disagree with the 72 items of the questionnaire, using a 7 point-Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Factorial analysis of the scale-based items confirmed these dimensions. Cronbach’s alpha was .85 for justification of violence, .85 for sexism and .82 for intolerance. Demographic questions were included to obtain a background information from the students (age, gender).

The questionnaire CRA (Martín Seoane, 2003), measure different risk and protective factors as *life satisfaction* (school, family and friends) and *spare time activities*. This instrument includes a scale of 37 items related to risk behaviours. Factorial analysis reduced these items to 4 factors: *antisocial behaviour, risk taking, group pressing and eating disorders*, due to the aims of the present study only two dimensions were used. These dimensions explained the 45% of total variance and Cronbach’s alpha was .89 (IC 95%:.88-.91) for antisocial behaviour, .74 (IC 95%: .70-.77) for risk taking.

The way of coping was measured by the Spanish version of the Adolescent Coping Scale (Frydenberg & Lewis, 1997), an 80 item checklist that identifies 18 coping strategies commonly used by adolescents. The scale consists of 79 questions which elicit ratings of an individual’s use of 18 coping strategies, plus a final open-ended question. Scores on the scales are standardised so that the respondent’s preferred coping styles can be readily compared. The items on the ACS comprise 18 different scales, each containing between three and five items, and each reflecting a different coping response (behaviour or a mind set). To record their responses, students indicate if in the coping behaviour described was used “a great deal”, often, sometimes, very little or doesn’t apply, by circling numbers 4,3,2,1 or 0 respectively. All scales are reliable with alphas ranging from .54 to .85 with a median figure of .70. The stability of responses as measured by test retest reliability coefficients range from .41 to .81 and are in general moderate, but nevertheless satisfactory given the dynamic nature of coping (Frydenberg & Lewis, 2002).

Procedure

Permission to conduct this study was obtained from school principals, by sending a letter with a description of the study, explanation about the voluntary nature of the study. All participants completed the questionnaires in their classrooms. Administration was conducted by a researcher who was a psychologist. Students were assured of confidentiality and that no one in the school would have access to their questionnaire.

RESULTS

First, to obtain a best knowledge of the psychosocial characteristics of Spanish adolescents we used descriptive analysis in the variables we have measured: life satisfaction, spare time activities, coping strategies and risk behaviour. Second, we included the regression analysis we have used to examine the role of risk and protective factors.

Life satisfaction

Spanish adolescents show high means in different elements from life satisfaction scale. The highest mean is “friends”, and the lowest one is “learning at school”. These results show the relevance of peer group and the difficulties they find at school.

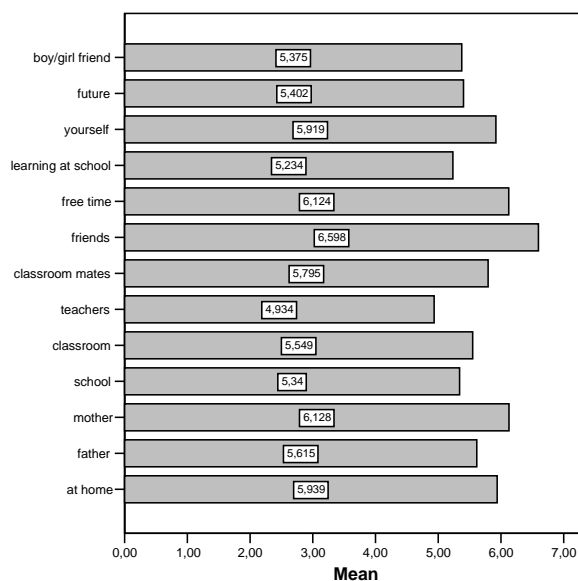


Figure 1. Life satisfaction: How do you feel...?

A factorial analysis was used to reduce the number of elements, finding three factors: “satisfaction with school”, including *teachers, learning at school, classroom mates, classroom*; “personal and intimate satisfaction”, including *yourself, future, friends, free time and boy/girl friends* and “familiar satisfaction”, including *father, mother and home*. The “familiar satisfaction” factor revealed significant means in the case of substance abuse (illicit and licit drugs), adolescents that didn’t use these drugs daily showed a higher satisfaction with his family.

Spare time activities

Spanish adolescents used to develop the following activities: being outside, going to pubs and discos, going to a friend’s home, shown in Figure 2.

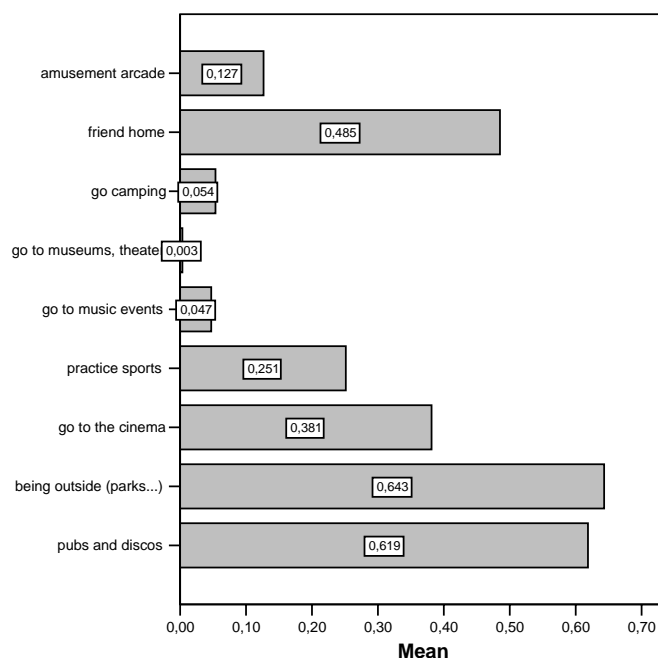


Figure 2. Spare time activities

Ways of coping problems

The descriptive analysis of coping strategies, measured by ACS, showed that Spanish adolescents use more strategies as *seek relaxing activities, invest in close friends, worry, solving problem and social support* (Figure 3).

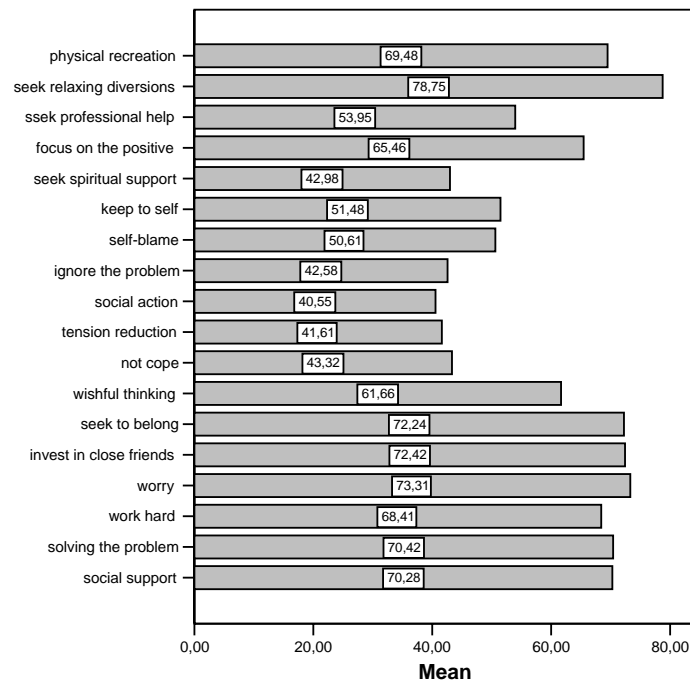


Figure 3. Strategies of coping

A factorial analysis was used to reduce the number of strategies. After trying different solutions, we selected two dimensions solutions: “productive coping and non productive coping”, according to the author of the scale. The “productive coping” included strategies as *hard work, worry, solving the problem and social support*. On the other hand “non productive coping” included strategies as the *seek for relaxing diversions, keep to self, self-blame and not coping*.

Risk behaviour: School Violence and substance use

Descriptive results indicate that social exclusion and verbal violence are a common phenomenon among Spanish adolescents. The percentages of adolescents who are criticized is 54%, they are ignored in 38 % of the cases, they are insulted in 35%, they are nicknamed in 30%, they aren't allowed to participate in 23%, and they are rejected in 21%. Although less frequent, they suffer these physical situations: their things are hidden in 27% of the cases, they are stolen in 13 %, their things are broken in 12%, they are hit in 9%, they are threatened in 8% and they are intimidated with sexual insults in 7%. The most dangerous situations (being forced to do things, being obligated to sexual situations, being threatened with weapons) have occurred in 1-3% of the cases. On the other hand, the results from the aggressor role are as follows: the students recognize to having participated in criticizing their peers in 65% of the cases, they ignore in 61%, they insult in 47%, they nickname in 46%, they don't allow to participate in 24%, and they reject in 35%. Although less frequent, they cause this physical situations: they hide things in 24% of the cases, they steal in 6 %, they break things in 7%, they hit in 13%, they threaten in 12% and intimidate with sexual insults in 9%. The most dangerous situations (force

to do things, obligate to sexual situations, threaten with weapons) have occurred in 1-3% of the cases.

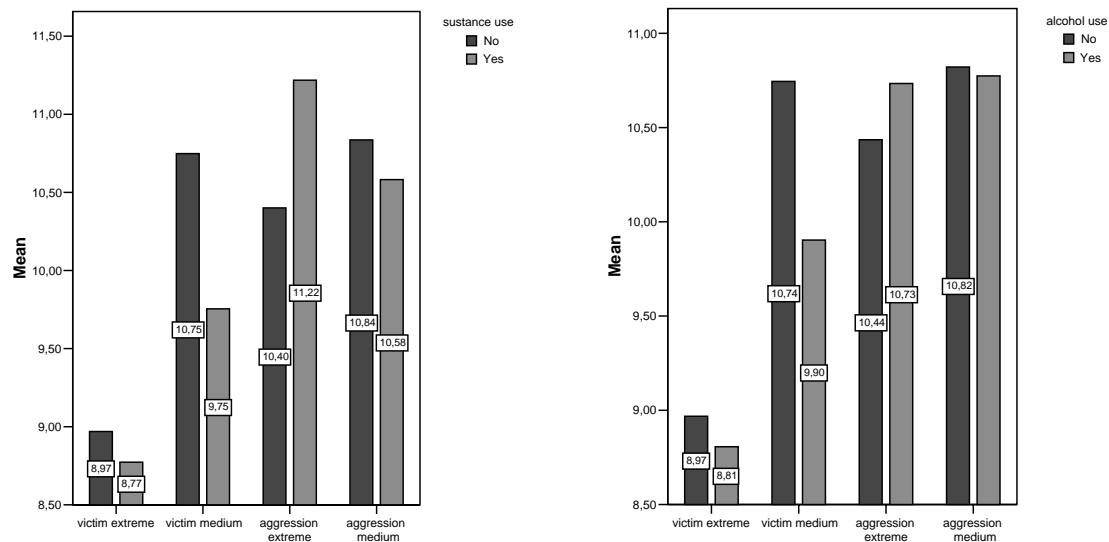
In order to analyze these results, we used a factorial analysis, obtaining the next factors (explaining 53-65% of the total variance, and with a high correlation between factors (.492-.538):- *extreme violence victims* (with items like threatening with weapons, forcing to do things,...), - *medium violence victims* (with items like rejecting, hiding or breaking things, insulting, ...), - *extreme violence aggressors* (with items like threatening with weapons, forcing to do things,...) and - *medium violence aggressors* (with items like rejecting, ignoring, insulting, ...).

A Pearson's product moment correlation analysis was used to determine the relation between the variables studied. Examining the relation among the dimensions of school violence, results showed significant correlation between victim medium and victim extreme ($r=.555$) and between aggression extreme and aggression medium ($r=.555$). Results indicated that the correlation between extreme aggression at school (physical violence and threat) and sexism ($r=.338$, $p<.001$), intolerance ($r=.269$, $p<.001$) and justification of violence ($r=.467$, $p<.001$) were significant ($p<.001$). In the case of medium aggression at school (exclusion and psychological violence), the correlations are significant, too. These correlations showed that adolescents that use violence against their peers had higher levels of these attitudes.

Analysing the relation between the dimensions of school violence and antisocial behaviour or risk taking, results indicated significant correlation between aggression medium and antisocial behaviour ($r=.207$, $p<.001$). In the case of aggression extreme is stronger with antisocial behaviour ($r=.294$, $p<.001$) and risk taking ($r=.223$, $p<.001$). In contrast, correlations between victim and these risk behaviour were not significant.

On the other hand, describing the drug patterns of Spanish adolescents, the order in the frequency of use is alcohol, in first place, 52% of Spanish adolescent used to drink at least once time per week. In the case of illegal substance, cannabis takes the first place (79,2%). Examining the relationship among substance use, results revealed strong and significant correlations ($p<.001$) between alcohol and cannabis ($r=.456$) and tobacco ($r=.411$). In the case of cocaine, there are significant correlations between this substance and cannabis ($r=.337$), amphetamine ($r=.405$), LSD ($r=.228$), synthetic drugs ($r=.324$) and inhalants ($r=.316$). LSD showed a significant correlation with synthetic drugs ($r=.823$).

For a best understanding of the relation among the risk behaviours, we compared the dimensions of school violence in different groups according to the substance use. These groups were elaborated becoming the variable "frequent use in last month" into a new nominal variable with to values: one if the level of consumption was high (daily use) and another one if the level of consumption was low (sporadic or experimental use). T student analyse was used to determine the significant differences between groups of consumers in school violence. Analysing the mean differences in school violence between the group that use illicit drugs and the group that do not, we can observe that in the case of victim medium, adolescent that don't use illicit drugs showed daily a higher and significant mean ($p<.01$) in this dimension of violence. There are significant differences ($p<.01$) in the dimension aggression extreme, the group of adolescents that use illicit substance daily, get a higher mean than the other group of adolescents. In the case of alcohol consumption, although there are differences in the means of all dimensions of violence, T student revealed significant differences only in the case of victim's medium ($p<.01$). The group of adolescents who do not drink alcohol daily showed a higher mean in victim's medium (exclusion and psychological violence) than those who use this substance daily.



Figures 4. Comparing consumption of illicit drugs and alcohol in dimensions of school violence

The prediction of Risk behaviour

In both cases, the differences between consumers and non consumers are statistically significant, in familiar satisfaction; $p < .01$ in the case of alcohol, and $p < .05$ in the case of illegal substances.

Multiple regression analysis revealed that, in the case of alcohol (see table 2, the block of predictor variables were: smoking, age, spare time activities as going out to disco or pubs and staying outside. According to the results of Cox snell (.253), this model explained a low variance of the dependent variable (alcohol consumption).

Table 2. Coefficients (alcohol)

Variables	B	E.T.	Wald	gl	Sig.	Exp(B)
smoke	.524	.056	87.251	1	.000	1.688
Going to discos and pubs	1.665	.129	167.149	1	.000	5.284
Staying outside	.320	.130	6.086	1	.014	1.377
Age	.117	.046	6.501	1	.011	1.124
Constant	-2.941	.732	16.133	1	.000	.053

In the case of illegal substance (table 3), the predictor variables were: smoking, drinking, violence and violence and sexist attitudes, tension reduction, spare time activities as going out to discos or pubs and staying outside.

Table 3. Coefficients (illegal substance)

Variables	B	E.T.	Wald	gl	Sig.	Exp(B)
smoke	.743	.049	226.811	1	.000	2.102
Going to pubs and discos	.773	.185	17.492	1	.000	2.166
Staying outside	.448	.157	8.102	1	.004	1.565
Drinking	1.588	.208	58.029	1	.000	4.894
Violent attitudes	.017	.004	15.316	1	.000	1.017
Non productive coping	-.003	.002	3.993	1	.046	.997
Tension reduction	.012	.006	3.534	1	.060	1.012
Constant	-4.196	.456	84.845	1	.000	.015

According to the results of Cox snell, this model explained a variance of the dependent variable (illegal substance) of 34%.

DISCUSSION

School violence

Results showed a strong relationship among the different dimensions of school violence (aggression and victim in levels medium and extreme) and some attitudes as sexism, intolerance or justification of violence. This fact could reveal a continuum in school violence from an inadequate relationship among peers characterized by using psychological violence and exclusion to bullying (the most extreme way of school violence). According to this, prevention of violence should improve adolescent's social skills to cope with conflicts and develop attitudes against violence, as tolerance and gender equality.

Substance use

Results revealed strong and significant correlations among different substance, what should be explained as patterns of substance use. The first pattern should include the use of alcohol, cannabis and tobacco; a second pattern should be characterized by a poly-consumption of illicit substance (cocaine, cannabis, synthetic drugs, amphetamine, inhalants...) and finally a third pattern characterized by a specific use of two illicit drugs: LSD and synthetic drugs. The consideration of those patterns should be useful to adequate the intervention to the specific characteristics of the consumption.

Relation among different risk behaviours

Results showed significant mean differences between the groups of alcohol consumption in the case of victim medium. Adolescents who do not drink alcohol daily showed a higher mean in victim medium (exclusion and psychological violence) than those who use this substance daily. This suggests that probably consumption of alcohol is being used by peers as a way of integration in the group, and those who do not drink are in higher risk to be discriminated at school. Additionally, results showed significant correlation between dimensions aggression extreme at school and risk behaviours as antisocial behaviour or substance use. The pattern of the interrelations among school violence, antisocial behaviour and substance use suggests the existence of a syndrome of adolescent problem behaviour (Jessor, et al, 1998) as an aspect of a more general life-style (Nutbeam, Aaro & Catford, 1989; Balaguer, 2002).

Risk and protective factors: an ecological approach

Using a multiple regression analysis, we found that, in the case of alcohol, the block of predictor variables were: smoking, age and spare time activities as going out to disco/pubs or staying outside. In the case of illegal substance, the predictor variables were: smoking, drinking, violence and violence and sexist attitudes, tension reduction, spare time activities as going out to disco or pubs and staying outside.

About the spare time activities, it is important to mark the high exposition of Spanish teenagers to risky context, as it has been pointed out previously (Díaz Aguado, Martínez Arias & Martínez, 2000). There is an important relation between going out to discos or pubs, and drug consumption. These results suggest the necessity of creating alternatives spare time activities, in which adolescents wouldn't be in such a high risk exposure.

In addition, the relation between tension reduction, as a strategy, and drug consumption, is also consistent with previous research (Frydenberg, 1999; Rollin et al, 1999; Piko 2001;



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Díaz-Aguado & Martínez Arias, 2004). This finding points out the role of a non productive way of copying with problems, as a risk factor for students. These adolescents have higher levels of engaging in drug consumption. According to this, prevention of drug consumption should improve adolescent's problem solving strategies.

On the other hand, negative thoughts about their own life's quality emerged as a potentially risk factor, related to drug consumption. Several researchers have found the same significant relation between dissatisfaction and drug consumption in teenagers (Zulling, Valois, Huebner, Oeltmann, Drane, 2001). Our findings suggest that perceived life's quality may work to buffer the effects of risk behavior.

Furthermore, illegal consumers and aggressors (in school violence) obtained higher means in sexism and violence attitudes. These variables can be consider risk factors, and within an ecological approach (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) we are talking about macro system, as they represent the standing attitudes in society. In different international meetings, it has been pointed out the increment of intolerance and violence, as an answer to the social changes lately (UNESCO, 1996). Those intolerant and violent attitudes could be considered a way to cope with the incertitude that the adolescent period means.

Implications

The present study is correlational in nature and therefore the cause and effect relationships between substance use and school violence cannot be unambiguously established. All measures were based on self-report using a single informant, and although we controlled for social desirability effects, the associations found might have been affected by common source variance. Nevertheless, the data indicated two important correlates of risk behaviour that should be borne in mind when developing intervention programs for adolescents. First, Interventions to prevent school violence should focus on behaviours and attitudes, related to the cognitive, emotional and behavioural components. Second, the relation between risk behaviours, increase the likelihood of engagement in such behaviours. This finding suggests global interventions to improve adolescent's life style, attending to the different systems: social, familiar, scholar and peer group.

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HUMAN RESOURCES – A DETERMINING FACTOR OF SCIENTIFIC PROGRESS PROMOTION

Radu RĂDUCAN, Ramona RĂDUCAN

Faculty of Psychology, “Tibiscus” University, Timișoara, România

ABSTRACT

This paper highlights the role of human resources in the promotion of scientific and technical progress at the international level. Innovation has a determining role in the development of society, in general, and of the various organizations, in particular.

However, without a major involvement of human resources in the implementation of its results, and without their dissemination, the progress of humanity is achieved more difficult and slower.

The free access to the latest information becomes a major condition of the marked development of the universal society, a desideratum to which all small or large states should adhere without reserves.

REZUMAT

Lucrarea subliniază rolul resurselor umane în promovarea progresului științific și tehnic la nivel internațional. Inovarea are un rol determinat în dezvoltarea societății, în general, și a diverselor organizații, în particular.

Însă, fără o implicare majoră a resurselor umane în implementarea rezultatelor ei și fără o diseminare a acestora, progresul umanității se realizează mult mai greu și încet.

Accesul liber la ultimele noutăți devine o condiție majoră a dezvoltării accentuate a societății universale, deziderat la care toate statele mici sau mari trebuie să adere fără rezerve.

Both in Romania, and in other countries from Central and Eastern Europe, the socialist political economy replaced the role of market competition with the economy centralizing and promoting a system of artificial prices, which was related neither with the real market, nor with the international productivity standards. The activity of socialist industry was not generating innovation, although there was attributed, out of political reasons, an exacerbated role to scientific research and its contribution in the development of the respective economy.

These past realities are still perpetuated at present through industrial structures not yet adequate to innovation and marked by a reduced competitive capacity. The strategies of science and technology within the countries of eastern and central Europe should have a bidimensional character, with a view both to introduce certain reforms in the research-development organizing, and to develop an economic and cultural climate favourable to innovation.

Beyond the good intentions, there an opposition to these changes can be observed, in spite of the fact that the economic stabilization strategies that have been adopted lay stress upon the market. As a matter of fact, the governmental restructuring and adjustment strategies within the various fields of activity cannot be very much trusted, maybe also because of the discrediting and failures before 1990.

That is why the strategies of science and technology have had to be supported, both in Romania and in other countries, by groups of interests involved in research-development activity, such as the academies of sciences, universities, research institutes or researchers professional organizations.

If, as concerns the requests directed towards the national research work are limited, there has been observed a strong tendency to encourage the connections with the research institutes and laboratories from other countries.

There have been imported several models of relations between research work and industry, such as the technology transfer centres, the scientific parks, the business incubators etc, which have proliferated quite a lot.

These new mechanisms and institutions with progressive role in making fundamental research more flexible and more sensitive as far as the requirements of the economy are concerned, have, unfortunately, a yet uncertain practical value. Within an environment resistant to innovation, the contents and context of the activities differs from that of the institutions with the same aim from the developed countries and, consequently, their impact over national economies is still rather reduced. That is why, a cautious analysis of their evolution required to temperate the exaggerations in the valuation of their impact over the transition economies.

The strategies of the organizations are, as a rule, passive and conservative, based rather on the accumulated resources than on the introduction of certain new technologies which imply a greater degree of risk.

The collapse of the eastern European integrated market has struck most firms, there being impossible to actually replace the system of the safe contracts oriented towards new technologies intended for the market. Under such circumstances, firms are not interested in establishing and developing new relations with research work that may facilitate the transfer of technology.

In many countries from central and east Europe, the hypertrophy of the research-development system and certain better developed infrastructures may offer major advantages for the elaboration and implementation of some viable innovation systems. The present research capacities, crucial for the future of innovation in this area are vitiated by major structural problems which reduce the possibility of interaction between various actors of the research system on the one side, and industry on the other side.

Universities, dedicated to education, did not have as first responsibility the research work, these two attributions being separated. For decades there has been developed a rivalry between these sectors that are in competition for governmental resources. However, in universities, in spite of the precarious technical equipping as compared with the West-European level, there has taken place a research activity carried out by the teaching staff, either within their doctoral programs or within the research programs carried out with the students.

The universities research potential, insufficiently exploited in the past, represents now a valuable resource which can be materialized in entrepreneurial initiatives.

The industrial research work, both the applicative work and the developing one, has been organized in research institutes under the coordination of the branch ministries. Their financing was budgetary, coming from the funds of these ministries. Later, these institutes, which were changed into "research commercial societies" proved a reduced capacity to adapt themselves to market demands. With some exceptions, the firms based on the research-development work do not yet have a significant influence over the industrial production.

Lately, the severe reduction of the funds for research work and the abolition of the safe traditional markets of the East European countries has forced the research institutes and their managers to find new possibilities to increase the incomes.

The new legislations and the climate of market competition have created conditions to only partially turn to account their latent capacities. This was due to their structural inertia, to the absence of the critical mass, and to the very difficult problems connected to

industry restructuring on the general background of a rather slow privatizing process which did not offer long term perspectives.

Consequently, an immediate imperative was the elaboration and the promotion of certain strategies to support the research requirements of industry and to strengthen the connections between research work and industry. The solving of such a problem is rather difficult under such conditions in which the break between research work and industry had to be surpassed. Consequently, there has been imposed a profound reform of the university learning, mainly with a view to introduce a doctor's degree system based on research work, and, generally, to promote the idea of the students' training through and for research work.

The connections between industry and research work had to be reestablished by transforming the personal, occasional and informal relations into formal, stable relations, of mutual interests stimulated and supported through active governmental policies.

An important condition of solving these problems is represented by the elaboration of a system of priorities where the selected fundamental research fields be supported both by the scientific performance of the research teams, and by the perspective of solving, on their basis, the vital problems of the technologies renewing and modernizing.

This thing supposes the change of the mechanisms for funds allocation, the promotion to a greater extent of the system of grants and valuation through commissions of experts, as well as the assurance of the resources for the infrastructure required by a fundamental valuable research work.

The reforms in the field of research work imply, on the one hand, the reorganizing of the system of decision taking, as well as clear rules for the research work and business management, and on the other hand, the avoidance of the conflicts of interests, of the overlappings of harmful competences and responsibilities. The business and industry oriented activities, such as the research and development ones, can be reorganized to meet the requirements of the new market demands.

Recent experience points out a multitude of possible ways to restore the system of connections between research work and industry. Some countries, Romania including, have adopted models from western countries of "Academy-Industry Relations" type. The mere copying of such models can be dangerous due to the essential differences that exist in the economic and social environment of the transition countries as compared to that of the western countries.

That is why, under the circumstances, the conceiving and elaboration of some own models adequate to the conditions of each country may prove more efficient. On the basis of such quests and profound changes, there have been set up within some research institutes or universities from various countries, either naturally, or within some special governmental policies, the so-called "spin-offs".

Encouraged by the new legislations, mainly by those referring to private firms setting up, research teams, production units or technical departments, the university staffs members having greater experience in incomes generating than private firms have set up these bridges for technology transfer. They express the entrepreneurial spirit that exists within the scientific research work and technological development environment.

If the setting up of these new institutional forms has been partially determined by factors similar to those which have led to their occurrence in the western countries, there exists, however, a series of significant differences, among which the most important is the reduced bent towards high-tech or generic technologies.

In some East-European countries, Western practices have produced the stimulation among researchers or decision taking factors of the setting up of specific institutional forms for the

connection between industry and universities or research institutes, such as scientific incubators or parks.

The same model guides the setting up of some centres for technology transfer in Romania. On account of the reduced local demand for research work, self-financing signifies research contracts and facilities supported by the state, rather than relations with private partners.

In the main, the transfer centres may become important vehicles for the transfer of technology if they get enough governmental support to develop their own potential. The Commerce and Industry Chambers have become in these countries an active promoter for the setting up of National Business and Innovation Centres.

The relations between research work and industry make no sense if they are not conceived within the broader context of the national innovation process and the informational flows that support it. As a rule, fundamental research in universities contributes with an incremental input to the support of a product on the market rather than to a revolutionary discovery in the technological field. The literature mentions within this context that it is not the individual actors which have a crucial role in the production, development and turning to account of the technical and scientific knowledge, but the informal networks.

In Romania, the transfer of technology is achieved with great difficulty and the invigoration of the firm research work is a slow process marked by the many economic difficulties, among which the financial blockade, the subcapitalizing of enterprises, and the lack of some financial-banking stimuli for research-development work are the most important.

On the other hand, the technology offer at the national level is not stimulative for enterprises, either from subjective reasons (distrust in the results of Romanian research work), or from objective reasons (a reduced qualitative level of the offer, without adequately meeting the requirements of the enterprises). The stimuli from the part of the market are yet timid, i.e. there is a lack of exigency, as far as the industrial consumers, but mostly the individuals are concerned towards products at international standards.

The low competitive economic environment, a yet insufficient offer as compared to the demand, allows big enterprises to indulge in the inertia of certain noninnovative behaviour, and enables small enterprises to proliferate especially in the field of services, mainly commercial ones, where the profit is quick and safe.

Starting with 1995, there a new strategic concept concerning the organizing and functioning of the innovational system in Romania has been outlined, within which the degree of the firms involvement could increase substantially, and the transfer of technology is given special attention. In the Governmental Decree 25/1995 there have been stipulated new stimuli for firms with a view to their taking part in research programs in collaboration with the national research institutes or with the commercial companies which develop research activities.

There has also been stipulated the stimulation through governmental support of the technology transfer from research to industry by means of the National Agency of Technology Transfer and Innovation, as well as the perfecting of the activity of the regional centres of technology transfer, according to the model of offices for industrial connections from the countries with market economy.

The inertia of the old structures of the research-development system, as well as the difficult conditions of the transition to market economy in Eastern and Central Europe have a great influence over the strategies from the research-development field, by shifting the stress from the firm strategies to the national ones.

The efficient involvement of governments, both through direct financing, but mainly through indirect financing-banking stimulating methods and mechanisms may be a rational

solution, both for short and medium term, as well as for long term.

Given the separation of industrial research from industry, it may seem, at least theoretically, that the optimum solution for the stimulation of innovation could be the reintegration of research institutes in the industrial firms, or their conversion into services offering or even productive enterprises.

These processes have become obvious with greater or smaller intensity in all the European transition countries, being generated by phenomena specific to this period (such as the diversifying of the research institutes, the spontaneous or controlled privatization, the setting up of some so-called spin-offs).

The externalizing of the research capacities has created the misapprehension that industrial organizations, separated from research, are passive receivers of the outputs of the activity of research-development institutes, ready any time to absorb new products and technologies. The neglecting of the enterprise as source of technology and the highlighting of the research-development external to it is the main difficulty on the way of reshaping the innovation systems from the European transition countries.

Secondly, closed socialist economies promoted innovation systems adapted to compensate this drawback through an imitative technological effort. Having been independently developed, the research-development institutes have become overpopulated as compared to industry requirements, being distinguished today through a work force intensity superior to that of countries with a comparable market economy.

The specificity of the economic system has also influenced the type of the technological and research effort, determining the prevalence of the development activity, the technological overeffort being centred round process technologies, costs reduction, and organizational efficiency.

Thirdly, the productivity of the innovation system has been diminished by the reduced stimuli, and by the mechanisms of administrative coordination. Although from the point of view of the funds and work force the innovation systems have been oriented mainly towards industry, the organizational structures and the poor stimuli have lead to a series of research-development outputs of intermediary type (such as the technical documentation and prototypes), as well as to a large volume of patents not turned to account due to the inefficiency of the implementation system and of the nonsignificant role of the users within the innovation movement.

The technology elements, such as patents and information can also exist within certain research institutes external to firms. They can be sold as such, but they cannot assure through themselves the technological capacity required in these countries. The experience of the developed countries demonstrates that both the research-development activity and the technological capacity develop more rapid within firms than by means of "extramuros institutions".

The more firms compete on the basis of their innovating capacity, the more they tend to internalize the research-development effort. Specialists deem that the only dynamic force of the transition market economies is the firm capable to transform technology into products. After 1989, the innovation system in Romania has witnessed substantial changes, both as concerns the institutional configuration, and the behaviour of the economic agents. The successive changes which have taken place were partially due to financial constraints, and, consequently, the measures adopted by the decision factors at the political and strategic levels were not decisive steps in creating a stimulating environment for moving off and developing the innovational process.

The increase of the national economy capacity to absorb new technologies is a condition in achieving the compatibility with the production systems of the European Union countries, and more over, this enables obtaining certain economic advantages following E.U. integration. A first step towards the creation of the Romanian system of innovation may be the institutional

support for the stimulation of the innovations demand by influencing the criteria of the rational choice of the economic agents.

The dimension and the nature of the cooperation between the actors involved in the innovational process in Romania have to be modelled through rendering conscious the common interest in the race for the increase of industrial competitiveness.

The achievement of a coherent national innovation system and its consolidation supposes, first of all, the conceptualization of a large spectrum of innovational activities, information flows and multidirectional impulses to promote the innovative behaviour of all the components of the system.

The creation of some institutionalized connections between the scientific pole and the business environment may start from the successful Western models. They can be viable only to the extent they correspond to the development of some real processes, and if they do not remain as mere formal attempts supported by persons or institutions that take advantage of their existence.

The interaction between the two poles becomes operational only if there is stimulated the increase of the enterprises bent towards innovation, and implicitly, the potential demand for new technologies, consequently, to the extent the innovation becomes an accessible instrument of market demand. Although it is considered that the present structure of the Romanian innovation system aims at orienting the research towards market demand, the coherence of the system is affected by two great deficiencies:

- fundamental research is characterized by an extreme specialization which interacts only with similar units or with very close links;
- in the absence of a cooperating strategy based on common objectives, the connections between fundamental and applicative research units and beneficiaries are inconsistent and refer to short term horizons.

The second characteristic has been favoured by the lack of cooperation and strategic coordination between the main coordinating institutions of science and learning, i.e. the Romanian Academy, the Ministry of Research and Technology (which was changed for some time into the National Agency for Science, Technology and Innovation, and then included in the Ministry of Education and Research) and the Ministry of Education and Research.

The component of the users of new technologies or "the innovation market" is dominated by big enterprises which apply complex technologies.

Whether they are of medium level (in metallurgy, high tonnage chemistry, motor vehicles industry) or of leading edge fields (the electrical machines and communications equipments industry, the planes construction industry, the office computation technique industry) their maintaining in open competition supposes not only their resorting to imports and foreign licences, but also a permanent collaboration with the national research work.

The connection between enterprises and profile research institutes shall be based on mutual interest: enterprises shall be aware of the fact that the perspective of competition requires certain quality standards for products and processes that can be met in their obtaining and usage, scientific research and technological development being essential, and research units shall restructure their thematic portfolio according to market demand.

In Romania, there is a communication barrier between the two parts due to the difference of technological capacity and know-how, as well as due to the reserve based on psychological factors. Consequently, there is a reduced interest from the part of the researchers and the potential beneficiaries in applying the results of the researches.

In our country, the directions of the convergent reform aim at: the introduction of some competitive financing mechanisms (through grants), the financing stimulation from

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



extrabudgetary sources, the perpetuation of the valuation processes of the research programs, of institutions and researchers according to scientific performance criteria, the intensification of the connections between the research work within the Academy and university learning, the increase of the degree of scientific cooperation and collaboration both on the European and on the international levels.

Research work within university learning develops towards the symbiosis with didactic activity and towards the stimulation of performant research through competitive financing systems (within the University Grants Council), as well as the research work development within post-university learning system, mainly the doctor's degree getting activity.

In Romania, as it happened in other countries, industrial research work initially met with serious difficulties on account of the absence of financing sources. Unlike other eastern or central European countries, in Romania there has been found a transition solution to save the research potential of this field, namely to set up the Special Fund for research-development activity through the contribution, on lawful basis, of the economic agents with state or private capital.

At present, the financing of this field from budgetary sources takes place on the basis of programs and themes valued by speciality commissions that function within the Consultative College for research-development work of the Ministry of Education and Research.

The government should be specially concerned with the financing of the technological research in general, and mainly with the technology transfer, starting with the premiss that the transfer of technology from research to industry requires substantial funds and it implies a major risk.

Since the transfer of the technology from the autonomously carried out research work to industry supposes a relation of collaboration, the essence of the new financing mechanisms consists particularly in the stimulation of the cooperation relations between the partners involved both in the public sector and in the private one, between research laboratories and firms in order to amplify the flow of knowledge and ideas by means of certain projects that involve two or more partners.

Besides direct public financing of the general interest research themes, the governments of the developed countries adopt specific complementary mechanisms to support the volume of funds intended for research work, mainly for the technological one from the strategic fields, such as: fiscal exemption or advantageous credits, as well as facilities for equipment import etc.

The ways to stimulate the drawing of an additional volume of funds for the research work financing represent a distinct activity as compared to research work public financing which modifies its mechanisms as function of science and technology aims and priorities.

Whatever the current of economic thinking of one or the other political parties from the developed countries, the problem of the need to assure a close relation between the state, scientific research work, and its spreading obviously transcends, and this on account of several reasons:

- scientific research work is the dynamic element of any economic-social organizing system, an obvious thing witnessed by man's experience along the entire history of his development;
- the integration of science with production and learning has become an objective necessity which requires the synergic involvement of the various economic agents, and of the state, as well, both as economic agent, and as regulating factor at the microeconomic level, a level under whose incidence national science also belongs;
- the spreading of the scientific research results from one's own country or from other countries which can no longer be considered an attribute of agents at the microeconomic level,

on the contrary, it is one of the prerogatives of macroeconomic nature, on account of the induced possibilities, on the basis of such a spreading, in the whole national economy, and even at the world level.

This is the reason why in most countries which are members of O.E.C.D., there is a coherent number of policies and programs which resemble each other to a great extent and start from the technological development, and compulsorily arrive at the organizing forms, the priorities, the policies and the instruments of its spreading.

Another aspect of the policy of the governments from the developed countries refers to the ratio, the importance, and the degree of integration between the technological development and its spreading. To neglect the innovational spreading in favour of intensifying only the technological development does not represent the most efficient way to act.

It is not the problem to choose between the technological development and its spreading, because these two stages of the technical progress are complementary, and in no case they do not substitute each other. An efficient technological spreading requires research work and valuation, a series of adjustments, the perfecting of the equipments and of the procedures employed.

The assurance of a coherent frame for the policy of the technological spreading is justified by the following elements:

- the unparalleled intensification of the scientific research activity and of the technological development, whose results materialize in a permanently increasing number of new products, processes and services with ever stronger potential economic impact;
- the presence of a sensitive discrepancy between the results of the research work and the rhythm of their spreading in the economy and society due to some obstacles of objective and subjective nature which render difficult the application of the new knowledge on a large area;
- the maintaining of the rhythm of the economic growth or the prevention of its slowing down, the facing of the ever greater external competitiveness, the occurrence of some structural cases of unbalance in economy, require the urgent turning to account for the new technologies as real sources of profit and economic and social benefit.

This variety of opinions and ideas concerning the fundamental policy of technological spreading reflects a series of specific cases connected with the level of development and the structure of the national economies, the difficulties referring to the efficiency of the spreading, the capacity of the state economic involvement.

Consequently, the choosing of the policy in this field means the finding of an equilibrium, of a rational ratio between the importance granted to technological development on the one hand, and the stimulation of the contribution of the innovational spreading on the other hand, without losing sight of the fact that both activities require an adequate and specific research effort. It is necessary **to achieve an optimum between development and spreading** this being the best solution for the objectives of the technological policy in a market economy.

The finding out of **obstacles or difficulties of institutional, economic and political nature** which may prevent the technological spreading is both necessary and useful for the foundations of governmental policies in this field. The most important obstacles of institutional nature refer to the bureaucratic, rigid and unfit character of some organizational structures having attributions in this field.

There has been emphasized the necessity to create a decentralized institutional network with representatives of both private agents and agents from public institutions to better judge as far as the spreading of their own technologies and the imported ones is concerned.

The facts available for the analysis of the aspects of the technological spreading policy in the developed countries point out the **necessity to elaborate a diversity of instruments and measures of micro and macroeconomic nature**, specific for the various fields to remove the

obstacles that prevent the spreading of the new products and technologies.

Thus, the conditions which favour competition and long term capital investment, the human capital including, are factors meant to invigorate the area of efficient spreading of an ever greater number of new products, processes and services.

Hence, there can be considered that the innovation models from East European countries may have at least three directions:

- the increase of the firms availabilities for the development of the internal research capacities within the privatization context and within some viable long term business plans;
- the organizational restructuring will become more sophisticated and will tend towards the European models as concerns the general objectives and the financing and stimulating mechanisms;
- the ever greater opening to the import of technologies together with the development of the local capacities up to the level of the required critical mass for the adjustment and development of the imported technologies which will assure a place in the international technological race for a long time.

After 1990, a series of changes based on the admission and acceptance of the fact that technology has a connotation specific to the respective firm took place and is expressed as such both in its organizing form, in the management system, and in its performances.

The institutional changes which have taken place so far were mainly connected with the change of the statute of the components of the science and technology system, without the achievement of a systemic and coherent interrelational frame to assure the premises for applying the nonlinear model of innovation.

Without a conceptual frame, innovation seems to be approached with the meaning of a dynamic process of continuous learning which includes not only the creation of new knowledge and ideas, but also a component of technological innovation (which is not carried out in research institutes) which made many political decision persons or analysts from the economic field consider is as deriving from the changes in the market forces, where the limits between the offerers and receivers is clear and final.

This outlook surely conflicts with the modern system of innovation where the organizational structure is particularly the network and not the firm, where the internal processes are governed more by cooperation than by competition, and the decision taking points out rather the agreement than the conflict.

The orientation towards the nonlinear model of innovation modifies the architecture of the existing system and creates new formal and informal connections between its components, interrelating spheres strictly delimited so far.

The present stage supposes the experimenting of some new institutional forms with a view to facilitate the intensification of the relations between the scientific pole of innovation and the market pole.

The extending of the communication channels, the increase of the role of competitive teams building that are willing to accept and rapidly implement the technical and technologic progress are the most important problems as far as the creation of an innovation system in Romania is concerned.

Team-building, as a method of forming and developing work teams, represents an efficient measure to stimulate the performances of the work teams tasks, as well as a measure to reduce the risk of conflicts occurrence and their aggravation by considerably reducing their intensity.

When team-building is directed not only towards new teams forming, but also towards the already formed ones, with a view to crystallize and accelerate the processes of group dynamics initiated at the same time with the team forming, the efficiency of the team increases considerably, and the conflicts are greatly diminished, both as concerns their frequency, as well



as their intensity.

Consequently, any organization which wishes to render efficient the work teams through:

- efficiency objective parameters, such as the increase of quality, the reduction of the execution time and of the raw material losses, but also through
- team efficiency, subjective parameters, such as the reduction of the frequency and intensity of the conflicts signalled out between the members of the work team,
- shall take into account the impact which team building as a general intervention method, as well as the specific types of team building methods may have over this variable.

At the same time, human resources managers or strategists shall take into account the fact that an intervention has a notable success and it is the more valuable more complex it is. This intervention shall focus both on the work team building stage, and on its maturity stage, when it is necessary to consolidate the positive aspects and to eliminate the negative ones which affect the group dynamics processes.

The most important factor in any organization, whatever its profile, is represented by the human factor, because it is the one which: carries out the work, transforms the raw materials and makes them useful, can efficiently implement inventions and innovations.

In its quality of determining factor of the technical and economic progress of the organizations, it is required that any organization be conscious of the importance of the human resources development over its productivity, and finally over its profit.

This requirement can be reached at by adopting certain adequate selection methods, and certain specific techniques of work team consolidation.

If according to the modern innovation system:

- ◆ the organizational structure is mainly the network – the use of team building positively influences to a significant extent the global efficiency of the work team, in comparison with the situation marked as non-using team building;
- ◆ the internal processes are governed more by cooperation than by competition – the global efficiency of the work team and the conflicts as dynamics are influenced by the use of both team building as such, and by the team development-consolidation;
- ◆ decision taking underlines more the agreement than the conflict – the work teams which have not benefited by the team building stage, conflicts are significantly more frequent and stronger.

Even if there will be united in one organization the most performant technology of the world, the best raw materials, and the best managers, the value of their productive result would be near to zero if there are no adequate executants. The more their value increases, the more the organization will obtain better performances.

Since it rarely happens that the employees of a company be of maximum intrinsically value from the very beginning, it is required to resort to team building, by means of which this value can be exponentially increased.

This aspect has indisputable implications over the most important problems on the way to create an innovating system in Romania:

- the extending of the communication channels;
- the increase of the role of competitive teams building willing to accept and rapidly implement the technical and technological progress.

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RESOCIALIZATION AND RECUPERATION OF THE PATIENTS WITH A MENTAL ILLNESS – AN INTEGRAL PART OF THE ADAPTATION PROCESS (OF PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES)

**Ruxandra RĂȘCANU¹, Alexandru Octavian BRUMARU²,
Mirona Ioana MARCU³, Ofelia POPESCU⁴, Radu VULCU⁵**

¹ University of Bucharest, Faculty of Psychology and Sciences of Education, Psychology Department

² Sanatorium for the Treatment of Neuroses in Predeal

³ Ph.D. Candidate in University of Bucharest, Faculty of Psychology and Sciences of Education,
Psychology Departmente

⁴ Vitan Polyclinic, Bucharest

⁵ University „Lucian Blaga” Sibiu, Faculty of Sciences, Psychology Department

ABSTACT

A series of equally new and ancient concepts have gained in importance in the psycho-social phenomena of mental illnesses.

Using representative samples of subjects, who were periodically hospitalized at the Sanatorium for the treatment of neuroses in Predeal, the authors attempt to raise our awareness regarding the psychosocial need for communication of the patients. At the same time, they insist on the necessity of replacing marginalization and labeling, which are frequent but unproductive, with psychotherapy, ergotherapy, melotherapy and kinetotherapy.

Education of the general population of the country will be beneficial for the mentally sick people, for their families but also for the community as a whole.

The complex psycho-medical and social assesment forms the basis for the medication combined with the alternative measures and, especially, for the acquisition of social abilities of group reinsertion; the aim of all this is an increase in the level of self-esteem, and self-confidence. The illness is an important indicator of the quality of life, being influenced by and influencing in turn the life and culture standards, the value systems and the social practices which are promoted in society.

REZUMAT

În fenomenologia psihosocială a bolilor psihice și-au făcut loc și au câștigat importanță o serie de concepte vechi și noi în același timp.

Autorii încearcă pe loturi reprezentative de subiecți, internați periodic în Sanatoriul de Nevroze Predeal, să ne sensibilizeze în legătură cu nevoia de comunicare psihosocială a pacienților. În același timp se insistă pe necesitatea psiho, ergo, melo, kinetoterapiei în locul marginalizării și etichetării frecvente oricum contraproductive.

Educația în populația generală a țării va fi benefică pentru bolnavul psihic, pentru familia lui, dar și pentru comunitate.

Evaluarea complexă psiho-medico-socială este fundamentul pe care se așează diferențiat medicația însoțită de măsuri alternative, dar mai ales deprinderea unor abilități sociale de reinsertie grupală, toate acestea având ca scop creșterea nivelului autostimei, a încrederii în sine. Boala constituie un indicator important al calității vieții, fiind influențat și influențând la rândul său standardele de viață, de cultură, sistemele de valori și practicile sociale promovate în cadrul unei societăți.

It is a well-known fact that people are born both equal and free (with respect to their liberty and dignity), but there are still continue to be misunderstandings and difficulties at a theoretical and especilly a practical level, despite all important definitons and contributions of the international, world and national institutions.

50 years ago, WHO, defined health as a multiple understanding of the differences between people at a biological, psycho-social and cultural level. The complex evolutions at the economic, technical and scientific and especially at a socio-human level showed that the explication and resolution patterns of the problems regarding health made necessary improved definitions, attempts in the extension of the fields of etiological interference of diseases, but further steps were pointed out for drawing new collateral factors in the psycho-social phenomenology of mental health.

For these reasons, organisations, institutions, impressive researchers have engaged in bringing out an additional „flash” not only in raising awareness of the over more complex symptomatology but also in the efforts of taxonomical classification of the syndromes and of their social implications.

The personal needs and interests studied by Maslow were not longer confined to psychologists and sociologists but they also became a reason for deepening the studies regarding the antropological, social, ethnical crosscultural significations and interpretations.

The complex development of the society can't be separated from the gains in the studies, classifications, explanatory models, alternative solutions etc. This could be proved by International Classifications of Disabilities and Health Functions (2002) and The Standard Rules of The United Nation for Equality of Chances (1993), additions to the constitutions of many countries (including Romania) which define in a modern manner the human rights, disability and especially the responsibility of society towards our people which might undergo occasional disfunctions.

In the last decade the principles of UN concerning the protection of people with mental disorders and the improvement mental health services are related to: basic rights and freedoms; underage individuals; life in community; establishment of mental health; medical examination; confidentiality; the role of the culture and of the community; health services standards; treatment; medication; agreement regarding treatment; information regarding rights; the rights and the conditions of mental health services; decision concerning mental health services; the hospitalization principles; involuntary hospitalization; examination; security procedures; information availability; offenders; complaints; monitorization and improving; implementation; the aim of the rental of health services; saving the current rights.

The medical models, already exposed to criticism a great deal for their protection of exclusive orientation towards symptoms (somatic and psychical, acute and chronic) gradually lost ground. They were followed by other views such as: the patient's evaluation, the evidence of disability, multiple-sistemic ecological approaches as well as huge system of recuperation-reorientation, rehabilitation.

According to Albu A, Albu Ct. (2003), cited in Crețu Virginia (2006), this complex concept related to the mentally ill is defined as followed: *„the process meant to giving the possibility of people with disabilities to reach and keep optimum functional, psychical, sensorial, intelectual, psychiatric and/or social levels, by providing those resources to change their life in order to obtain a larger area of independence. The recuperation process includes a plethora of measures and activities ranging from basic and general one, to those with a specific purpose, such as professional reorientation”*.

The perception, definition and problematization of the quality of life concept greatly benefited the interdisciplinary studies related to the life style.

Quality of life is a concept in progress. Historically, it appeared after World War II. After that it was followed by changes and clarifications in the light of a few sociological theories.

The novelty of the content of the concept was revealed when the socio-medical standards were added to the economic, material and demographical ones.

The current tendency in the definition of health seems to be more relaxed and connected

to notions and theories belonging to organizational and health psychology. An upward trend has been noted emphasised in the curve of morbidity in the periods of transition, including Romania, taking into account the marginal psychical disorders, namely those which are generated by stress.

Health psychology approaches recuperation, rehabilitation, resocialization of patients (psycho-somatic) and we could extend these desiderata to destigmatization which has been claimed by the realm of social psychiatry, sociology and socio-psychology in the light of its theoretical and applied line of study.

The complex team from Sanatorium for the Treatment of Neuroses in Predeal had understood ever since 1970 that a patient with a mental illness – who has been initially diagnosed with „adaptation disorders”; anxiety-depressive neuroses reaching a psychotical stage - has special needs . He is a particular patient unlike the somatic one, being directed and supported to participate in psychopharmacological and psychotherapeutical treatment.

Whereas the medical (pharmacological) and the psychotherapeutical (irrespective of type and orientation) treatment often goes in the same direction, the common social perception (related to mentalities) is not open to the patient's problems.

For these reasons, the need of recuperation - regarded in a complex sense of resocialization (whether the patients have a family or not), appeared not only in the specialists' outlook but also in the common perception.

Psycho-social rehabilitation is complete only when it has become the concern of resocialization in medicine, medical psychology, sociology and social delinquency.

Destigmatization is the most modern concept, which seems to be centered around Pinel's idea of no longer using physical punishment of the ill patients.

Discrimination should not be made in mental disorders according to such criteria as : age, gender or socio-economical status. Traditionally these disorders have been accompanied by the understanding, fear or stigmatization of the community. Labeling of patients with mental disorders has a negative effect on their abilities of finding employment, getting recuperated, the type of treatment, support and acceptance by the community.

Stigmatization brings about shame, disapproval, disgrace, the feeling of being rejected by others. Labeling of mental disorders is so strong that it can make the whole issue into a taboo. Not only the mentally ill are undergoing the experience of discrimination and stigmatization. The disease has consequences towards their family and care assistants too.

Stigmatization is related to a negative stereotype or prejudice which leads to discrimination, depriving people of their legal rights.

In connection with health - (a global concept just like quality of life) it is generally accepted that there exists differences between the two concepts – particularly from the point of view of psycho-socio-cultural aspects. This all the more obvious since there have been attempts to investigate of those dimensions of the personality which have been dealt with in a scientific way in the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century.

Myths are created especially from a lack of understanding of the phenomena related to mental disorders taxonomic, ideological and socio-cultural lack of fulfillment of the following concepts: health/illnesses; recuperation/quality of life .

Myths related to mental disorder:

1. The patients with mental disorder are violent and dangerous

Regarded as a group, the patients with mental disorder do not manifest more violence in comparison with any other group of people. They are predisposed to be victims of violence of other people, rather than being violent themselves.



2. *The patients with mental disorder are less intelligent*

Studies shows that the majority of the patients with mental disorder have a level of intelligence about or above average. The **mental illness**, like the physical one, can affect anybody irrespective of his/her level of intelligence, social status and income.

3. *Mental disorder is caused by a personal weakness*

Mental disorder is not a deficiency of character. It is an illness which is not connected to the being weak or unwilling. Although patients with a mental disorder may play a significant role in their recuperation, they did not choose to be ill.

4. *Mental illness is a rare disturbance*

A mental disease includes not only a single disorder but also a multitude of disorders.

Stigmatized attitudes of the mentally ill has been noticed ever since Ancient Greece. The mental disorder according to Ajax (Sophocles), Heracle's madness (Euripides), has been associated to concepts of shame and humility. Madness has been considered by Christians God's most frequent punishment against sinners.

Stigma is developed into a social network of relations and interactions and it is understood according to such dimensions as:

1. **The manner** in which it is perceived by the person who stigmatizes or the stigmatized one;

2. **The identity**, defined as ranging from personal identity to the group identification;

3. **The reactions** of both the people who stigmatize and the stigmatized ones and the consequences of stigmatization. The reactions can be measured at cognitive, affective and behavioral levels. **The sign of stigma has three important characteristics as follows:**

1. **Evidence** - the proeminence of mark;

2. **Control** - if stigma is under control;

3. **Impact** - how much the stigmatized persons frightened the authors of stigmatization;

4. **The cultural** perception of the mentally ill could be associated to threats towards the society's health because **it generates two types of fear:**

a) Fear of physical attack

b) Fear of contamination

Human aspirations and needs (according to Maslow) also involve the need of health, welfare and normality versus the „insanity” – as a possibility of genetic evolution.

The ill who were psychodiagnosed with different disorders and a several of disfunctions, usually receive indications regarding their psychopharmacological and psychotherapeutical treatment.

The satisfaction of the mentally ill can and should be appreciated, assessed, taken into consideration that the influence of feedback phase lasting 6-12 months leads to positive appreciations of the life quality and style, especially if it is reinforced by the returns of the ill to their cures at the Sanatorium for the Treatment of Neuroses in Predeal.

The complex treatment consists not only in its pharmacological side but also in the team concerned in question. The team includes a doctor, a psychologist, a physical trainer, a medical assistant, kinetotherapist. Physicians and psychologists, physical trainers collaborated in order to help patients to go back home and to their social life. They used different types of psychotherapy and adapted techniques.

We noticed the role of the interview conducted by the doctor and/or by the psychologist, especially in depressions and anxieties.

STATISTIC TABLE STN

1. Diagnostic

Sex	MEDICAL DIAGNOSIS						Total
	Anxious depressions	Recurrent depressions	Adaptability disorders	Psychotic debut and remitted psychotics	Somatoform disorders associated to A/D	Other disorders according to DSM IV	
F	200	350	200	200	250	200	1400
M	200	200	100	150	100	50	800
Total	400	550	300	350	350	250	2200

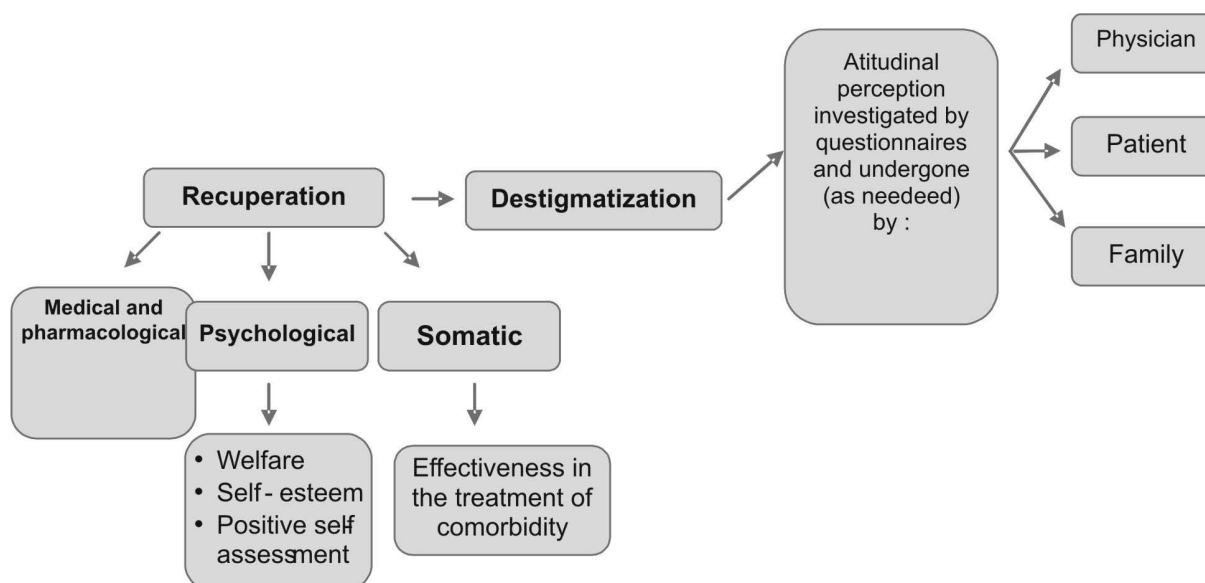
2. Sample distribution according to age and sex

Sex	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years	50-59 years	60-64 years	Over 64 years	Total
F	100	200	450	300	200	150	1400
M	140	100	300	120	100	40	800
Total	290	370	800	300	325	115	2200

3. Changes in the life style assessed by Rosenberg Questionnaire and staff-designed questionnaires *

The perception of the need for change	Desire of concrete modification of life	Participation to the psychotherapy	Divorce (as an action)	The change of the workplace	Retirement	Other
600	450	100	80	100	220	250

* Some of them were belong in more than one category



The pharmacological aspects are related to the presence of the phenomenon of comorbidity.

The anxyolitics and antidepressives have been used for the treatment of obsessive-compulsive personality disorders, hesitant, and generalized additional disorders. Other drugs used are atypical neuroleptics as well as basic sedatives and hypnoinductors.

4. Pharmacological aspects (comorbidity)

The type of the medicine	Subjects	Remissions due to medicines + the specific alpine climate			
		Fast remission	Moderate remission	Slow remission	Total
Anxiolitics	1200	1000	700	400	2200
Antidepressives	1400				
Consolidation of the treatment STN					
		1 return every 12 months	2 returns every 12 months	3-4 returns every 6 months	Total
Atypical neuroleptics	450	400	1300	500	2200
Basic sedatives și hypnoinductors	1000				

Returns to STN show: out of 2200 subjects, more than 1200 returned during 6 years for a maximum of 6 times. The lowest level of their returns was 3 – (1000 persons).

Medication was associated to alternative procedures as kinetotherapy – due to the specific geoclimate of the Sanatorium. The following procedures were used: melotherapy, art therapy, walks etc. The outcome of all these techniques revealed faster remissions in comparison with those usually obtained by using similar treatments.

5. Alternative procedures used in STN *

Type of the procedures	Number of subjects	Observations
Kinetotherapy	800	
Art therapy	120	
Melotherapy	400	
Aerobic exercise	1000	
Support therapy	120	
Sort trips, walks accompanied by the physical trainer in the neighborhood of the sanatorium	600	

* Some of the hospitalized subjects benefit from 1,2 or 3 procedures for strengthening the effect of medication

The Rosenberg Questionnaire was administered to only 300 subjects, in spite of its 10 items and of the relatively easy data processing.

	Interpretation:
0 – 16 points	Lower self - esteem
17 – 24 points	Satisfactory self - esteem (Imagine de sine medie - satisfăcătoare)
25 – 34 points	Good, high self – esteem. Caution is advised for overestimation „with a purpose”

The Questionnaire was used as a test / post-test; before and after the treatment, sometimes it was used during the same year of the patients' returns.

6. The results obtained in the Rosenberg questionnaire (Self - esteem)

Points	Test	Post – test
	Subjects	Subjects
0 – 16 p.	80	60
17 – 24 p.	200	160
25 – 34 p.	200	80
Total	300	300

The Questionnaire of Assertiveness: comparative results. Benefits at the psycho-somatic level: welfare and positive health perception

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



7. The results obtained in The Questionnaire of Assertiveness (QA)

TEST			RETEST		
0 – 1 p.	2 – 4 p.	5 p.	0 – 1 p.	2 – 4 p.	5 p.
30	170	100	40	180	80
<i>Problems of communication and aggression</i>			<i>Safety, assertiveness, aggression</i>		
Total 300			Total 300		

8. Changes in the attitudes of the patients hospitalized at STN *

Semistructured interview + clinic anamnesis

The type of the current or post-cure attitude				
The perception of the need for change in the life style	The need for change of some habits in the family	The need for change in the perception of relations at the workplace	Frequent positive self-assessment	Global positive appreciations of the STN post-cure outcomes
800	700	300	200	1200
<i>* Some of them were included in 2,3 categories</i>				

9. Changes in the decision of the hospitalized patients for the consolidation of the global health followed by actions *

Type of decision + action according to STN consolidation				
Participation in psychological counselling and psychotherapy	Change of workplace	Retirement caused by invalidity	Divorce	Other decisions and actions
250	200	100	80	200
<i>* Some of them were included in 2,3 categories</i>				

10. Parameters of correlation between the psycho-clinical tests results

High self-esteem (according to Rosenberg)	The understanding of assertiveness (according to QA)	The need for change in attitude (according to items of semi-structured interview)
0.84	0.79	0.91

The comments on the parameters and their highly significant statistic threshold are related to the permanent need for study and to the complex treatment such as: chemotherapeutical, physiotherapeutical, socio-cultural, ergotherapeutical etc.

11. Comparative aspects of the results regarding investigations with scales (test - post-test) and psychoclinical questionnaires – The reaction to antidepressives and anxyolitics

300 subjects were involved in the final study – 2200 subjects were investigated during 2000-2006

Type of test	Beck		Hamilton		Zung	
	<i>Weighted averages</i>		<i>Weighted averages</i>		<i>Weighted averages</i>	
	F	M	F	M	F	M
Test	24	22	18.5	20	17	15
Post-test	22	23.5	16	21	16	20

DISCUSSIONS

Our attempt to analyze the psychiatric phenomenon of the hospitalized patients at STN Predeal from the qualitative and quantitative point of view is an alarm signal for the civile society, for NGOs and for the government. We should bear in mind that patients primarily

people, living bodies with complex interests and needs and especially with attitudes to life, towards the need for understanding, resocialization and reorientation.

We share the opinions and findings of our colleagues and other interdisciplinary institutions that mental illness / mental health can no longer be dismissed as a set of basic elementary duties of the psychiatrist. This is all the more the case as the complexity of life and everyday stress does nothing but can only amplify general morbidity and especially mental illness morbidity. This the case with prolonged and difficult transition undergone by the Romanian people.

At a macrosocial level, some countries have pointed out: a great frequency of several disfunctions, of disproportionate reactions to usual factors disturbing the human balance; an increase of symptomatology; variations of patient compliance with treatment, undesirable adverse effects and a deficient harmony in society, family, friends, co-workers.

We believe that our message will be heard because the medical, psychological, psychodiagnostical experience set an example for specialized institutions as Sanatorium offers to its patients not only experience, empathy, generosity and understanding, but also the gains of a special atmosphere, generated by the staff of the SNT as well as invaluable geoclimatic conditions.

It is our strong belief that our subjects find in our institution a set of natural and human conditions which cannot be matched anywhere else. It is with modesty and professional responsibility that we plead, not for the first time, for the perception of the institution and of its staff as a „beautiful dream” that subjects can afford. In more concrete terms, have been directed to a progressive change in the attitude towards psychical disfunctions which we like to be perceived by the society as human phenomena. Subjects ought to be helped in their reorientation (familial and vocational) in order to obtain the global resocialization means of our interview. We believe that we cannot state that destigmatization has not been implemented at a macrosocial level as long as patients are still exposed to malicious labeling and exaggerations from people who do not know what they are talking about.

CONCLUSIONS

1. In psychiatry quality of life was silently hidden and considered as an omnipresent subject even if it was not actually theorised and presented.

2. Remarkable studies plead for the necessity of interconnections between medical treatments and psychotherapeutical ones in which others types are added such as: ergotherapy, melotherapy, art therapy and kinetotherapy.

3. Regarded as a concept of a provocative evolution in the last 4-5 decades, quality of life at the moment represents diversification and establishing of the items of its content. There are a multitude of theoretical concepts circumscribed to the general concept and the acceleration of the researches in different fields of science has an evident interdisciplinary character.

4. Traditionally, at a theoretical level, democratic states have spread these types of concepts ever since interwar period, thanks to social contact and the manner of social perception of the values. New democratic states (ex-socialist) try to promote a series of values, but in actual fact the comprehension is different in the two types of states (generally speaking, propagated values are equal only at the propagandist level.

5. Our macroresearch represents the sustained activity which has been carried out for three decades in the Sanatorium for the Treatment of Neuroses in Predeal and represents only a „flash” from the multitude of the interviewed, diagnosed, treated, counselled and social recuperated subjects.

6. Even if there exists a specific geoclimate of the area in which the sanatorium and its annexes are situated, more attention should have been paid to the health strategy of the Health

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



Ministry, of National Health Insurance Fund –which would have supposed relatively smaller efforts and minimal costs if the sanatorium had been involved not only in the treatment of people but also in the University Clinical System.

7. The fact that we investigated only 2000 subjects, of both sexes, aged 20-70 years stands proof of our desire to study thoroughly the phenomena of these subjects.

8. We want to underline that patients who try very hard to return to treatment do not do that out of discontent, frustrations or incomplete treatments. They become more aware of their potential, want to change their attitude towards their families, friends, superiors or neighbours and they sometimes need temporary support for the consolidation of positive attitudes towards themselves, of improvement of self-image and increasing self-assertiveness.

9. Social evolution includes elements of evolution of the morbidity and the balance health-illness should be permanently monitored by physicians, psychologists, physical trainers, etc.

10. We believe that the functions of scientific management in the field of mental health have always been achieved in STN precisely by these post-treatment returns as well as by reducing the reaction time to medicine, which proves the effectiveness of our treatments.

11. An effective community treatment and management of mental diseases requires the involvement of many governmental, social institutions, ONGs, clinics, families and the population in general.

12. Successful reintegration and rehabilitation of patients can be ensured only by the involvement of the population in a real dialogue about the nature of the mental disease and of its devastating effects on the individuals and on the community as a whole.

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TEST IBF INTELLIGENZ BASIS FAKTOREN EIN SCREENING VERFAHREN ZUR INTELLIGENZMESSUNG

Gernot SCHUHFRIED

General Manager, Dr. Schuhfried G.m.b.H., Mödling Österreich
g.schuhfried@schuhfried.at

INHALTANGABE

Der Test basiert auf der Intelligenztheorie von Thurstone & Thurstone. Es werden die vier Primärfaktoren Verbale Intelligenz, Numerische Intelligenz, Raumvorstellung und Gedächtnis abgetestet. Diese vier der sieben Primärfaktoren sind für prognostische Anwendungen für den Berufserfolg besonders relevant. Aus den Primärfaktoren wird ein Gesamt IQ berechnet.

Es werden die Konstruktionsmerkmale der einzelnen Subtests diskutiert: Die vier Dimensionen sind faktorenanalytisch begründet. Ein empirischer Nachweis der Konstruktvalidität liegt vor.

Es werden die einzelnen Aufgabengruppen vorgestellt.

REZUMAT

Testul se bazează pe teoria asupra inteligenței a lui Thurstone și Thurstone. Se testează primii patru factori primari: inteligența verbală, inteligența matematică, vizualizarea și memoria. Acești patru factori, din totalul de șapte factori primari, au o relevanță particulară pentru prognosticul aplicației în ceea ce privește succesul profesional. Un factor IQ acoperitor se calculează din factorii primari.

Sunt prezentate criteriile de construire a fiecărui subtest: cele patru dimensiuni sunt justificate prin analiza factorială. Există verificare empirică a validității de construct.

Se prezintă fiecare grup de itemi.

THEORIE IBF INTELLIGENZ BASIS FAKTOREN

- Intelligenztheorie von Thurstone & Thurstone (1941):
- 7 Primärfaktoren:
 - Verbales Verständnis
 - Verbale Flüssigkeit
 - Numerische Intelligenz
 - Figural-räumliche Intelligenz
 - Gedächtnis
 - Verarbeitungsgeschwindigkeit
 - Logisches Denken

IBF: Fokussierung auf vier der sieben Primärfaktoren, die sich für prognostische Zwecke als relevant erwiesen haben

IBF INTELLIGENZ-BASIS-FUNKTIONEN

- **4 Dimensionen:**
 - Verbale Intelligenz
 - Sätze ergänzen
 - Verbale Analogien
 - Numerische Intelligenz
 - Zahlenreihen



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

- Arithmetische Textaufgaben
- Raumvorstellung
- Würfelaufgaben
- Gedächtnis
- Merkaufgaben
- **Gesamt IQ**
- **IBF dient als Screening Verfahren**

ALLGEMEINE KONSTRUKTIONSMERKMALE DER SUBTESTS

Konstruktvalidität:

Faktorenanalytisch begründete Aufgabengruppen
Empirische Nachweise zur Konstruktvalidität liegt vor
Verrechnungssicherheit und empirischer Validitätsnachweis

Objektivität:

Durchführungs-, Auswertungs- und Interpretationsobjektivität ist optimal erfüllt.

Messgenauigkeit:

Reliable Erfassung von vier Facetten menschlicher Intelligenz. $\alpha = .84 - .94$

Normierung:

Großer Normstichprobenumfang (N=4771)

VERBALE INTELLIGENZFUNKTIONEN

Definition:

Schnelle und sichere Anwendung von Allgemeinem Wissen und sprachlichem Verständnis zur Bearbeitung verbaler Aufgabenstellungen.

Untergruppen:

- Sätze ergänzen
- Verbale Analogien

Verbale Intelligenzfunktionen: Sätze ergänzen

Der Proband soll einen unvollständigen Satz sinnvoll ergänzen.

Anleitung...

Ein zweites Beispiel:

Zu einem Gemälde gehört(e) immer

- ein Rahmen
- eine Leinwand
- ein Maler
- ein Preis
- ein Museum

Dieser Satz wird richtig ergänzt durch „ein Maler“. Wählen Sie daher „ein Maler“ aus.

Zurück Weiter

Verbale Intelligenzfunktionen: verbale Analogien

Der Proband soll die Beziehung zweier Begriffe erkennen und auf ein neues Begriffspaar übertragen



NUMERISCHE INTELLIGENZFUNKTIONEN

Definition:

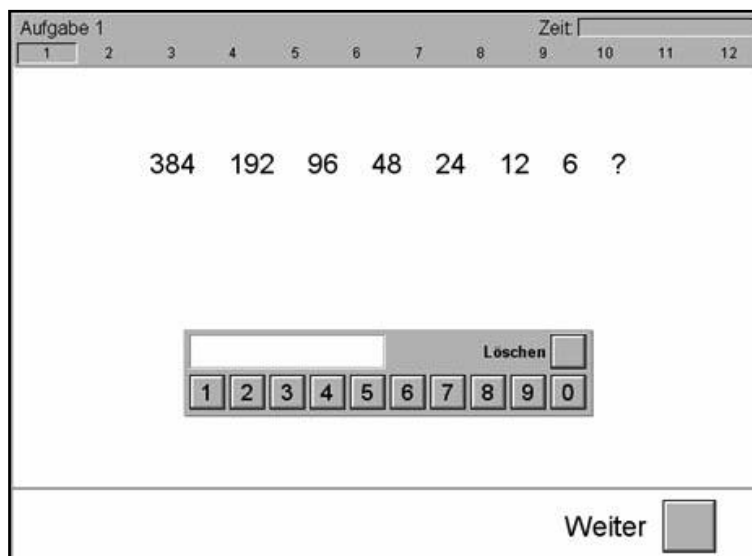
Fähigkeit, numerische Aufgaben zu analysieren und einfache arithmetische Probleme korrekt zu lösen.

Untergruppen:

- Zahlenreihen
- Arithmetische Textaufgaben

Numerische Intelligenzfunktionen: Zahlenreihen

Der Proband soll eine Zahlenreihe richtig fortsetzen



Numerische Intelligenzfunktionen: Arithmetische Textaufgaben

Der Proband soll arithmetische Textaufgaben lösen.

Anleitung...

Ein zweites Beispiel:

4500 kg Messing enthalten 2700 kg Kupfer. Wieviel Kilogramm Kupfer sind in 900 kg Messing enthalten?

Hier lautet die Lösung 540 kg. 900 kg Messing sind ein Fünftel von 4500 kg, folglich ist in 900 kg Messing auch ein Fünftel von 2700 kg Kupfer enthalten, also 540 kg. Wählen Sie daher die Ziffern 5,4 und 0.

RÄUMLICHE INTELLIGENZFUNKTIONEN

Definition:

Fähigkeit, sich Objekte geistig vorzustellen und diese dann mental zu transformieren (z.B. rotieren)

Untergruppe:


- Würfelaufgaben




Räumliche Intelligenzfunktionen: Würfelaufgaben




Der Proband soll sechs Würfel mental rotieren und mit dem Würfel auf der linken Seite vergleichen.

Anleitung...

Zum Beispiel:



KEIN WÜRFEL RICHTIG

Der erste Würfel der oberen Reihe ist bei diesem Beispiel die richtige Lösung. Alle anderen Antwortwürfel sind falsch, weil sie erkennbare Fehler aufweisen. Wählen Sie daher den ersten Würfel der oberen Reihe und betätigen Sie „Weiter“.

LANGZEITGEDÄCHTNIS

Definition:

Fähigkeit, sich Informationen effektiv einzuprägen und nach längerer Zeit wieder abzurufen.

Messung:

- Merkaufgaben

Langzeitgedächtnis: Merkaufgaben

Der Proband soll sich Informationen zu Produkten einprägen und nach 20 Minuten reproduzieren.

Anleitung ...

Ein zweites Beispiel:

Eine der 27,49 € teuren Waren trägt den Markennamen ...

- Solonin
- Tabater
- Jibli
- Etam
- Lenux

Bei dieser Aufgabe ist „Tabater“ die Lösung.

Zurück Weiter

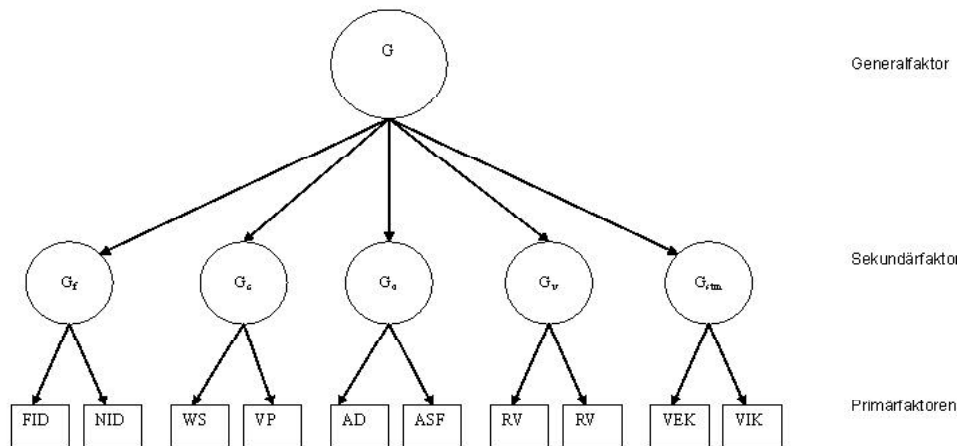
THEORETISCHER HINTERGRUND INSBAT

basiert auf:

1. Der Gf-Gc Theorie (Horn, 1989; 1991; Horn & Noll, 1997)
2. Drei-Schicht-Theorie (Carroll, 1993; 2003).
 - Beide Modelle gehen von einer hierarchischen Struktur der Intelligenz aus
 - Unterschied: Drei-Schicht-Theorie geht von einem Generalfaktor der Intelligenz aus.
 - Zur Zeit aktuelle Theorie: Kombination der beiden Ansätze: Cattell-Horn-Carroll Modell (CHC Modell)

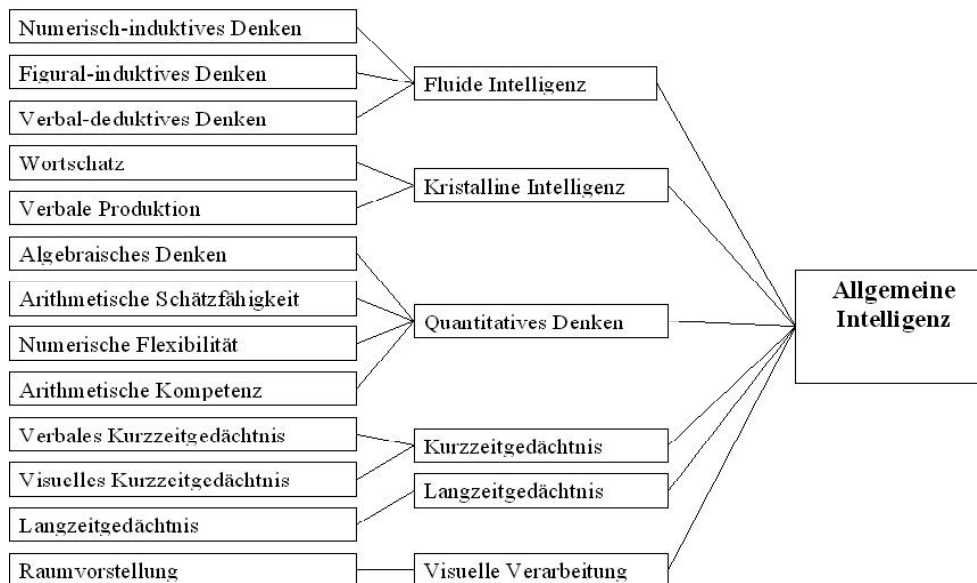
CHC-MODELL

- Struktur menschlicher Intelligenz in 3 aufeinander aufbauenden hierarchischen Schichten.
- **Primärfaktoren:** spezifische Fähigkeitsmerkmale (z.B. Mentale Rotation; Wortverständnis...)



Zusammenhänge zwischen diesen Primärfaktoren erklärbar durch **Sekundärfaktoren**: z.B: *fluide Intelligenz (Gf), kristalline Intelligenz (Gc), Kurzzeitgedächtnis (Gstm)* usw.)
 Zusammenhänge zwischen diesen Sekundärfaktoren ist durch einen *Generalfaktor der Intelligenz (G)* erklärbar.

INSBAT



FLUIDE INTELLIGENZ

Definition:

Fähigkeit allgemeine Gesetzmäßigkeiten zu erkennen, Auswirkungen („wenn - dann“ Beziehungen) zu verstehen und logische Schlussfolgerungen zu ziehen.

Primärfaktoren/Subtest:

- Numerisch-Induktives Denken
- Figural-Induktives Denken
- Verbal-Deduktives Denken



NID Numerisch-Induktives Denken

Der Proband soll eine Zahlenreihe richtig fortsetzen.

Der Subtest basiert auf einem Kognitions- psychologischen Modell zum Lösen von Zahlenfolgen (Holzman et al.,1982; 1983).

Fairness aufgrund der Geltung des Rasch Modells gegeben. $\alpha = .80$.

Aufgabe 1

98 100 103 117 119 122 ?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0

FID Figural-Induktives Denken

Der Proband soll die Regeln erkennen, nach denen die vorgegebenen Matrizen aufgebaut wurde, und diese ergänzen.

Erkennen allgemeiner Gesetzmäßigkeiten und Abstraktionsvermögen.

Fairness durch Geltung des Rasch Modells gegeben. $\alpha = .70$

Item 1

		?

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

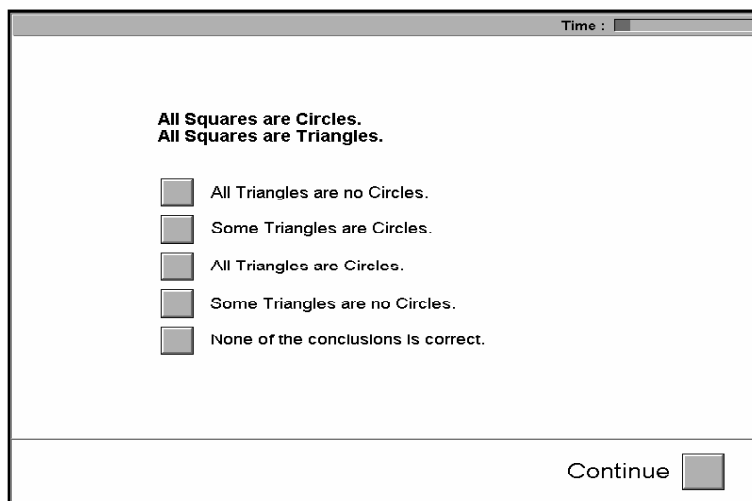
I do not know the answer Next

VDD Verbal-Deduktives Denken

Der Proband soll aus zwei Aussagen eine Schlussfolgerung ableiten, die zwangsweise formal richtig ist.

Fähigkeit den Inhalt von verbalen Aussagen zu erfassen, zu verknüpfen und daraus logische Schlüsse zu ziehen.

Fairness durch Geltung des Rasch Modells für diesen Subtest. $\alpha = .83$



KRISTALLINE INTELLIGENZ

Definition:

Umfang des Wortschatzes und des lexikalischen Wissens sowie die Schnelligkeit und Flüssigkeit des Zugriffs auf diese Informationen.

Primärfaktoren/Subtest:

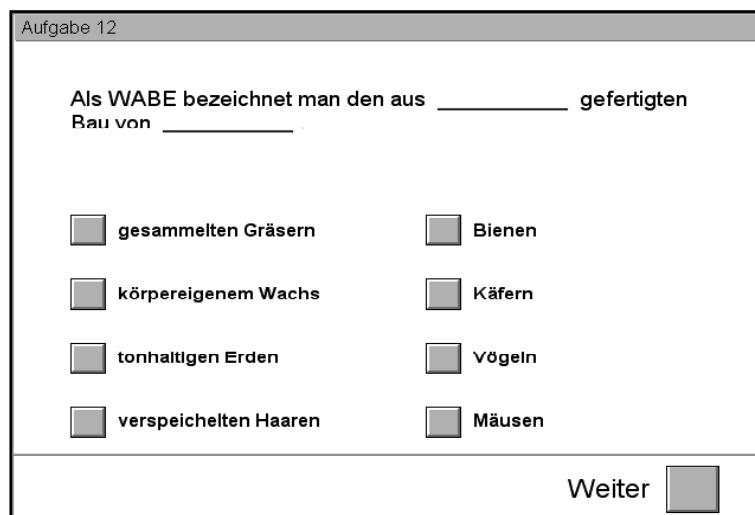
- Wortschatz
- Verbale Produktion

WS Wortschatz

Der Proband soll einen vorgegebenen Begriff definieren.

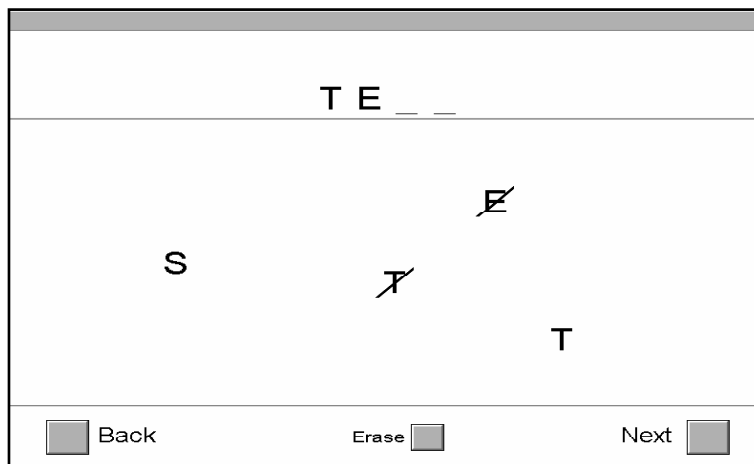
Dieser Subtest basiert auf Vorarbeiten von Wagner-Menghin (2004) zur Messung des Wortschatzes und des Wortverständnisses.

Fairness aufgrund der Geltung des Rasch Modells gegeben. $\alpha = .75$.



VP Verbale Produktion

Der Proband soll aus den vorgegebenen Buchstaben einen Begriff bilden.
 Wortflüssigkeit im Sinne eines schnellen und effizienten Zugriffs auf das mentale Lexikon.
 Fairness durch Geltung des Rasch Modells für diesen Subtest. $\alpha = .72$



QUANTITATIVES DENKEN

Definition:

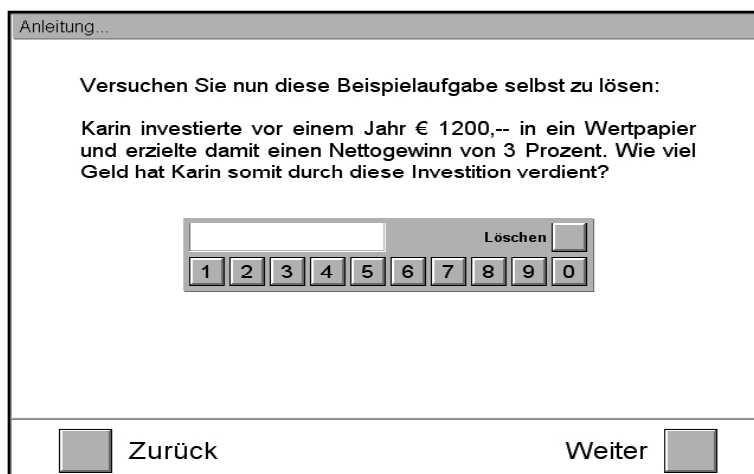
Verständnis grundlegender mathematischer Prinzipien. Fähigkeit diese mathematischer Prinzipien zur Lösung praktischer Problemstellungen anwenden zu können.

Primärfaktoren/Subtest:

- Algebraisches Denken
- Arithmetische Schätzfähigkeit
- Numerische Flexibilität
- Arithmetische Kompetenz

AD Algebraisches Denken

Die Person soll die vorgegebenen algebraischen Textaufgaben lösen.
 Der Subtest basiert aus theoretischen Modellen zum Lösen algebraischer Text- aufgaben (zusammenfassend: Reed, 1998)
 Fairness aufgrund der Geltung des Rasch Modells gegeben. $\alpha = .89$



ASF Arithmetische Schätzfähigkeit

Die Person soll das Ergebnis einer arithmetischen Rechenaufgabe schätzen.

Der Subtest basiert auf theoretischen Modellen zur Bearbeitung arithmetischer Schätzaufgaben (z.B.: LeFevre et al., 1993; Sowder & Wheeler, 1989).

Fairness aufgrund der Geltung des Rasch Modells gegeben. $\alpha = .73$.

966 × 581 – 765

521247
 577295
 633343
 689391

Next

NF Numerische Flexibilität

Die Person soll herausfinden, welche Rechenoperationen angewendet werden müssen, damit die Rechenaufgabe stimmt.

Verständnis der funktionalen Möglichkeiten der Grundrechenarten, sowie die kognitive Flexibilität bei numerischem Aufgabenmaterial.

Fairness durch Geltung des Rasch Modells für diesen Subtest. $\alpha = .87$

9 4 2 = 1

?
 +
 -
 ×
 :

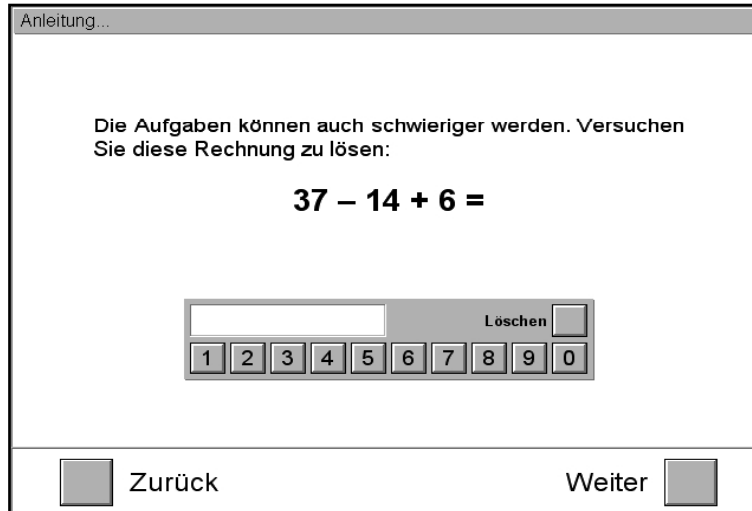
Next

AK Arithmetische Kompetenz

Die Person soll arithmetische Rechenaufgaben lösen.

Der Subtest basiert auf theoretischen Modellen zum Kopfrechnen (z.B.: Ashcraft, 1995; Campell & Xu, 2001).

Fairness aufgrund der Geltung des Rasch Modells gegeben. $\alpha = .78$.



KURZZEITGEDÄCHTNIS

Definition:

Fähigkeit, Informationen visueller und verbaler Art kurzfristig behalten und richtig reproduzieren zu können.

Messung:

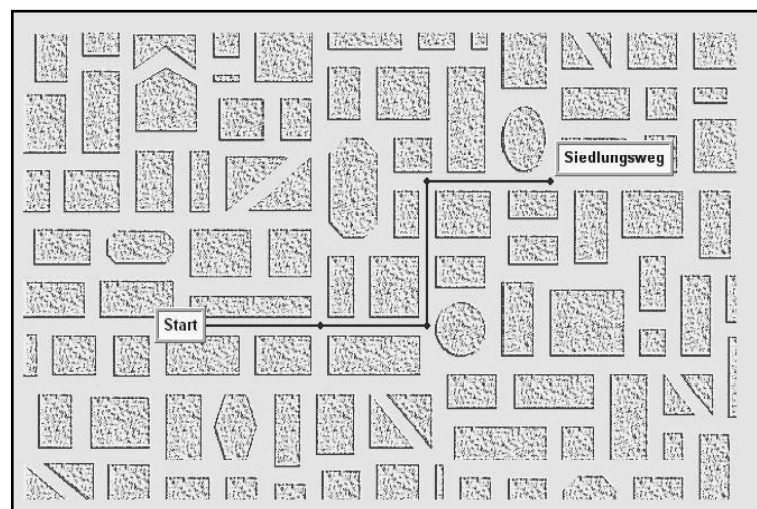
- Verbales Kurzzeitgedächtnis
- Visuelles Kurzzeitgedächtnis

VEK Verbales Kurzzeitgedächtnis

Die Person soll sich eine Abfolge von Straßennamen kurzfristig einprägen.

Fähigkeit verbale Informationen kurzfristig behalten zu können.

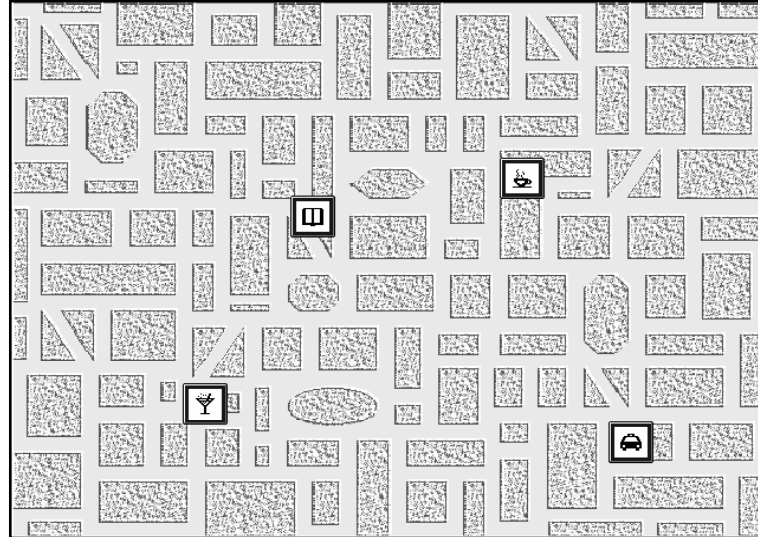
Fairness durch Geltung des Rasch Modells für diesen Subtest. $\alpha = .70$



VIK Visuelles Kurzzeitgedächtnis

Die Person soll sich die Position gezeigter Objekte auf einem Stadtplan merken.
Der Subtest basiert auf den Kognitions- psychologischen Modellen von Kosslyn (1981) and Hänggi (1989).

Fairness aufgrund der Geltung des Rasch Modells gegeben. $\alpha = .70$.



LANGZEITGEDÄCHTNIS

Definition:

Fähigkeit, sich Informationen effektiv langfristig einzuprägen, sie in die eigene Wissensbasis zu integrieren und bei Bedarf wieder abzurufen und neu verknüpfen zu können.

Messung:


- Langzeitgedächtnis

Die Person soll sich Informationen einprägen und diese nach ca. 45 min. abrufen.

Fähigkeit sich neue Information anzueignen, sinnvoll zu strukturieren und diese nach einiger Zeit abzurufen.

Fairness durch Geltung des Rasch Modells für diesen Subtest. $\alpha = .74$

Name: Botzif
Birthday: 31. Jan



1

2

VISUELLE VERARBEITUNG

Definition:

Fähigkeit, sich Objekte geistig vorzustellen und diese dann mental zu transformieren (z.B. zu rotieren)

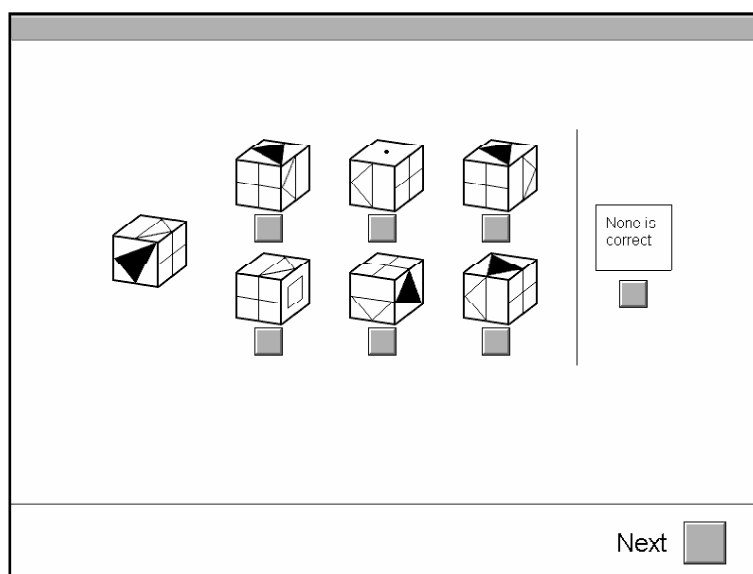
Primärfaktoren/Subtest:

Raumvorstellung

RV Raumvorstellung

Der Proband soll sechs Würfel mental rotieren und mit dem Würfel auf der linken Seite vergleichen.

Fairness durch Geltung des Rasch Modells für diesen Subtest. $\alpha = .84$



TESTFORMEN

Variable Testform (S1/S2)

Es können jene Subtests ausgewählt werden, die in Hinblick auf eine spezifische diagnostische Fragestellung maximal informativ sind.

Durchführungsdauer:

Die Dauer der einzelnen Subtests schwankt zwischen 5 und 30 Minuten.

Globalform (S3):

Differenzierte Erfassung des Intelligenzniveaus. Umfasst 9 Subtests. (Jener Subtest, der die höchste Ladung auf der betreffenden Intelligenzdimension aufweist sowie ein weiterer Subtest)

Durchführungsdauer:

ca. 2 ½ Stunden



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

	Subtest
ASF	Arithmetische Schätzfähigkeit Capacitate de apreciere aritmetică
FID	Figural-induktives Denken Gândire figural-inductivă
VP	Verbale Produktion Reprezentare verbală
RV	Raumvorstellung Reprezentare spațială
VEK	Verbales Kurzzeitgedächtnis Memorie verbală de scurtă durată
WS	Wortschatz Vocabular
AD	Algebraisches Denken Gândire algebrică
VIK	Visuelles Kurzzeitgedächtnis Memorie vizuală de scurtă durată
VDD	Verbal-deduktives Denken Gândire verbal-deductivă

Kurzform (S4):

- Screening der Intelligenzstruktur auf Ebene der Primärfaktoren. Empfehlenswert in der Eignungsdiagnostik bei Berufen mit heterogenen Anforderungsprofilen, sofern für die Testdurchführung nur wenig Zeit zur Verfügung steht.

- feste Intelligenz-Testbatterie. Subtestauswahl und deren Reihenfolge ist nicht veränderbar.

Durchführungsdauer:

ca. 1 ½ Stunden

Spezialform f. technische Berufe (S5)

Figural-induktives Denken

Arithmetische Schätzfähigkeit

Raumvorstellung

Numerisch-induktives Denken

Numerische Flexibilität

Durchführungsdauer:

ca. 2 ½ Stunden

Spezialform f. kaufmännische Berufe (S6)

Langzeitgedächtnis Merkphase

Wortschatz

Arithmetische Schätzfähigkeit

Langzeitgedächtnis Prüfphase

Algebraisches Denken

Verbale Produktion

Durchführungsdauer:

1 ¾ Stunden

GRUNDLAGEN COMPUTERGESTÜTZTER PSYCHOLOGISCHER DIAGNOSTIK

Gernot SCHUHFRIED

General Manager, Dr. Schuhfried G.m.b.H., Mödling Österreich
g.schuhfried@schuhfried.at

INHALTANGABE

Eingangs werden die Vorteile computergestützten Testens und Einwände dagegen betrachtet. Gezeigt wird die Struktur eines Testsystems mit Auswahl von Tests und Testbatterien, Datenbank und den notwendigen Hilfsfunktionen. Um eine faire und objektive Abtestung sicherzustellen, muß ein Test, der über den Computer vorgegeben wird, einen bestimmten standardisierten Aufbau haben.

Verschiedene Typen von Tests – von der Übertragung von Papier Bleistifttests bis zu Multi Media Verfahren – werden vorgestellt.

Eingehend werden methodische Verbesserungen, die die Computervorgabe ermöglicht, wie Adaptives Testen und verfälschungsresistente Objektive Persönlichkeitstests besprochen.

Da die Korrelationen zwischen den einzelnen Tests und der gesuchten Eignung (z.B.: zum Führen eines Kraftfahrzeuges, für eine bestimmte Ausbildung) zwangsläufig niedrig sind, sind statistische Methoden nötig, Testergebnisse zu einer Gesamtbeurteilung zusammenzufassen. Die Möglichkeiten Künstlicher Neuronaler Netze werden in diesem Zusammenhang aufgezeigt.

Schließlich werden einige exemplarische Tests demonstriert.

REZUMAT

Se prezintă în continuare avantajele inițiale și obiectivele testării asistată de calculator. În continuare, se prezintă structura unui sistem de teste și selecționarea testelor și a bateriilor de teste, baza de date și funcțiile auxiliare necesare. Pentru a se garanta testarea obiectivă, testele administrate pe calculator trebuie să aibă o anumită structură standardizată. Se vor prezenta diferite tipuri de teste, de la cele de tip creion-hârtie până la cele bazate pe procedurile multimedia.

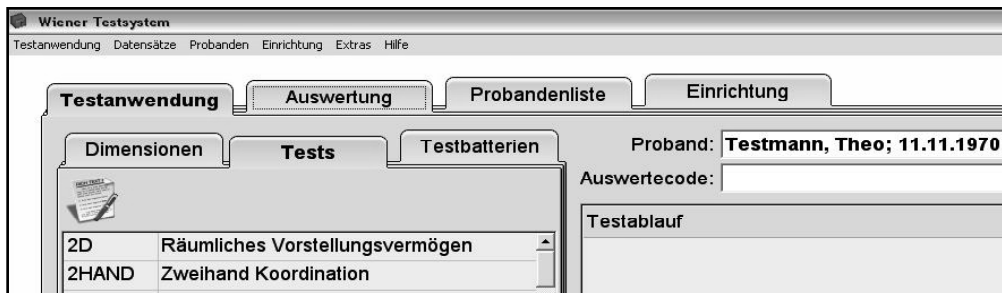
Se discută despre ameliorările metodice care au făcut posibilă administrarea pe computer a testelor de adaptare, a celor obiective de personalitate, teste ce sunt rezistente la falsificare.

Atâta vreme cât corelațiile dintre testele individuale și o anumită suitabilityă căutată (de ex.: conducerea unui vehicul cu motor pentru un anumit tip de serviciu), sunt, inevitabil, scăzute, este nevoie de metode statistice pentru a combina rezultatele testului într-o judecată acoperitoare. Posibilitatea activității unei rețele neurale este și ea subliniată în acest context.

La final se vor oferi unele exemple de teste.



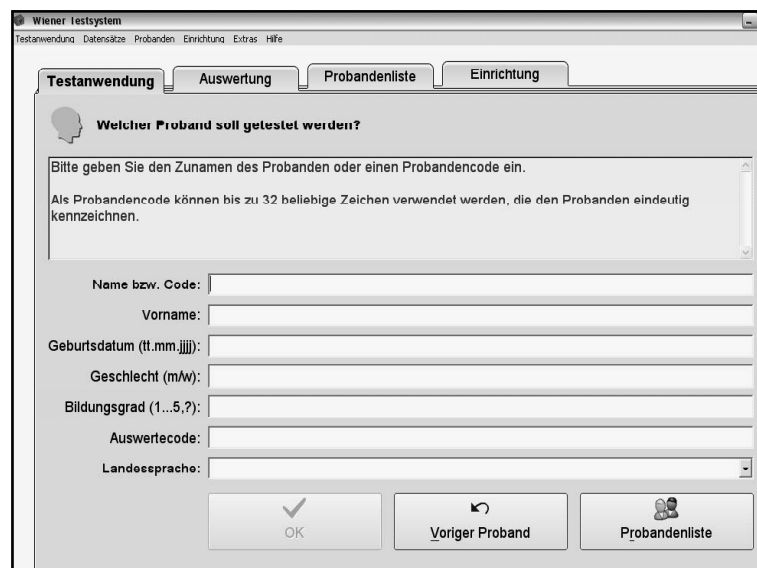
STRUKTUR EINES TESTSYSTEMS



- Übersichtliches Karteikartensystem
- Testanwendung
- Auswertung
- Probandenliste
- Einrichtung
- Extras
- Hilfe

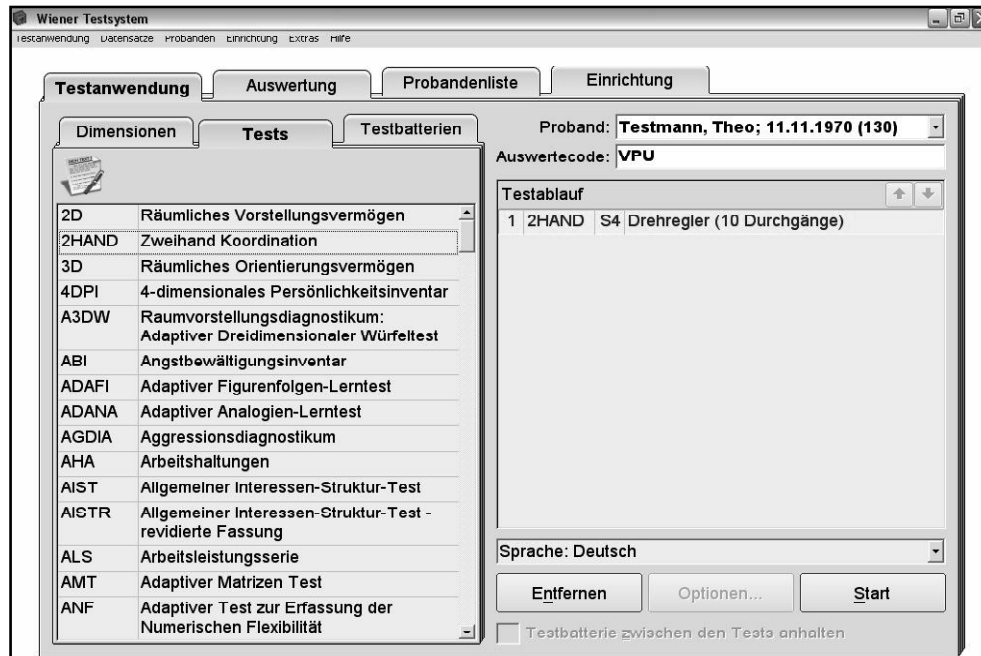
GRUNDANFORDERUNGEN EINES TESTSYSTEMS

- Einfache, intuitive Eingabe für Testleiter und Proband
- Eingabe für soziodemografische Daten; variabel gestaltbar
- Daten Export – Import
- Vorgabe der Tests in unterschiedlichen Sprachen
- Elektronische Manuale
- Automatische Befunderstellung
- Normtabellen – Explorer
- **Keine Verletzung des Copyrights**



TESTANWENDUNG: AUSWAHL DER TESTVERFAHREN

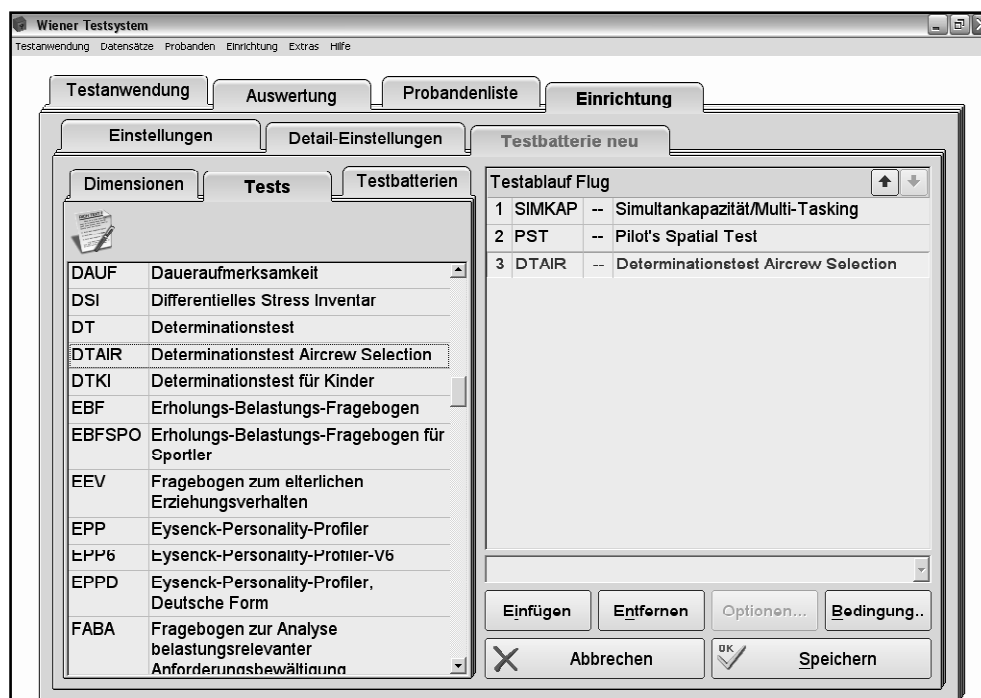
- Aufruf und Vorgabe einzelner oder mehrerer Testverfahren
- Auswahl der Testform (falls vorhanden)
- Sprachauswahl (unterschiedliche Sprachen für Testvorgabe und Resultatausgabe möglich)



Testanwendung: Testbatterien

Testbatterie: feste Abfolge von Tests, die einmal definiert wird. Nach Vorgabe des letzten Items eines Tests wird automatisch der nächste Test gestartet.

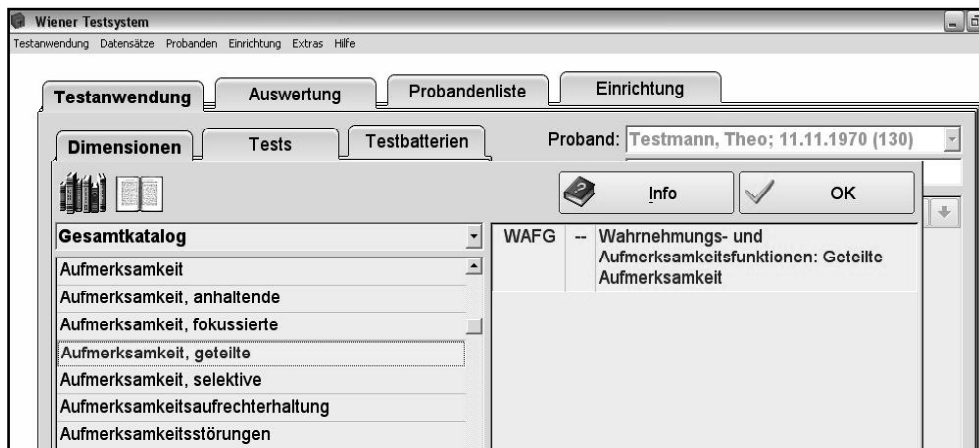
Bedingte Testbatterie: Die Vorgabe eines Tests ist an definierte Resultate des Probanden bei einem vorangegangenen Test gebunden.



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Testanwendung: Testvorgabe nach Dimensionen

- Umfangreiche Liste mit Leistungs- Erlebens- und Verhaltensmerkmalen
- Um sich zu informieren, welcher Test für die gewünschte Dimension geeignet ist.



TESTVORGABE

- Instruktion
- Übungsphase
- Testphase



AUSWERTUNG

- Titelzeile mit Probandendaten
- Spezifizierung des Tests
- Übersichtliche Darstellung in Tabellenform
- Rohscores und Normwerte, wählbare Stichprobe
- Profil: Ergebnis auf einem Blick
- Testprotokoll zur detaillierten Analyse

D, D
geb. 12.05.1963, männlich, 42;2 Jahre, Bildungsgrad 2
Auswertecode: s

Arbeitshaltungen (AHA)
Kurze Testbatterie zur Messung der Dimensionen "Anspruchsniveau",
"Frustrationstoleranz", "Leistungsmotivation" und "Impulsivität/Reflexivität"
Testdurchführung: 22.07.2005 - 12:09...12:10, Dauer: 1 min.

Testergebnisse - repräsentative Normstichprobe:

Testvariable	Rohwert	PR	T
Flächengrößen Vergleichen			
Exaktheit ¹	0.64	37	47
Entschlußfreudigkeit ²	12	58	52
Impulsivität vs. Reflexivität ³	170902	41	48
Symbole Kodieren			
Leistungsniveau ⁴	10	5	34
Anspruchsniveau ⁵	1.00	100	80
Frustrationstoleranz ⁶	0.10	56	52
Zeitpunkt des Leistungsmaximums (Durchgangs-Nr.)	1		
Zieldiskrepanz ⁷	64	91	63
Figuren Unterscheiden			
Leistungsmotivation ⁸	1	2	29
Bearbeitungszeit	04:41 ⁹		

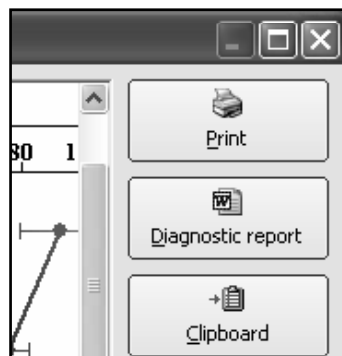
Anmerkung(en): Prozentrang (PR) und T-Wert (T) ergeben sich durch Vergleich mit der Stichprobe repräsentative Normstichprobe'.

Profil - repräsentative Normstichprobe:

T	20	30	40	50	60	70	80
Exaktheit							
Entschlußfreudigkeit							
Impulsivität vs. Reflexivität							
Leistungsniveau							
Anspruchsniveau							
Frustrationstoleranz							
Zieldiskrepanz							
Leistungsmotivation							
PR	0.1	2.3	15.9	50.0	84.1	97.7	99.9

Anmerkung(en): Der hervorgehobene Bereich stellt den Durchschnittsbereich der Normwertskala dar.

BEFUNDERSTELLUNG



- Qualitätssicherung und Arbeitserleichterung durch automatische Befunderstellung

Verkehrspsychologische Stellungnahme Test, 25.06.1977

Anamnese:

<Text einfügen>

Testergebnisse:

Die Testbatterie dauerte insgesamt 85 Minuten und erbrachte folgende Ergebnisse:

Die **Allgemeine Intelligenz** wurde mit dem *Adaptivon Matrizenstest* gemessen, in dem Herr Test einen Leistungsparameter von 0.937 erreichte. Das entspricht einem Prozentrang von 92 und einem IQ von 121.

Im *Determinationstest*, einem Verfahren zur Beurteilung der **reaktiven Belastbarkeit**, erreichte Herr Test 263 Richtige. Dies entspricht dem Prozentrang 76.

Im *Reaktionstest* zur Beurteilung der **Reaktionsfähigkeit** erreichte Herr Test eine mittlere Reaktionszeit von 393 Millisekunden - das entspricht einem Prozentrang von 66 - und eine mittlere motorische Zeit von 131 Millisekunden - das entspricht einem Prozentrang von 76.

Bei der Beurteilung der **Konzentrationsleistung** mit Hilfe des *Cognitron* wurde eine „Mittlere Zeit Korrekte Zurückweisung“ von 2.87 Sekunden erzielt, was einem Prozentrang von 52 entspricht.

Im *Tachistoskopischen Verkehrsauffassungstest*, mit dessen Hilfe die **Überblicksgewinnung** gemessen wird, erfasst der Proband 17 Verkehrssituationen vollständig richtig, was einem Prozentrang von 95 entspricht.

Im Test *Periphere Wahrnehmung* wurde für Herrn Test eine **Breite des Gesichtsfeldes** von 174 gemessen. Zusätzlich ergibt sich für die **Geteilte Aufmerksamkeit** eine Trackingabweichung von 13, was einem Prozentrang von 25 entspricht.

Aufgrund der Leistungsergebnisse verfügt Herr Test über eine ausreichende kraffahrerspezifische Leistungsfähigkeit.

DATENBANK


Funktionelle Datenbanken

- getrennte Probanden- und Auswertungsdatei, Sortier- und Suchfunktion
- Export von Daten für statistische Weiterverarbeitung
- Einfacher Austausch von Probandendaten zwischen zwei WTS
- Anonymität durch Verschlüsselung des Probandencodes

Wiener Testsystem

Anwendung Datensätze Probanden Einrichtung Extras Hilfe

Testanwendung Auswertung **Probandenliste** Einrichtung

 **Ausgewählte Probanden: 1 von 3**

Proband	Geb.Datum	Kennzahl	G	B	Aufnahme	Ausw.Co
- Mustermann, Max	04.07.1965	238	m	3	11.01.2007	
- Streif, Nadel	07.08.1970	386	w	4	11.01.2007	
✓ Testmann, Theo	11.11.1970	130	w	4	11.01.2007	VPU

Suchen

Neu

Anzeigen/Ändern

Testvorgabe

Datensätze

Vormerken

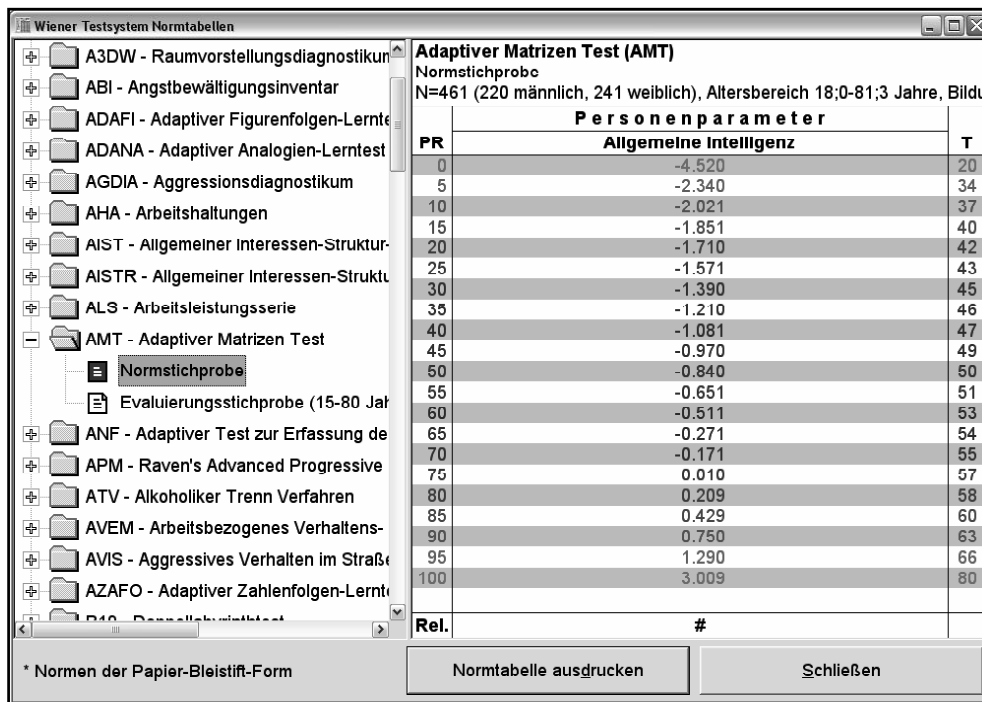
Liste drucken

Kennzahlen drucken

Spalten rücksetzen

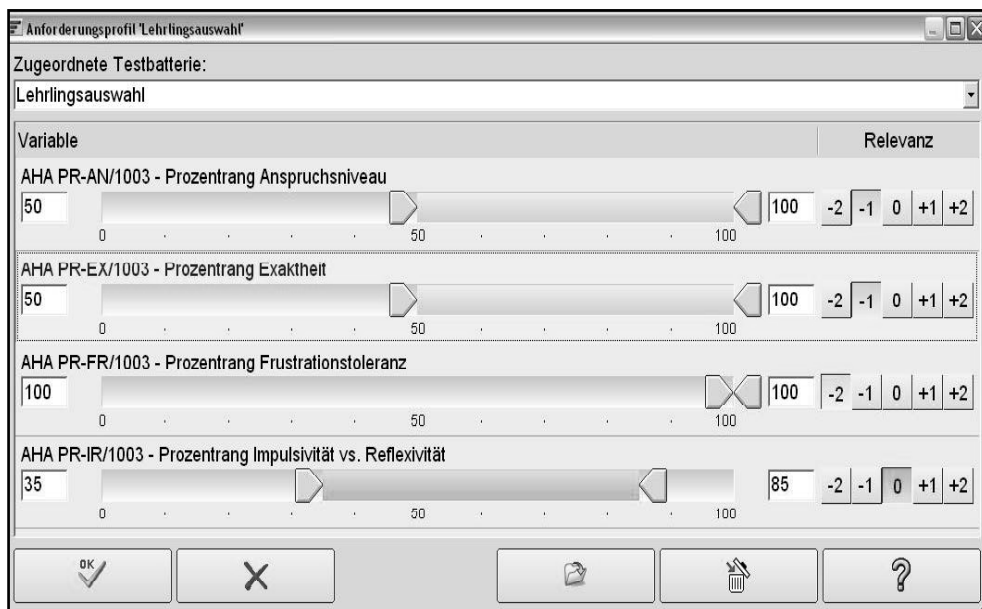
Extras: Normtabellenexplorer

- Einfache Auswahl von Normstichproben. Informationen über Umfang, Altersbereich und Verteilung von Geschlecht und Bildungsgrad



PR	Allgemeine Intelligenz	T
0	-4.520	20
5	-2.340	34
10	-2.021	37
15	-1.851	40
20	-1.710	42
25	-1.571	43
30	-1.390	45
35	-1.210	46
40	-1.081	47
45	-0.970	49
50	-0.840	50
55	-0.651	51
60	-0.511	53
65	-0.271	54
70	-0.171	55
75	0.010	57
80	0.209	58
85	0.429	60
90	0.750	63
95	1.290	66
100	3.009	80

Extras: Rangreihung für Bewerberauswahl



- Unmittelbarer Vergleich der Bewerber und ihrer Testergebnisse
- Rangreihung der Bewerber nach Eignung

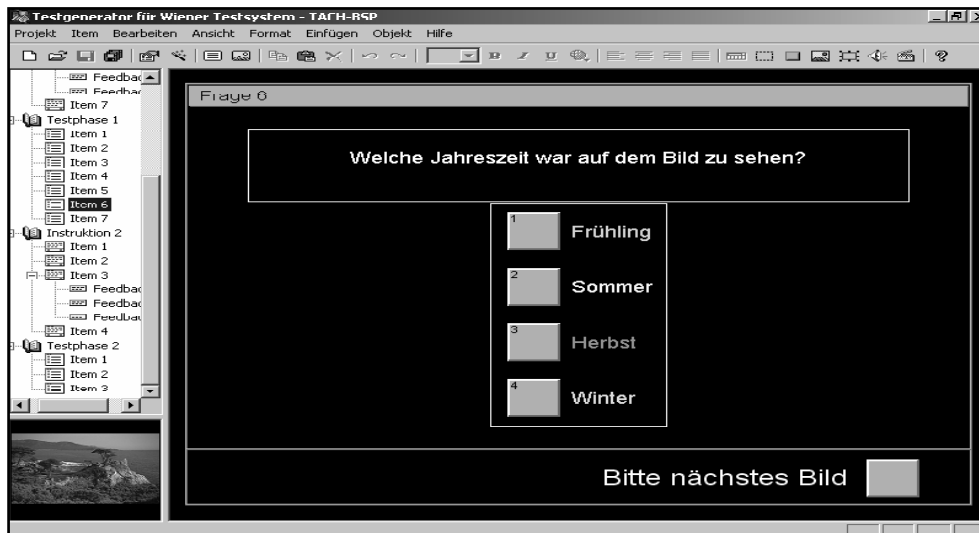


Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

Rang	Punkte	Proband
1.	96	Turner Mattheus; 07.03.1960
2.	95	Pichler Markus; 26.01.1976
3.	93	Winter Richard; 20.07.1975
4.	92	Hachl Erwin; 08.09.1980
5.	90	Müller Franz; 15.02.1968
6.	87	Blaha Kurt; 09.08.1981
7.	86	Deutscher Martha; 26.11.1975
	86	Österreicher Werner; 12.09.1973
9.	83	Kraus Otto; 17.05.1976
10.	81	Kern Michaela; 06.02.1981
11.	79	König Heidrun; 17.06.1981
12.	73	Weixlbaum Martina; 30.08.1981
13.	70	Weps Waltraud; 28.02.1972
14.	67	Machacek Wilburga; 28.04.1961
	67	Putz Rainhard; 06.10.1981
		Keine Wertung (Testergebnisse nicht vollständig verfügbar):
-		Huber Marianne; 19.09.1966

Extras: Testgenerator

- Um eigene Testprogramme für das WTS zu erzeugen
- Keine Programmierkenntnisse nötig
- Testerstellung mit minimalem Zeitaufwand
- Einbau selbst erstellter oder übernommener Normen
- Maximale Flexibilität u. individuelle Gestaltungsmöglichkeit



STRUKTUR EINES TESTS

Instruktion:

Erklärung der Aufgabenstellung

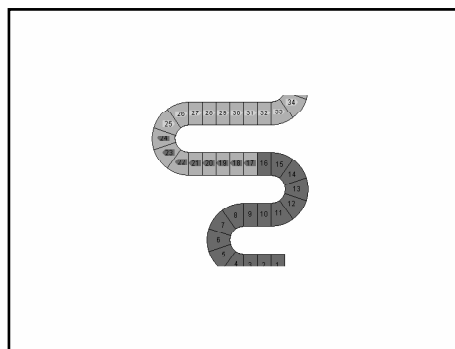
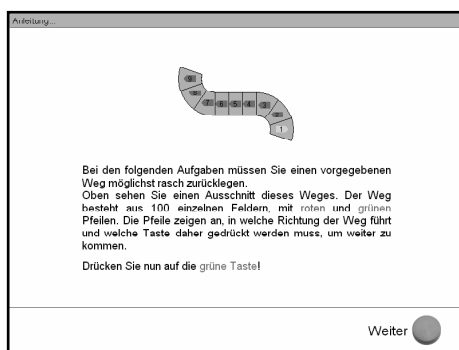
Übungsphase:

Fehlersensitive Feedbacks

Testabbruch bei zu hoher Fehleranzahl

Testphase:

Messung der Dimension



GÜTEKRITERIEN

• *Nützlichkeit*

Realisierung moderner Testvorgabebedingungen erst durch das Medium Computer möglich (z.B. Reaktionszeitmessungen im ms-Bereich, Simultankapazität usw..).

• *Ökonomie*

gemessen am diagnostischen Informationsgewinn werden relativ wenig Ressourcen (z.B. Geld, Zeit) beansprucht.

• *Fairness*

Keine systematische Benachteiligung von Personen mit wenig Computererfahrung, wenn sauber programmiert wurde (Klinck 2002).

• *Objektivität*

Durchführungsobjektivität:

zufällige Einflüsse des Testleiters auf das Testergebnis werden ausgeschaltet.

Verrechnungssicherheit:

Sogar bei freiem Antwortformat immer gegeben, da definiert und automatisch verrechnet.

Auswertungsobjektivität:

Gegeben, da Auswertung automatisiert.

Interpretationsobjektivität:

Aufgrund der Normierung gegeben. Ein bestimmter PR hat eine verbindliche Bedeutung.

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie



ARTEN VON TESTS

- Apparative Tests – Computer ersetzt Testgerät
- Papier Bleistift Tests über PC
- Multi Media Verfahren
- Peripheriegeräte durch Computer gesteuert

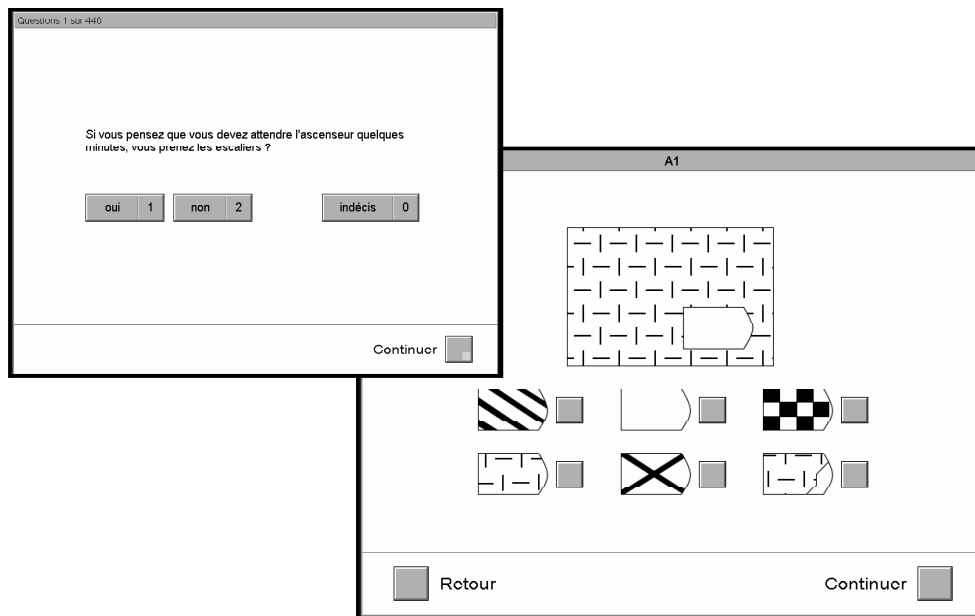


Tests die Hardware ersetzen



Anstelle von Einzelgeräten: Vorgabe der Verfahren in moderner Software.

Papier-Bleistifttests per PC



Vorgabe von Papier-Bleistift Tests per PC unter Nutzung der Vorteile der EDV.

Bei sachgemäßer Programmierung kein Äquivalenzproblem bei der Übertragung von Papier/Bleistift auf PC (Klinck 2002). Zudem konnte Klinck eine bessere Akzeptanz von Computertestungen im Gegensatz zu Papier/Bleistift zeigen (nur ca 9% bevorzugten Papier/Bleistift) .

Multi Media Tests



Modernste Verfahren unter Nutzung neuer Technologien

L'ÉDUCATION INTERCULTURELLE ET L'APPRENTISSAGE DES LANGUES DANS L'ESPACE EUROPÉEN

Delia Maria SILIȘTE

Facultatea de Litere și Arte a Universității „Lucian Blaga” din Sibiu

siliste@online.asconet.ro

RÉSUMÉ

L'ouvrage traite les problèmes d'éducation interculturelle, mais aussi la culture-civilisation comme savoir être. Cette éducation démocratique transnationale est étroitement liée de la communication internationale et du statut des langues dans le contexte européen.

Nous avons montré aussi le rôle de la sociolinguistique dans l'étude du langage en relation avec la structure de la communauté de parleurs, mais aussi en relation avec la culture d'une communauté.

Dans cette Europe multiculturelle et multilingue, une vraie „Europe babélique”, le statut des langues vivantes est incertain, car sauf les 11 langues officielles de L'Union Européenne admises en 1995, aujourd'hui on affirme l'existence de 100 langues, bien sûr en introduisant dans la catégorie des langues „minoritaires” certains idiomes qui ont statut de dialectes.

De cette concurrence linguistique de quelques communautés restreintes (il s'agit des migrations de populations, ouvriers ou enfants immigrants), s'accroît le sentiment d'identité nationale qui nourrit des mouvements politiques basés sur l'intolérance et discrimination d'où la nécessité accrue de redonner à l'éducation un rôle crucial.

REZUMAT

Lucrarea tratează problemele de educație interculturală, finalități didactice și situații educative, dar și cultura – civilizație ca mod de a exista.

Această educație democratică transnațională este strâns legată de comunicarea internațională și de statutul limbilor în contextul european.

Am arătat și rolul sociolingvisticii în studierea limbajului în relație cu structura socială a comunității de vorbitori, dar și cu civilizația și cultura unei comunități.

În această Europă multiculturală și multilingvă, o adevărată „Europă babelică” statutul limbilor vii este incert, căci în afară de cele 11 limbi oficiale ale Uniunii Europene admise în 1995, azi se afirmă existența a 100 de limbi, desigur incluzând în categoria limbilor „minoritare” și unele idiomuri care au statut de dialecte.

Din această concurență lingvistică a unor comunități mici, chiar a unor populații extra-comunitare (e vorba de populații, muncitori sau copii imigranți), ia amploare sentimentul de identitate națională care hrănește mișcări politice bazate pe intoleranță și discriminare, de unde necesitatea acută de a reda educației un rol crucial.

L'interculturalité suppose un processus d'interpénétration des cultures et d'édification d'une culture commune. C'est un désir, à accomplir, une invitation adressée à toutes les entités culturelles qui vivent dans un espace géographique, un dialogue pour un développement durable – garant de la paix et reflète la dynamique sociale.

Nous vivons dans un monde traversé par des conflits interethniques et de crises identitaires. Le maintien de l'identité ne doit pas signifier la mortification culturelle. Il est nécessaire de bâtir – au sein de différentes communautés organisées (appartenant à l'Etat) – des institutions compatibles utilisant des éléments traditionnels spécifiques à la culture de chacune d'entre elles.

On parle beaucoup de la stabilité / de la sécurité par la développement, par l'intégration, par

la coopération, d'ailleurs, par l'interculturalité (multiculturalisme). Il s'agit de l'interculturalité réalisée au niveau national et, d'autre part, de l'interculturalité globale.

L'accent principal concernant la problème de la stabilité de l'Europe de la perspective des provocations du multiculturalisme civique doit être mis sur *le rôle de l'éducation et du dialogue interculturel*. La diversité culturelle signifie richesse qui ne doit pas subminer les chances d'une vie civique dans le cadre d'une civilisation cohérente, consolidée par la solidarité de ses membres.

Le multiculturalisme civique pourrait accorder à l'Europe la stabilité désirée, en permettant à tous et à chaque individu d'atteindre la satisfaction complète d'avoir la possibilité de vivre, en même temps, à l'intérieur d'une civilisation et de quelques milliers de cultures.

La langue est plus d'une structure grammaticale ou d'un ensemble de sons et de mots. Elle exprime d'une manière subtile l'identité culturelle d'une communauté et reflète ses relations sociales de l'intérieur, les traditions politiques et les valeurs morales. C'est pourquoi la diversité linguistique de l'Europe doit être considérée une source de la prospérité culturelle.

Dans une Europe des langues, le roumain a une double chance: d'une part, fait partie du réseau des langues romanes / néolatines, d'autre partie, a des nombreux traits communs avec des différentes langues européennes, comme une conséquence des contacts culturels et linguistiques variés fixés dans le temps. Les politiques d'intégration linguistique de la Roumanie sont heureusement soutenues par l'identité interculturelle même de la langue roumaine.

Dans un monde des discours, la langue est un médiateur dans le dialogue ego – altérité. Une meilleure connaissance conduit toujours à des relations meilleures. Concernant les langues de l'Europe, le plurilinguisme est, sans doute, la base de la communication efficiente, mais le soin pour la cultivation de la langue maternelle dans le contexte de la diversité linguistique revient exclusivement aux parleurs. Il est nécessaire un partenariat pour la diversité.

De plus en plus *la sociolinguistique*, apparue en tant que discipline dans les années '60 sous l'impulsion de William Labov, John Gumperz et Dell Hymes, qui se propose d'étudier la langue dans son contexte social, prouve sa grande utilité, car la communication de l'information sociale suppose l'existence de certaines relations systématiques entre l'utilisation de la langue et sa structure sociale.

Selon Einar Haugen, si l'utilisation de la langue différencie entre eux des groupes constitués par rapport aux divers paramètres de la structure sociale, cela signifie que la *sociolinguistique* doit avoir en vue non seulement la diversité linguistique, mais aussi des éléments qui assurent l'unité d'un certain groupe, pour le distinguer des autres. Elle doit étudier à la fois la covariation positive de la langue avec les groupes sociaux, ainsi que le processus complémentaire et l'uniformisation qui reste à la base de la constitution de toute communauté linguistique. *Le bilinguisme* ou *le plurilinguisme* de certaines nations n'excluent pas le monolinguisme des individus (cf. La Suisse, la Belgique, le Canada) et inversement: des nombreux représentants de certaines nations monolingues peuvent être bi - ou plurilingues (en Hollande, par exemple, la majorité de la population connaît l'anglais ou l'allemand). Les phénomènes concernant le bilinguisme et le plurilinguisme ne peuvent pas être entièrement expliqués et compris en dehors des facteurs sociaux et du développement culturel de la communauté où ils apparaissent. La langue nous aide de développer la capacité de perception de différences culturelles et de comprendre les façons dont les différentes cultures sont en interaction. Elle constitue l'accès privilégié à n'importe quelle culture, mais la compétence multilingue reste à la base de l'intercompréhension. Politiquement, le multilinguisme assure la légitimité de l'Union Européenne. La langue, étant un élément essentiel de l'identité culturelle, le multilinguisme contribue à la cohésion sociale, à l'approfondissement du motto de l'Union Européenne: *unité en diversité*.

Du point de vue de la sociolinguistique, l'apparition d'une langue globale, spécialement l'anglais, constitue un phénomène de colonisation culturelle qui menace la diversité assurée

par l'existence des langues (et par extension des cultures). Il y a une étroite liaison entre la domination linguistique et le pouvoir culturel, parce que sans une base de pouvoir, même si elle est politique, militaire ou économique, aucune langue ne peut pas progresser comme médium international de communication.

Le dangers d'une langue globale sont réels et voilà quelques-uns d'entre eux:

- *Le pouvoir linguistique.* Les parleurs natifs de la langue globale seront dans une position de pouvoir en comparaison à ceux qui doivent l'apprendre comme une langue étrangère ou officielle. Par conséquent, les ouvrages scientifiques qui sont dans une autre langue que celle globale pourraient être ignorés par la communauté internationale, l'accès à l'information est différent, mais aussi le respect imposé aux collègues d'une compagnie multinationale.

- *La paraisse linguistique.* Une langue globale éliminera la motivation pour les adultes d'apprendre d'autres langues étrangères.

- *La mort linguistique.* L'extension excessive de l'importance d'une langue globale accélérera et même provoquera la disparition des langues minoritaires en arrivant ainsi à une mort linguistique sur des vastes territoires. Certaines estimations apprécient que 80 % de 6000 langues environ mouriront dans le siècle suivant. Ce taux catastrophique serait une tragédie intellectuelle et sociale, car la langue est un réceptacle de l'histoire d'un peuple, elle est son identité.

Les arguments pour le besoin d'identité nationale et culturelle sont souvent vus comme étant en opposition à ceux liés du besoin d'intelligibilité réciproque. Cette manière de voir le problème est erronée, car c'est possible de développer une situation où l'intelligibilité et l'identité coexistent d'une manière paisible. Une telle situation est celle habituelle de **bilinguisme**, mais un **bilinguisme** où l'une des langues est celle globale, qui offre accès à la communauté mondiale, et l'autre est celle régionale qui assure l'accès à la communauté locale. Les deux fonctions peuvent être vues comme complémentaires, répondant à des besoins différents.

Une considérable expertise sociolinguistique, beaucoup de travail et grandes sommes d'argent pourraient aider les petites communautés menacées culturellement à transmettre leurs langues natives aux générations suivantes. Cela implique bien sûr des dépenses en éducation, dans la langue maternelle qui commence au premier niveau de la scolarité. Le plurilinguisme et l'interculturalité empêche la régularisation artificielle de la vie humaine, l'effacement des identités des communautés humaines, soit elles majoritaires ou, plutôt, minoritaires.

L'éducation interculturelle a commencé à s'affirmer après 1975 et trouve son origine dans l'ensemble des problèmes culturels et sociaux précis: les migrations des populations extra-communautaires, les politiques d'immigration et d'intégration de ces groupes humains (ouvriers, immigrants, leurs enfants) et, en sens plus large, les politiques des sociétés „nationales”, la mondialisation et la construction européenne fondamentalement pluriculturelle. Il y a eu des manifestations de rejet concernant ces populations, cette langue et ces coutumes différents et, de cet accroissement du sentiment identitaire nourrissent des nombreux mouvements politiques qui encouragent ouvertement *l'intolérance* et *la discrimination*; d'où la nécessité élevée de redonner à l'éducation un rôle crucial dans la lutte contre certaines attitudes qui ont conduit jadis l'Europe à l'implosion.

Le Conseil de l'Europe par l'intermédiaire du Conseil de Coopération Culturelle a apporté de l'importance et de l'autorité morale ainsi que sa capacité d'organisation vers la diffusion de l'interculturalisme et la découverte des traductions concrètes de celui-ci dans les systèmes éducatifs.

À ces buts il y a des projets qui répondent: „Former des cadres didactiques dans l'éducation interculturelle”, qui s'est déroulé de 1977 jusqu'au 1983 ou, ultérieurement, „La campagne européenne de la jeunesse contre le rassistisme, la xénophobie, l'antisémitisme et l'intolérance” qui accorde une place majeure à cette éducation démocratique transnationale. La recommandation

du Comité des ministres des États membres considère que le développement des échanges de toutes les catégories conduit à une meilleure connaissance de la culture et du mode de vie des peuples ainsi que de leur patrimoine culturel commun.

La présence dans les écoles de l'Europe des milliers d'enfants appartenant à des communautés culturelles étrangères constitue une richesse et un atout important à long et à moyen terme, à condition que les politiques éducatives qui encouragent l'ouverture spirituelle et la compréhension des différences mutuelles soient promulguées.

Par conséquent, il est recommandé aux États membres de former des cadres qui s'informent sur les diverses manières d'expression culturelle qui existent dans leurs cultures nationales, de reconnaître que les attitudes ethnocentristes et stéréotypes peuvent faire du mal aux individus et donc de s'opposer à leur influence, de comprendre que, eux aussi, ils doivent devenir les artisans d'un mouvement d'échanges culturelles.

L'éducation interculturelle conçue dans ce sens ne se réalise pas comme une méthodologie d'enseignement, car elle envisage la dimension culturelle de l'apprentissage et de l'enseignement en sens large.

Sans champs d'application ou publique spécifique la pédagogie interculturelle se définit comme un discours, un regard jeté à l'enseignement, aux disciplines de l'éducation.

Les préoccupations formatives ne sont pas étrangères de celles de l'éducation interculturelle et elles entrent dans la sphère de l'éducation morale-civique. Les contacts directs avec une certaine culture ont un rôle important: les médias, les échanges internationales, les échanges entre enseignants et élèves etc. La diversité et les échanges sont un atout de l'efficacité et une garantie du progrès. Les points les plus sensibles sont les suivants:

- La mise en relief du rôle positif de l'enseignement des langues étrangères à une âge tendre sur le maîtrise de la langue maternelle et d'autres disciplines scolaires.
- La constatation du fait qu'un système éducatif qui ne combine pas l'apprentissage efficace des langues étrangères à partir d'un âge tendre avec un autre soutenu, pendant toute la vie, est un facteur générateur d'inégalité de chances.
- L'encouragement de l'apprentissage à une âge tendre à deux langues étrangères à côté de celle maternelle.
- La possibilité d'apprendre plusieurs langues parallèlement ou successivement grâce à des programmes souples, modulés, individualisés, où l'élève est l'acteur de sa propre préparation et il est prêt à s'autoévaluer.
- L'incitation des enseignants à la mobilité internationale, en prenant les mesures administratives nécessaires en ce sens.
- La formation des éducateurs dans l'esprit du plurilinguisme et de l'interculturalité. La formation des enseignants est évidemment la condition principale dans le développement d'une offre adéquate.
- La surveillance, par l'intermédiaire des commissions académiques pour l'enseignement des langues modernes, créées par la loi d'orientation scolaire, afin de mettre en pratique une offre cohérente qui assure de la continuité entre les niveaux d'enseignement.
- La généralisation de l'enseignement des langues étrangères dans les universités et le développement des véritables projets de formation plurilingues, en respectant un équilibre entre les compétences linguistiques.
- La réalisation d'une étude scientifique pour voir si la langue *esperanto* peut faciliter l'enseignement des langues étrangères.

• Le développement d'une vraie culture de formation propre et d'évaluation propre.

Étroitement liés de la citoyenneté européenne active, la plurilinguisme et la diversité culturelle sont un composant fondamental de l'identité européenne, car les langues ne pouvant pas être séparées de la culture, l'identité de l'Europe est donnée par ses cultures et ses langues.

Il est nécessaire l'association de l'expérience personnelle dans l'enseignement des langues au-delà de la valeur strictement fonctionnelle de la langue à la formation des éducateurs dans cette direction.

La langue, source de connaissance de l'autre, est en même temps la voie de sa reconnaissance comme citoyen, la citoyenneté postulant la conscience de la communication des mêmes valeurs et d'un destin collectif. Une citoyenneté européenne active ne peut pas être conçue sans la multiplication et le renforcement des échanges au niveau des peuples et des individus ayant comme vecteur principal la langue. La participation des citoyens à l'élaboration des politiques européennes dépend de leur capacité de participer aux débats publics et politiques de l'Europe. Cette capacité suppose une compétence plurilingue, c'est-à-dire une capacité d'entrer en contact dans une manière efficiente et adéquate avec les autres citoyens de l'Europe.

L'introduction dans la formation de l'éducation civique des dimensions interculturelles et, par conséquent, du plurilinguisme, comme source fondamentale du sentiment civique, et cela même si l'unité linguistique a représenté au long de l'histoire le fondement même de l'unité nationale et de la citoyenneté, cela représente concrètement:

- La révision des programmes scolaires d'histoire, de géographie, de langues modernes, mais aussi des programmes des langues d'enseignement et de celles d'éducation civique, en se donnant ainsi une attention suffisante à la dimension interculturelle de l'Europe.

- L'encouragement du travail en interdisciplinarité des enseignants pour que les élèves puissent voir la manière dont on perçoit la culture que les gens s'approprient dans d'autres pays où on parle d'autres langues;

- Le soutien des manifestations culturelles à contenu interculturel;

- La favorisation du développement de l'offre de programmes de télévision à vocation interculturelle;

- L'encouragement de l'intérêt pour le plurilinguisme de nature à favoriser le développement d'une demande de tels programmes;

- La rédaction d'une histoire des nations et des cultures européennes et l'enseignement de celles-ci comme faisant partie de l'histoire de l'Europe;

- L'augmentation du niveau de connaissances de la population en matière de langues européennes, de langues de culture.

- La consolidation des compétences linguistiques des fonctionnaires européens pour l'application ferme du principe des langues pivot et pour le maintien des autres langues nationales;

- La réactivation des dispositifs de langues et de cultures d'origine en permettant aux enfants d'une autre langue et d'une autre culture de suivre ces cours, en conformité avec l'orientation établie à partir de 2001.

- Le soutien des associations culturelles des émigrants dans la promotion de l'apprentissage de leur langue dans la société d'adoption et la facilité de l'intégration par l'apprentissage de la langue nationale.

- La promotion d'un baccalauréat européen plurilingue, la modalité d'excellence d'un baccalauréat accomplissant les conditions du plurilinguisme.

- La généralisation dans les universités de l'enseignement des langues étrangères et le développement des véritables projets de formation plurilingue, en respectant un équilibre entre les compétences linguistiques.

Si on a parlé de *la stabilité / la sécurité* par la développement, par l'intégration, par la coopération, c'est le moment de reconnaître la valabilité d'un nouveau concept - *stabilité / sécurité* par **multiculturalisme**, l'un réalisé au niveau national – l'État civique – et l'autre au niveau global. Ainsi, on impose la distinction entre les cultures parentées (catholicisme, protestantisme, orthodoxisme etc.), de famille et les cultures non-parentées. Il y a des cultures



compatibles – *le cultures sœurs* – et incompatibles – *cultures de filiation*.

En ce qui concerne les cultures sœurs, il est nécessaire d'avoir des projets communs pour que, par l'intéressement à l'effort de construction commun, on arrive à la connaissance, à l'acceptation et au respect réciproque. Dans le cas des cultures de filiations, le dialogue interculturel assure la connaissance réciproque et, après l'accommodation, on peut passer à l'édification des institutions compatibles.

Une Europe fédérale serait une Europe des minorités – ethniques et non seulement – étant obligée, mais aussi apte de construire un modèle de cohabitation multiculturelle, multi-identitaire. Le dialogue multiculturel devient, par conséquent, un instrument de la stabilité.

L'écuménisme religieux, mais aussi celui laïque apparaissent comme étant absolument nécessaires pour éviter la globalisation de la haine, ainsi que pour créer les bases d'une société – nationale et / ou globale – qui associe le droit à la solidarité au droit à la diversité.

Les principaux dangers des politiques multiculturelles se réfèrent à l'emploi de la protection des communautés culturelles comme moyen pour la réalisation des objectifs géopolitiques, mais aussi l'évitement de l'assimilation culturelle par l'(auto) isolement. Les deux peuvent être dépassés par la création de la liaison entre *multiculturalisme* et *civisme*.

Si l'État multinational est l'un qui reconnaît l'existence de quelques groupes ethniques, en soutenant les relations interculturelles, l'État civique réalise la solidarité des individus en dépassant les frontières de la culture (des groupes culturels), il assume son rôle d'intégrateur culturel et de protecteur culturel de toutes les minorités nationales d'au-delà des frontières qui ont la même origine avec la majorité ethnique ou le groupe culturel. Pour le fonctionnement normal d'un État multiculturel civique, les politiques multiculturelles ne doivent pas ignorer la fierté et les ambitions des communautés ethniques majoritaires qui ne disparaissent pas seulement parce que la société se globalise. Il faut préparer les majorités nationales (qui, au niveau global, seront, elles mêmes, minorités) à comprendre et à accepter le concept de **nation cosmopolite**. Cela comportera un effort intense et long *d'éducation publique* doublée par un développement de la solidarité civique, la garantie de la stabilité internationale.

La diversité culturelle, la richesse qu'on devrait garder intactes, ne doivent pas subminer les chances d'une vie civique dans une civilisation cohérente, consolidée par la solidarité de ses membres. Le multiculturalisme civique pourrait accorder à l'Europe la stabilité en permettant à tous et à chaque individu d'atteindre la satisfaction entière d'avoir la possibilité de vivre, en même temps, dans une civilisation et dans des milliers de cultures.

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THE ROLE OF COMMUNICATION AT THE BEGGINING OF THE THERAPY OF THE DRUG ADDICT

Daniela SIMACHE

Agenția Națională pentru Sprijinirea Inițiativelor Tinerilor
danielasimache@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Using a therapy program focused on communication (verbal or non-verbal) by means of which a series of improvements of the personality disorders were achieved, and also the decrease of dependence propency. The program was carried out during the 2 weeks period of the disintoxication cure on a batch of 30 subjects and included individual and group sessions. The methods and techniques used were, mainly, applications of the Transactional Analysis (analysis of transactions and energizing of the Adult status, time structuring methods and improvement of the stroke economy at the personal level) with the purpose of experimenting problems and daily situations solving from the Adult position by the drug addicts. We have added a series of cognitive-behavioural (awareness of the cognitive distortions and rationalization of negative thoughts with a great risk potential) and structural – systemic techniques (roles assignment and designing of alternatives to the actual pattern of problem solving). In comparison with the control batch, I obtained: considerable decrease of the psychic pressure and of the frustration degree, improvement of the self-image and the possibilities of relationship. So, the psycho-therapeutic intervention (based on a communication suitable for the addiction stage and the treatment situation of the drug addicts) is useful and necessary for the growth and strengthening of the motivation of gaining the autonomy.

REZUMAT

Folosind un program terapeutic cu accent pe comunicare (verbală și nonverbală), am obținut ameliorări ale tulburărilor de personalitate și reducerea tendințelor de dependență. Programul s-a desfășurat în timpul curei de dezintoxicare (2 săptămâni), pe un lot de 30 subiecți și a cuprins ședințe individuale și de grup. Metodele și tehnicile folosite au fost în principal aplicații ale Analizei Tranzacționale (analiza tranzacțiilor și energizarea stării de Adult, modalități de structurare a timpului și îmbunătățirea economiei strockurilor la nivel personal), în scopul experimentării de către consumatori a soluționării unor probleme și situații cotidiene din poziție de Adult, precum și tehnici cognitiv-comportamentale (conștientizarea distorsiunilor cognitive și raționalizarea unor gânduri negative cu mare potențial de risc) și structural-sistemice (atribuirea de roluri și proiectarea de alternative la paternul actual de rezolvare a problemelor). Comparativ cu lotul martor, am constatat: scăderea considerabilă a tensiunii psihice și a gradului de frustrare, îmbunătățirea imaginii de sine și ale modalităților de interrelaționare. Așadar, intervenția psihoterapeutică (bazată pe o comunicare adecvată stadiului dependenței și situației de tratament în care se află consumatorii) este utilă și necesară la creșterea și consolidarea motivației pentru dobândirea autonomiei.

1. The Role of communication in the therapeutic activity of medical and psychological nature – short presentation.

The therapeutic process of the drug addicts naturally involves a fundamental characteristic - communication. The partners of this act of communication are the therapist (doctor, psychologist) and the treated drug addict.

This therapeutic program was carried out within the frame of an ample research approach on the methods of communication of the young drug addicts. Usually, in such sessions the psychologist (the author) carries out the psychological anamnesis and assessment of the present state of the patient through interviews and standard psychological trials (tests). In this case,

we have set up and developed another kind of program. It is also represented a therapeutic relationship established with the patients (some of them, those who were in the experimental batch) through which the treatment of the psychic dependence has begun. It is about the “therapy through communication” a generic denomination we have given to the therapeutic program, in which a special stress was put on communication (mainly verbal, but also on the non-verbal one), program carried out during a two weeks period of time. During this period of time (of the detoxifying cure) a batch of 30 young drug addicts¹ of heroin, took part in 4 therapeutic group sessions and in 2-3 individual therapy sessions. The group sessions were carried out by a therapist (psychologist of the detoxifying section, the author) together with a co-therapist (social assistant of this section, Ana-Maria Tudor). The individual sessions were carried out by a psychologist.

Besides that, the subjects were examined with complex investigations², carried out through the Contextual-Dynamic methodology (T. Slama-Cazacu). It collocates the *dynamics* – the study of the messages during the therapeutic process, (in the individual evolution of each subject etc.) and a *contextual component* – the study of the way the messages are integrated, of their content and of the emission and reception moments, within the social and historical, situational, linguistic, etc., contexts. The premises of this investigation were the following:

1. The drug addicts assign certain words a different significance than the usual ones, significance « build » within the frame of their deviant way of life.

2. There is a specific communication (expression of the self-identity, of the life experience, interests and own needs; the relationship with other partners of communication) for the drug addicts.

The base of the carried out studies was the classical procedure “associative-verbal experiment”, due to the fact that it aimed at representing one of the optimum ways of tracking the peculiarities of communication of the drug addicts under treatment. Thus, the heroin consumers have participated at the beginning and the end of this program at the following experiments:

- *The associative-verbal experiment (procedure) followed by the method of introspection EAV-I*, fulfilled with the purpose of deepening the characteristics of the verbal language of the drug addicts (the meaning of the words, presence of specific elements, etc.). We have used a list of 22 words-stimuli. From these, 14 words were words with relevant significance for the object of our study and this is why we named them “words-objective” (*grass, freedom, events, life, success, value, future, adventure, desire, drug, independence, happiness, sincerity, love*) and other 8 words from the current vocabulary, without a relevant significance for the study, named “neutral-words” (*table, child, flower, plate, friendship, glass, box, movement*)

- *The experiment (procedure) of continuous verbal association followed by the method of introspection EAVC-I*, fulfilled with the purpose of studying the analysis of structuring of the self-image and to set up and maintain interpersonal contacts. We have used two “words-stimuli” with relevant significance for the study: *ladder and drug*.

- *The experiment of phrases completion*, ECF fulfilled with the purpose of marking out the involvement into interpersonal relations. The subjects were asked to complete 11 phrases referring to the self-image; personal aspirations, needs and ideals of life, an attitude towards the self and the others, the way they involve into interpersonal relationships.

- *The experiment of continuing a test ECT* by means of which we have wanted to make

¹ We specify that of them 10 subjects was absent, in an acceptable measure as we considered, at some parts of the group sessions (an average of 15 minutes, due to objective issues as the personal receipt of packs from home or a visit to the consulting room, at the beginning of the group session). Still, they were included into the research batch because they have proven a real involvement during the sessions, confirmed afterwards by the final assessment results.

² They were a part of the doctor’s degree thesis with the title “Aspects of communication and its role in the teenagers drug consumption phenomenon” carried out under the coordination of prof.dr.doc. T.Slama-Cazacu

evident certain characteristics of the self-image and the way the persons involve themselves into activities and interpersonal relations. We have asked the subjects to continue a story about the way a young person begins the day and that can be easily considered as the beginning of the day of a user.

Also, these experiments were fulfilled, simultaneously with the initial and final application on the batch of study and on a control batch of heroine consumers hospitalized in the detoxifying section that did not participated in this program. The results obtained have confirmed the significant role that a suitable use of communication has in the therapy of drug addicts, but has pointed out the need of extending such an approach on a longer period in order to be efficient, and the efficiency to be valid.

2. DESCRIPTION OF THE THERAPEUTIC PROCESS

2.1. Content

The *group sessions* have had as the initial objective the support therapy and psycho-education.

Thus, we started by answering all the questions and anxieties of the young persons hospitalized for drug consumption. Questions of the users: (how will their present state evolve, which are the social and juridical consequences of their taking part in the treatment – the fear of being registered at the police bodies and that, subsequently, they will be investigated and deprived of certain civil rights, etc., is present).

This way we have carried out a short and accessible presentation of the psychological profile of the user, emphasizing the fact that the negative changes of the intellectual performances, of the affective disposition and, very important for them, of the libido and the sexual performances are reversible. We presented the subjects the *Prochaska-DiClemente Model of the change stages* in the evolution of the drug addicts, emphasizing the importance of drug addict involvement into his/her own change and importance of a correct assessment of the reality), to receive advices, instructions, praises (we have analyzed together the evolution of the subjects, making comparisons between the actual and previous situation – of user, and with the following stage which we have stimulated to foreshadow, starting from the personal qualities and the accumulations made by him/her).

After that, starting from the third session, we have gradually passed to stimulation of these young people to involve themselves into therapy, beginning with becoming aware and understand the stage of consumption and addiction degree. To this end, we have identified/ personalized the risk factors (manifestations of abstinence, psychological stress of their “companions” of consumption, lack of a complete and accessible therapeutic chain, etc.) and points of support (treatment which he/she already benefits by, the authentic manifestation of own personality, relationships (the possibility to resume them) with the non-user friends, etc.). Also, new persons took part in this session (it was held during the second week). They had information on the purpose and method of session fulfillment, so that the members of the group had the opportunity to positively value themselves and to rise their self-esteem.

The last session, (the fourth) has had as objective the development of motivation for changing the behavior of consumption. For this purpose, we have studied the involvement and their attitude of being responsible of their actions in a session in which every participant has had the possibility (previously announced) to ask questions and to propose themes of debates and to answer the questions of the new members of the group. During the last part of the session, we have explored together the personal alternatives of each participant after their leaving the hospital, selecting the possible variants of maintaining the abstinence. We focused on reaction



to drug offer (role-playing games to develop the assertively) and on effective use of the support network identified previously (friends, family, therapist, etc.) by direct request of help, telephone contact, etc.

Individual sessions have had the following procedure:

During the first session the psychological anamnesis took place (based on an interview guide) that had as items: a short personal presentation, consumption history, ways of money procurement, situations of proposal and recent consumption. During the dialog, the stress was maintained on analysis (by the hospitalized user) of the significant moments and of its personal involvement: verbal and non-verbal communication, thoughts, emotions and their correlation. All this, in a direct and stimulating approach, without moralizing attitudes, value judgment and labelling. More than this, these young people were praised for starting treatment and the therapist manifested his/her trust in their capacity (potential) to successfully finalize it.

The second session has had as objective the improvement of the communication possibilities and of interpersonal relationship. The starting point was a questionnaire specially conceived for this purpose (used in the study of the users' communication to which we referred previously and that had the following structure: 6 questions referring the *self-identity and the role of partner in communication of the subject*, 6 questions referring the *relationship between the subject and the drugs* and 7 questions that refer to the *relation between the subject and consumption*). From the obtained answers we have selected the significant aspects and we started with the joined analysis of the situations of communication, the transactions from the communication and their finality. Also, we have approached the idea of personal peculiarity in the participation to communication, according to the significance they have for us (mentally and emotionally) and the way we organize our time.

The third session, for which the subjects had to make explicitly their option (representing a real decision of involvement into therapy) consisted of the analysis of situations or moments considered to be significant to the subject, followed by the finding (encouraged by the psychologist) of alternatives to reactions, life experiences and consequences faced by the respective user.

2.2 Used techniques

Applications of the Transactional analysis:

- *analysis and energizing of Ego-State*, preceded by presentation of the concept "Ego-States "a mean to react, to think and feel according to the situation we are now" (without naming it), took the form of a dialogue in which the reactions of the speakers (transactions) were analyzed Daniela

- *analysis of the time structuring ways*, consisted of, after presentation in an accessible way of the AT concepts, identification of rituals (related to the injecting, for instance), of withdrawals, debates about passing the time and frequent games to the prejudice of activities (real alternative that could be identified by the subjects) or of the intimacy (option less visible for users in this stage of dependence).

- *improvement of stroke economy at personal level*, aiming at the improvement of the capacity of personal selection (in deficit for many of them) by the users of strokes:

- growth of the capacity to receive positive strokes, Daniela
- fulfillment of a suitable filter for receiving any stroke, Daniela

Applications of the cognitive-behavioral therapy:

- *awareness of cognitive distortions*, related especially to the mechanism of dependence and the possibilities of therapeutic intervention through:

- request of proofs and concrete data

T. Did anyone do a sounding with all the people hospitalized here?

T. In what book is specified in how many seconds do you become totally dependent on heroin?

- comparison with other people

T. This is valid only for you or for the others as well?

P. OK ... others manage, but I can't, if I don't take something.

T. Should I understand that of all the 22 millions, you are the only one to whom ...?

- *rationalizing of negative thoughts with great risk potential*, related mainly by the personal complexes manifested by many users ("I am good for nothing", "Something is wrong with me, if I ended here") or to the situation he/she is in as a result of the consumption ("Nothing can make me happy", "Everybody will avoid me", "I can't do anything anymore", etc.).

The subjects were explained the relationships existent between thinking, sensitiveness and behavior, and then, exemplified by analysis of a few situations: the thought that he will feel good and the desire to entertain himself have determined him to consume heroin for the first time or, some other time, the use of drug was the consequence of the (wrong) belief that he cannot refuse the offer and the fear that the others will reject him. In their place, the subjects were helped to formulate positive thoughts to help them to maintain the abstinence ("We already have made many steps in treatment", "I can do/find something I like", etc.).

Applications of the structural-systemic therapy:

- *assignment of roles in significant situations*, as are the situations of consumption or refuse of the offer, was very useful because the subjects could experiment and especially could analyze their own involvement (under conditions of security, without tension or criticism). The alternative interpreting of the role of consumer and dealer (followed by a feedback within the group) allowed each of them to a certain reviewing of the significance they have assigned to the drug

- *designing alternatives to the present pattern of problem solving*, achieved by a role-playing game or only by means of the therapeutic dialogue, has allowed the subjects to place themselves (in imaginary way) into new hypostases for them, from the point of view of reality reflection and of the personal answer to it. These things were consolidated by their externalizing (verbal and non-verbal communication) in the role-playing game, respectively in the dialogue with the therapist. Example: "You know that your companions go to the town to find some merchandise. Now you are home alone. Due to the treatment you don't want and you don't have great pains. What options do you have?"

3. SUITABLE COMMUNICATION IN THE THERAPY OF DRUG ADDICTS

As a consequence of the analysis of the results of the carried out experimental study, several essential aspects of the role of communication in the drug addicts' therapy are delineating.

The therapy with focus on the act of communication has the purpose of initiating the detachment of the former user from the initial psychic state – a negative state, characterized by passivity, confusion and incoherence of own system of, depression and low self-esteem.

3.1. Characteristics of the subject involvement into the "therapy through communication"

The patient is involved, through taking part in the communication with the psychologist, to his/her therapy. Thus, he develops from a passive posture (with deviant behavior, as well as self-destructive) to another, in which he/she plays an active role. He/she is a willful and

supported participant to a natural act of communication, with therapeutic finality.

Users involved into this therapy have participated in fact to complex social acts. This participation and the situational context, in which it takes place (physical environment – the room where the therapy and study takes place), the social context and the message of communication, represent factors of security for the subjects. This way, they are not marked any more by tensions and anxieties, and can concentrate on their own person and on their situation.

In this physico-situational frame (inclusively of communication), a significant change in the status and role of the subjects takes place. From drug consumer, that is “victim”, “negative character” or “patient”, they *become partners of communication*, in normal relations of communication. The new position, clearly defined, gives them value and has a forming role. It supposes the exit from the dramatic triangle (E. Berne), where the young user oscillates between the positions of victim and persecutor and the adoption (even for a short period of time) of a healthy life position (I am OK, you are OK). He/she has an adequate relationship during these moments (referring to “here and now”) with the communication partners (therapist, other youngsters, etc.) and the surrounding reality.

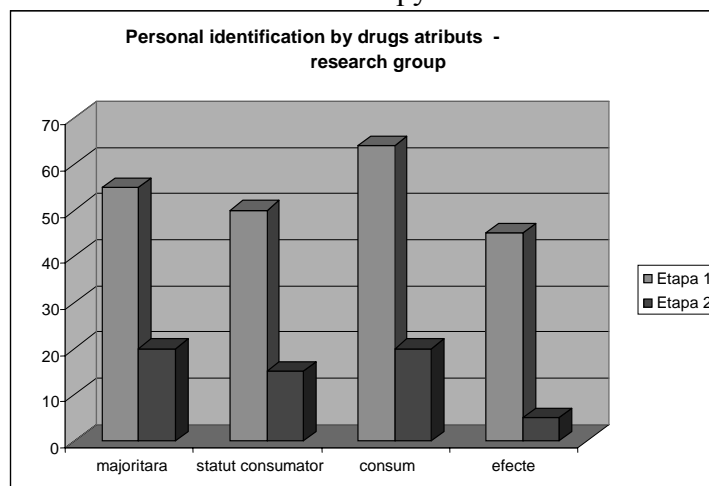
3.2. Roles of the subjects in the situation of therapeutic communication

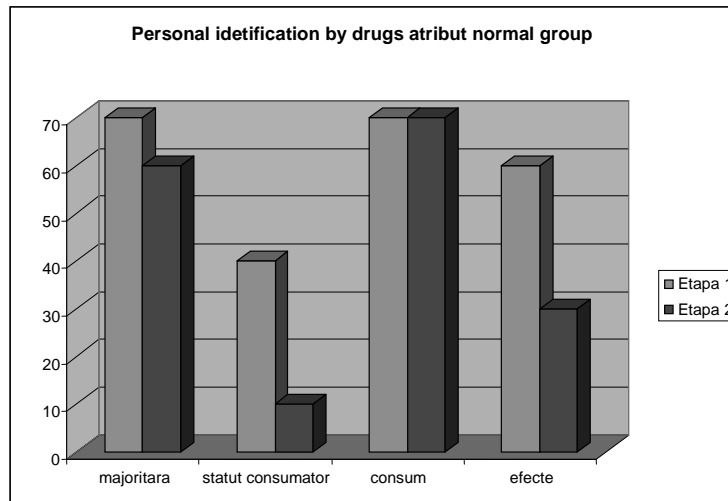
Former user is transmitter (T) and he/she discharge his/her tensions, anxieties and frustrations (the acute feeling of marginalization and isolation from friends, former partners, colleagues, neighbors, etc.; feelings of dread that the negative effects of the drugs are definitive and irreversible – the bad physical state, diminution of the intellectual capacity and affective numbness, diminution of the libido); he/she asks questions and states his/her interests.

Also, the former user is receiver (R), receiving necessary information to understand his/her state and the steps to be taken. Besides that, the young users involved into this program, have received attention and respect (whose lack is acutely felt at their age), acknowledgement of their potential and value as individuals at that moment.

3.3. The results obtained: interpretations and comments from the therapeutic and psychological point of view.

Following the analysis and comparative interpretation of the results of the experiments carried out with the two batches (experimental and control), we could notice that the subjects assert and ameliorate their personality through the communication therapy. The study and the analysis of its results, as well as the therapeutic activity carried out have led to the determining of suitable ways of communication in users' therapy.





Thus, we consider that the starting point of this therapy must be the adoption of an *open attitude*, lacking sententious messages and distant, authoritative attitudes towards the subjects, because it is about teenagers and young people who have adopted, even fixed, a deviant behavior, behavior that is undertaken by them now (either blaming themselves and lessening very much their self-image, or adopting an attitude of rebelliousness and negativism; both being counterproductive in the therapy). So, an open and tolerant attitude has to be promoted and adopted, attitude necessary to successfully carry out the therapy.

Essential, in this case, is to *set up an empathic relationship* between the subject and the researcher (psychologist and patient). For this relationship, it is essential to begin with empathic listening of the messages of the teenagers and young people that use drugs. Also, the patients must really involve into the communication relationship through which the therapy takes place. They must ask questions and give answers, to require information about the stage and situation in which they are, and of their evolution in treatment, etc.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Because the drug consumption phenomenon involves (as many authors have shown) a "communicational infirmity" (V. Prost, 1988; R. Rășcanu și M. Zivari, 2002), the users' therapy can and must be a therapy through and for communication.

This fact is fully confirmed by the results of the experimental studies. They have shown that as a consequence of taking part in this therapeutic program, the subjects participating in the experimental batch have shown:

- a considerable decrease of the *psychic tension and of the degree of frustration and the reshaping of the desires and needs* in conformity with the characteristics of the normal behavior, accepted by the moral and social norms and with the real possibilities of each of the subjects;
- an improvement of the *self-image*;
- a start of *positive changes of the interrelationship*.

Thence, the accentuated use of communication can be very useful in the *therapeutic approach of the users*.

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PERCEPTION THROUGH CULTURE AND EVALUATION

Gelu V . TODEA

Faculty of Psychology, "Tibiscus" University, Timișoara, România
todeavgelu@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

In Romanian Universities one poses a discrete problem: the evaluation of university lecturers by students. The present research intends to implicate the cultural segment through the responses given at the well known Proust Questionnaire by 120 psychology students (II.nd and III.th year of studies) with respect to a professor. Students were able to anonymously perceive the person entitled to form them. This perception is considered to be more close to reality if it is provoked by a well known cultural filter; instead of the descriptive evaluation scale formula of an institution. Quality and level of the perception overrule, because they are triggered by the descriptors of the Proust Questionnaire.

My analysis reveals at a first stage the perceptive diversity of the test sample components and discovers the qualities and defects of the evaluated person. We refer hereby not only to the role that is played, but also to the person playing it.

This seems very important to me and justifies our hypothesis that the person is significant and not the status. The role played by the person can sustain or relinquish the status because of the personal characteristics.

There is a real risk in applied psychology that we undertake status psychology instead of the person's psychology.

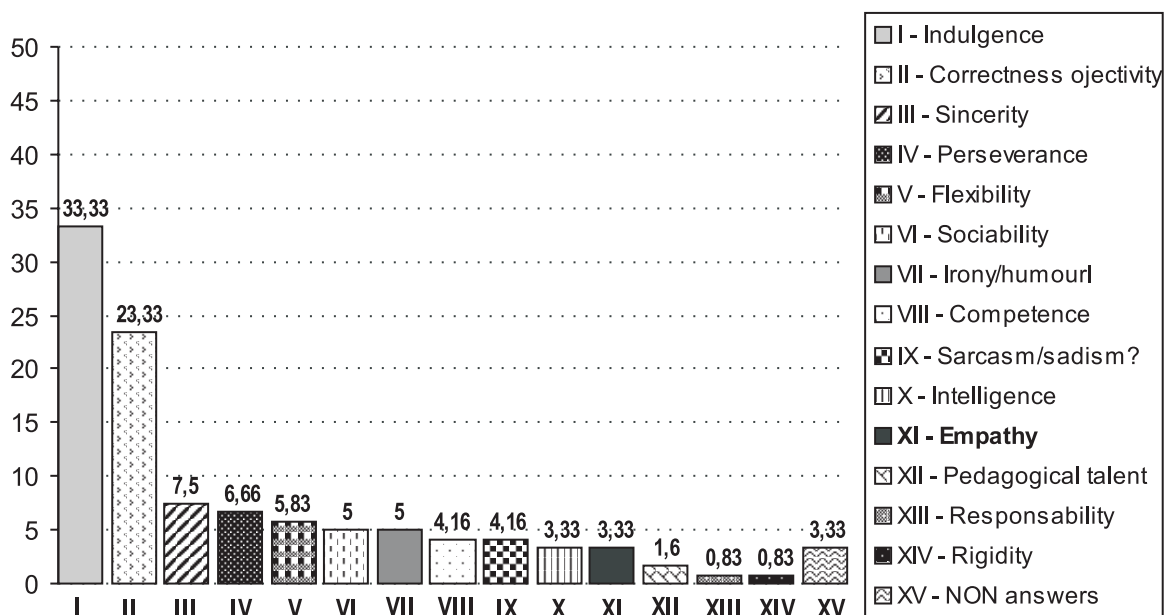
REZUMAT

În universitățile din România se pune, oarecum discret, problema evaluării formatorilor universitari de către studenți. Prin cercetarea de față dorim să implicăm segmentul cultural prin răspunsurile date la cunoscutul chestionar proustian, de către un număr de 120 de studenți la psihologie (anii II, III și IV) (N=120), în raport cu un cadru didactic. Percepția sub semnul anonimatului, pe care au avut-o studenții, despre o persoană care are rolul să-i formeze, considerăm că este mai aproape de realitate dacă este provocată de un filtru cultural cunoscut, decât prin prisma formală a unei scale de evaluare descriptivă determinată instituțional. Calitatea, nivelul acesteia, este liberă să primeze prin provocarea declanșată de descriptorii chestionarului proustian.

Analiza pe care am făcut-o, la un prim nivel, pe lângă faptul că trădează în mod normal diversitatea perceptivă a subiecților eșantionului a dus și la descoperirea calităților și defectelor persoanei evaluate. Referințele se fac nu numai la rolul pe care-l joacă, ci și la persoana însăși. Acest lucru ni se pare mai important și justifică ipoteza noastră că persoana este importantă, și nu statutul, rolul jucat putând să susțină sau nu statutul datorită caracteristicilor personale.

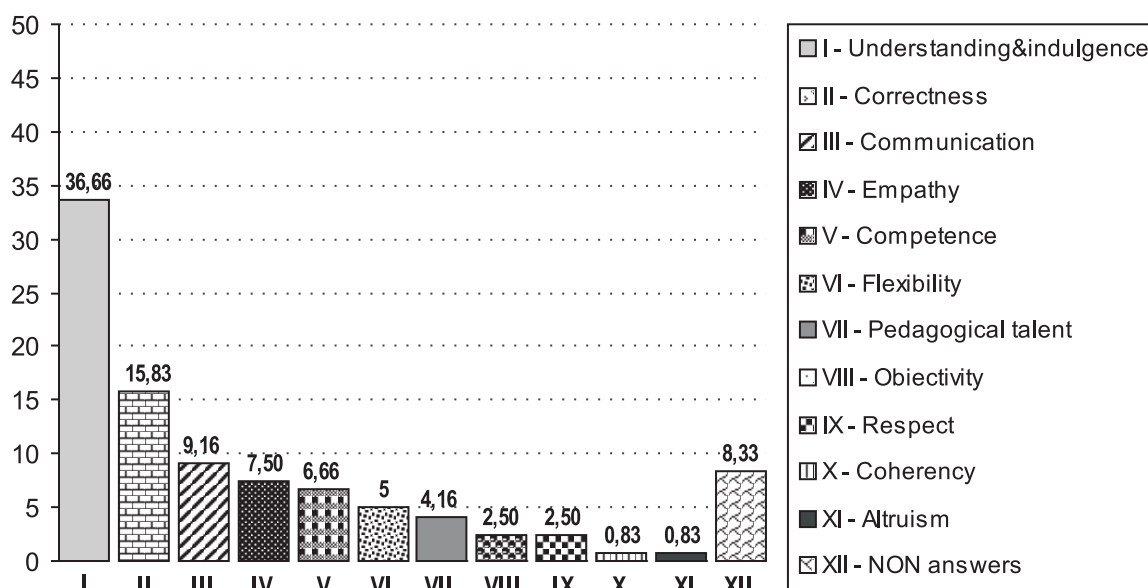
În psihologia aplicată există riscul real să facem o psihologie de status și nu o psihologie a persoanei.

1. The main trait desired



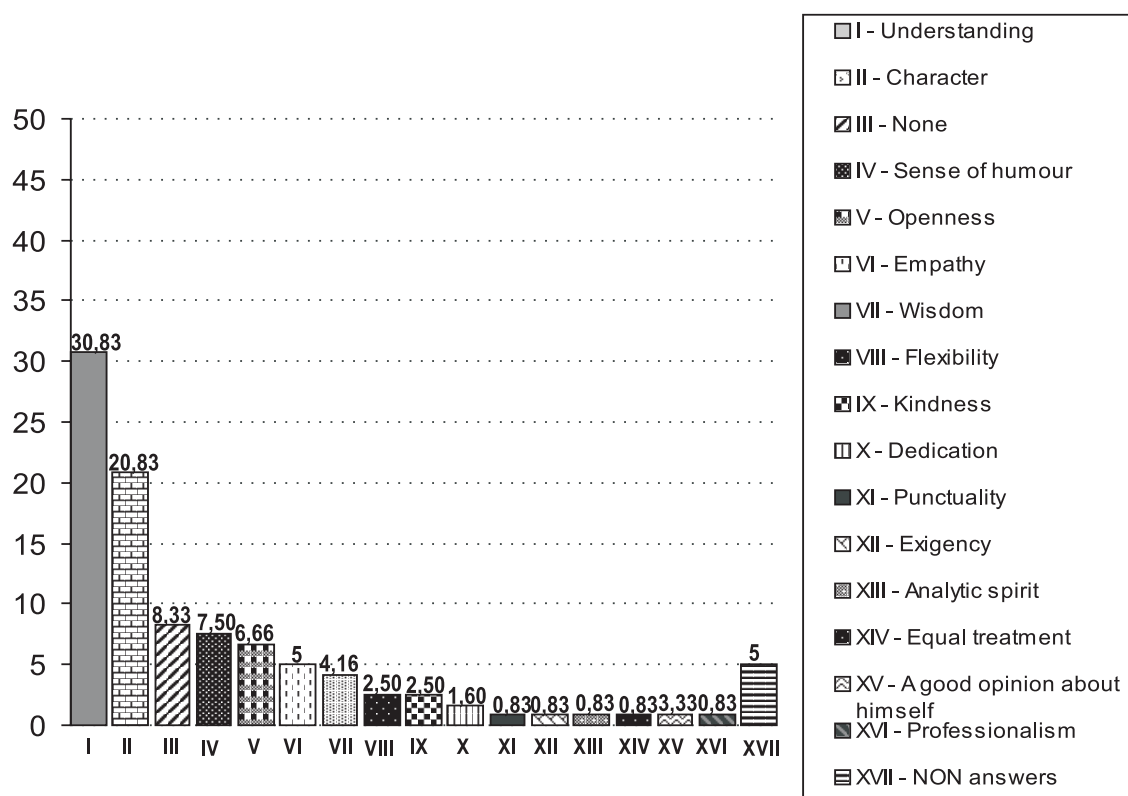
1. The great diversity of student options in regards with the appreciated professor under the sign of namelessness, shows first of all the natural subjectivity of personal perceptions. However, if we take into consideration only the first two places with significant percents *indulgence* (33.33%) and *objectivity* (23.33%) one can state the hypothesis that the two mentioned characteristics are somehow contradictory. Constrained by severity the students argue objectivity and correctness. The final rank is occupied by *empathy* (3.33%), *pedagogical talent* (1.66%) *responsibility and rigidity* (0.83%), which probably confirm the existence of those characteristics. The critical spirit of the perceptive evaluation modifies itself thought out the final ranks.

2. Which quality does ona want to find in him:



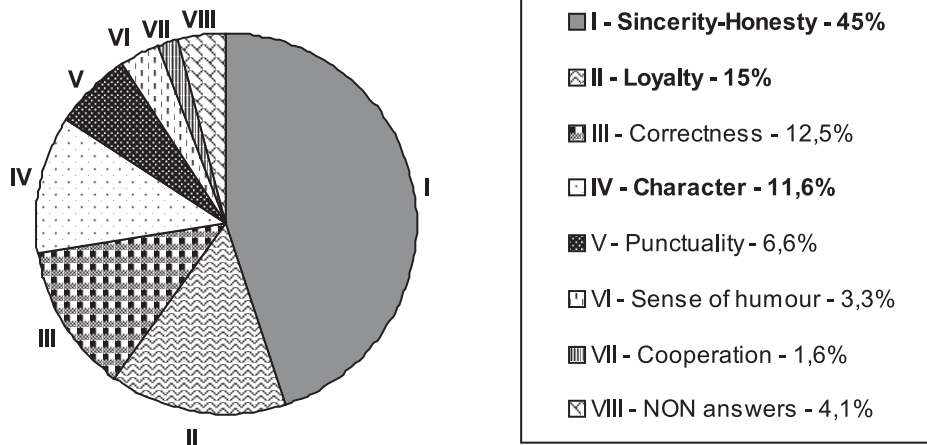
2. The expected qualities of the appreciated person are usually mistaken with the characteristics expressed at item 1. One should notice that the first two places that are desired almost at the same level like item 1 (the desired characteristic). Chi square calculated is insignificant. The critical spirit is emphasized, having a chase validation. It is something normal at such a complex sample. *Empathy* (4), that is desired, can be attached to 1 (*understanding* and *indulgence*) and we have a percent of approximately 44%. I have made this association because it is very likely for students to understand the empathic quality associated with indulgence and understanding (1= 36.66%)

3. Which quality would be preferable for him to have:



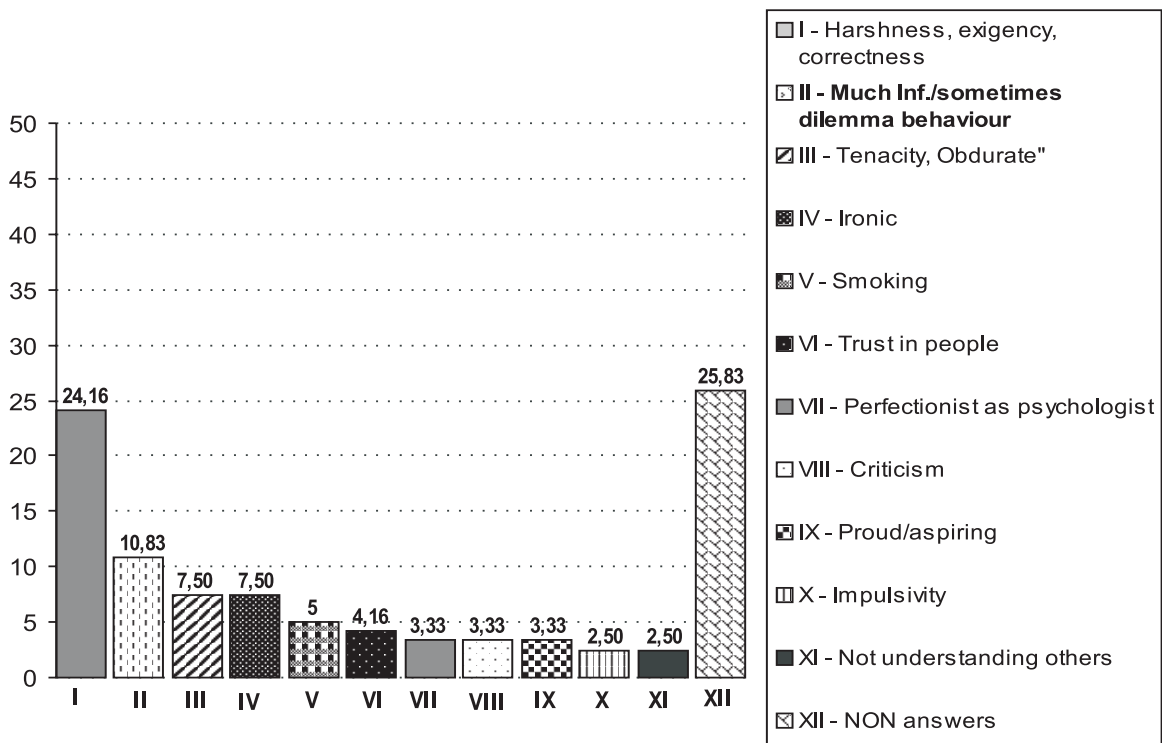
3. At item three as well qualities reappear for example *understanding* (30.38%) comes on the first place as a “leitmotiv” and we hope that it refers at the implicit presence of a perceived characteristic as its counter, *exacting* that appears on XII place (0.83%). The wide diversity of student formation level, years II, III, IV, empathies the first places if we also take into consideration the 8.33% that have responded that the appreciated one will have all the qualities he would want for himself. The problem of *character* (2=20.83%), see item no. IV (11.66%) question of another order and deals with a global characteristic of personality. However what students have understood through this construct points to a critical spirit of the valued. We should mention that the method was always applied at the beginning of the university year, except for year II at which it was applied after the winter exam session. For one semester students have time to know their teacher. Probably an exacting person is hard to understand and then character appears as a possible moral value in their representations, only (0.83%) (XIV)(XII)(XVI) want equal rights, *exacting*, and *professionalism*.

4. What do I think, that he treasures most about his friends:



4. We believe that in the case of item 4 the range is not so broad and the percentage students (%) is more significant, arguing that here, the perception of students related to the subject itself is close to a convergent evaluation validation of the formal ranks. *The sense of humor* appears more often this time. The majority of student’s have understood the evaluated professors message in regards to moral values that he appreciates at psychology students.

5. Which is the main defect:



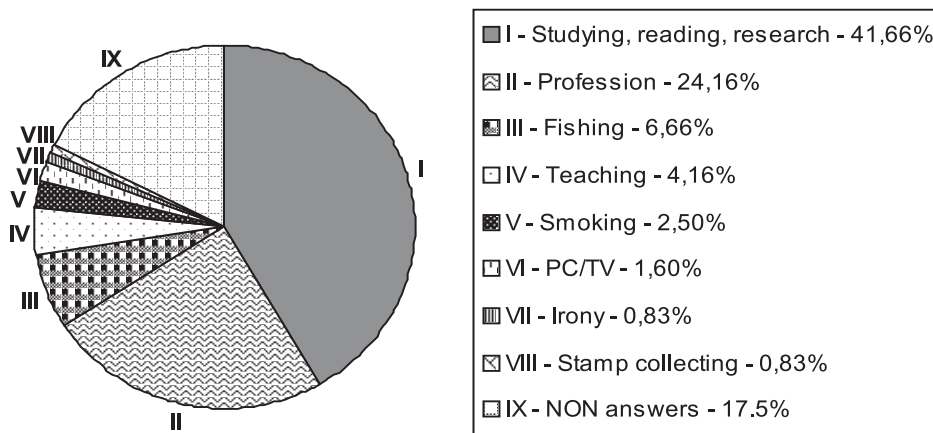
5. Here the student’s perceptions that have a higher anxiety level related to their task of evaluation, we remained them that they where not ask for their names, although we have registered 25.83% *non answers*. However this thing can hide critical spirits that we would have wanted to manifest themselves. However this type of task is new for students in Romania. Our attention was caught by 2nd place (**“more info/ sometimes dilemmatic presentation”, with 10.83%**). Although a highly small percentage, this thing means that the teacher must be careful with the bundle of information especially with the dilemmas that we believe should remain in



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

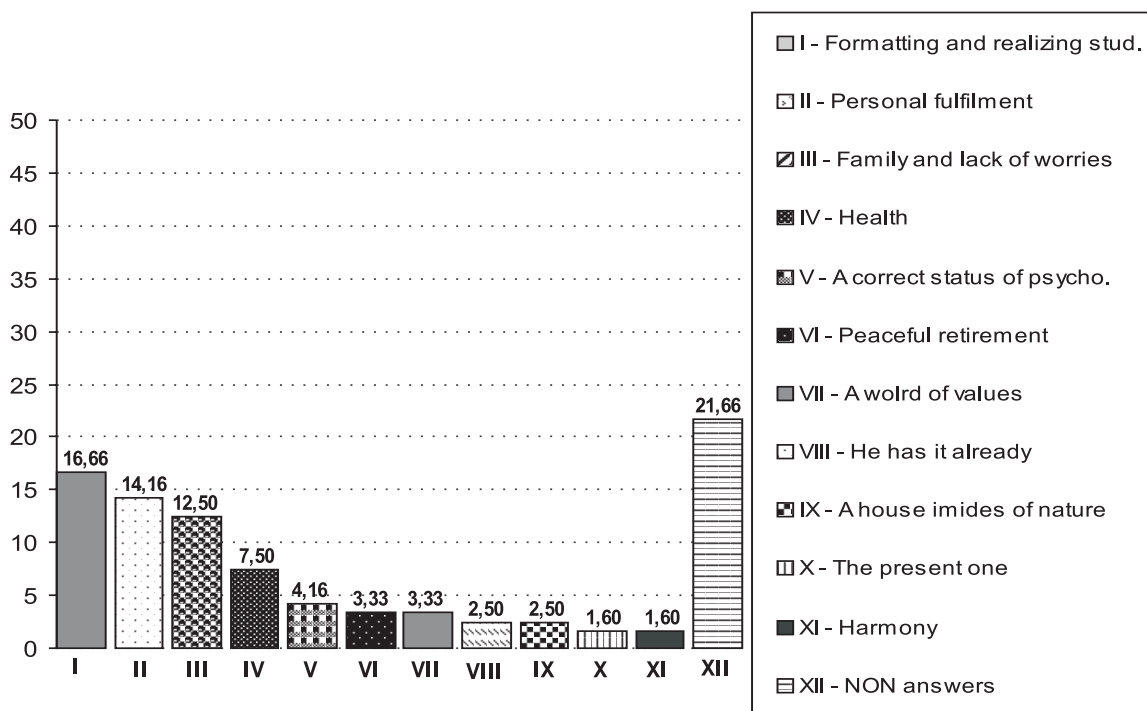
order to excite the cognitive structures for analysis and synthesis. *Smoking* is also contested; “They are right. They smoke a lot”. We are in a rush to see that “the misunderstanding of others is perceived by only 2.50% of students”.

6. Which is his favourite occupation:



6. In the case of these options the first two place can be cumulated (65,82 %) have perceived their tutor as primary interested by the job under every aspects, that they consider essential. The 17,5% that answered (IX) are probably those that did not understand him or that usually miss classes and workshops of applied psychology. *Fishing* and *stamp* collecting have been two preferred hobbies for free time, abandoned now. The professor is being confirmed the fact that his image agrees with the students’ perception about his role and status. The item is burdened, through the expressed options, by the content of the status construct.

7. Which is the happiness he dreams about:



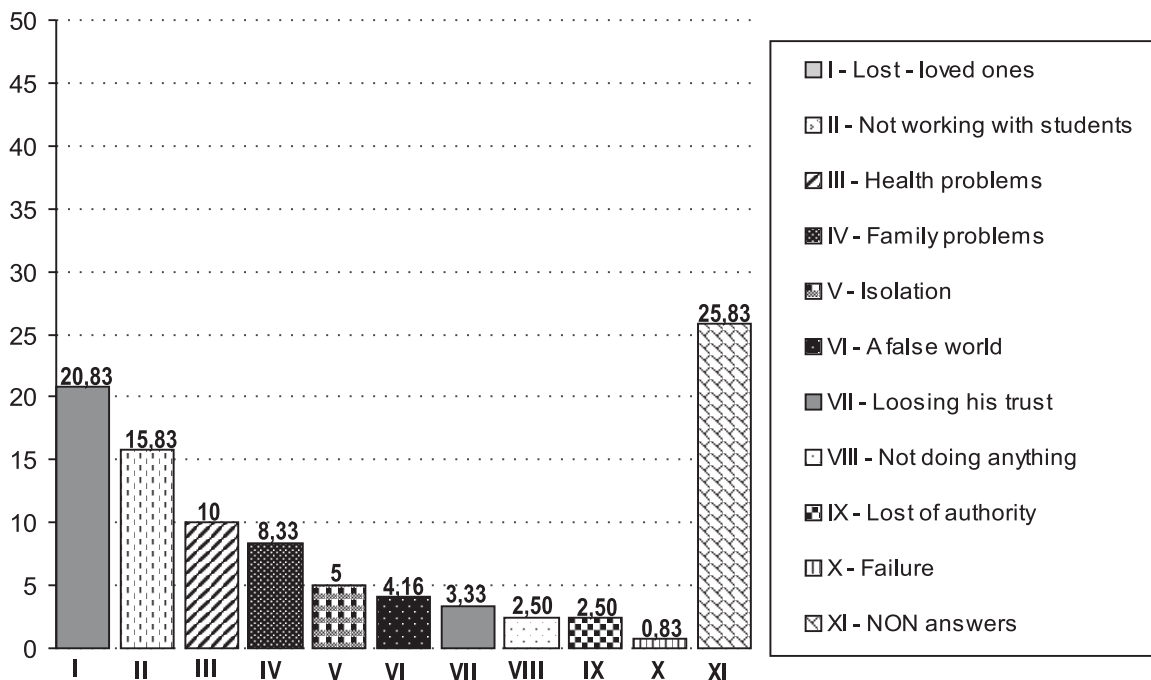
7. The ranks obtained at this item can assure him that he, however, has a good method in what student formation is concerned (I=16,66%), (V=4,16%). We know not for certain that



“personal achievement”(II) is believed to be a target for that precise professor (14,16%), the result of a positive projective process of students that have stated this thing for themselves. It is just a hypothesis. The *non-responses* (XII) (21,66%) demonstrate no intuition, even not knowing the aspirations of the one that trains them.

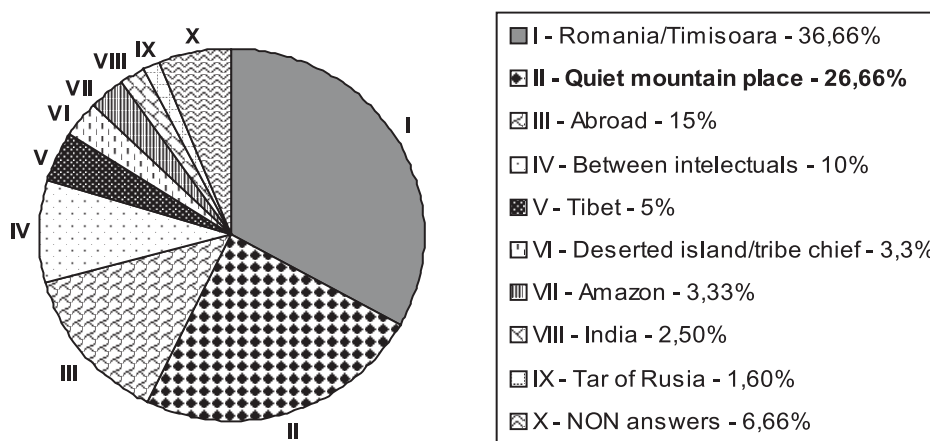
There are also empathic trials, one should see (VII, IX, XI) that would totally sum about 7,5% of the answers. Place V is a middle-level one, but of direct interest to the evaluated.

8. What would be a disaster for TGV:



8. Item 8 (I= 20,83%) *The lost of a dear person* I believe refer to place II(15,83%) from the result of this item 8 now analyzed. Otherwise we mention stress factors, that every contemporary deals with. One should see I, III, IV, VIII. *A fake world* with 4,16% of answers show a correct perception of some students of what would bother the evaluated mostly or the VIII place with 2, 50% circumstantiality.

9. Which is the place where he would like to live:

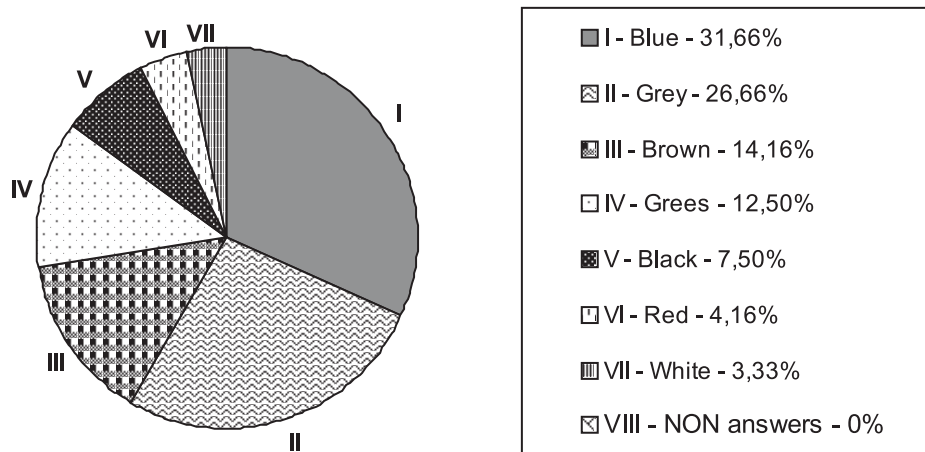


9. The majority of students generally perceive as stable the place where they would want to live, where they actually live, (I=36,66%), he likes this town with this tolerance, with

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

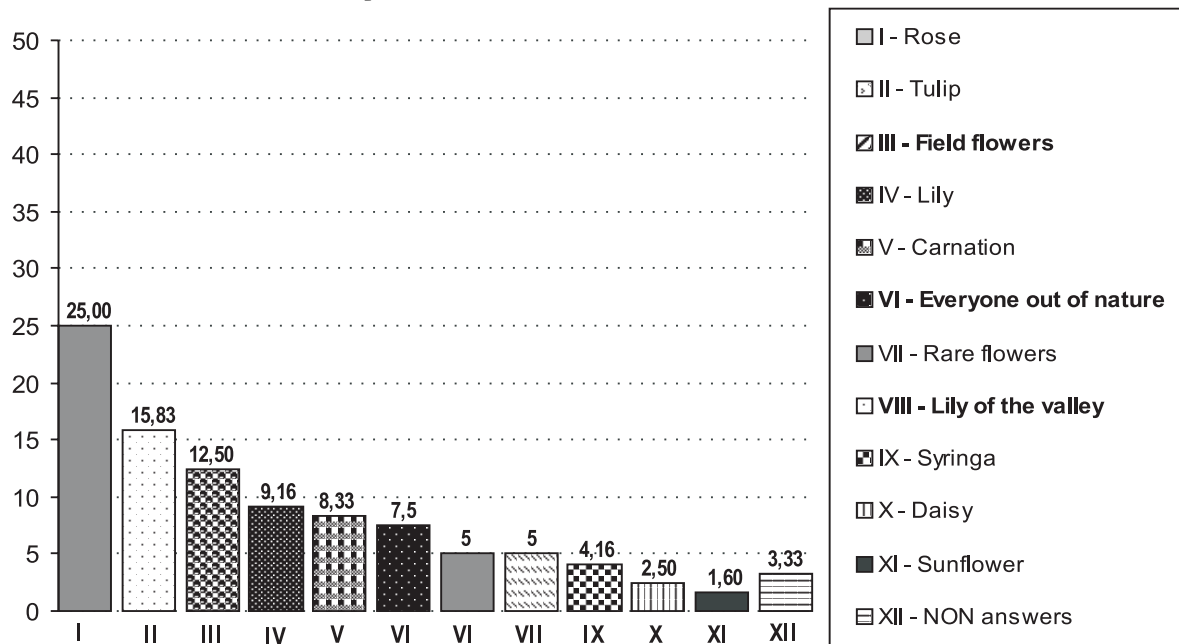
his dynamic values, more than stable ones, it is a prolific town, sometimes dilemmatic for the people with rigid principles. It pleases us somehow that 10% consider it close to the world of intellectuals, although some would rather live abroad (III=15%). About 10,5% see him shipped far, far away: *Amazon, India, Russia* (tsar, forced status assignation), even in Tibet. At lectures he probably reminded of the mysteries of the worlds at antipodes. The *quiet place in the mountains* (II), truly characterize him and there are 26,66% from the evaluators that have perceived this preference, probably believing him to be less sociable or more self centered.

10. Favourite colour:



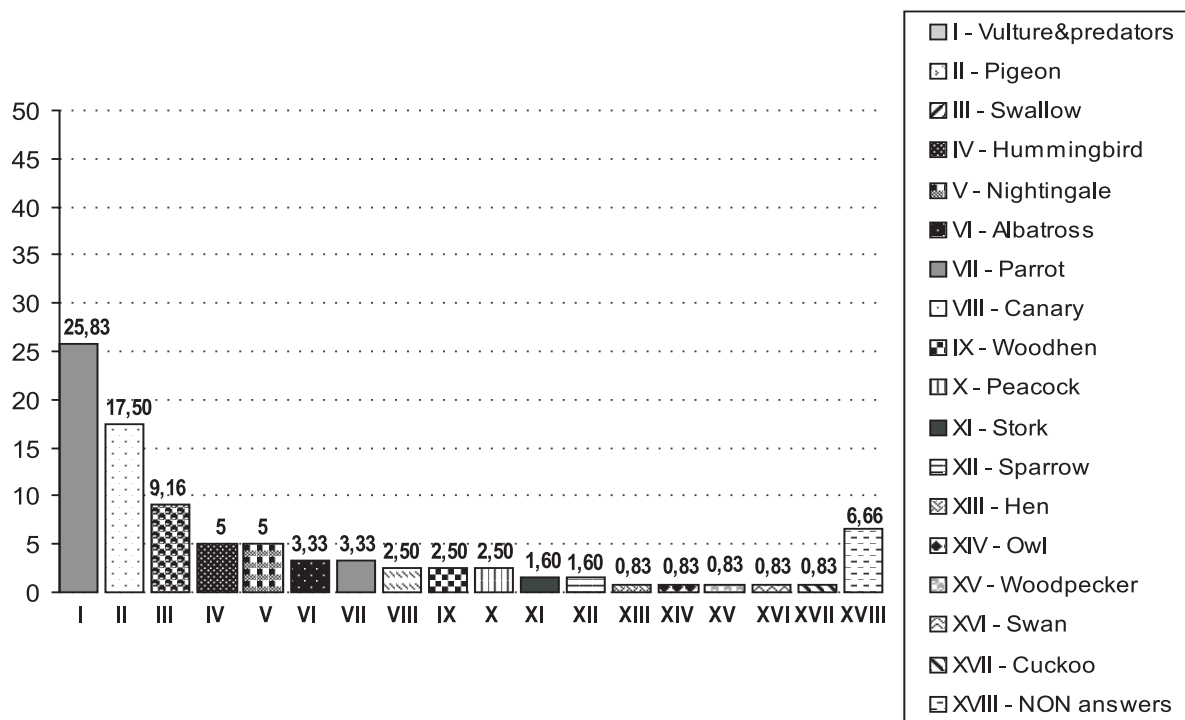
10. What is important is not the obtained hierarchy, but its content and significance or the symbolism of colors (a Luscher- the short form-virtual). The need for *tranquility* makes him be looked at as a person in need of this and hopes to separately obtain (II=26,66%) from anything else. (I=31,66%), in accordance to the *affirmation* (VI=4,16%) or *domination* (IV=12,50%). As you can see the easiness of non interference is manifested through the symbolism of colors, (VIII=0,00%). One does not see a blinding color as for example expansive, bright, golden yellow; white is not present, the color of old men's hair, (Bachelard, 1969,1977, p.180), is placed on a modest last place with 3,33%. Blue is the color that provokes the lightest emotional shocks as (Bachelard, 1977, p.194) said, referring to the Rorschach test interpretation. It seems we are dependent of a civilization of image in which the eye is over solicited, but also the power of evaluation. At this item, we have no non-responses. Green, although on place V, with 12,50% prevalence has a therapeutic significance, (Rousseau R.-L., 1950, p.30), taking the place of empathy. We dare to believe that the projective process has been established with the relevance of some levels of desires more or less conscious. We hope that the 7,50% have not had a "black shock" of which Rorschach reminded with arguments as a response to a black board. The top position of *Grey* (II=26,66%) as a favorite color for evaluation is correctly perceived through the auto imposed border of the need for neutrality in his formative process (Luscher, 1980, p.20), but it has a certain degree of dissatisfaction.

11. Which flowers does he like:



11. Generally, the desirable answers were (I=25,00%). After Eliade the rose is “the wonder that blossoms even on dry wood” (Eliade, 1949, pp.253-254). The test in a percentage of 90% women has presumed that perception has triggered also a projective process of attribution. “The eternal feminine goes hand in hand with nature...” (Bachelard, 1969, p.280). The personal hierarchy would be: VIII, III, VII, IX, XI, VI. As by item 10, the percentage of non-responses is in this case low, only 3,33%.

12. Favourite bird:

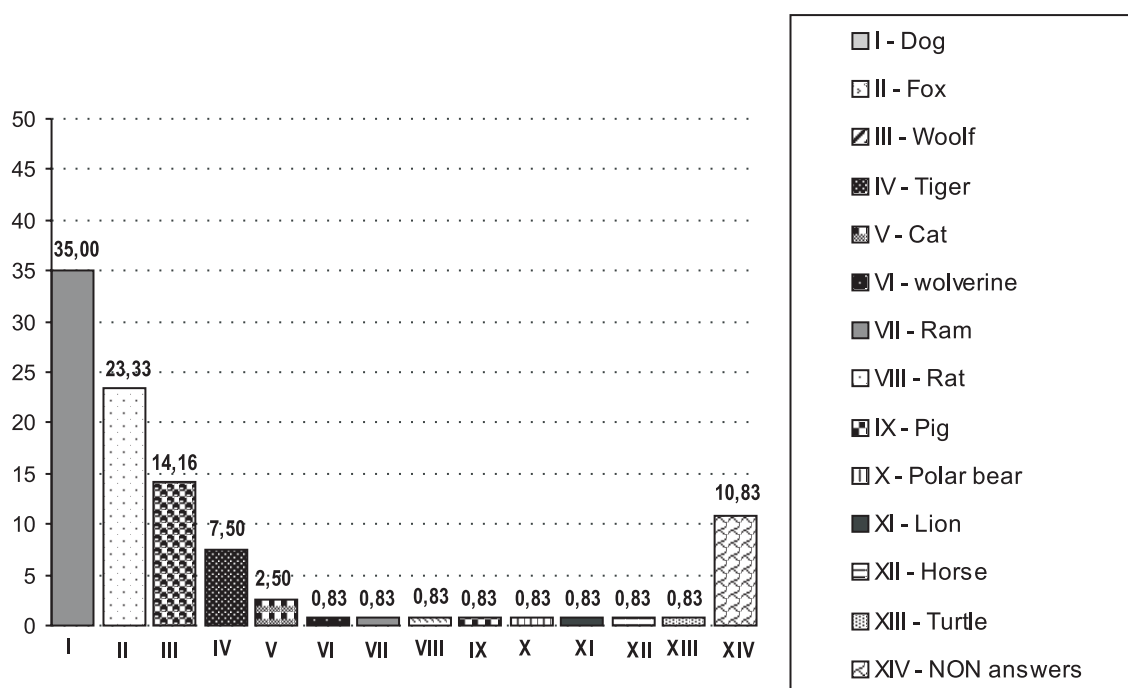


12. The projective process in the case of this item has grown and with a normal diversity, it is harshly perceived as a *predatory* bird (I=25,83%), only later to change to a milder concept

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

in the preferences of 36% of students (II, III,IV,V). In this context, the evaluated's preferences are heading towards III, I, IV, V, VI, IX, XVI, XVII. For example, the pigeon has always had a positive symbolism in every bestiary. This projection has given the opportunity for an unconscious regression. For children the pigeon is a character frequently seen by parents as full of kindness. We believe that the harshness of the evaluated is symbolically defined through the first 2 positions (I&II). Between a kidnapper and a possible prey there are no between levels. "Imagination masks everything that does not obey her" (Bachelard, 1977, P. 83) and looking at the ranks from the histogram things multiply through a diversity of "preys". The bird generally symbolizes the aerial liberty of movement. It seems that from desirability to psychoanalysis the path is very short. The perception on the evaluated person is contradictory, in this case, on the axis kidnapper-kidnapped.

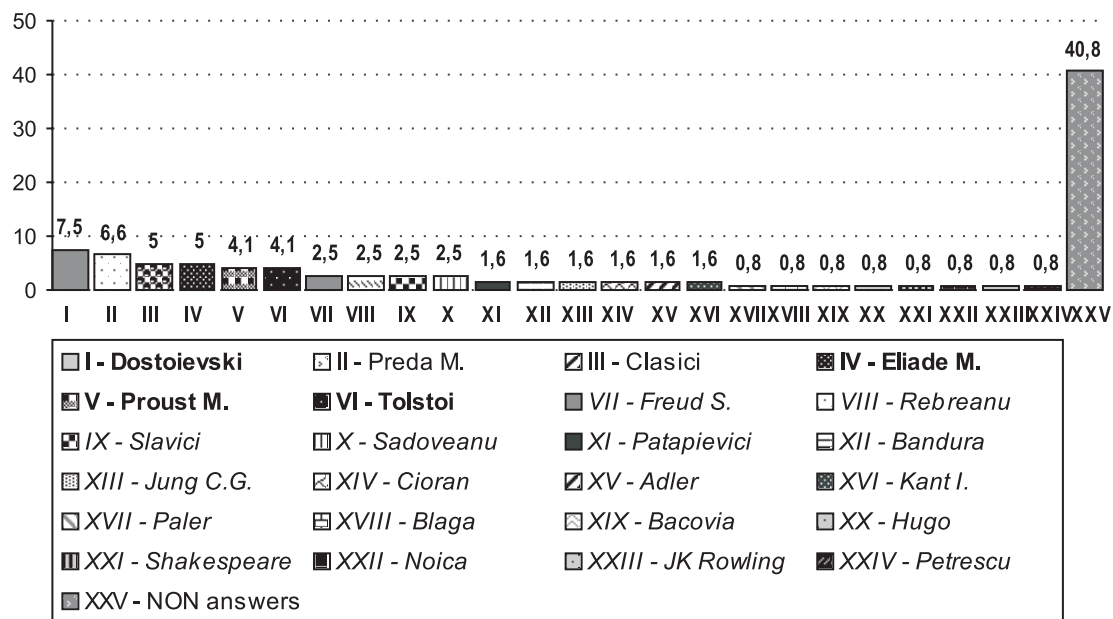
13. Favourite animal:



13. The desirability of the first place is evident; however places (II,III,IV), that is animals that the teacher prefers, cumulate in this case about 45% in accordance with his preferences. The symbolism of some animals has been attributed to him with much success. Symbolically he is being associated with the preferences for animals that symbolize ferocity (III&IV), (Bachelard, 1977, p. 103) and slyness (II). Looking closely at the desirable analysed it can gain new facets connected to symbol and projectivity.

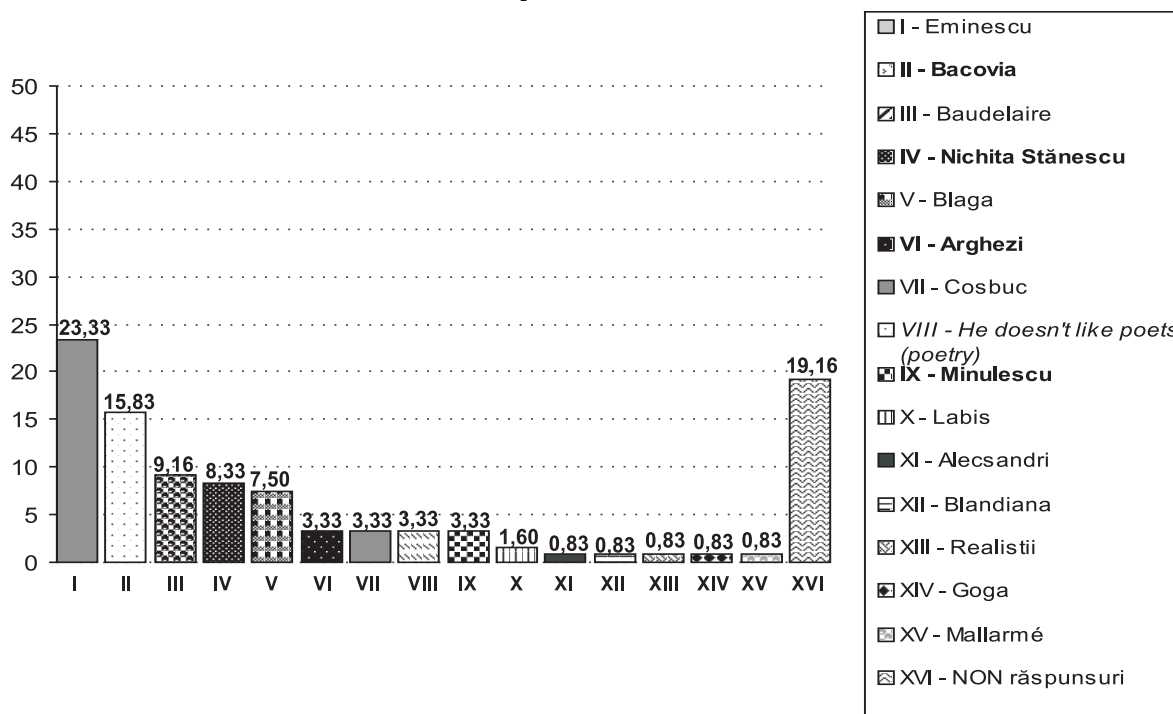


14. Favourite writers:



14. We begin here the analysis with place XXV=40.83% of *non answers*. It is either that students have convergent perceptions in the direction of preferred authors, or they have reading as a hobby. The broad area confirms to us that there are many different known authors at general level, but also the impossibility to attribute any frequent preference. The mixture is a clear evidence that there is a great difference between a narrator and a specialist a philosopher and a writer (*Freud, Adler, Kant*). 40,83% have avoided an answer or did not know what to answer.

15. Favourite poets:

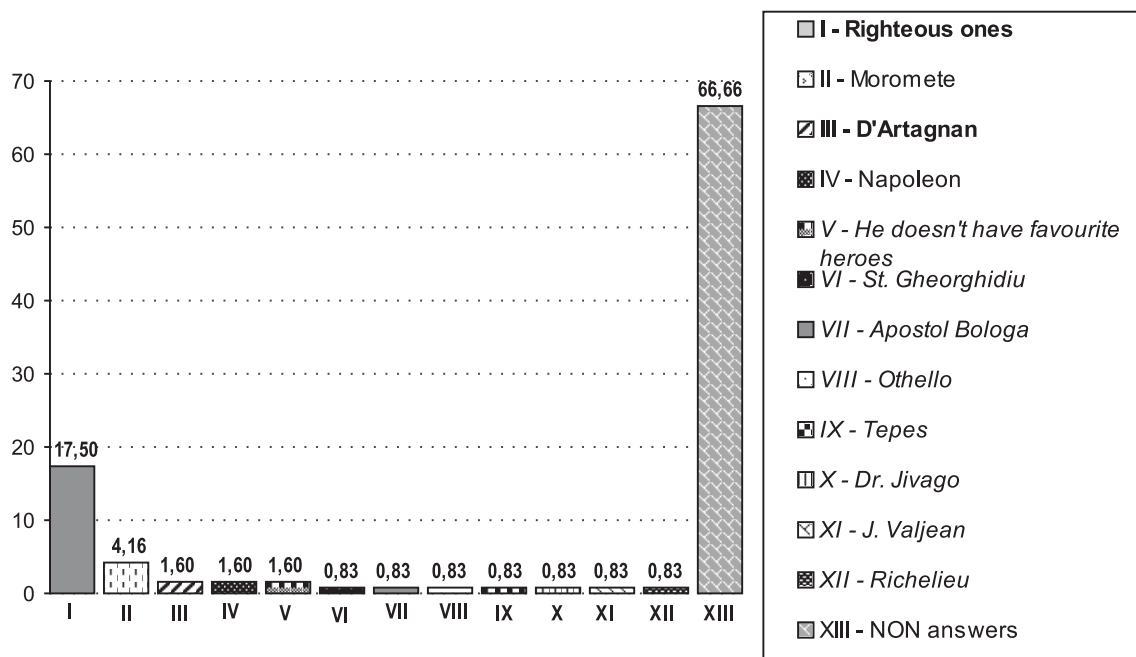


15. The item shows more memories from the writers read, obligatory, in highschool. The national poet is present more as desirability but about 25.5% have managed to see some of

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

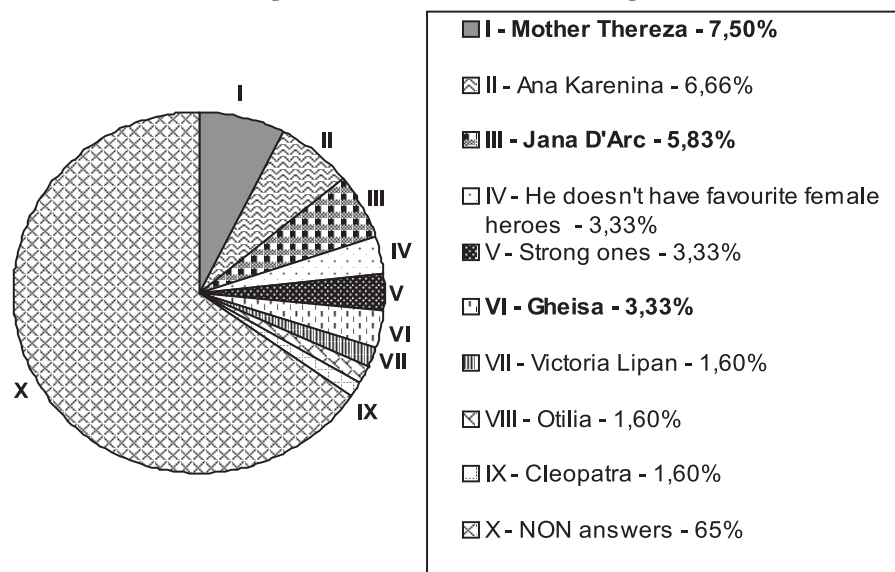
the preferences of the evaluated, indicating *Bacovia* (II) (15,83%) & *Baudelaire* (III) (9,16%). Interesting is that 3.33% from the students are very objective in arguing that *He does not like poets or poetry* and the fact that 19.16% have avoided an answer. It is either that some know lots of poetry or did not find the harmony of the latter in the teacher exposition, who generally has a more technical style or they don't know any poetry authors that could have been attributed to their teacher. There are only two foreign poets in the whole hierarchy which questions the little knowledge that the current students should have gained in highschool.

16. Favourite heroes out of literature:



16. The consequence with which words like *exacting*, *correct* are reviled in other attributions appear here as well (I=17.5%) *justice*, which completes even more the image the students have in accordance to the teacher. Many *non responses* (XIII) 66.6% leads to the reinstatement of the hypothesis that “the civilization of image” has a word of its own, the 75% that have attributed a few heroes of the Romanian literature and a few from the universal one build a ray of hope in concern to cultural assimilation for apart of future psychologists. One should see that from place V-XII the mentioned heroes are in itself tragic destinies, even contradictory in their tragism between fighters and politically able figures. We take them more as being a row of known heroes by the majority of men.

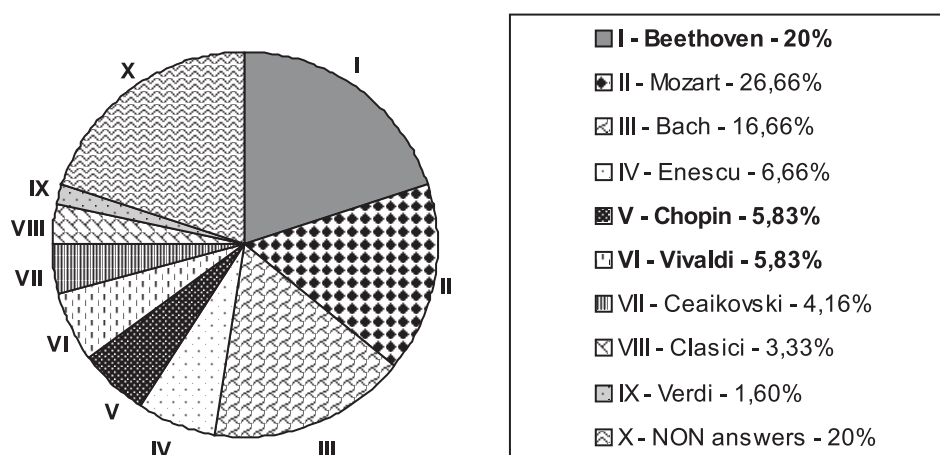
17. Favourite female heroes out of literature:



17. At popular heroines, one could clearly see that 65% have not answered or did not know, or did not manage to know if their teacher has preferences to the heroine of literature. I don't believe that it has yet been written, about *Mother Theresa*, literature in the true sense of the word, but we cannot, not appreciate the option of I=7.5% or II=6.66%- a true classical heroin of universal literature, although she is a tragic figure or a III position – a fighter for freedom, already established as a myth. However little is read about all this.

Note: At items XIV-XVII it is about a space of the spirit hermeneutical type, resembling the science of literature, psychology was born, if not exclusively through the imitation of the empirical science of nature (Groeben, 1978, p. 21). However we must admite that few students have trully lived the pleasure of mental estetical hermeneutical sphere, the thruce analysis of literary creation, the resemblance with the heroes of read books, the rejection of the latter. The attributions in this sense must be seen with scientificall carefullness. Knowledge starting from literature and the attributions made, can have antropological nuances living the place for intersubjectivity and interindividual differences, dependent on exterior realities. In actual fact the Is' of students have tried an adaptation to reality.

18. Favourite composers:

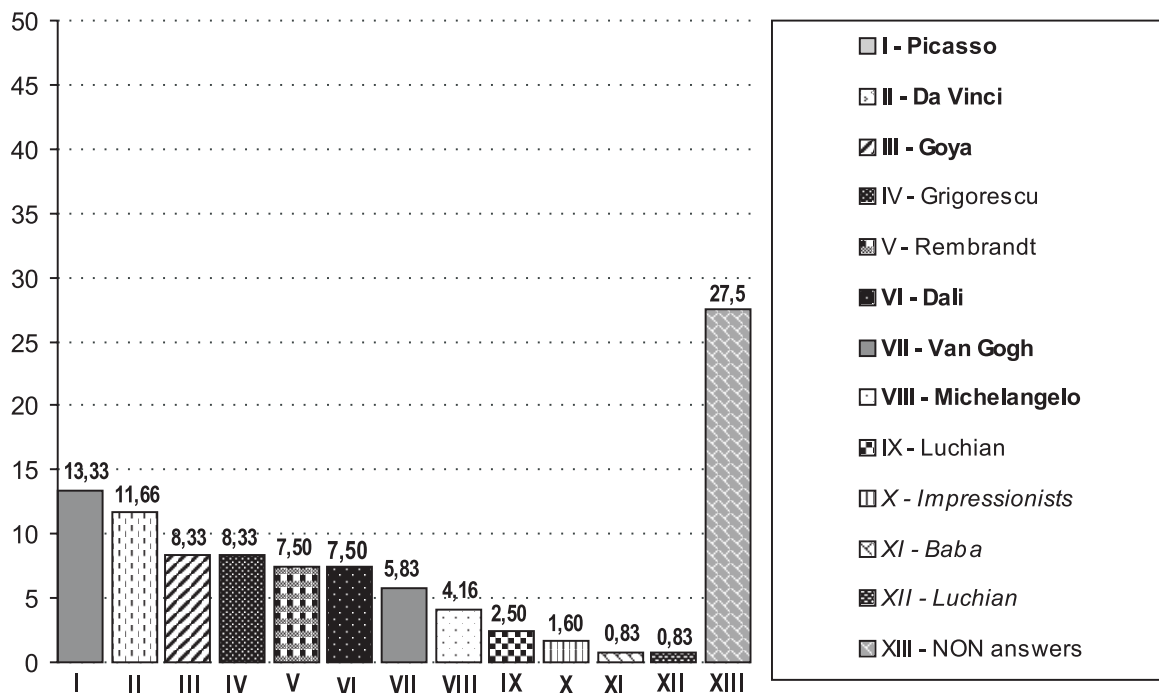


18. The diserable position I=20% as well as positions II&III= 11% V&VI can perceive their teacher's preferences. In order to attribute to another an acceptable preference you must

Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

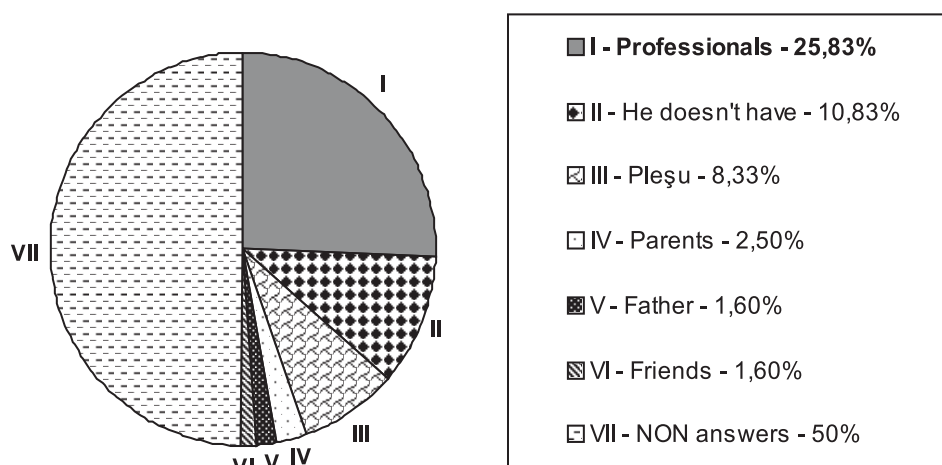
know the person and the domain of the attributed preference. Perhaps an optional course of art psychology would create an opening to possible cultural and esthetic assimilations.

19. Favourite painters:



19. We live in a civilization of image confirmed by the attribution mentioned above- the resemblance of the preferences of the evaluated one ((I, II, III, VI, VII, VIII, X, XI). There are also slight hazardous attributions because in the laboratory of applicative works there are reproductions of *Dali* and *Van Gogh*, but there is also a *Ed. Munch* reproduction, the medieval painter not having been mentioned in this context. However 27.5% from the students did not answer this item perhaps they are not part of a group that visits museums, expositions or they simply avoided making attributions

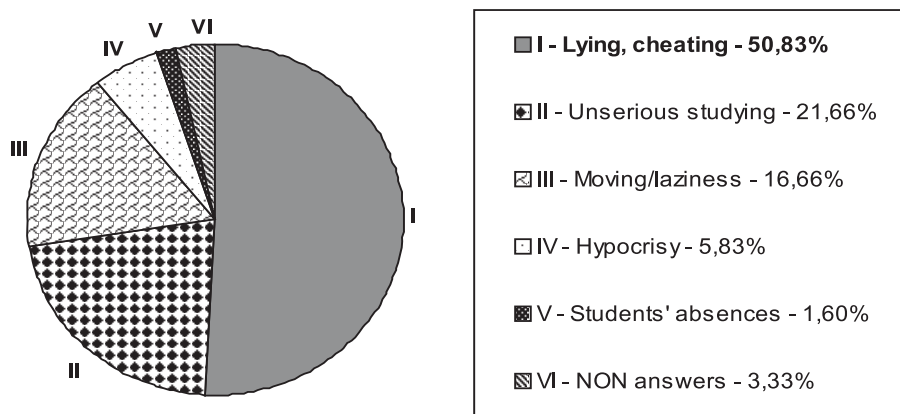
20. Heroes he prefers out of reality:



20. Let's get to reality; here position (I=25,83%) concurs the preferences of the teacher: *N. Mărgineanu*, *A. Binet*, *Bandura*, *I Radu*, *Lahy*, *Da Costa*, etc. I am glad that *Andrei Pleșu* is

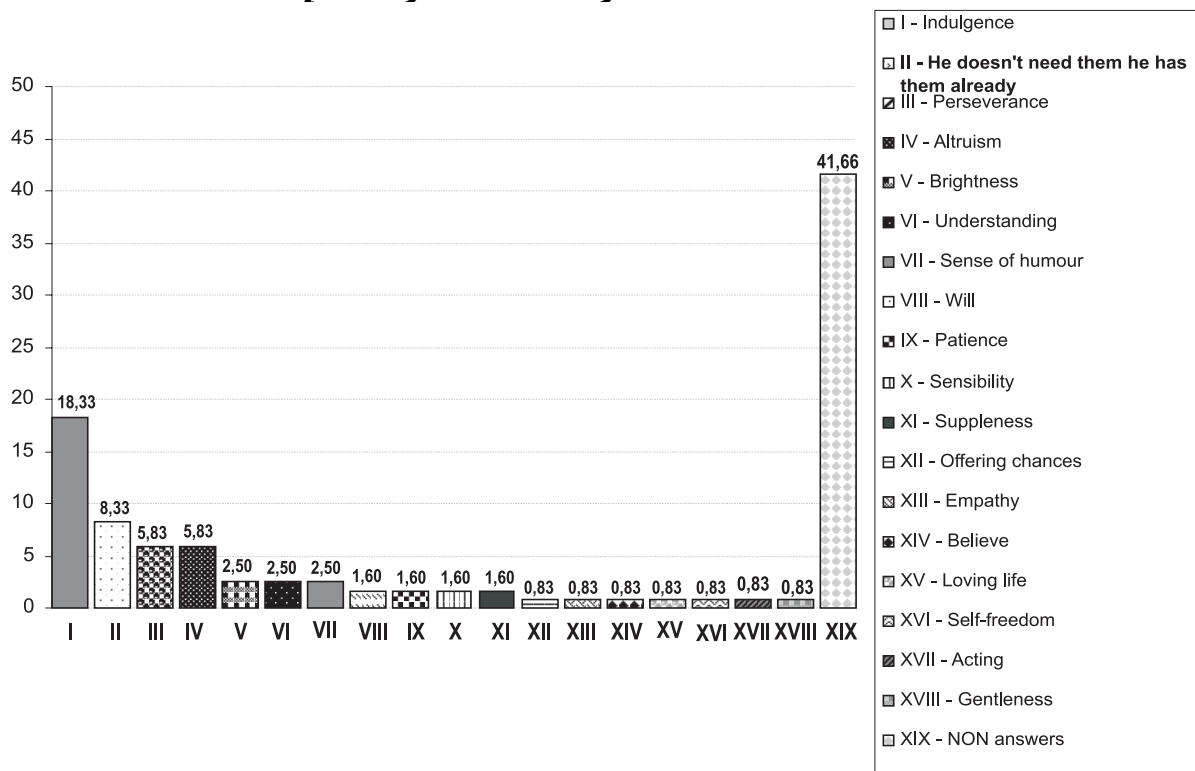
mentioned in about 8% from the cases. The fact that 10,83% state that “they have no favourite heroes” is normal, probably the teacher did not express himself enough about his preferences, although it is not likely. The family patterns are present and also desirable in this case.

21. What does he hate most:



21. We come back to the level of projection through the view of student status, (I=50.83%) on the professor, that seemingly is too moralizing or too harsh, which is confirmed by his duties from the first items, the perception of students being correct in most cases. This is one of the first images formed in the temporary student microculture. If we will cumulate the first 3 places we will obtain a significant percentage with convergent attributions that is about 89 %.

22. Native quality desired by him:

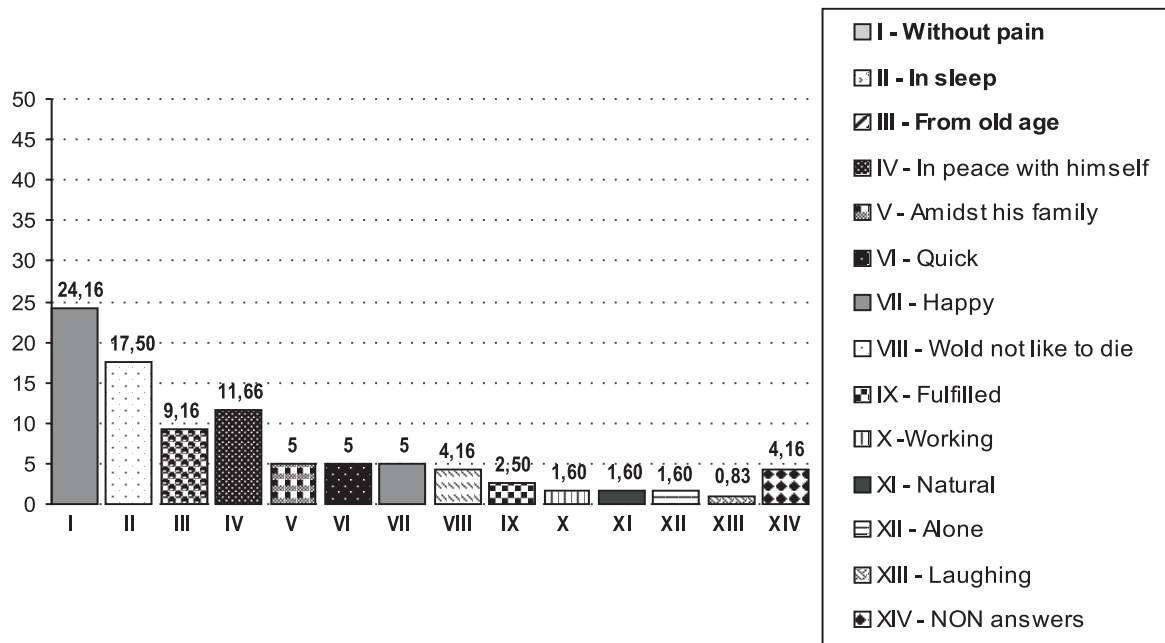


22. The projection is clear -18,33% state that they would like for him to be clement(I), but also a personal appreciation *he has qualities, wishes no other*(II=41,66%). Otherwise the area is broad, like any other subjective evaluation. For example, someone wants to be



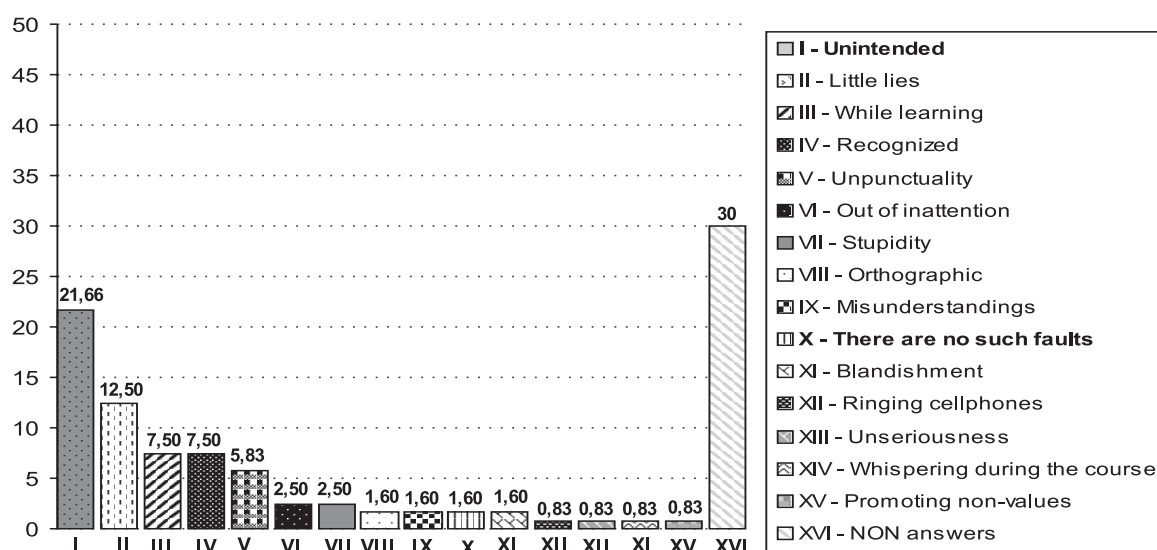
empathic, someone else to *love life*, to be *kind*. These are personalizations and normal perceptive attributions.

23. How would he like to die:



23. The theme of death is very serious for any age; it makes us be less scarstic, be gentle and sometimes pragmatic: “*quick*”, “*working*”, the area is large and condescendent, even 4, 16% would not like to die.

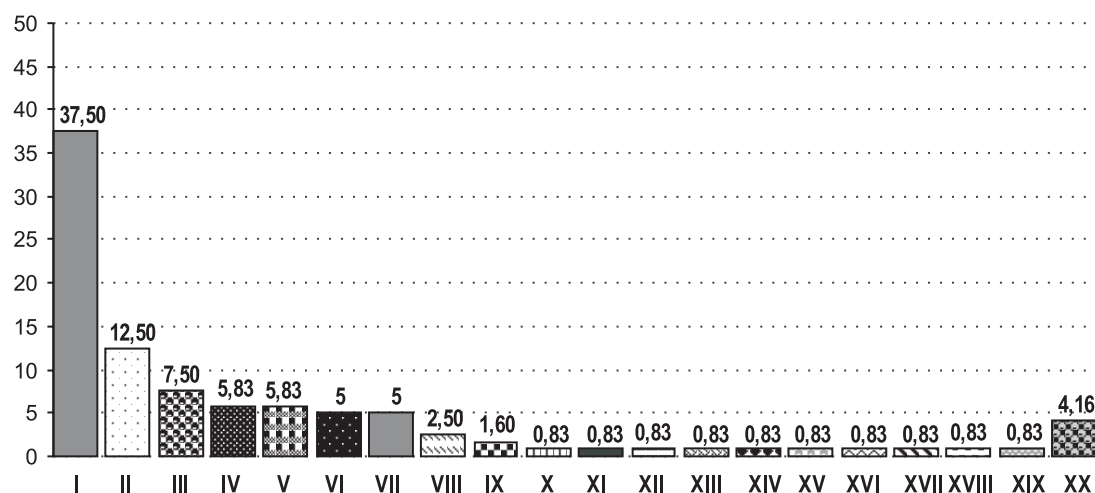
24. Faults he would have to forgive:



24. We come back to student realities and constructive ethic, *the non-intentional ones*, 21,66% *recognized*, 7,50% and the specific ones for course rooms(III,V,VIII,XII,XV). The

attributions from this item, highly depend on former education, previous to university. The area of attributions mentioned above, give us a whole image of a course room for 2006/07. It is important for the teacher to say what bothers him from the beginning, before these errors enter the attribution process. Unfortunately, by (XVII) non-responses the percentage is of 30, although we were not asked at the beginning, the entirety of the fill out.

25. His life's motto is:

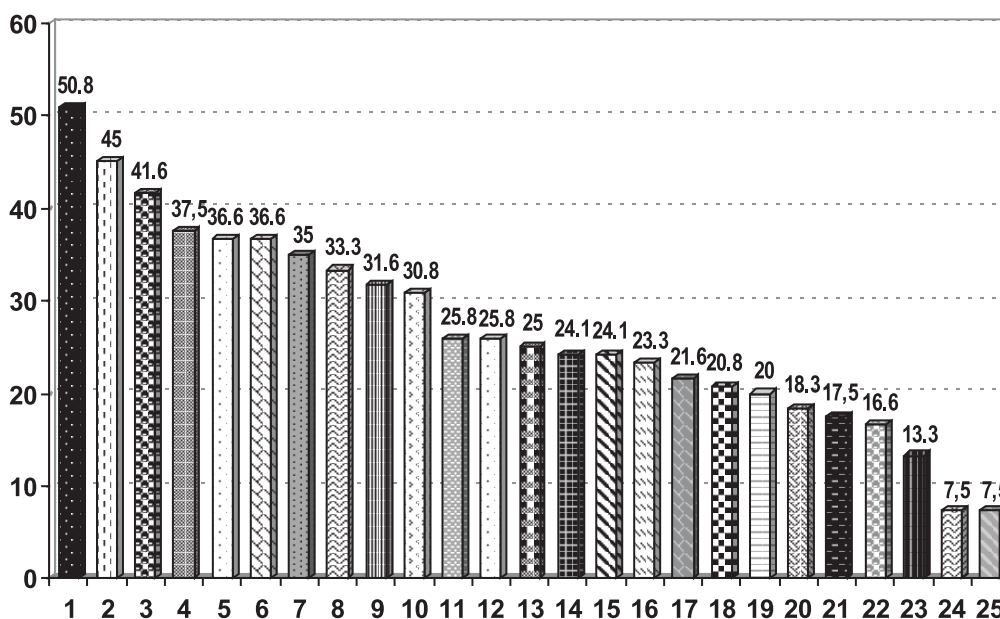


<input type="checkbox"/> I - Work/Studyng/Study	<input type="checkbox"/> II - Destiny (Live the moment!)
<input type="checkbox"/> III - Will	<input type="checkbox"/> IV - Exigency training
<input type="checkbox"/> V - Motivation interest	<input type="checkbox"/> VI - Objective know ledge
<input type="checkbox"/> VII - All or nothing	<input type="checkbox"/> VII - Keep going forw ards
<input type="checkbox"/> IX - I apply test, i.e. I exist	<input type="checkbox"/> X - Liberty
<input type="checkbox"/> XI - Honour and correctness	<input type="checkbox"/> XII - Don't do to somebody else,w hat you don't like
<input type="checkbox"/> XIII - Everything that moves, can be educated	<input type="checkbox"/> XIV - Better nothing than a psychologist in the market
<input type="checkbox"/> XV - Health	<input type="checkbox"/> XVI - I have everything I need
<input type="checkbox"/> XVII - What I had and w hat I lost	<input type="checkbox"/> XVII - Humiliate the students
<input type="checkbox"/> XIX - What comes from a cat,eats mices	<input type="checkbox"/> XX - NON answe rs

25. The life slogan of the teacher, in this matter, in connection to the students, is correctly perceived in 37,5% of the cases, a slogan that honours him. If we cumulate the procentage by items (III,IV,V,VI,XV), we have a total of about 62% for “*study and motivating work*”.

The “sense of humour ”intervenes, necessary, with a student’s “touch”, that we consider perfectly normal (II,X,XIII,XIV,XV,XVIII,XX). The area is broad because of the freedom of expression at this item, fact confirmed by the low percentage of non –responses (4,16%).

If we will select the first place of the hierarchy from each item we can obtain a relative profile of the estimated person. The condensed and hierarchical profil presents himself as follows:



1. What does he hate most? - **Lying, cheating**
2. What do I think, that he treasures most about his friends - **Sincerity - Honesty**
3. Which is his favourite occupation TGV - **Studying, reading, research**
4. His life's motto is: - **Work / Studying / Study**
5. Which quality does one want to find IN HIM : - **Understanding & Indulgence**
6. Which is the place where he would like to live: - **Romania/Timisoara**
7. Favourite animal - **Dog**
8. The main trait desired - **Indulgence**
9. Favourite colour - **Blue**
10. Which quality would be preferable for him to have: - **Understanding**
11. Favourite bird: - **Vulture & predators**
12. Heroes he prefers out of reality - **Professionals**
13. Which flowers does he like: - **Rose**
14. How would he like to die:- **Without pain**
15. Which is the main defect: - **Harshness, exigency, correctness**
16. Favourite poets - **Eminescu**
17. Faults he would have to forgive - **Unintended**
18. What would be a disaster for TGV - **Lost > loved ones**
19. Favourite composers - **Bethoven**
20. Native quality desired by him - **Indulgence**
21. Favourite heroes out of literature - **Righteous ones**
22. Which is the happiness he dreams about: - **Formatting and realizing stud.**
23. Favourite painters - **Picasso**
24. Favourite female heroes out of literature - **Mother Terezia**
25. Favourite writers: - **Dostoevski**

Conclusions:

Perceptions and attributions. Perceptions as an instrument and attribution as a result of intersubjectivity. We believe that the analysis of first places in uptained hierarchism results in a series of pretty interesting conclusions:

1. The more intense a person's attitude is, the more it is perceived by a more or less heterogeneous group.

2. The state blocks, the liberty of attributions in a great degree and then comes the refugee in desirability or in the non-response variant;

3. One type of this questionnaire applied in an evaluation purpose of another person proved that it is useful not through the given information – first rank – but through the apparition of the liberty of attribution of a highly low some of items, asking more for a medium cultural development.

4. The majority of attributions answers offer a concordance between the convergent perceptions and the evaluated message given according to his status.

5. The rank of liberty of attribution is higher and depends on frequent individual experience; attribution is resolved easier and on an insular subjective options. See items:

2(wanted quality), 4(the fault it as), 9(the place where he would want to live), 10 (the favorite color), 11(favorite flower), 13(favorite animal),

20(what he hates more), 22(how his death is desired),

• **In this cases, one took in consideration the lowest(%) of non-responses;**

• From the data obtained this criteria items of the Proust questionnaire can trigger more easily the projection process and mostly the attribution one that is more likely to the characterization of the valued through the intuition of his personality structures and through the easiness of the switching of the projective process. Out of this reason I have tried an analysis through the holistic theory;

• An axis of knowledge is revealed: quality-fault , this was more the result

6. The other criteria are more difficult regarding attribution, from possible causes: the status difference, the unrecognition of cultural preferences of the valued, the lack of general culture at many evaluatees. However we believe that one can select in formal criteria of university staff that implicitly lead to the evaluation of the qualities and faults beyond the crust of status, that can be formed and sustained by these, or that can offer us a portrait closer to the reality of the evaluated personality.

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THE EXISTENCE OF THE MIDDLE CLASS, A REALITY OF THE POST DECEMBRIST ROMANIA

Constantin ȚĂRAN

Faculty of Psychology, "Tibiscus" University, Timișoara, România
ctaran@tibiscus.ro

ABSTRACT

*Beginning not only from the scientifically-theoretical importance from the sociological perspective of the study regarding the social classes that appeared in the post revolutionary period, the existence in the Romanian social assembly of the most important class, **the middle class**, not yet sufficiently identified and clearly defined, causes fiery debates in the academic environment.*

We consider it naturally and necessary, that in a first part of our paper to approach, on the basis of the study of the specialty literature which is pretty poor on this subject regarding the Romanian reality and on discussions with known specialists in the research and study of the social field, with all the controversies that appeared in the debating of the issues of social stratification, to define and clarify content aspects of the middle class in the context of the capitalist development of Romania.

REZUMAT

*Pornind nu doar de la importanța științifico - teoretică, din perspectivă sociologică a studiului privind clasele sociale apărute în perioada postrevoluționară, temă care stârnește controverse mari în mediul academic, dorim să evidențiem existența în ansamblul social românesc, a celei mai importante clase și anume **clasa de mijloc**, încă neidentificată suficient și clar definită, care reprezintă un demers major pentru cercetător.*

Cum este firesc, într-o primă parte a cercetării noastre vom încerca pe baza studierii literaturii de specialitate destul de bogată, și a unor dialoguri cu specialiști consacrați abordării sociologice, adesea controversați, a stratificării sociale, să definim clasa de mijloc în contextul dezvoltării capitaliste a României.

1. THE MIDDLE CLASS FROM ROMANIA IN DEVELOPMENT

As we stated from the beginning, if it is easy enough to define the social classes and to highlight their part of content because we have enough specialty literature, begin this process in Romania, especially regarding the middle class, it's identification encounters a series of difficulties.

One of them, which is also the most important, is the reduced possibility to make comparisons between the middle class from Romania with the same social structure that exists in the Occident.

Putting the equal sign between the two class categories, studying the basic characteristics and firstly the property, we could state that in Romania the middle class is missing.

But a more thorough analysis of the situation of the social classes which appeared after the year 1989 and especially after the year 2000, shows the situation as follows.

In the post Decembrist Romania the middle class is "ripening", it is forming and developing in the conditions of a structure which highlights a series of particularities. Before referring to such to such particular traits it is necessary review the situation of the middle class in Romanian the period between the two world wars and in the socialist period.



1.1. The middle class in the precapitalist period and between the two World Wars

Based on the rise of the need for *grain wares* the Romanian countries developed, through the creation of the great land properties, worked through traditional statute labor and tithe, but also through the achievement of a production based on the lands monopolized by the boyars, which exploited the peasants through forced labor. So we are discussing the precapitalist period of our country.

Once with the exceeding of the sustenance production, through the obtaining of the grain wares, we can appreciate that the people of the middle class appeared.

The Organic Regulations (1831 The Romanian Country, 1832 Moldavia) introduce important reforms and categories which define the middle class, such as the *village black coat class*, institution which fulfilled four functions: *census, collection of the tribute, keeping of the money and local court, the urban and village merchants, the tenants, the small precapitalist manufacturers*.

Synthetically, the forerunners of the middle class are *the assignees of the rural community*, which had the obligation to collect and keep the money that came from tributes, to administer the local courts, to make agricultural police work and census activities.

Another significant forerunning segment of the middle class is constituted by *the rural and urban handicraftsmen, the small manufacturers and merchants which acted on a forming capitalistic market, the rural and urban civil servants and shopkeepers* (see also Maria Larionescu & col., 2006, pp.39, 42-43).

Of course, the models of the capitalist ways, as history and sociological analysis shows us, were completely different as time period and content in the forming of the middle class.

While the Occident replaced “the traditional mechanism of the social-territorial rural formations with capitalist market relations” (Maria Larionescu & col., 2006), in the Eastern parts we assist to a “concubinage” between the great landed property type rural accumulation where the work was done through statute labor and tithe, with the providing of the always increased liquidities due to the ottomans and the satisfaction with agricultural products needed by a market with a considerable growth (Stahl, 1968). In the period *between the two world wars*, this class appears more clearly outlined.

Having as a starting point the active population, we appreciate, in concordance with the statistical data from the reference period, that 82.7 % of the population was living in villages. The structure on domains (at the level of the year 1939) presented itself as follows:

- 78.2 % were occupied with the exploiting of the soil;
- 4.4 % was placed in small towns and specialized farms in the vicinity of the big cities;
- about 22 % was represented by the active population comprised in the industry, trade, banking, transports, public institutions, health, sports, domains that were in cities.

An analytical study of Dr. Mitu Georgescu (1939), “Populația în viața economică a României, în Enciclopedia României. III. Economia națională, Imprimeria Națională București”, highlights an economical structure which could only generate a „feeble” middle class, without favorable forming and developing conditions.

Still 4.4 % from the percentage of the active population from agriculture and the other soil related branches, the farmers from the small towns and from the specialized farms in the vicinity of the big cities, constitute sources for the forming of the middle class. We add the employees from the rural environment, in a proportion of 5 % which compose the body of the office workers from the public and private institutions, the technical personnel, the leading personnel, the specialized workers (doctors, professors, bankers, etc.) and other social categories.

Because only almost 22 % represent the active population that is generating the middle class and this percentage being situated prevalently in nonagricultural branches from the urban

environment, we deduce that an asymmetry appeared that will affect the middle class under the occupational aspect.

Thus, in the period between the two World Wars, the occupational structure of those assimilated as being part of the middle class, is distributed as follows:

- **“The independents”**, which comprise the owners, fund holders and pensioners that live from own incomes (7 % urban – 0.8 % rural).

- **Enterprisers on their own**, formed out of employers, handicraftsmen, merchants, farmers, tenants (18 % urban – 5 % rural).

- **Free professionals**, (they have the status of employees mostly – 0.4 %, their frequency being 7 times greater in the urban environment, by the census from 1930).

- **The leading personnel from the industrial units**, the main segment of the middle class. In the 282542 industrial, commerce, credit and transport units, this social segment occupies about 38 %, so it has a great weight because almost 99 % from the total of industrial units had under 20 employees.

- **The managing, office or commercial personnel** (8.2 %).

- **The specialized workers** (over a third of them), which can also constitute a source for the middle class.

The period between the two world wars, in the Romanian society, constitutes a moment in which capitalism appeared and developed.

In this milieu, the middle class had a difficult evolution, because the most part of the active population is tied to the agriculture (more a sustenance agriculture), which had poor contribution to the development of this social segment.

So, the reference social class (the middle class) remained to be constituted, mainly, of the proportion of 22 % from the active population, but the percentage is too small to compare ourselves to the Occident in this regard, where about 80 % constitute this part of the society.

1.2. The situation of the middle class in the period of the Romanian socialism

The structural changes imposed to the whole Romanian society through the ideological radicalism of communist origin left its strong mark also on the aboriginal social classes.

The setting up of the communist regime meant “the elimination of the middle class through the demonizing of the business men and the substitution of the middle class with the intellectuals; the lack of visibility of the concept of middle class” (Maria Larionescu, 1996, pag. 87).

As it is known and is recognized, without making references, the social structure resumed itself at two social classes: *the working class, the peasants and the intellectuals*.

In the statements from the above reproduced quote, Maria Larionescu & col. are right theoretically: the middle class as a concept does not appear anymore in the ideological documents of the communist party, and later is known as the communist bureaucracy. The term is replaced with the one intellectual section, and if the quoted authors recognize the existence of the middle class, they do it ambiguously, without argumentation.

Without entering in polemics, I have a few remarks:

1. In the Romanian reality appears a form of masked capitalism which eludes analysis – the consumer’s co-operative from the urban and rural environment.

2. A good part of the intellectuals were part, by wealth, prestige and expenditure of an also masked middle class, known only as a social strata or technocracy as part of the intellectuals.

3. Other social categories, such as a part of the party cadre (and they were not few), the military commanders, the mining specialists, the office workers, the personnel from the internal but especially the external commerce, the managers of the great industrial units, the personnel

from the trade fleet, the leaders of the agricultural co-operatives, etc., can not be included in the upper class, but also not in the low class.

This determines us to sustain the idea that in the socialist society, there was a middle class, even if “poorer” than in the developed capitalist societies, unrecognized ideologically and which was not a result of the market economy. The earnings came from salaries and legal and illegal activities (private coaching, medic’s fees, small trade at the borders, benefits, management indemnities, etc.). There were social differences through the positions held in the administration, in the economical and political hierarchy, but, it is true, that we can’t speak of a middle class in the Weberian sense. The most relevant fact of the real existence of the middle class, even if reduced numerically, in the socialist society, is its presence in the determining of the consumer behavior.

Mihaela A. Miron (1996, pages 20-21, 29-30) shows in a research, the tendency of the public office workers to appear in society with a higher condition, resembling with the condition of his boss. Also the intellectuals decided on the consumer orientation and they themselves showed in socialism an ostentatious consumption as a “compensation” for the unfavorable economical condition of the nation.

The existence or inexistence of the middle class in the Romanian socialist society, a somewhat controversial issue, deserves a separate research, a scientific approach we propose ourselves to do on another occasion.

2. THE EXISTENCE AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE MIDDLE CLASS IN ROMANIA

There are opinions expressed by some sociologists, which state that the middle class is an uncontestable reality of our time.

“The researches regarding the privatization process of the state properties have highlighted its impact on the structure of the aboriginal capitalists from which important segments of the middle class are recruited”(Maria Larionescu, 1996, page107).

A particularity resides in the fact that in Romania, the social political capital from the socialist period has been converted after 1989, in economical capital.

The studies show (there are articles that appeared in the times press) that the ex technocrats have become in the period of the transition, capitalist entrepreneurs, also called professionals, nonproprietary intellectuals or proletarian bourgeoisie. These have later become private entrepreneurs, those that were part of the traditional middle class.

Accepting that the reality of the social structure of Romania is a new one, that appeared in the post Decembrist period, we find that the middle class has renewed itself, has got a scope that can’t be disputed.

This class is based on the following constituent elements:

- wealth;
- structure based on occupations;
- relatively high education and professionalism;
- life style (where we include the consumer behavior).

The middle class includes: undertakers which own small and middle sized industrial units, the owners of family associations, professionals, managers, farmers, building owners (fund holders), employees with high education which have incomes over the national mean income or those with liberal professions (lawyers, attorneys, architects, expert accountants, technical experts, real estate agents, university teachers, high ranking public officers, farmers with more than 10 hectares of arable land worked by themselves, etc.

The controversies in the establishing of the minimal characteristics of the middle class are now surpassed: for example the great majority which composes this class has an age between



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

30 – 45 years, has high education, lives mostly in the big cities, but they appear also in the small ones, in villages (of course in a smaller number). In total, after some assessments, the middle class comprises presently about 3 – 4 million persons.

Having as occupations those stated before, at the profile of the Romanian middle class actor we add the whole of his monthly incomes. It should not be under 800 – 1000 Euro so that he is part of the “average” category of the middle class. It is considered that the poorest part of this average category is made up of young people with intellectual professions, such as teachers, doctors, jurists and others, because they have salaries beginning with the mean salary on the economy and going up to its double. The richest part of this segment is made up of executives, share holders, top managers which have monthly wages between 5000 and 10000 Euro.

For the concrete identification and with sociological arguments of the middle class under its ontological aspects, trying to define its occupational, educational, economical and lifestyle profile, we have at hand, mainly, the census from 1992, the one from 2002, the statistical year-book from 2006 and the specialty publications.

Thus, in accordance with the data, that results from the Romanian Statistical Yearbook, 2006, the total population at the 1st July 2005 was 21623849 persons compared with 22800000 in 1992. In the last 14 years an alarming loss of population was recorded, a loss of over one million persons.

From the total population, about 9.2 million persons were occupied in the year 2005, in an activity domain, in accordance with the data mentioned in Table 1.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE WORKING POPULATION, ON ACTIVITIES OF THE NATIONAL ECONOMY AT THE CAEN SECTION LEVEL AND AFTER THE PROFESSIONAL STATUS, IN THE YEAR 2005

Table 1.

Activity (CAEN sections rev.1)	Total working population (thousands persons)	Of which, after the professional status (%):				
		Employee	Employer	Worker on his own	Non-paid family worker	Member of an agricultural society or of a co-operative
Total	9147	64,7	1,7	19,6	13,9	0,1
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	2939	6,0	0,2	51,6	42,0	0,2
Fishing and fish breeding	1)	65,6	6,4	28,0	-	-
Industry	2269	97,4	1,0	1,3	0,3	-
- Extractive industry	119	99,3	0,2	0,4	0,1	-
- Processing industry	1960	97,1	1,1	1,5	0,3	-
- Electrical and thermal energy, gas and water	190	99,8	0,2	-	-	-
Constructions	507	80,2	2,0	17,0	0,7	0,1
Commerce	968	82,2	8,4	7,6	1,7	0,1
Hotels and restaurants	151	92,8	4,8	1,6	0,8	-
Transport, depositing and communications	450	92,5	1,9	5,5	0,1	-
Financial negotiations	86	98,8	0,2	1,0	-	-
Real estate transactions and other services	232	92,4	3,5	3,9	0,1	0,1
Public administration and defense	520	100,0	-	-	-	-
Education	413	99,5	0,2	0,3	-	-
Health and social assistance	353	97,6	1,1	1,2	0,1	-
The other activities of the national economy	255	78,1	2,2	17,8	1,5	0,4

¹⁾Data calculated through extension is not reliable because of the small number of observed cases.

Source: Statistical research on the labor force in households (AMIGO) – 2005

Even if we don't have statistics that highlight directly the affiliation of a person to a specific social category, *the structure of the working population* based on economical activities, as it

results from Table 1, can induce the hypothesis that from the almost 156000 employers, about 1.8 million workers on their own, about 1.3 million non-paid family workers and 5.9 million employees, 3 to 4 million can be considered as being part of the middle class, if we have in mind the underlined criteria.

Analytically, we can observe five occupational levels of the middle class:

- the group formed by the persons with leadership positions;
- the specialists with scientific and intellectual occupations;
- the technicians, foremen and those assimilated them;
- the administration office workers;
- the operative workers in the domain of services, commerce and those assimilated them.

From the study of Maria Larionescu & col., the only paper which approaches the construction of the middle class in Romania, and which appeared in 2006, result in the five occupational groups, that represent 35 % of the active population, based on the census from 2002 and with an extension to the inactive population, we could admit that almost 30 % of the inhabitants of Romania to be part of the middle class (Maria Larionescu & col., 2006, page 144).

Of course if we have in mind only the occupations, the estimation seems to be correct. But it is only one criterion at which we have to add at least two others: wealth and lifestyle, a situation which is not accomplished by many, so that this class presently has not more, as we have shown earlier, than 3 to 4 million persons.

Wealth, as a source of recruitment of the middle class, has a major importance in this sense. The property (wealth) which is on a differentiation (structuring) course due to the privatization of the state owned economical units, will assure not only the consolidation but also the development of the high class and the middle class, but this process is going on slowly and difficultly.

More than that, we don't have sufficient information to specify the density of the distribution of private property.

The diagnosis of the life quality, ICCV, from 2003, shows us that up to 4 % of the households have in their own property production units and stores.

The same document shows that about 4 % of the households own real estates, others than the houses they are currently using.

The problem with the ICCV research is that it is based on national samples which comprise almost 1200 households, fact that doesn't assure enough statistical relevance.

In this direction another methodology is required which should offer a more precise knowledge of the Romanian social structuring phenomena.

The situation is identical also what regards the population's incomes, where the researches do not offer significant data for an able-bodied reference on the middle class (see also Maria Larionescu & col., 2006, page 141).

Illustrative in this sense is Table 2, which was made, based on the data from the Statistical Yearbook of Romania, 2006.

THE TOTAL INCOME OF THE HOUSEHOLDS

Table 2.

Incomes	Total households		of which, households of:			
	2004	2005	Employees		Farmers	
			2004	2005	2004	2005
	lei (RON), monthly for one household					
Total income	1085,79	1212,18	1478,79	1681,81	988,04	1010,71
	percentage					
Money income of which:	75,8	79,6	85,6	87,4	48,3	56,4
- gross wages and other salary payments	44,6	47,3	75,5	77,6	7,5	6,7
- incomes from farming	4,1	3,9	0,9	0,7	22,9	25,0
- incomes from independent non - agricultural activities	3,1	3,3	0,9	0,9	2,0	3,0
- incomes from social work	19,3	20,4	5,4	5,8	12,2	14,0
- incomes from properties	0,6	0,4	0,3	0,1	0,1	0,1
Equivalent of the incomes in kind obtained by the employees and the beneficiaries of social work	2,4	3,1	3,1	3,7	0,9	1,2
Equivalent of the consumption of self obtained farming products	21,8	17,3	11,3	8,9	50,8	42,4

From the content analysis of Table 2, it is difficult if not impossible to identify the population's stratification based on income. Some estimation can be made and hypotheses formulated which must be validated using other statistical instruments.

What regards the *studies*, also from the data offered by the 2002 census results that almost 50 % of the persons that belong to the before mentioned occupation groups, have finished high school, and 32 % have higher education.

Without doubt, through the development of the education of the population, the configuration of the social structure will have an evolution similar to the western one. Besides the private property, through the professionalizing of labor, the middle class from our society will grow quantitatively and qualitatively.

A major characteristic of the social class we're referring to is represented by the lifestyle, which is different from that of the other social categories and in the same time is the main social segment which contributes to the orientation and development of the consumer production. They are the postmodern consumers (Dragos Iliescu, Dan Petre, 2004), which are more informed, with a higher education, confident in their own forces, with a greater control and self-control and finally we can appreciate that they are more skilful.

Even if in the middle class the proportion between men and women is approximately equal, what regards the consumer behavior there are differences.

The specialty literature highlights a type of consumer named "*metrosexual*" (see Michael Flocker, 2005), which forms the category of men which form the group of consumers that are "sophisticated" and "active professionals".

This category (the metrosexuals), is mostly young, up to 45 years, with high incomes, high education, and who usually live in the villas from the big cities, they are persons of success, they have prestige and a high status, are socially active, choose expensive shops and prestigious brands, show independence, are open to new things and experiences and are confident in their own capacities.

If we talk about women, in what regards the consumption, they are oriented towards luxury objects (besides cars and houses) such as jewelry, watches, clothing, etc., that can highlight their personality.



Through our study we have shown the most significant characteristics of a middle class that is more and more evident in the equation of capitalism in Romania.

Being in a structuring process in our country, this class has not the dimensions it has in the developed countries where it is a majority. This is due to different way in which capitalism has developed. If in the west the capitalist system has developed naturally, in the east (and in Romania), as Michael Ehrke affirms “The post communist capitalism is not the product of an organic national evolution but one of the collapse of communism and of globalization, which has found in the societies in transition a free action field, without any resistance, without a **national middle class** (s.n.), without powerful interest associations of the workers, without an active civil society, without national traditions with economic relevance”.

Thus, the imperative of the reconstruction and organizing of a sure future of the middle class at national level is clearly shown to be a guarantee of prosperity and social progress which can propel Romania between the countries where capitalism had an evolution based on spectacular economical development, civilization, political stability and a peaceful climate.

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RESPONSABILITY'S SOCIAL REPRESENTATION AT PEOPLE WHO WORK IN PROFESSIONAL ENVIRONMENT WITH RISK

Teodora Sonia URSU – NEAMȚ

Spitalul Universitar C.F.R. Timișoara, Laboratorul regional de examinare
psihologice C.F.R. Timișoara, România
neamtt@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

This paper's purpose is to study the social representation of responsibility and differences between professional fields for people who work in professional environment with risk. The professional fields involved belong to Romanian National Company of Railway: Technical (carriage), Traffic and Locomotives. The methodology involves a list of terms obtained through free association method; to identify the central node and periphery elements for responsibility's social representation we also used words association and terms ordination methods.

We took initially 70 persons to perform free association method and for the other two methods, we used three different groups of subjects, from different professional fields; each group contains 15 subjects. Participant persons have different ages, sexes, origins and professions.

The results identify the central node and periphery elements for responsibility's social representation for three professional fields, pointing out differences and especially similarities between. It seems that when we talk about responsibility, no matter which activity field, „collective representation” is about accomplish professional duties, family, making decisions, concern about oneself and others.

REZUMAT

Lucrarea de față are drept scop studiul reprezentării sociale a responsabilității la personalul din mediu profesional cu risc și a diferențelor existente între ramurile profesionale privind acest aspect. Cele trei ramuri profesionale aparțin Companiei Naționale de Cale Ferată din România și sunt: Revizia tehnică vagoane, Ramura trafic și Depoul de locomotive. Metodologia lucrării cuprinde lista de termeni obținută prin metoda asociației libere; pentru identificarea nodului central și a elementelor periferice privind reprezentarea socială a responsabilității s-a mai utilizat metoda asocierii cuvintelor și metoda ordonării termenilor.

S-a luat în studiu un lot inițial de 70 de subiecți pentru metoda asociației libere, iar pentru celelalte metode au fost utilizate trei loturi diferite de subiecți, din ramuri profesionale diferite; fiecare lot cuprinde 15 subiecți. Persoanele participante au vârste, sexe, profesii și proveniențe (urban și rural) diferite.

Rezultatele lucrării identifică nodul central și elementele periferice ale reprezentării sociale asupra responsabilității la cele trei grupe profesionale vizate, relevând diferențele, dar mai ales asemănările dintre ele, care apar la toate nivelele. Se pare că atunci când este vorba de responsabilitate, „reprezentarea colectivă” a persoanelor, indiferent de ramura de activitate, este legată de îndeplinirea sarcinilor de serviciu, familie, luarea unor decizii, grijă față de sine și de ceilalți.

DEFINITIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL REPRESENTATION

Social representation is a study object, an object with own reality, not borrowed from other science, capable to have a solid point for social psychology's development (Doise, 1996). All human interactions involve representations. If social psychology wants to be who pretend to be, an interactions science, social representation must be its interest center.

Defining SR involves: „values system, notions, practices relative to objects, dimensions of social environment, orientation instrument for situation's perceptions” (Moscovici, 1976); ”a



form of specific knowledge, a science of common sense revealing a form of symbolic thinking” (Jodelet, 1984); ”particular form of symbolic thinking” (Palomari, Doise, 1986); ”action guide for social relations orientation” (Abric, 1994); ”principles that determine standing up” (Doise, 1990).

Moscovici and Vignaux said that social representation frame „into preexistent thinking”, are tributary to belief systems anchored in values, traditions, images of world and existence. Representations have always a triple role: to illuminate (give sense to reality), to integrate (incorporates new notions and facts into familiar frames), to share (ensure common senses in which a collectivity find itself). Social representations are central vectors for opinions, judgments and beliefs, ensuring pertinence and regularity of collective conduits.

Social representation does not appear into an empty place, being productions of something preexistent, reflections of contents already elaborated. Social representations are characterized by a discursive and argumentative coherence with different levels of generality (Moscovici, 1995). The most complete and durable the psychologist name, in tradition of A. Fouillee, C. G. Jung or F. Braudel *themata*, because they express basic concepts, deeply rooted, primitive notions, main ideas, archetypes or mentalities.

The concepts that interfere most with social representation theory are attitude and social cognition, public opinion, ideology, common sense, science, social identity, culture, attributes. The most frequent confusions are made with the first two mentioned.

Evolution of social representation’s theory

Psychology is interest in study social representation is relatively recent. Its debut, fixed in 1961 into a paper of Serge Moscovici brings to light an old term, “collective representation”. This term belongs to Durkheim. Social representation feed from religious beliefs, cultural practices, rituals, everyday life imaginary (Ferreol, 1994) but interfere also with opinions and attitudes. They rebuild the reality, being cognitive productions bun social’s prisoners. Doise, 1990: social representation have an important role in maintaining social reports, transfers directly or indirect a social knowledge (in Neculau coord., 1996). Moscovici approaches the problem in a different way both in redefinition of the object and its reveal modalities.

Another trend from where Moscovici have his theory on social representation is “symbolic insurrectionism”, represented by G. H. Mead who talk about „implicit” aspects of behavior and put the accent on symbolic processes and the role of language in different social realities.

The theory of social representation suffered several transformations and divisions, today we have two different approaches: structural orientation (Abric, 1994, Moliner, 1988, Verges, 1994); Swiss researchers (Doise, Clemence, Lorenzi - Cioldi, 1992) revealed differences in contains or difference in social – ideological and representational field, developing the theory of organize principles. There are also unifying tendencies as Moliner’s bidimensional model (1995).

Social representation interferes with opinions and attitudes but they are not so put in direction like these. Unlike opinions that develop an manifested, verbalized, observed answer and susceptible of quantification and attitudes which establish a relation between answer and stimuli, the answer being quantifiable trough time of reaction, social representations oscillates between perception and social, mediates between cognitive and affective, hesitate between exact and approximately, flirted with scientific but also with the imaginary. They build the reality touching simultaneously the stimuli and the reaction, marking **here** the same way modulating **there**. Although cognitive constructions social representations are social’s prisoner. Doise (1990) express the complexity of relations with social: they have an important role in maintaining of social reports and vehicles directly or indirect a social knowledge.

Social representation's processes

Moscovici, 1976 distinguished two processes that characterize social representation: objectivity concrete, the abstract, the conversation of a concept into an imagine or figurative knot; anchor that permit to incorporate into known categories network something not familiar and which causes us problems, permitting to confront the unknown with something familiar. There are also other social functions of social representation: to anticipate in social reports and justifying function. Into this context representations were mentioned as prophecies with the particularity of creating trough their intervention the necessary conditions for them to be durable in social reality.

Social representation's functions and components

J. C. Abric (1994) suggests a split of social representation into two components: cognitive and social component. Recent studies bring us to idea that social representation have following components: cognitive, affective, and behavioral.

J. C. Abric (1997) determines four functions for social representation: knowledge function, identity function, orientation and justifying functions.

Internal organization of social representation: central knot and periphery elements

Social representation has two components: central knot and periphery elements. They function as an entity and each has a specific and complementary role by the other.

The notion of „central knot” had been elaborated by Abric (1984, 1994) with Heider („unitary knot”), Asch (1946) and Moscovici (1961, „model or figurative knot”). The knot interprets, gives sense to events, and drives the conduit. The essential property of central knot is stability. It consists from most stable elements of representation, those who resist to changes.

Essential complement of central knot, essential normative, periphery elements is rather functional, permitting the anchoring of representation into recent reality. Periphery elements are more viable, flexible, mobile alive part of representation, the interface between central knot and concrete situation in which the representation is elaborated. They retain and select the information, evaluates, elaborates stereotypes and beliefs.

Study methods for social representations

The study of social representation supposes several methodological problems. There are three recent collective papers (Doise, Clemence and Lorenzi - Cioldi, 1992, Abric, 1994, Giumelli, 1994) which bring us important explains about methodology of studying social representation. We are interested equally about the content and internal organization and actual stadium of researches permit identification of three successive steps in social representation approach:

- a) Determination of social representation's content;
- b) The study of relations between elements, of their relative importance and hierarchies;
- c) Determination and control of social representation's central knot.

There are several methods to recognize content of social representation: interrogative, associative etc. A social representation's analyze involves knowing the three essential components: content, internal structure and its central knot. Social representation investigation is founded on a plurimethodological approach (Abric, 1994): revealing social representation's content, its structure and central knot, verifying centrality and argumentative analysis.

The central knot of a representation is its foundation, of structure and the nature of representation. They consist some elements well connected and are characterized by two essential functions: generative and organizational.

This paper's purpose is to study the content and internal structure of social representation on responsibility for people who work in professional environment with risk.

METHODOLOGY

Paper's purpose

This paper's purpose is to study the social representation of responsibility for people who work in railway safety (professional environment with risk), employees of National Society of Railway from Romania, Railway Transport Regional from Timisoara.

Hypothesis

1. People who work in professional environment with risk will determine at least three specific terms through those making up responsibility's social representation.

2. Starting from the same terms of social representation about responsibility our three professional fields studied determine different relations between terms, resulting different categories of terms (different dendograms).

3. Personnel from railway safety, no matter what branch, have the same values system when they think about responsibility.

Subjects

To verify the hypothesis we took 115 subjects. We took initially for first hypothesis 70 persons from different ages, sexes, professions and proveniences. This group performed free association method to realize content of responsibility's social representation. All provided from Technical Carriage Revision from Timisoara. For the other two methods, we used three different groups of subjects, from different professional fields; each group contains 15 subjects and belongs to our three studied branches: Technical Carriage Revision Branch, Traction – Locomotives Branch and Traffic Branch. We will refer from now on to our groups following: Group 1 – subjects from Technical Carriage Revision Branch; Group 2 - subjects from Traction – Locomotives Branch and Group 3 – subjects from Traffic Branch.

Methods

1. Free associations method
2. Word's association method
3. Terms ordering method

Statistical analysis

In this study we made statistical analysis with our own statistic programs and through classical calculus, with formulas.

DATUM'S PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

Quantitative and qualitative analysis of datum

First hypothesis

People who work in professional environment with risk will determine at least three specific terms through those making up responsibility's social representation.

To verify this hypothesis we used free association method. We applied it on 70 persons to form content of responsibility's social representation. Stimuli word was "responsibility" and we obtained a list of 17 terms (table 1). We took in consideration terms that have frequencies at least 2.

Datum analysis reveals the existence of three specific terms: *decision, railway safety, attention*. To these we can add: *punctuality, respect for law / authority*.

Field of railway safety is a risk professional environment. Risk involves personnel and people who use trains for travel. Decision, near punctuality, respect for law and permanent attention are absolutely necessary factors to ensure railway safety.

All personnel activity from railway branches, at any level (especially at functions from railway safety) involves rapid decisions, punctuality at work and respect for death lines. Any delay, at any level affects trains timetable, in consequence people traveler, this meaning lost in money and prestige.

Table 1 . List of terms obtained from 70 subjects trough free association method (Stimuli word: "responsibility")

Terms	Frequency
Work task accomplishment	57
Family	52
Raising children	20
Respect / seriousness	16
Helping people / care for others	14
Making decisions	13
Punctuality	8
Credits (taxes, debts)	7
Parents	7
Care for oneself	6
Respect for law / authority	6
Railway safety	6
Care for environment	5
Increased attention	4
Involving in social	4
Independence	2
Car driving	2

Term "increased attention" were found as we see it, personnel mentioned it with word "increased" attached. They feel the importance of this psychological property not just at common sense, as attention, but they feel they need an increased attention. We investigate attention at all functions in railway safety. Respect for law and authority in every branch is necessary to avoid accidents with unpleasant consequences.

Second hypothesis

Starting from the same terms of social representation about responsibility our three professional fields studied determine different relations between terms, resulting different categories of terms (different dendograms).

Word's association method determines the relations between terms. This method was applied on our three groups. The people must choose three terms from list and describe them. Total distinct words used are the dictionary of term. The method of words association process dictionaries and similarity between inductive terms. Finally there is a graphic representation with categories of terms (Albu, 2005). The graphic representation of terms categories are presented next for each group:

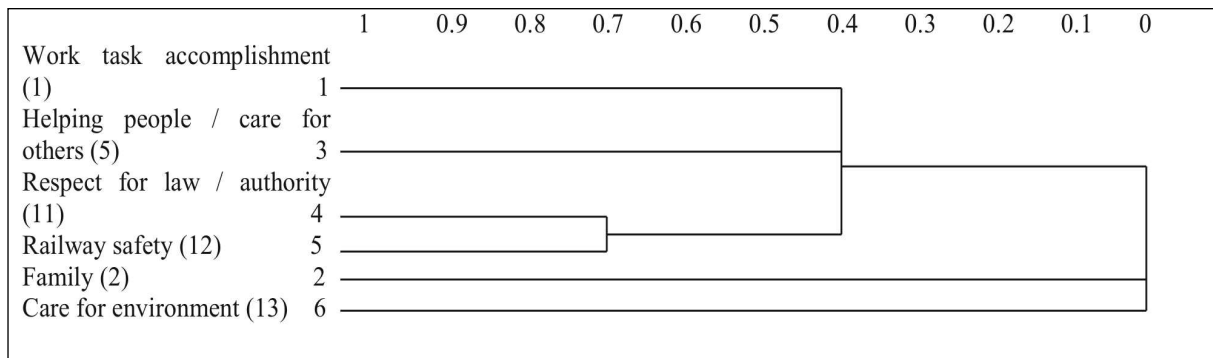


Fig. 1. Graphic representation of cluster analysis for Group 1

First we see a fusion between terms 4 and 5 at similarity indices of 0.70 and form cluster (4, 5). Then fusion 3 with (4, 5) at $C = 0.40$ and result (3, 4, 5). Finally at $C = 0.40$ fusion term 1 with anterior cluster and result cluster (1, 3, 4, 5).

Results: personnel from railway safety, Technical – Revision Branch associates the respect for law and authority and railway safety as terms with much responsibility. From expressed contains the respect for authority lead to railway safety. At these terms they added: helping / care for others and work task accomplishment. All mentioned terms concur to a collective opinion about responsibility. Practically personnel from this branch must have care for others, respect for law to ensure travelers safety on railway and to avoid accidents.

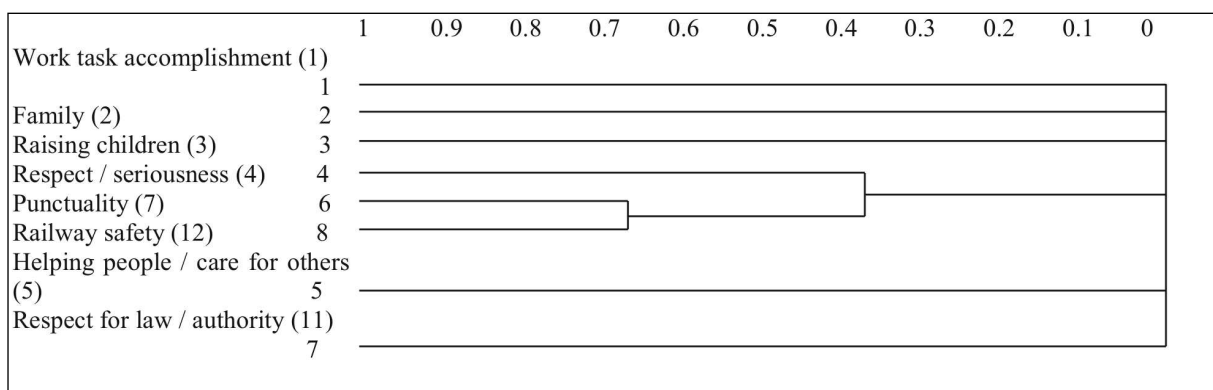


Fig. 2. Graphic representation of cluster analysis for Group 2

Steps: fusion between terms 8 and 6, results cluster (6, 8) at $C = 0.70$; cluster (4, 6, 8) result at $C = 0.40$.

From graphics analysis we observe at this branch association of railway safety with punctuality at same similarity indices and than association with respect / seriousness. Professional environment with risk involves automatically seriousness in approaching work tasks. This branch is direct involved in assurance of train table time (function of locomotive driver) and we can see the appearance of term punctuality. This means that branch give more important to this aspect, being direct responsible for punctuality in railway domain.

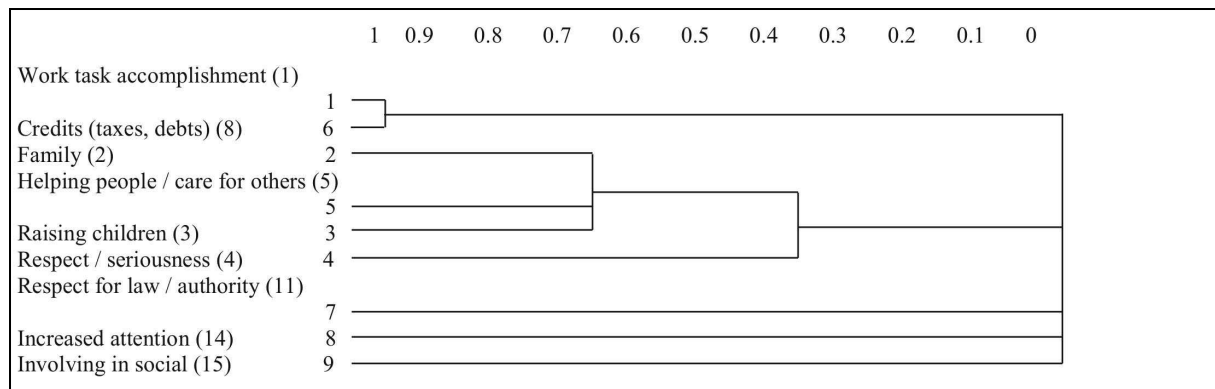


Fig. 3. Graphic representation of cluster analysis for Group 3

We can see at this group a larger number of fusions. Step 1: fusion between term 1 and 6 at maximum $C = 1.00$. Step 2: fusion for term 5 and 2 at $C = 0.70$. Step 3: term 3 fusion with cluster (2, 5) at $C = 0.70$. Last step: cluster (2, 3, 5) fusion with term 4 at $C = 0.38$.

We can say that traffic branch made the most complex terms associations. Credits and work task accomplish superpose, and are very close tied one from each other. Family involves care for others, raising children, all being in direct relation with seriousness and respect.

We also seen how often was choose every inductive term and how often people refer to its.

Table 2. Choosing and referring terms frequencies at all three groups

Nr.	Term	Choosing terms frequencies			Referring terms frequencies		
		Groups			Groups		
		1	2	3	1	2	3
1	Work task accomplish	4	7	10	3	5	2
2	Family	16	12	11	3	3	0
3	Raising children	7	8	3	0	5	4
4	Respect / seriousness	0	3	4	0	8	11
5	Helping people / care for others	0	0	1	0	3	1
6	Making decisions	1	2	0	0	0	0
7	Punctuality	1	2	4	0	3	1
8	Credits (taxes, debts)	0	0	2	0	0	1
9	Parents	5	3	3	0	0	1
10	Care for oneself	4	1	0	0	2	1
11	Respect for law / authority	0	2	0	0	2	5
12	Railway safety	5	2	3	2	1	1
13	Care for environment	0	0	0	0	2	0
14	Increased attention	1	1	0	0	0	5
15	Involving in social	1	0	2	1	1	0
16	Independence	0	2	0	0	0	0
17	Car driving	0	0	2	0	0	0

It is obviously that term family appears most often in choosing to all groups. For next places we have raising children at group 2; group 3 put work task accomplishment on second place. Referring frequencies are highest for term respect / seriousness at groups 2 and 3.

We can say that terms family, work task accomplishment or raising children can be with a high probability the central knot of our research. The same thing is valid also for term respect / seriousness.

Third hypothesis

Personnel from railway safety, no matter what branch, have the same values system when they think about responsibility.

To verify this we used *terms ordering method* which determine the central knot of social representation. We have the same groups and each subject had to read the list of terms and order it.

Table 3. Frequencies of term's ordering and informational energy indicator for our groups

Term	En. Inf. ind. for group 1	En. Inf. ind. for group 2	En. Inf. ind. for group 3
Work task accomplishment	0.058824	0.095588	0.058824
Family	0.5	0.345588	0.5
Raising children	0.286765	0.125	0.305147
Respect / seriousness	0.066176	0.213235	0.088235
Helping people / care for others	0.036765	0.051471	0.036765
Making decisions	0.044118	0.102941	0.051471
Punctuality	0.073529	0.066176	0.125
Credits (taxes, debts)	0.132353	0.044118	0.022059
Parents	0.088235	0.069853	0.080882
Care for oneself	0.036765	0.051471	0.080882
Respect for law / authority	0.147059	0.036765	0.058824
Railway safety	0.080882	0.058824	0.029412
Care for environment	0.110294	0.051471	0.132353
Increased attention	0.117647	0.066176	0.022059
Involving in social	0.110294	0.044118	0.117647
Independence	0.117647	0.044118	0.139706
Car driving	0.169118	0.073529	0.080882

From table we observe that all groups identify term „family” with the highest concordance, so family is the aspect most important regarding responsibility for personal who work in railway safety. On second place is „raising children” and „respect / seriousness”. Third place is for „respect for law / authority”, „raising children” and „independence”.

We calculated than a score for each term, and so we know who the central knot is. Results:

Table 4. Terms hierarchy for our groups

Terms	Score for group 1	Score for group 2	Score for group 3
Work task accomplishment	186	204	205
Family	252	224	252
Raising children	226	181	222
Respect / seriousness	178	201	184
Helping people / care for others	153	117	138
Making decisions	144	156	139
Punctuality	157	158	175
Credits (taxes, debts)	125	98	114
Parents	169	163	165
Care for oneself	118	134	116
Respect for law / authority	120	117	139
Railway safety	139	141	132
Care for environment	93	83	66
Increased attention	85	87	95
Involving in social	50	77	82
Independence	53	94	45
Car driving	48	61	57

We observe high score of first four terms. The highest score at all groups is for family, this meaning family is the central knot of responsibility's social representation. Is followed by raising children (at group 1 and 3), than is work task accomplishment (group 3) and respect / seriousness (group 2).

CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

1. We found that personnel who work in railway safety mentioned five specific terms when they talked about responsibility: making decisions, railway safety, increased attention, punctuality and respect for law / authority.

2. Term „family” appears to all groups with highest choosing frequency. For next places we have differences between groups. We can also already say that is possible for family, work task accomplishment or raising children to be the central knot of our research. The same thing is valid for respect / seriousness.

3. The central knot of responsibility's social representation for people who work in railway safety is family and work task accomplishment. Once we move to suburbs we have differences of opinion regarding raising children, respect / seriousness, parents, punctuality, making decisions.

Our sty is useful for specialists in railway safety when they need explanations about personnel's motivations and determinations. The paper has a general character, but we can see results also for particular cases.

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TOWARDS A MEANINGFUL EXISTENCE

Salman S. AHMAD

Institute of Management Technology, Nagpur INDIA

S.SalmanAhmad@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The objective of the workshop is to enable participants to work towards defining meaning in their lives based on a deeper understanding of themselves and the potential that lies within them. Drawing on the humanistic-existential tradition and the narrative approach, especially the view of the “client as expert”, the workshop sessions are largely conducted through meditative-introspective exercises based on the Socratic approach with minimal input from the facilitator where the facilitator acts only as a guide in the process of self-discovery. The workshop would consist of 2 sessions of 90 minutes each. In these sessions, participants are guided in the process of charting their life-narrative with the objective of identifying one’s fundamental strengths and values, of transforming negative and traumatic events of the past and moving towards the discovery of meaning in one’s existence. As such the workshop participants would be introduced experientially to a meaning-centred strategy for counselling and therapy, the methods and exercises of which may be used with individuals as well as groups in their own counselling or training work.

SPRE O EXISTENȚĂ CU SENS

REZUMAT

Obiectivul workshop-ului este acela de a dezvolta aptitudinile participanților cu scopul definirii sensului vieții pe baza unei înțelegeri mai profunde a sinelui și potențialului intrinsec. Sesiunile workshop-ului se bazează pe abordarea narativă și tradiția existențialist-umanistă, îndeosebi pe viziunea „clientului ca expert”. Ele se vor realiza pe baza exercițiilor mediativ-introspective conduse în stil socratic, cu un input minimal din partea facilitatorului, care este înțeles la rândul lui, ca fiind un ghid al procesului de auto-descoperire. Workshop-ul va fi compus din 2 sesiuni a câte 90 de minute fiecare. Pe parcursul sesiunilor, participanții sunt încurajați să-și construiască povestea vieții în scopul identificării punctelor forte și valorilor individuale, sau pentru a transforma evenimentele negative și traumatice ale trecutului în scopul continuării existenței sub auspiciul descoperirii unui sens al vieții. Astfel participanții vor învăța strategii centrate pe sens în terapia și consilierea experimentală. Metodele și exercițiile le vor putea folosi la rândul lor, ca indivizi sau în cadrul unor grupuri de consiliere sau training.

UNIVERSITATEA CA SPAȚIU AL EDUCAȚIEI PENTRU MULTICULTURALITATE

Mariana CERNICOVA

Facultatea de Jurnalistică, Universitatea „Tibiscus” din Timișoara, Timișoara, România
mcernicova@tibiscus.ro

REZUMAT

Sănătatea democratică a unei societăți se măsoară, printre altele, prin sensibilitatea la diversitate pe care o manifestă membrii respectivei societăți. Valorile plurilingvistice, ale multiculturalismului sunt celebrate, oficial, prin proiecte internaționale care stimulează afirmarea unei societăți globale în care diferențele sunt privite ca bogăție și resursă de dezvoltare, nu ca factor al discordiei. Un rol esențial în dezvoltarea societății sensibile la multiculturalism îl are universitatea. Lucrarea de față își propune să releve modul în care educația pentru interculturalitate este abordată la Universitatea „Tibiscus”, ca posibil model de bună practică în mediul academic românesc și euro-atlantic. Universitatea „Tibiscus” abordează problematica interculturalității prin curricula educațională (în cursurile obligatorii, dar și în oferta de masterate), prin cercetare științifică (în cadrul unor proiecte de creare a suportului pentru educația multiculturală în Banatul istoric), prin afilierea la campanii internaționale dedicate acestei abordări (University Partnership for Education and Citizenship/UPEC – lansat de Alianța Universităților pentru Democrație/AUDEM la Pecs, în Ungaria, în 2004) și prin activități extracurriculare cu studenții, sub forma unor proiecte de tipul „Studentul român – cetățean activ al Europei”, în parteneriat cu Institutul Intercultural Timișoara (2006-2007). Constatările bazate pe o experiență de 10 ani a autoarei în mediul universitar din „Tibiscus” conduc către ideea că educația interculturală are nevoie de un suport masiv în continuare, atât sub forma dezvoltării de suport educațional (manuale, ghiduri, training-uri), cât și sub forma politicilor publice.

UNIVERSITY AS A SPACE OF EDUCATION FOR MULTICULTURALISM

ABSTRACT

The democratic health of a society can be measured, among other parameters, through the lenses of its sensitivity towards diversity. The values of multilingualism, of multiculturalism are celebrated, officially, within international projects aimed at assessing the emergence of a global society. In this society differences supposedly are viewed as wealth and resources for development, not as reasons for conflict. An essential role for developing a society sensitive towards multiculturalism is played by universities. This paper aims at presenting some of the approaches used in “Tibiscus” University as possible best practice model in the Romanian and Euro-Atlantic academic area. “Tibiscus” University approaches multiculturalism through its educational curricula (at the bachelor and masteral courses), through scientific research (by participating in projects aimed at creating the resources for multicultural education in the historical area of Banat), through taking part in international campaigns devoted to the topic (such as the University Partnership for Education and Citizenship/UPEC – launched by the Alliance of Universities for Democracy/AUDEM in Pecs, Hungary, in 2004) and through extracurricular activities offered to students, such as “The Romanian student – active citizen of Europe”, carried out in partnership with the Intercultural Institute Timisoara (2006-2007). Based on a ten years of experience of the author in “Tibiscus” university, the conclusion of the paper is that intercultural education needs a solid support in the form of educational products (handbooks, guides, training sessions) and public policies.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-COMPASSION: HELICOPTER PARENTING AND THE COMMON HUMANITY SUBSCALE

Charles JACOB

Doctoral student, the University of Pittsburgh, U.S.A.
cjj7@pitt.edu

ABSTRACT

As a reaction to recent criticisms of self-esteem, self-compassion is a construct derived from eastern philosophy stressing the importance of healthy attitudes toward the self in light of personal failure or emotional pain, keeping pain in balanced awareness, and seeing one's experience as part of the larger human experience. The link between parenting styles and the development of a self-compassionate attitude has not yet been assessed, though recent research suggests that experiences related to attachment figures may have an impact. The present study examines connections and patterns between self-compassion scores as well as reports of parent relationships for 200 undergraduate college students at a large research university in an urban setting. Preliminary evidence suggests that excessive parent involvement during late adolescence is detrimental in the development and maintenance of self-compassionate attitudes, particularly the ability to relate individual suffering to the world at large.

DEZVOLTAREA AUTOCOMPASIUNII: STILUL PARENTAL ADERENT ȘI SCALA UMANITĂȚII COMUNE

REZUMAT

Ca o reacție la recente critici referitoare la stima de sine, autocompasiunea este un construct, derivat din filozofiile asiatice, care pune accentul pe importanța unor atitudini proprii sănătoase la confruntarea cu eșecul personal sau suferința emoțională, pe păstrarea durerii într-o balanță conștientă și pe considerarea experienței proprii ca făcând parte din larga experiență umană. Legătura dintre stilurile parentale și dezvoltarea unei atitudini de autocompasiune nu a fost încă exact definită, cu toate că cercetările recente sugerează că experiențele legate de relațiile de atașament ar putea avea un impact. Prezentul studiu examinează legăturile și tiparele dintre scorurile pentru autocompasiune și relațiile cu părinții, pentru un grup de 200 de elevi de colegiu, într-o cercetare universitară vastă într-o zonă urbană. Datele preliminare sugerează că implicarea excesivă a părinților, pe parcursul adolescenței mari, este în detrimentul dezvoltării și menținerii unei atitudini juste de autocompasiune și, mai ales, în detrimentul abilității de a considera suferința proprie ca una comună umanității.

SĂNĂTATEA ORGANIZAȚIONALĂ - PREMISĂ A SUCCESULUI

Loredana DROBOT, Ileana ROTARU

Universitatea „Eftimie Murgu” Reșița , România

loredana_drobot@yahoo.com

REZUMAT

Conceptul de cultură organizațională integrează valorile, credințele, miturile, normele și simbolurile care definesc spațiul și climatul unei organizații. Cultura organizațională reprezintă „codul genetic” (Hofstede) al unei organizații, iar modul în care aceasta afectează actul decizional imprimă gradul său de sănătate. Unii teoreticieni (Peters și Waterman) au demonstrat, în acest sens, că excelența unei organizații depinde de o serie de factori, dar cel mai important dintre aceștia este cultura organizațională (Brătianu).

THE ORGANIZATIONAL HEALTH - A PREMISS FOR SUCCES

ABSTRACT

The concept of organizational culture brings in values, myths, believes, norms and symbols that define the space and the climate of an organization. The organizational culture represents the “genetic code” (Hofstede) of an organization and the way that it affects the decision act it manifests its health degree. Some theorists (Peters and Waterman) have demonstrated that the excellence of an organization depends on a series of factors and the most important of them is the organizational culture (Brătianu).



FILE DIN ISTORIA PSIHOLOGIEI CLUJENE

Nicolae JURCĂU

Universitatea Tehnică din Cluj-Napoca

nicolae.jurcau@dppd.utcluj.ro

REZUMAT

Istoria psihologiei clujene continuă să se scalde în lumini și umbre. Cărțile apărute la diferite edituri în ultimul deceniu și jumătate nu-i oferă cititorului tânăr o imagine veridică asupra frământatei perioade de o jumătate de secol: 1948 – 1998. Intervenția noastră își propune să contribuie – cu date concrete – la lămurirea unor aspecte încă controversate privitoare la rolul unor personalități de primă mărime ale psihologiei românești care au slujit vreme îndelungată la universitatea clujeană.

CLUJ'S SCHOOL OF PSYCHOLOGY

ABSTRACT

The Cluj's school of psychology is continuing to reflect its own moments of lights and shadows. The books appeared at different publishing houses during the last decade don't offer the reader a real image on the concerning period of half of century: 1948-1998. Our intervention aims to contribute – with concrete data – to the clarifying of certain aspects, still controversial, regarding to role of first hand personalities of Romanian psychology, who served long time Cluj's university.

EVALUER LE NIVEAU DE TOLÉRANCE ENVERS LA DIVERSITÉ HUMAINE CHEZ LES ENFANTS SCOLARISÉS: UN PRÉ REQUIT INDISPENSABLE POUR L'ÉDUCATION INTERCULTURELLE

Jennifer KERZIL¹, Irene SOLBES CANALES²

1 MCF en psychologie, Faculté de Psychologie, Université de Bourgogne, 2 Faculté de Psychologie - Département de Psychologie Évolutive et de l'Éducation - Universidad Complutense de Madrid, Espagne
jenniferkerzil@yahoo.fr

RESUMÉ

Depuis les années 70, de nombreux pays européens se sont ouverts à l'immigration de travailleurs dont les enfants ont rejoint les écoles. Dès lors, les gouvernements successifs ont souhaité trouver des solutions afin d'intégrer ces enfants considérés comme "différents des autres", à tort ou à raison. Aujourd'hui, les "enfants de migrants" sont nés dans le pays d'accueil de leurs parents mais ont souvent une "différence" impossible à cacher : leur couleur de peau.

Dans les écoles, chacun a encore à l'esprit qu'il faut aider à leur intégration, alors même qu'aucune évaluation de leur "degré d'acceptation" par les autres enfants n'a été menée en Europe (contrairement aux États-Unis où des études ont donné des résultats variables en fonction des époques).

Nous souhaitons mettre en avant la nécessité d'un diagnostic de situation comme préalable à toute action. Ainsi, nous proposons plusieurs outils permettant d'évaluer le niveau d'acceptation de l'autre différent en fonction de l'âge des enfants et de traits différentiels variés et non pas seulement ethnicisés.

Trois outils (dessins, photographies et échelles d'attitudes), ont été testés auprès d'enfants d'âge scolaire en France et en Espagne. Sur la base d'un corpus de plus de 1000 enfants, il devient possible d'évaluer les capacités des enfants à accepter les différences chez leurs pairs.

Grâce aux théories de la psychologie du développement social, les praticiens ont ainsi à leur disposition des outils pour prendre connaissance des préjugés existants et, en fonction de ceux-ci, envisager une remédiation visant à l'amélioration de la tolérance chez les enfants.

EVALUATING THE LEVEL OF TOLERANCE OF HUMAN DIVERSITY IN SCHOOL CHILDREN: AN INDISPENSABLE REQUIREMENT TO INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

ABSTRACT

Since the 1970's, many countries opened their borders to the immigration of workers whose children joined local schools. Since then, successive governments tried to find solutions to integrate those children considered as "different from the others", rightly or wrongly. Nowadays, although "migrants' children" were born in their parents' host country, they often bear a difference impossible to hide: the color of their skin.

In the schools, everyone keeps in mind that integration must be fostered, even though no evaluation of the "degree of acceptance" by other children has been conducted in Europe (contrary to the USA where studies revealed variable results according to different times).

The present work aims at underlining the importance of a diagnosis of the situation as a preliminary stage to any action. Therefore we propose several tools enabling the evaluation of the level of acceptance of the "different other" as a function of the children's age and of varied differentiating traits (not only ethnic traits).

Three tools (drawings, photos, and attitude scales) have been tested on schoolchildren in France and in Spain. The analysis of the broad material generated by more than 1000 children enabled the evaluation of children's abilities to accept differences among their peers.

Thanks to developmental social psychology, practitioners could thus use tools to acknowledge existing prejudices and, according to them, consider a remedial action aiming at improving children's tolerance to others.



A TOOLBOX OF TECHNIQUES FOR HEALING, RESILIENCE AND TRAUMA RECOVERY USING INTEGRATED EAST AND WEST APPROACHES

Judy KURIANSKY

Columbia University Teachers College, New York

DrJudyK@aol.com

ABSTRACT

This paper presents a number of unique approaches which clinicians in various cultures can select from, to use in their practice to build client's resilience and growth, or to help them heal from trauma. These constitute a "toolbox," meaning that clinicians, therapists and healers can pick and choose from these techniques, to apply to a particular situation, within many disciplines, and for individuals, couples or groups. These techniques are based on years of experience with various types of client populations in many cultures and for many situations. They include techniques used to help survivors after traumatic events like the attacks on the World Trade Center in New York, after the Asian tsunami, and bombings in the Middle East. They also include techniques used in workshops to prevent HIV/AIDS infection, as applied in workshops with teens in high risk groups in America as well as young people in China. They further include techniques used for enriching couples' relationships adapted from ancient traditions and taught in cultures from Prague to Tehran. The techniques represent adaptations of western and eastern techniques, and an integration of the two approaches. The techniques represent ways to build individual resilience as well as to improve couples intimate relationships and to foster generalized peace between cultures in conflict.

O TRUSĂ DE TEHNICI PENTRU VINDECARE, READAPTARE ȘI RECUPERARE DIN TRAUMĂ, FOLOSIND ABORDĂRI INTEGRATE ESTICE ȘI OCCIDENTALE

REZUMAT

Această lucrare prezintă un număr de tehnici unice din care clinicienii, aparținând unor diverse culturi, pot alege le folosi în practică pentru a construi readaptarea, dezvoltarea sau vindecarea după traume a clientului. Toate aceste tehnici împreună formează o „trusă”, asta însemnând că atât clinicienii cât și terapeuții pot alege dintre acestea pe cea mai potrivită pentru o anumită situație dată de disciplină sau fel de terapie: individuală, cuplu sau grup. Aceste tehnici sunt bazate pe ani întregi de experiență cu diferite tipuri de clienți aparținători unor culturi variate sau aflați în situații diferite. Această trusă include tehnici pentru ajutarea supraviețuitorilor evenimentelor traumatice ca de exemplu: atacurile de la World Trade Center din New York, tsunamiul asiatic sau bombardamentele din Orientul Mijlociu. Acestea mai conțin și tehnici folosite în seminarii de prevenirea infectării cu HIV/SIDA, la aceste seminarii participând atât adolescenți din grupurile cu risc ridicat din America, cât și tineri chinezi. Aceste instrumentare mai conțin tehnici de îmbunătățire a relației de cuplu, tehnici adaptate din tehnicile străvechi și predate din Praga și până în Teheran. Tehnicile reprezintă adaptări ale tehnicilor occidentale sau asiatice și, totodată, o integrare a acestor două abordări. Ca și spectru de folosință, se poate merge de la construirea stabilității individuale și până la îmbunătățirea relației intime a cuplurilor sau, chiar mai departe, la îmbunătățirea relațiilor dintre culturile în conflict.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, JOB SATISFACTION AND RECOGNITION AT WORK OF EMPLOYEES OF MERGED COMPANIES

Caroline LAFFORET

University René-Descartes, Paris, France

lafforet.caroline@neuf.fr

ABSTRACT

In order to remain competitive in the global market, more and more companies grow through mergers and acquisitions. Such operations lead to important changes in work processes, social and physical environment in the organizations involved. How do employees adapt to those organizational and cultural changes? Which factors foster or impede their adaptation to change? In order to answer those questions, we conducted a questionnaire survey with 296 employees of companies that took part in a merger or acquisition. We assessed their levels of organizational commitment and of job satisfaction as a function of their perceived recognition at work, attachment to the organization and motivations at work. The results revealed that people motivated at work because of their need for achievement, for affiliation and for power were more satisfied with their job and more committed to the organization after a merger/acquisition than those motivated by the salary or job security. It also appeared that the more employees felt recognized at work after the merger, the more they felt attached to the organization and the more they were committed to it and satisfied at work. More specifically, perceived recognition at work after the merger/acquisition had a positive impact on normative and affective commitment. Practical implications of those results in human resource management are discussed.

IMPLICATION ORGANISATIONNELLE, SATISFACTION ET RECONNAISSANCE AU TRAVAIL DES EMPLOYÉS D'ENTREPRISES FUSIONNÉES

RESUMÉ

Afin de rester compétitives sur le marché mondial, de plus en plus d'entreprises croissent en procédant à des fusions et acquisitions. De telles opérations entraînent au sein des organisations concernées des changements importants au niveau des procédures de travail et de l'environnement physique et social de travail. Comment les employés s'adaptent-ils à ces changements organisationnels et culturels ? Quels facteurs favorisent ou freinent l'adaptation au changement ? Pour répondre à ces questions, nous avons effectué une enquête par questionnaire auprès de 296 employés d'entreprises ayant fait l'objet d'une fusion ou d'une acquisition. Nous avons évalué leurs niveaux d'implication organisationnelle et de satisfaction au travail en fonction de leur reconnaissance perçue au travail, de leur attachement envers l'organisation et de leurs motivations au travail. Les résultats révélèrent que les personnes motivées au travail par des besoins d'accomplissement personnel, d'affiliation et de pouvoir étaient plus satisfaites au travail et impliqués vis-à-vis de l'organisation que celles motivées par le salaire et la sécurité de l'emploi. Il est également apparu que plus les employés se sentaient reconnus au travail après la fusion, plus ils étaient attachés à l'organisation et plus ils étaient impliqués envers elle et satisfaits au travail. Plus spécifiquement, la reconnaissance perçue au travail après la fusion/acquisition avait un impact positif sur l'implication normative et affective. Des implications pratiques de ces résultats au niveau du management des ressources humaines sont discutées.



MĂSURAREA MOTIVAȚIEI PSIHOSOCIALE

Mirela MANEA¹, Traian MANEA²

¹ Universitatea de Medicina și Farmacie „Carol Davila” București, ² Institutul Național de Medicină Aeronautică și Spațială „Victor Anastasiu”

traian.manea@gmail.com

REZUMAT

Introducere. Motivele sunt mobiluri interne ale conduitei, care au rolul de activare, orientare și susținere a comportamentului. Cercetările au identificat un număr foarte mare de motive, care pot fi clasificate în mod diferit în raport de criteriul folosit. **Scopul.** Obiectivul principal al cercetării este de a elabora un instrument de investigare a motivației psihosociale. **Metodă.** S-a folosit un chestionar format din 20 de afirmații care se referă la dorința de a participa sau implica în activitate. Subiecții apreciază aceste afirmații pe o scală tip Lickert cu 5 trepte (1 = total neadevărat, 5 = foarte adevărat). **Subiecți.** A fost utilizat un eșantion format dintr-un număr de 97 de subiecți. **Rezultate.** Analiza statistică a rezultatelor obținute indică faptul că valorile înregistrate se distribuie relativ normal; consistența internă este satisfăcătoare; există corelații între motivație și trăsături ale personalității (încredere în sine, agresivitate, organizare, impulsivitate, asumarea riscului). **Concluzii.** Chestionarul se dovedește util în investigarea motivației. În continuare, ne propunem dezvoltarea acestui instrument și cuprinderea în cercetare a unui număr mai mare de subiecți care desfășoară activități profesionale diferite.

MEASURING OF PSYCHOSOCIAL MOTIVATION

ABSTRACT

Introduction. Motives are internal mobiles of our behavior. Their role is to activate, sustain and orientate the conduit. Researches have find a large number of motives. **Objective.** The main aim of the study was to release a questionnaire measuring psychosocial motivation. **Subjects:** In this study 97 subjects participated. **Method.** We used a number of 20 items referring at desire to participate or implication in activity. Our subjects marked the right answer on a 5 foot Lickert scale (1-totally disaccord, 5-totally accord). **Results.** Statistical analyze show a relative normal distribution of the results; internal consistency is satisfactory; there are correlations between motivation and personality traits (self confidence, aggressiveness, organization, impulsiveness, risk acceptance). **Conclusions.** The questionnaire seems to be useful in investigation of psychosocial motivation. Next step is to large the number of subjects and to differentiate them into professional activity.

MĂSURAREA NEVOILOR PSIHOSOCIALE LA PERSONALUL AERONAUTIC

Traian MANEA¹, Mirela MANEA²

¹ Institutul Național de Medicină Aeronautică și Spațială „Victor Anastasiu”, ² Universitatea de Medicină și Farmacie „Carol Davila”, București
traian.manea@gmail.com

REZUMAT

Introducere. *Nevoile sunt mobiluri interne ale conduitei care au rolul de activare, orientare și susținere a comportamentului. Cercetările au identificat un număr foarte mare de nevoi, care pot fi clasificate în mod diferit în raport de criteriul folosit.*

Scopul. *Obiectivul principal al cercetării este de a elabora un instrument de evaluare a nevoilor psihosociale.*

Metodă. *S-a folosit un chestionar format din 30 de afirmații care se referă la dorința de a participa sau implica în activitate. Subiecții apreciază aceste afirmații pe o scală tip Lickert cu 5 trepte (1 = total neadevărat, 5 = foarte adevărat).*

Subiecți. *A fost utilizat un eșantion format dintr-un număr de 97 de subiecți.*

Rezultate. *Analiza statistică a rezultatelor obținute indică faptul că valorile înregistrate se distribuie relativ normal; consistența internă este satisfăcătoare; există corelații între motivație și trăsături ale personalității (încredere în sine, agresivitate, organizare, impulsivitate, asumarea riscului).*

Concluzii. *Chestionarul se dovedește util în investigarea motivației psihosociale. În continuare, ne propunem dezvoltarea acestui instrument și cuprinderea în cercetare a unui număr mai mare de subiecți care desfășoară activități profesionale diferite.*

PSIHOSOCIAL NEEDS AT AERONAUTICAL PERSONNEL

ABSTRACT

Introduction. *Needs are internal mobiles of our behavior. Their role is to activate, sustain and orientate the conduit. Researches have find a large number of needs.*

Objective. *The main aim of the study was to release a questionnaire measuring psychosocial needs.*

Subjects: *In this study 97 subjects participated.*

Method. *We used a number of 30 items referring at desire to participate or implication in activity. Our subjects marked the right answer on a 5 foot Lickert scale (1-totally disaccord, 5-totally accord).*

Results. *Statistical analyze show a relative normal distribution of the results; internal consistency is satisfactory; there are correlations between motivation and personality traits (self confidence, aggressiveness, organization, impulsiveness, risk acceptance).*

Conclusions. *The questionnaire seems to be useful in investigation of psychosocial motivation. Next step is to large the number of subjects and to differentiate them into professional activity.*

TYPES OF ADOLESCENTS THAT ARE INVOLVED IN SCHOOL VIOLENCE

**Brenda MENDOZA GONZALEZ¹, María José DIAZ-AGUADO JALON²,
Sonsoles CALDERON LÓPEZ³, Beatriz LUCAS MOLINA⁴**

¹ PhD Psychology, Educational Ministry of México, ² Complutense University of Madrid,

³ Complutense University of Madrid, ⁴ Complutense University of Madrid

brenmx@yahoo.com.mx

ABSTRACT

The school is a society microcosms, in where are present all forms, levels and consequences of the aggression. The school violence is a social problem, that today is recognized in the academic ambit, in the psychology research and the society, their study have allowed identify many undesirable consequences for the victim, the bully and for the school environment. This study examined the types of secondary students who participated in school violence and their relation with other variables like quality of the teacher-student relationship, violence justification, and sexism. 750 adolescents of secondary school students from Madrid participated in this study. The cluster analysis revealing the existence of three typologies of adolescents who involved in school violence: 1) victim, 2) bully, and 3) non-involved in school violence. The factorial ANOVA shows that "bully" are students who bully their pair and their teachers too, and the other hand "victim" adolescent have a strong identification with the feminine traditional stereotype. The results of this study reflect that the group in major risk to participated in violence school are the men, the students who identified with violence justification, sexism, racisms and the group in major risk to be victim, are the students who have more identification with femininity traditional sex role, then if we want to eradicated the school violence, we first eradicated the sexism, and racism.

TYPES D'ADOLESCENTS QUI PRENNENT PART AUX SITUATIONS DE VIOLENCE DANS LE CONTEXTE SCOLAIRE

RESUMÉ

L'école est un "microcosmos" de la société, dans lequel nous pouvons voir tous les types, niveaux et causes de l'agression. Aujourd'hui la violence à l'école est un problème social reconnu dans le domaine académique, la recherche psychologique et la société. L'étude de la violence à l'école nous a permis identifier les importants conséquences négatifs chez les victimes, les agresseurs et, en général, pour le climat scolaire. Notre objectif a été d'identifier les types d'adolescents qui participent aux situations de violence scolaire. Nous avons étudié aussi ses attitudes envers la diversité et la violence, ses stéréotypes de genre et la relation de ces adolescents avec ses éducateurs, L'échantillon de notre recherche a été composé de 757 lycéennes. L'analyse de cluster nous a montré trois types d'adolescents : 1) victime, 2) agresseur, 3) et non impliqué. Le type d'adolescent « agresseur » s'est impliqué dans des situations de violence scolaire envers paires et envers les éducateurs. Les hommes sont le groupe qui ont plus de risque d'être agresseurs dans le contexte scolaire. Par contre, les adolescents avec plus de risque d'être « victime » s'ont identifiés eux-mêmes plus fréquemment avec les croyances sexistes, racistes et justificatifs de la violence. Ce type d'adolescent "victime" s'est identifié plus avec le stéréotype féminin traditionnel.

TIPUL DE ATAȘAMENT – PREMISĂ IMPORTANTĂ PENTRU SUCESUL TERAPEUTIC

Florentina Voichița OROS, Valentina ANDREI

Direcția Generală de Asistență Socială și Protecția Copilului sector 2 București

cppcva.caroteni@gmail.com

REZUMAT

În practica curentă am remarcat sistematic o serie de factori predictori ai succesului terapeutic: atașamentul format în primul an de viață cu mama sau o cu altă persoană semnificativă pentru copil, antecedentele personale, vârsta la care a survenit abuzul, distanța în timp între momentul producerii traumei și începerea demersului terapeutic, caracteristicile mediului familial și atitudinea familiei față de procesul terapeutic.

Dintre factorii enumerați mai sus ne-am oprit asupra tipului de atașament și a relației dintre acesta și evoluția demersului terapeutic. Astfel, un atașament sigur conduce cu o probabilitate mai mare la un succes terapeutic în timp ce prezența unei tulburări de atașament ridică serioase rezerve asupra unui prognostic favorabil.

Studiul cuprinde o prezentare a tipurilor de atașament, implicațiile asupra relației terapeutice și patru prezentări de caz ale unor subiecți care i-am avut în terapie pentru prelucrarea traumei după ce au suferit o formă de abuz.

Lucrarea prezentată întărește concluziile cercetărilor deja clasice care stabilesc rolul legăturilor emoțional-afective din primul an de viață în dezvoltarea psihică ulterioară și în formarea unor mecanisme de coping eficiente.

LE TYPE D'ATTACHEMENT – UNE PRÉMISSE IMPORTANTE DU SUCCÈS THÉRAPEUTIQUE

RESUMÉ

Dans notre expérience de clinique, s'est fait systématiquement remarquer une série des facteurs prédisposants au succès thérapeutique: l'attachement qui se forme dans la première année de vie avec sa mère ou avec une autre personne qui occupe une place significative dans l'existence de l'enfant, les antécédents personnels, l'âge de l'enfant lorsque l'abuse s'est produit, le temps passé du moment que l'abuse s'est produit et le commencement de la démarche thérapeutique, les particularités du milieu familial et l'attitude de la famille face au processus thérapeutique.

Entre tous les facteurs mentionnés précédemment, c'est le type d'attachement et sa relation avec l'évolution de la démarche thérapeutique q'on veut développer dans notre étude. Alors, un attachement sécure conduit avec une plus grande probabilité à un succès thérapeutique tandis que la présence d'un trouble d'attachement enlève des sérieux doutes sur un pronostique favorable.

L'étude contient une présentation des types d'attachement, les implications sur la demarche thérapeutiques et quatre présentation de cas des sujets qui sont vennis en thérapie après avoir souffert une forme d'abuse.

Cet étude vient a renforcer les conclusions des epreuves déjà clasiques qui établissent le rôle des liaisons émotives et affectives du première année de vie en ce qui concerne le développement psychique ultérieure et la formation des mécanismes de coping efficients.

PSIHOLOGIA APLICATĂ VERSUS FENOMENUL TRANZIȚIEI

Ruxandra RĂȘCANU

Catedra de Psihologie, Facultatea de Psihologie și Științele Educației, Universitatea București

REZUMAT

Valuri de schimbări, modificări, mutații pe care le trăim, produc obligatoriu detronarea tradiționalului indiferent că el este receptat în plan cognitiv, emoțional ori al dezvoltării socio-culturale. Din acest motiv, psihologilor le revine extrem de dificila răspundere de a cunoaște și a aprofunda noile mutații în structura umană niciodată total elucidată, dar și de a oferi „unelte” performante capabile să surprindă dezvoltarea, achizițiile, dificultățile – noua morbiditate din școală, din economia de tranziție, din domeniul sănătății mentale pe diferite paliere de vârstă – la nivelul comunității sociale.

Scopul workshop-ului este de a oferi un ghid ilustrativ privind rolul și menirea psihologului în domeniul de referință ale psihologiei aplicate cu referire specială la: psihologia vârstelor, psihologia clinică, psihopatologie, psihologia socială și psihologia tranziției în România.

APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY VERSUS THE TRANSITION PHENOMENON

ABSTRACT

The plethora of changes, alterations and mutations we are undergoing at present have caused the traditional system of values to lose ground whether this is perceived at a cognitive, emotional or socio-cultural level.

For this reason, psychologists must take upon themselves the extremely difficult task of acquiring a thorough knowledge of the new mutations in the forever mysterious human nature and also of providing appropriate tools capable of accounting for the development, acquisition, difficulties – recent sense of morbidity in schools, in the economy of transition in the field of mental health related to various age groups – at the level of the social community.

The aim of the workshop is to serve as relevant guide to the role and importance of psychologists in the fields of applied psychology and specifically: developmental psychology, clinical psychology, psychopathology, social psychology and the transition psychology in Romania.

DISCRIMINATIONS RACIALES AU TRAVAIL ET ORIENTATION D'ACCLTURATION

Pascal TISSERANT¹, Paul Verlaine WAGNER² Shaha EL-GELEDI

¹ Maître de conférence, Université Paul Verlaine, Metz, France, ² Université Paul Verlaine, Metz, France
tisserant@univ-metz.fr

RESUMÉ

Les orientations d'acculturation d'un sujet sont liées à un certain nombre de caractéristiques, en particulier la propension à discriminer. Tisserant et al. (2005) ont montré, sur un échantillon composé de 407 étudiants, un lien entre le fait d'être en attente d'intégration ou de privilégier une orientation individualiste et le fait d'exprimer une volonté de lutter contre les discriminations. Dans cette communication, nous exposerons les résultats d'une étude en cours qui précise ce lien en comparant les réponses d'étudiants à celles de salariés de l'insertion professionnelle à partir de plusieurs situations de discriminations raciales au travail.

Environ 300 étudiants et salariés complètent les échelles d'acculturation de Bourhis et al. (1997) et répondent à trois scénarii évaluant la propension du sujet à discriminer. Le premier traduit une situation de discrimination indirecte liée au phénotype, le second est une forme d'ethnicisation des tâches et le dernier une discrimination liée au port du voile islamique. L'analyse portera principalement sur les corrélations entre les choix réalisés pour chaque scénario et l'évaluation des orientations d'acculturation. Les résultats permettront d'envisager la pertinence des programmes de lutte contre les discriminations au regard des politiques d'intégration.

RACIAL DISCRIMINATIONS AND ACCULTURATIONS ORIENTATIONS

ABSTRACT

Personals positions on acculturation's orientations are linked to quite a number of characteristics such as the propensity to discriminate. Though a sample of 407 students, Tisserant & al. (2005) showed a link between, someone waiting for integration - or preferring an individualist orientation - and someone expressing a will to fight discriminations. In this communication, we will introduce the results of a study which specifies this link by comparing the student's answers of to those of workers, in the field of job insertion, starting from several situations of racial discriminations at work.

About 300 students and workers were asked to fill out the acculturation scale (Bourhis & al., 1997) and to answer to three scenarios that evaluated their propensity to discriminate. The first one introduce a situation of indirect discrimination related to the phenotype, the second is a form of task "ethnicisation", and the last one shows discrimination linked to the Muslim headscarf. The analysis will mainly outline the correlations between the choices made for each scenario and the evaluation of acculturation orientations. The results will enable us to consider the relevance of the programmes against discriminations as compared to policies for integration.

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MEMBERS AΨB, PSYCHOLOGUES DU PAYS ET EXTERIEUR,
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 psychologue **CHIOREAN ANA MARIA, (B)**
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 org. ext. **CIRȚ STELIAN, (O)**
 psychologue assist. **CIUCUR DANIEL, (O), (TM)**
 org. **CIUHANDU GHEORGHE, (C), (TM)**
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 psychologue **COCOȘ LUSAPER MIHAELA, (C), (B)**
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 psychologue **CORDOȘ IOANA, (B)**
 psychologue **COTOȘMAN LIDIA, (O), (TM), AΨB**
 psychologue **COTOȘMAN MARIA, (O), (TM), AΨB**



Timișoara, 30 mai - 3 iunie

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 psychologue pr. **DIACONESCU OLIMPIA, (AR), AΨB**
 psychologue dr. **DIMITRIU ODETTE, (W) (B)**
 psychologue **DINU ALICE GEORGIANA, (B)**
 psychologue **DINU CRISTINA ELENA, (B)**
 psychologue **DINU IONUȚ CIPRIAN, (B)**
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 psychologue pr. **GHIRAN MARIETA, (CJ), AΨB**
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 trd. **KRISTON ANDREA, (TM)**
 etudiant en psychologie **LADARI EUGENIU, (O), (TM)**
 psychologue pr. **LAZĂR RODICA, (TM), AΨB**
 org. ext. **LĂZĂRESCU ILIE, (MH)**
 psychologue **LEGHEZEU JAMINA, (O), (C), (CS), AΨB**
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CIRCO Ionel, (AB)
DIAZ-AGUADO JALON María José (SPANIA)
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TABLE ALPHABETIQUE ALPHABETICAL INDEX

ABALAN François.....	1
ABDELLAOUI Sid.....	12, 26
AHMAD Salman S.	38, 606
ALBU Monica.....	46
ANDREI Valentina.....	617
ANISESCU Cristina	54
ANTALAG Sorin Remus.....	60
AUBRY Benjamin*	26
BOICI Gherghina.....	68
BRADEA Sorina.....	74
BRASSAI Laszlo.....	77
BRUMARU Alexandru Octavian*	523
CALDERON LÓPEZ Sonsoles*	616
CATRINA Maria L.	86
CERNICOVA Mariana	607
CHIȘ Dorina.....	94
CIRCO Ionel*.....	427
DA SILVA JUNIOR Nelson Aleixo.....	100, 117
DIAZ-AGUADO JALON María José*	616
DIMITRIU Odette	139
DROBOT Loredana	145
DROBOT Loredana	609
DUCHON Coralie	171
DUCHON Coralie	151, 229
EL-GELEDI Shaha*	619
ERDEI Ildikó	183
GANGLOFF Bernard	100, 117, 151, 171, 192, 208, 229, 250, 268, 303, 345, 453, 480
GERMAIN Raymonde*	12
GOZO Zeno.....	341
HARDY-MASSARD Sandrine	345
HOLDEVICI Irina	367, 610
IVANOFF Ivan Vasile	377
JACOB Charles*	608
JURCA Eugen	386
JURCĂU Nicolae.....	610
KERZIL Jennifer*	611
KURIANSKY Judy*	612
LAFFORET Caroline*	613
LAURINDO SOUZA Maria Jose*	100
LEGHEZEU Jamina	68
LIA FOOK Maria Joacineide*	117
LOUREL Marcel*	26


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LUCAS MOLINA Beatriz.....	394, 616
MAGERIU Florin-Gheorghe	414
MANEA Mirela*	614, 615
MANEA Traian	614, 615
MARCU Mirona Ioana	427, 523
MAYORAL Luisa*	250
MAZERA Mihaela Adela	68
MAZILESCU Alina.....	268, 453
MENDIAC Alina-Maria	473
MENDOZA GONZALEZ Brenda.....	616
OROS Florentina Voichița	617
PASQUIER Daniel.....	303, 480
PERSONNAZ Bernard*	12, 26
POPESCU Ofelia*	523
PULIDO VALERO Rosa.....	432, 490
RĂDUCAN Radu*	513
RĂDUCAN Ramona*	513
RĂȘCANU Ruxandra.....	427, 523, 618
ROMERO Maria del Carmen*	250
ROTARU Ileana.....	609
RUFINO DA SILVA Walmir*	100, 117
SCHUHFRIED Gernot	532, 546
SEOANE Gema Martín	432, 490
SILIȘTE Delia Maria.....	557
SIMACHE Daniela	563
SOLBES CANALES Irene	394, 611
TISSERANT Pascal	619
TODEA Gelu V	473, 571
ȚĂRAN Constantin*	589
ȚEPURLUI Petrișor	367
URSU – NEAMȚ Teodora Sonia	597
VULCU Radu.....	523
WAGNER Paul Verlaine*	619