DEŠIMTASIS TARPTAUTINIS SIMPOZIUMAS

„AKTUALŪS TYRIMAI PSICHOLOGIJOJE: TARPTAUTINĖ PATIRTIS“


Tarptautinio simpoziumo „Aktualūs tyrimai psichologijoje: tarptautinė patirtis“, įvykusio 2012 m. gruodžio 11 d. Kaune, Kearney ir Spearfish, pranešimų santraukos


THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN BODY IMAGE AND SEXUAL SATISFACTION IN OVERWEIGHT FEMALE STUDENTS

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Previous studies (Davidson, McCabe, 2005; Holt, Lyness, 2007) have shown that there is association between body image and sexual satisfaction in women. However, not all the studies have received the following results, for example Koch, Mansfield, Thurau, Carey, (2005) found that Among women who had sexual partners, correlations
revealed no significant relationship between perceptions of their own attractiveness and their current sexual satisfaction. Mixed results could be explained that authors didn’t pay attention that BMI may influence relationships between body image and sexual satisfaction (Koch, et al., 2005). Is known that women with higher BMI (body mass index) are less satisfied with their body image (Philips, de Man, 2010; Austin, Haines, Veugelers, 2009). For that reason it can be assumed that relations between body image and sexual satisfaction will be more concerned in a group with higher BMI female students. The aim of the study was to investigate the correlation between body image and sexual satisfaction in higher and lower BMI female students. The study involved 129 female students from VMU (Vytautas Magnus University) between the ages of 18 and 50. According to the BMI values 49.5% were underweight and normal, and 50.5% were overweight. To assess body image satisfaction, The Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire (Janda, 2001) was used. Appearance Evaluation, Appearance Orientation, Overweight Preoccupation, Self-Classified Weight and Body areas satisfaction were measured. Internal consistency coefficients for each domain were in acceptable range (Cronbach’s alpha 0.57-0.82). The Sexual Satisfaction Scale for woman (Meston, 2005) was used to assess sexual satisfaction (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.94). BMI was calculated using self reported height and weight measures. Assessments were performed based on the international (WHO) standards: < 18.5 kg/m2 underweight; 18.5-24.9 kg/m2 normal, 25.0-29.9 kg/m2 overweight; > 30.0 obese. In this study lower BMI group involves underweight and normal weight students, higher BMI group – overweight and obese. SPSS 17 was used for statistical analysis. To compare differences between two independent groups The Mann-Whitney U Test was used.

Relationships between body image and sexual satisfaction investigated in two groups: lower and higher BMI. The result of the study showed that significant differences between higher and lower sexual satisfaction was found only in higher BMI group, there was positive correlation between body image (Appearance Evaluation) and sexual satisfaction. No significant differences in lower BMI group was found.

This study reveals that women with higher BMI which are more satisfied with their body image shows greater sexual satisfaction, in lower BMI group significant relationships were not revealed. It could be explained by the fact that higher BMI women are more dissatisfied with their body, are more ashamed and it could affect their sexual satisfaction. On the other hand, good relationships with romantic partner, his support and related to that higher sexual satisfaction may help women better accept their body image and feel better.

**EARLY READING PROGRAMS EFFECTS ON PRESCHOOLERS**

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When children enter school parents strive to offer every possible advantage. Instructional research on preschool teaching methodology becomes an important issue since parents choose which preschool to enroll their child. Research by Cunningham
& Stanovich (1997) and Tani-Prado (2010) showed early reading ability was a strong predictor of cognitive ability and future reading ability.

Little Treasures Pre-K is an evidence-based curriculum created by McMillian McGraw-Hill (2011) designed to instruct reading literacy to Pre-Kindergarten students. Two preschools implemented Little Treasures, an evidence based curriculum for early reading while the control group has not implemented any curriculum for early reading. The participant’s age range was between 3 to 5 year old Caucasian from within a similar socioeconomic status group. Instrumentation used was the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Literacy Skills 6th Edition created by the University of Oregon (2011). The DIBELS probes testing initial sound fluency and letter naming fluency were administered during the first month prior to Little Treasures being implemented or not implemented in their classrooms and the last month of the school year.

A Two-way ANOVA with repeated measures was conducted and results showed there was significant interaction between Group (LT/NLT) and Test Time (pre/post) on ISF scores in 2011, F(1,47) = 5.879, p = 0.019, but not in 2012, F(1,43) = 2.145, p = 0.150. Interaction between Group (LT/NLT) and Test Time (pre/post) on LNF scores was NOT significant in 2011, F(1,47) = 0.475, p = 0.494, but was significant in 2012, F(1,43) = 4.403, p = 0.042. From this data we are unable to determine if the Little Treasures reading curriculum provided an advantage for LNF or ISF.

What remains to be seen is first, are there programs that do confer benefits for these early reading skills, and second, what implications does this have for research opportunities for early math and social skills instruction? Clearly as “race to the top” and other financial incentive programs become more important in meeting budgetary demands, it will be more important for schools to find cost efficient ways to meet the demand for high academic standards (The White House, 2009). More research is necessary to determine how best to teach our youngest learners and set the stage for academic success.

**FEMALE STUDENTS’ ATTITUDE TOWARDS SEXUAL ASSAULT: THE IMPACT OF INFORMATION ABOUT SEXUAL ASSAULT PRESENTATION PECULIARITIES**

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Female students are one of the most vulnerable groups of people of sexual assault. 15% female students report that they experience sexual assault during their study years and between 70% and 85% of sexual assaults are committed by assailants known to their victims. Sexual assaults can result in a wide range of negative psychological, social and physical consequences (post-traumatic stress, low self-esteem, symptoms of depression and anxiety). However, perception of rape victims is not homogeneous and depends on different individual and situational factors. Studies show that sexual assault evaluation depends on four factors: 1. Victim’s or rapist’s Alcohol use, 2. Relationship between the
rapist and the victim, 3. Words used to describe sexual assault, 4. Respondents’ gender. Even though foreign studies investigated the impact of these factors for sexual assault evaluation we lack knowledge how these factors affect the assessment of rape victims in Lithuania students’ sample. So the aim of the study was to evaluate the effect of the characteristics of a rapist and a victim on the sexual assault assessment of female students.

200 female students at VMU (age ranged from 18 to 27) participated in a quazi experiment using sexual assault scenarios of C. Wilkinson (8 versions). A sexual scenario is a cognitive schema that governs one’s interpretation of behavior in sexual situations. All scenarios contained an identical sexual assault situation. However, three characteristics were manipulated with: 1) the victim is acquainted / unacquainted with the rapist, 2) the victim is sober / under the influence of alcohol, 3) the sexual assault is defined with a term rape / unwanted sex. Five scales were used in order to measure respondents’ attitude towards victim’s and rapist’s behavior: Behavioral Blame, Character Blame, Victim Reporting, Punishment and Reporting (Cronbach’s alpha ranged from 0.67 to 0.88).

The results of the research show that victims of sexual assault are assessed unequally. Victims who have been acquainted with the rapist are blamed for the sexual assault more often than those who were not. Also the victims are blamed more often, if the sexual assault is termed as “unwanted sex”, and not “a rape”. However, the fact that the victim consumed /not consumed alcohol does not have a significant effect on her evaluation. Nonetheless, sexual assault victims are assessed as being more responsible for the sexual assault, when they know the rapist and the term “unwanted sex” is used, in comparison with the situation when the rapist is a stranger and the assault is defined as “a rape”. However, the used term does not have a more significant effect on the evaluation than the relation between the victim and the rapist. The latter is held more responsible and deserving of a stricter punishment, when the term “rape” is used, in comparison with the term “unwanted sex”, and this has a more significant effect than the victim’s relation with the rapist or the victim’s condition (consumed/ not consumed alcohol). In conclusion, respondents tend to report about sexual assault more often when the term “rape” is used, the rapist is unacquainted with the victim, and the victim is not under the influence of alcohol.

THE ANALYSIS OF THE TYPE A BEHAVIOR PATTERN INDIVIDUALS’ ACADEMIC, PERSONAL LIFE STRESS AND STRESSORS

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In modern society people faces various challenges and requirements, in the academic area also. People are encouraged to be successful, competitive, have to do many tasks and are always in a rush. One of the possible scientific definitions of such a modern
person who is characterized by competitive, hard-driving, impatient and hostile behavior and time-pressure is Type A behavior pattern (Karlberg, Krakau, Unden, 1998). Type A behavior pattern was established by cardiologists M. Friedman and R. Rosenman in the middle of the last century (Kunnanatt, 2011). Type A behavior is recognized as a risk factor for cardiovascular disease (Garrity, Kotchen, Mckean, Gurley, Mcfadden, 1990), hypertension (Al-Asadi, 2010), atherosclerosis (Razzini, Bianchi, Leo, Fortuna, Siracusano, Romeo, 2008). There is no unambiguous answer about the mechanism which relates Type A behaviour and health. One of the possible answers is that people having Type A behavior pattern faces stress more often and in the stressful situations they feel higher stress level (Slem, 1985; Jimenez, Navia-Osorio, Diaz, 2009) and have stronger physiological response to stressful situations (Kunnanatt, 2011), but the results are controversial.

The aim of this study is to investigate the relationship between students’ Type A behavior pattern and their academic, personal life stress and stressors.

37 male and 62 female students of Vytautas Magnus University took part in the recent study. Participants range in age from 18 to 25 years. Type A behavior of the students was measured using the Student Jenkins Activity Survey (SJAS) (Fischer, Corcoran, 1994). The questionnaire for the assessment of students’ academic, personal life stress and stressors was constructed and based on a background of scientific literature analysis (Alzaeem, Sulaiman, Wasif Gillani, 2010; Nicholl, Timmins, 2005; Verger, Combes, Kovess-Masfety, Choquet, Guagliardo, Rouillon, Peretti-Wattel, 2009) and consists of 30 scale questions.

The results of the study show that men with Type A behavior pattern feel more stress about stressors related to the learning, stressors related to the conflicts in the academic environment, lack of time for repetition and the competition in the academic environment then Type B behavior students. Men having Type A behavior pattern (tension factor) feel more stress about personal life stressors, stressors related to learning, stressors related to the conflicts in the academic environment and stressors related to public statements in the academic environment and feeling of incompetence. Men with Type A behavior pattern (responsibility factor) feel more stress about personal life stressors, stressors related to learning, stressors related to the conflicts in the academic environment. The results of the study also show that women with Type A behavior pattern feel more stress about personal life stressors, stressors related to learning, lack of time for repetition and the competition in the academic environment. Women having Type A behavior (tension factor) pattern feel more stress about personal life stressors, stressors related to learning, stressors related to the conflicts in the academic environment, lack of time for repetition and the competition in the academic environment. Women with Type A behavior (tendency to lead) pattern feel more stress about lack of time for repetition and the competition in the academic environment then Type B behavior students.

Summarizing, the results of the study show, that Type A behavior pattern is related with greater stress in both men and women groups.
OUTCOME OF SOLUTION-FOCUSED SELF-REFLECTION FOR STUDENTS’ PERSONAL GROWTH: COMPARISON TO COGNITIVE SELF-REFLECTION

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Methods based on self-reflection are widely used in different contexts related to psychological help, especially in the field of self-help. In the beginning of self-help era APA task forces on self-help therapies concluded that self-help methods offer tremendous potential to the public but stressed the necessity of outcome studies, because the untested methods can pose risks to the consumers (Rosen, 2004). Recent studies and meta-analyses repeatedly demonstrate the effectiveness of self-help methods and comparability to the outcomes of traditional psychotherapy. Researches show that self-reflection based on solution-focused approach, which emphasizes strengths and resources of a person as well as continual change, can be beneficial as a mean for self-help. Our previous research (Čepukienė, Pakrosnis, 2011) demonstrated the usefulness of solution-focused self-reflection method comparing to free observation and no intervention conditions in university students’ sample. However, the question of the specific effects of self-reflection methods based on different theoretical perspectives remains unanswered in the professional literature.

Thus, continuing the search for evidence of the effectiveness and specificity of the solution-focused self-reflection, in current study the outcomes of two self-reflection methods based on solution-focused and cognitive approaches are compared. The cognitive therapy approach was chosen for comparison as most extensively studied and empirically validated in the field of self-help. Besides, both approaches represent different perspectives towards the concept and the process of change. Generally speaking one is directed towards solution building, while the other – towards eliminating causes of the problem. The comparison of these two methods can provide some ideas about the role of theoretical perspective in the process and for the outcome of self-reflection.

The aim of current study was to evaluate the outcome of solution-focused self-reflection as compared to cognitive restructuring self-reflection and free observation in the sample of 356 psychology undergraduate students. The satisfaction with the main life areas, general life satisfaction and situation in the life area chosen by each participant for change were evaluated twice (with the period of 12 days between them) applying 10 point scales. The participants of both self-reflection groups were also asked for the feedback on the usefulness, difficulty and acceptability of the interventions.

Results revealed that both self-reflection groups did better on all applied measures comparing to free observation group with superiority of solution-focused self-reflection over cognitive restructuring self-reflection in regard to the assessments of subjective evaluation of the life area chosen by participants as well as evaluation of usefulness and acceptability of the intervention.
A COMPARISON OF ACCREDITATION STANDARDS FOR NASP, ISPA, AND LITHUANIA

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The purpose of this study is to compare the accreditation standards for the National Association of School Psychology (NASP), the International School Psychology Association (ISPA), and Lithuanian Accreditation Standards. The comparison was done to determine the overlap and uniqueness of each entity’s accreditation standards. A matrix composed of each entity’s standards was developed by the researcher using Microsoft excel spreadsheet. Within the excel spreadsheet, each of the standards were compared with the other entities. Accreditation standards that were similar were marked under the appropriate heading with an “X” and also the code of the corresponding entity’s standard was recorded. If the standards were not found to be similar the cells were marked with a “-“.
The coded excel spreadsheet was then analyzed using statistical analyses software developed by Archwamety, McFarland, and Beckman (2012). The data were analyzed to compute the percent of overlap between and among all three entities. The extent of overlap among all of the accreditation standards that were examined, NASP, ISPA, and Lithuania had an overlap of 33.52%, NASP and ISPA showed a 37.50% overlap, NASP and Lithuania indicated a 33.33% overlap, and ISPA and Lithuania had an overlap of 21.52% of their accreditation standards. Based on the overlap between NASP and Lithuania, it can be speculated that accreditation standards that are specific to a country are similar in their requirements. Furthermore, Lithuania had the highest number of unique standards, which brings up questions regarding the uniqueness of standards being attributed to regional or cultural differences. Overall, the results provided information pertaining to the similarities and uniqueness of the accreditation standards among all three entities and where exactly between these entities these similarities and differences were evident.

GENRE DIFFERENCES IN IRRATIONAL BELIEFS OF LITHUANIAN MARRIED PEOPLE

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Research in irrational beliefs about communication is increasing as an indicator of growing interest of physiological, psychological and social well-being. Scholars found that irrational beliefs significantly negatively affect person’s emotions, perception, behavior and adequate assessment of the situation. Therefore, it is thought that communication difficulties appear because of irrational beliefs about communication that people hold. The results of married couple communication
difficulties indicate that irrational beliefs are essential reason of the distress in marriage and higher expression of irrational beliefs in marriage is significantly related to the decrease of marital satisfaction (Oropesa, Gorman, 2000). Also, it is suggested that socio-demographical factors, especially gender and age are important in analysis of irrational beliefs expression. Research indicate that females more than males have irrational beliefs ‘disagreement is destructive’ and ‘mindreading is expected’ and males have increasingly expressed with sexual perfectionism related irrational belief than females (Stackert, Bursik, 2003). Some research of irrational beliefs and age indicate that that younger people have lower expression of irrational beliefs (Sarvestani, 2011). Additionally, we were also interested if irrational beliefs expression is related to participants’ education. So, the aim of this study was to investigate gender, age and education differences of irrational beliefs expression in married people sample.

A self-administered questionnaire was used in a cross-sectional study in a sample of 85 males (age raged from 22 to 53) and 85 females (age ranged from 20 to 47) who were married. The Lithuanian version of Relationship Beliefs Inventory was used in order to evaluate the expression of 5 irrational beliefs: ‘disagreement is destructive’, ‘sexual perfectionism’, ‘mindreading is expected’ and ‘partner cannot change and opposite sexes are totally different’. The internal validity in men group of 5 subscales and in women group of 3 subscales was high (Cronbach α ranged from 0.54 to 0.73). Separate questions of subscales ‘mindreading is expected’ and ‘partners cannot change’ were used in statistical analysis because of insufficient Cronbach α in women group (0.45; 0.42). Also, lie scale from Eysenck Personality Questionnaire was used to control possible impact of social desirability effect (Cronbach’s α 0.82 in men - and 0.84 in women group). Additionally, participants were asked to answer some questions about duration of marriage, number of marriage, age and education,

The results showed that participants’gender, but not age, is significantly related with expression of irrational beliefs about communication. It was found that males more than females have higher expression of two irrational beliefs – ‘sexual perfectionism’and ‘partner cannot change’. Irrational belief ‘mindreading is expected’ is more expressed in women than in men group. No significant gender differences were found in two other irrational beliefs. Both females and males with higher education have significantly lower expression of only one irrational belief ‘disagreement is destructive’.

This study has some limitations which need to be encountered. We studied an irrational beliefs expression of mostly first time married people. It would be important to study differences of irrational beliefs expression of those, who are married second and third time. Also, almost all participants in this study were younger than 40 years old. It could be value to study expression of irrational beliefs in older than 40 years married people group.
The following study examined the similarities and differences of many different ethical codes in school psychology and psychology, including the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) from 1974, 2000, and 2010 ethical codes, the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) 2010 ethical code, the European Federation Psychological Association (EFPA) 2005 ethical code, and the Lithuanian Psychological Association (LPA) 2005 ethical code. Different combinations of comparisons were examined. The first comparison was examined using the three NASP ethical codes (1974, 2000, 2010). Another comparison was made between the NASP 2010 ethical code and the ISPA 2010 ethical code, and was followed by the comparison which included the NASP 2010, ISPA 2010, and LPA 2005 ethical codes. The final comparison included the ISPA 2010, EFPA 2005, and LPA 2005 ethical codes. Ethical elements from each ethical code were organized in a data matrix and analyzed. Overlap among the groups of codes, as well as the representation of different roles and functions of school psychologists were analyzed. Overlap among the codes was calculated and a weighted ‘overall’ overlap was calculated using a formula created by Archwamety, McFarland, and Beckman (2012). The weighted ‘overall’ overlap among the three NASP ethical codes was 11.76%, while the ‘overall’ overlap between the NASP 2010 ethical code and the ISPA 2010 ethical code was 56.9%. The weighted ‘overall’ overlap between the NASP 2010, ISPA 2010, and LPA 2005 ethical codes was 28.8%. The weighted ‘overall’ overlap between the ISPA 2010, EFPA 2005, and LPA 2005 ethical codes was 14.1%. Ethical elements were categorized according to the role and function that they represented. Roles and functions for each ethical code comparison included direct intervention, indirect intervention, assessment, and research. In the first comparison, the NASP 2010 ethical code revealed a greater focus on the research role of school psychologists compared to the previous NASP ethical codes. Indirect intervention roles held less focus in the NASP 2010 ethical code compared to the previous ones. The most prevalent role reflected in the NASP 2010 and ISPA 2010 ethical codes was indirect intervention, while the least prevalent role reflected was research. In the third comparison, the NASP 2010, ISPA 2010, and LPA 2005 ethical codes revealed direct and indirect intervention as the most prevalent roles of school psychologists. Finally, the ISPA 2010, EFPA 2005, and LPA 2005 ethical codes together included direct and indirect intervention roles. The ISPA 2010 ethical code was mostly unique in the roles of research and assessment; only one element from both the EFPA and LPA ethical codes was categorized in the research role. The analysis of ethical codes, as well as the roles and functions of school psychologists that each element represents, reveals the similarities and differences of school psychology practice around the world. The results of the current study show that
the majority of the elements within the various ethical codes appear to be region or country specific. In order to build a true understanding of the globalization of school psychology, one must understand multiple levels of ethical principles as well as the scope of practice to which they align.