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INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON
**PSYCHOLOGY & INTEGRATED
DESIGN**



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Editor Speech of IC - BTI 2019

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Congratulations!

Edmond Hajrizi,

Rector of UBT and Chair of IC - BTI 2019

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The influence of the upbringing styles of parents on the risky behavior of students from the aspect of the consumption of psychoactive substances (drugs)

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Abstract.Introduction: Risky behavior is a serious public health problem in EU countries. Most of the illnesses in adolescents are the result of risky behaviors related to drug consumption. Problems that lead to the risk behavior may be required in the poor quality of family life and the inadequate way of upbringing.

Aim: To determine the role of upbringing styles of parents with the habits of consuming psychoactive substances (drugs).

Material and Methods: A study was conducted on a sample of 600 respondents, pupils from primary and secondary schools on the territory of the Polog region. The scale used to estimate the parents' upbringing styles- "Egna Minnen Baträffande Uppfostran" (EMBU) is applied, as well as the UHO (union of health organizations) survey questionnaire from the "Global Health Adolescent Survey". The statistical analysis of the data obtained from the research was made in the statistical program SPSS 17.0.

Results and discussion: The structure of the examinees consisted of 264 (44%) male and 336 (56%) female students. The ethnic structure of the students consisted of 300 Macedonian students and 300 Albanian students, 172 (28.67%) were the ninth grade students, 203 (33.83%) were first year high school students, and 225 (37.5%) were second year high school students. In this group of students, 28(4.67%) students use drugs, in fact the prevalence of drug consumption was 4.67%. With the increase in the value of the subscale "rejection" of the father for the unit score, the risk of developing risky behavior of children from the aspect of drug use increases by 6.3% (OR: 1,063, 95% CI 1,007 - 1,123). With the increase in the value of the subscale "overprotection" of the father for the unit score, the risk of developing risky behavior among children from the aspect of drug use increases by 8.9% (OR: 1,089, 95% CI 1.020 - 1.163).

Conclusion: The results of the studies have shown that upbringing styles of parents have a significant impact on the risky behavior of adolescents from the aspect of using marijuana drug.

Keywords: Upbringing styles, emotionally warm style, overprotective style, favoring style, rejection style, marijuana drugs.

Introduction

Research shows that the family is an institution that should provide institutional and spiritual support to overcome stress and crisis. As a consequence of the moral crisis of modern civilization, the rejection of traditional values and the institution of marriage follow, more and

more families are becoming a source of risk factors and responsible for the development of adolescent misbehavior. In such a world, one can practice, get natural access to money, (material values), opportunity, fun, in a word, hedonism. In these conditions, it is very difficult to maintain the stability and health of the family and its members(1-3)

The role and tasks of parents are to protect children from the negative impact of the consequences of impaired family function, which are most evident in adolescence.

With the absence of parental care, unhealthy and unpleasant family relationships, and poor and inadequate control, there are no conditions to build and mature a young and healthy person who is able to self-control behavior and respond to the challenges that life brings. The acceleration of the process of undesirable behavior of young people is influenced by liberal educational approaches that blur the boundaries between behaviors that are acceptable and unacceptable.

In many families, there are parents who are possessive and produce immature, frustrated, dissatisfied young people (4,5).

It is only in an atmosphere of acceptance by parents that adolescents can experiment with new roles and values to make important decisions and that way they become autonomous. In support of this understanding are the results of some research showing that preserving affective relationships with parents is in the function of protecting adolescents' sense of security and balance (6).

Educational styles

Educational styles are operationalized through the content of the Universal and International Questionnaire "Egna Minnen Baträffande Uppfostran" - (EMBU) which provides data on: emotional warmth and acceptance, excessive protection, rejection, inconsistency and favoritism(7)

An upbringing style of emotional warmth and acceptance is characteristic of parents who are emotionally warm to their children, full of approval, understanding, interest in the child, who give an explanation of the discipline they seek and who rarely use physical punishment.

The upbringing style of excessively protection is characterized by emotional attachment and dominance by parents, over-regulation of the child's behavior and excessive demands, by coercion and without respect for his or her developmental abilities.

Rejection is an educational style in which parents often display negative feelings, constant criticism of the child, make a number of demands, do not understand the motives for their behavior, do not respect children's needs, severely punish children, intimidate, humiliate and disparage and not paying enough attention.

Inconsistency in upbringing is present if parents behave differently from situation to situation, ie once they reward one type of behavior and the other time they do not respond or punish it. Such behavior of parents almost always causes neurotic disorders in children.

Favoritism is educational style in which parents manifest a favored attitude towards one of the children over the other children in the family. (Todorovic, 2005)(1)

Purpose of the labor: to determine the influence of educational styles of parents on students' risky behavior towards consumption of psychoactive substances (drugs).

Materials and Methods

For the purpose of this study, the following was applied: The scale designed to assess parenting styles - "Egna Minnen Baträffande Uppfostran" (EMBU). This Likertov-type scale consists of 64 items formulated in the form of claims with a four-member scale of choice. It was designed by Swedish researcher Perris and adapted by Arrindell. The adapted version used in this study contains 5 subscales: emotional warmth, rejection, protection, child favoritism, and inconsistency, as well as a questionnaire from the Global Adolescent Health Survey(8). It is a

standard questionnaire of the CZO and the CDC that contains 24 questions that included drinking alcohol. The questionnaire was designed to fit the age and sex of the respondents.

Statistical analysis:

Statistical analysis of the data obtained from the research was done in statistical programming SPSS 17.0. Categorical (attributable) variables are represented by absolute and relative numbers. Numerical (quantitative) variables are represented by averages, minimum values, maximum values, and standard deviation. The Student t-test was used to compare the odds of children smoking. Logistic regression analysis was used to determine educational styles significantly associated with developing a habit of consuming alcohol. Statistical significance was defined at the level of $p < 0.05$.

Results and discussion

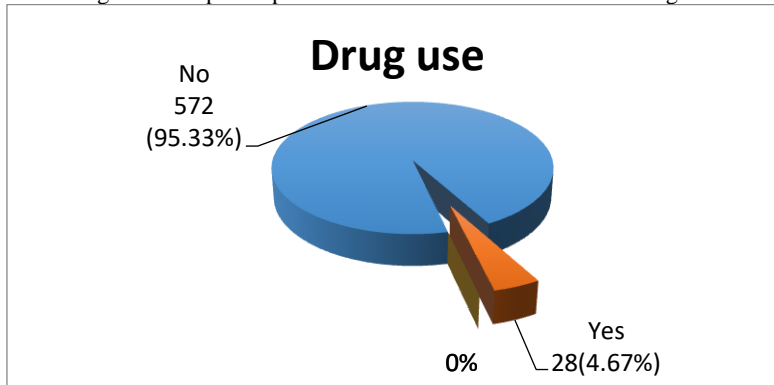
The survey involved 600 respondents, students from primary and secondary schools in the territory of the Polog region.

The gender structure of the respondents consisted of 264 (44%) male students, 336 (56%) female students.

The ethnic structure of the students consisted of 300 Macedonian students, 300 Albanian students, while in terms of grade level, 172 (28.67%) were from IX grade, 203 (33.83%) from I year high school, and 225 (37.5%) were secondary school students.

In this group of students, 28 (4.67%) students used marijuana, and the prevalence of drug use was 4.67%.

Figure 1. Graphic representation of children in relation to drug use



The analysis of the results of the influence of parents' educational styles on students' risky behaviors in terms of marijuana use, confirmed a significant influence on both parents' educational rejection style, the upbringing style of overprotection of both parents, and the upbringing of the mother's favor. These educational styles were significantly different evaluated from those children who used and did not use marijuana.

In the marijuana smoker group, compared to the group of children who responded that they had never taken marijuana, we found a significantly higher result for subclinical mothers' rejection (35.37 ± 11.1 vs 31.33 ± 6.2 ; $p = 0.0018$) and father (36.04 ± 10.6 vs 29.98 ± 6.4 ; $p = 0.000006$). This statistical result suggests the conclusion that rejection-dominated parenting style is significantly associated with the risky behavior of children analyzed through drug use.

Mothers and fathers of children who use drugs show a significantly higher level of rejection in parenting than both parents of children who have never tried drugs.

Excessive protection of the child by the mother and father has a significant influence on the child's development of risky behavior in terms of drug use ($p = 0.03$, $p = 0.00007$ respectively).

In the group of respondents who take drugs we recorded a significantly higher score for subclass overprotection for both parents, compared to the group of children who never took drugs (34.04 ± 7.3 vs. 30.99 ± 7.0 and 35.19 ± 5.6 vs. 29.62 ± 6.9 consequently), that is, mothers and fathers of children taking drugs show a significantly higher degree of overprotection in their upbringing.

For $p = 0.018$, a significantly higher score was found for subclass mother favoring in the group of children taking drugs, compared with the group of children not using drugs (9.0 ± 4.4 vs 7.60 ± 2.9). This statistical result suggests that the mother's upbringing style dominated by selectivity in behavior towards children is significantly associated with risky behavior analyzed through drug use. Mothers of drug-taking

children show a significantly higher level of favoritism in parenting than children of parents who have stated that they have never taken drugs.

No significant association was found between students' risky behavior in terms of marijuana use with both parents' educational style inconsistency, both parents' educational style emotional warmth, and their father's educational style of favoritism. (Table 1, Chart 1, 1a, 1b)

Table 1. EMBU Drug Use Scale

Variable	Drugs	n	MOTHER mean±SD	p value	n	FATHER mean±SD	p value
Inconsistency	No	56	10.36 ± 2.8	0.98 ns	563	10.44 ± 2.7	0.76 ns
	Yes	27	10.37 ± 3.7		26	10.61 ± 4.5	
Emotional warmth	No	56	51.36 ± 9.0	0.08 ns	565	50.82 ± 9.1	0.17 ns
	Yes	27	48.30 ± 8.9		26	48.31 ± 8.8	
Rejection	No	56	31.33 ± 6.2	0.0018 sig	565	29.98 ± 6.4	0.000006 sig
	Yes	27	35.37 ± 11.1		26	36.04 ± 10.6	
Overprotection	No	56	30.99 ± 7.0	0.03 sig	565	29.62 ± 6.9	0.00007 sig
	Yes	27	34.04 ± 7.3		26	35.19 ± 5.6	
Favoring	No	56	7.60 ± 2.9	0.018 sig	565	7.73 ± 3.1	0.075 ns
	Yes	27	9.0 ± 4.4		26	8.85 ± 2.9	

p(Student t-test)

Chart 1. The subscales drug rejection

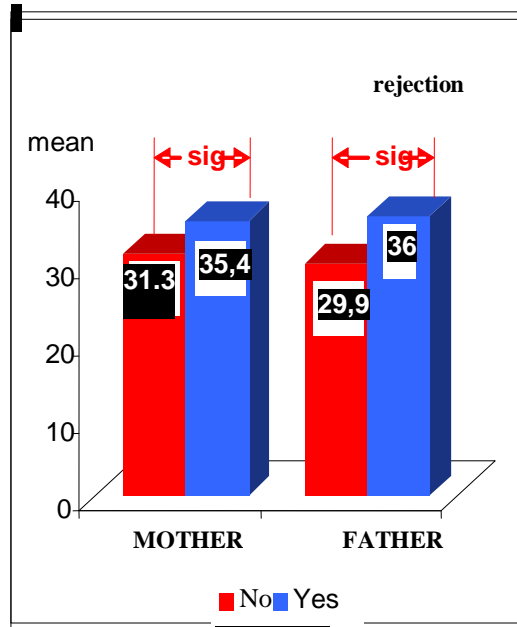


Chart 1a. The subscales overprotection of drug use

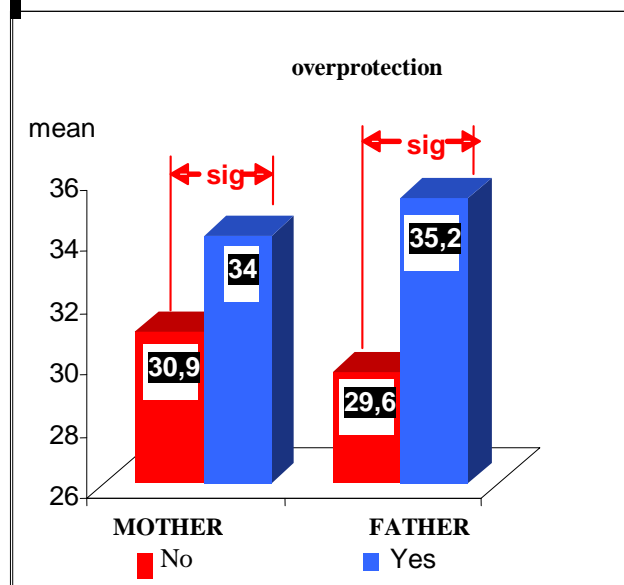


Figure. 1b. Subscales favoring drug use

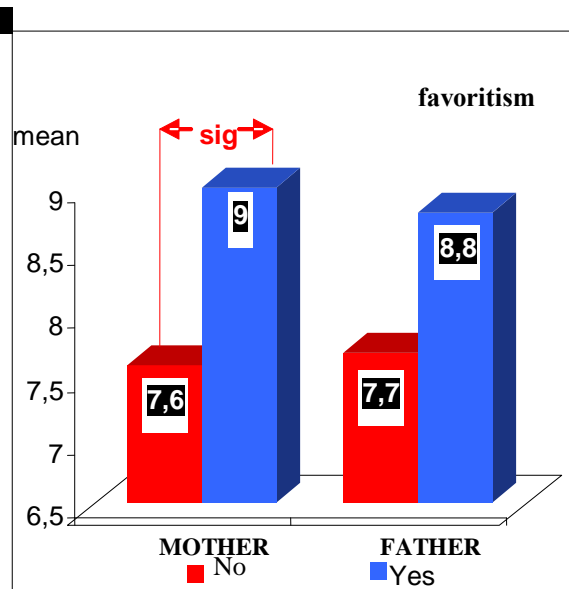


Table 2, graph 2, shows the average scores for the 5 analyzed subscales of the EMBU scale, with students taking marijuana depending on their gender. Statistical analysis confirmed a significant difference in the scores of subscales rejection of the mother between male and female students taking EGR Spiritus ($p = 0.037$). Female students who reported using marijuana evaluated the educational style of rejecting a mother with a significantly higher score than male students taking marijuana (44.6 ± 11.0 vs 33.27 ± 10.2).

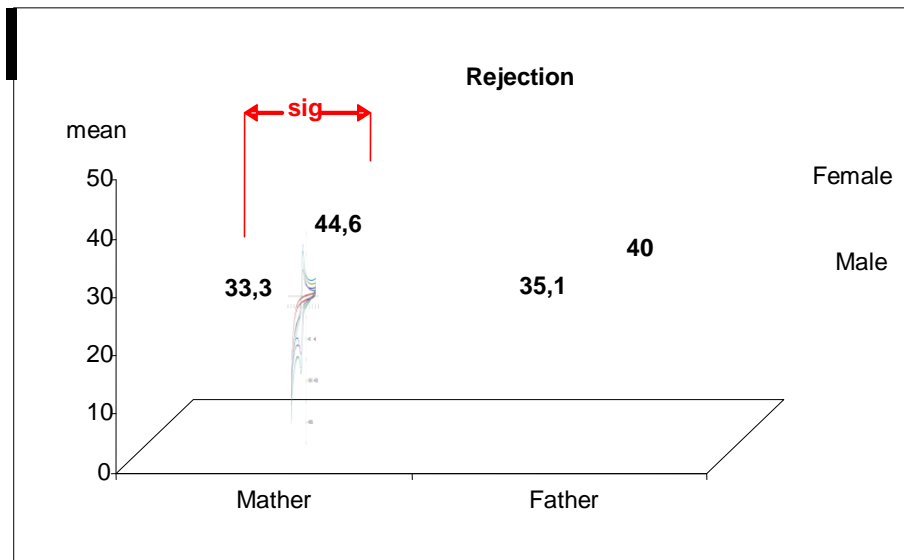
Mothers of female students who use drugs show in education a significantly higher level of educational style rejection than mothers of male students who reported using drugs. The study showed a significant association of risky behavior in terms of marijuana upbringing with the mother's upbringing style, taking into account the sex of the students. In this analysis, other educational styles did not have a significant impact. (Table 2, Chart 2)

Tabel 2. EMBU scale in relation to the sex of children who use drugs

Variable	Drugs	sex	n	MOTHER mean±SD	p value	n	FATHER mean±SD	p value
Inconsistency	Yes	male	22	9.82±3.4	0.1 ns	21	10.71±3.9	0.82 ns
		female	5	12.80±3.9		5	10.2±7.0	

Emotional warmth	Yes	male	22	48.82±9.8	0.54 ns	21	49.33±9.2	0.23 ns
		female	5	46.0±3.4		5	44.0±5.8	
Rejection	Yes	male	22	33.27±10.2	0.037 sig	21	35.05±9.3	0.34 ns
		female	5	44.6±11.0		5	40.0±15.6	
Overprotection	Yes	male	22	32.77±7.5	0.057 ns	21	34.38±5.9	0.13 ns
		female	5	39.6±1.9		5	38.6±2.1	
Favoring	Yes	male	22	9.09±4.1	0.83 ns	21	8.67±2.8	0.53 ns
		female	5	8.60±6.2		5	9.60±3.5	

Chart 2. subclass rejection depending on the sex of the children who use drugs



The results of the analyzed correlation between parenting styles with answers to the question "How many times have you used marijuana in your life?" confirmed a significant correlation between the answers: never once, 1 or 2 times, 3 to 9 times, 10 or more times with the educational style with the mother's emotional warmth ($p = 0.045$), with the educational style of

rejection of both parents ($p = 0.026$, $p = 0.001$ consequently), with the educational style overprotection of both parents ($p = 0.037$, $p = 0.000033$ consequently), and upbringing favoring the father ($p = 0.032$).

The Spearman coefficient value for the correlation between the answers to the question and the mother's subscale emotional warm-up score of $R = -0.082$ indicates that these correlations are negative, ie indirect, meaning that students who repeatedly consumed marijuana rated their educational style the mother's emotional warmth with a lower score, and vice versa.

The Spearman coefficient values for the correlation between the answers to the question and the mother's subclass rejection score of $R = 0.09$ and the father's subclass rejection score of $R = 0.131$ indicate that these correlations are positive, ie, direct; students who took marijuana multiple times in life rated the parenting style of rejecting both parents with higher scores, and vice versa.

The Spearman coefficient values for the correlation between the answers to the question and the mother's subclass overprotection score of $R = 0.085$ and the father's subclass overprotection score of $R = 0.17$ indicate that these correlations are positive, ie, direct; students who took marijuana multiple times in life rated the parenting style of overprotection of both parents with higher scores, and vice versa.

The Spearman's coefficient value for the correlation between the answers to the question and the father's subclass favoritism score of $R = 0.088$ indicates that these correlations are negative, ie indirect, meaning that students who have taken marijuana multiple times in life have rated the educational style as favorable father with higher score, and vice versa. (Table 3)

Table 3

Correlation	Spearman R	t-test	p-level
How many times have you used drugs? / Inconsistency with Mother	0.0051	t=0.124	p=0.901 ns
How many times have you used drugs? / Inconsistency with the Father	0.016	t=0.389	p=0.697 ns
How many times have you used drugs? / Emotional warmth in Mother	-0.082	t=2.009	p=0.045 sig
How many times have you used drugs? / Emotional warmth to the Father	-0.073	t=1.772	p=0.077 ns
How many times have you used drugs? / Rejection at Mother	0.091	t=2.224	p=0.026 sig
How many times have you used drugs? / Rejection at the Father	0.131	t=3.220	p=0.0013 sig
How many times have you used drugs? / Mother's overprotection	0.085	t=2.085	p=0.037 sig
How many times have you used drugs? / Father's overprotection	0.169	t=4.183	p=0.00003 sig
How many times have you used drugs? / Favoring the mother	0.074	t=1.819	p=0.069 ns
How many times have you used drugs? / Favoring the Father	0.088	t=2.149	p=0.032 sig

Traditional and new knowledge of the available literature on the relationship between risky behaviors of young people in the field of toxicomania (tobacco, alcohol, opiates) and family

socialization suggests strong links between risk behavior and many different aspects of family socialization(10-12).

The results of the survey responded to the stated goal. Depending on whether the student has tried marijuana or not, there are five types of educational styles: Generally those who tried marijuana perceived a higher degree of rejection and overprotection in both parents. There is also a higher degree of favoritism, but it only applies to the perception of the mother's upbringing.

There are no differences in the upbringing styles of inconsistency and emotional warmth and acceptance. The data obtained reveal a generally low prevalence of opiate use (marijuana) in the sample surveyed, slightly less than one in twenty respondents. Gender distribution is highly inhomogeneous and biased towards the male sex, in approximately one female ratio of seven male juveniles. What is really surprising is the extremely high bias in the distribution of this vice in the direction of Albanian ethnicity, to a level that almost deserves exclusivity. The latter literally applies to the female part of the sample, where all four reported cases are from the Albanian ethnic community. In the male part of the sample, the situation is very similar (one Macedonian user to seven Albanians). Such data are completely divergent from national data from the ESPAD 2015 Survey), with very small differences between young people of different ethnicities in marijuana experiences. It is difficult to provide a qualified explanation for this discrepancy, especially in the context of the high degree of agreement in our data for those with ESPAD 2015 (9) on the prevalence of tobacco and alcohol use among young people.

In the light of the social status of drug addiction as an extremely undesirable form of risky behavior and a reliable indicator of social pathology, the indicator of the prevalence of juveniles who practically only tried marijuana (every second of those who claim to have tried marijuana have done it only once or twice)(13-15). Young people with deeper involvement (ten or more marijuana uses) in this vice have a symbolic number (just over 1 percent). The age of initiation in the opiate experience most commonly (in every second of those who tried) is 14-16 years, while early initiation (under 10 years) is extremely rare (3 respondents in total).

The confirmed association of certain parenting styles with children's at-risk behaviors suggests that the potential of systematically educating future generations of parents for quality upbringing of children in the family environment can be potentially a very useful tool in preventing unwanted behaviors in general, including risky behaviors, in the service of proper child development.

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The Role of Interviewer/Respondent Gender Dyads in Cellphone Interview Retention and Length

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Abstract. This article investigates the role of interviewer/respondent gender dyad in cellphone interview retention and length. Relying on a simple random sample of cellphone public opinion survey data of 1571 respondents collected in Albania in winter 2018-2019, we test a set of hypothesis arguing that, in cellphone public opinion surveys, female interviewers would yield better results

both in terms of advancing the interview toward the last question (interview retention), and having it conducted in shorter time (interview length). By complementing social distance theory and social desirability theory with genders differences in personality traits, we hope to contribute with models potentially stable and generalizable across different cultural and political settings. We found that, indeed, in cellphone surveys the female-female dyad would predict better interview results and the male-male dyad would predict the worst interview results, with the other gender combinations in between.

Keywords: cellphone survey, random digit dialing, interviewer-respondent dyad effect, interview retention, interview length

Introduction

How does cellphone interview/respondent gender dyad affect interview's retention and time length? Most of the existing literature on survey non-sampling bias focuses on the role of interviewer/respondent gender dyads in quality of sensitive topic answers (Johnson & Moore, 1993; Lipps & Lutz, 2016). Research on the role of interviewer's gender in harvesting reliable questions on sexual life and habits, pornography, marriage as well as fertility and family planning has offered mixed results, with contextual and cultural factors strongly affecting differing results (Johnson & Moore, 1993; Becker, Feyisetan, & Makinwa-Adebusoye, 1995; Liu

& Stainback, 2013). By the same token, research focused on political questions has failed to find statistically significant or consistent effects on the interaction between the interviewer and respondent gender (Kane & Macaulay, 1993; Huddy et al., 1997; Flores-Macias & Lawson, 2008).

Scholars have paid less attention to the role of interviewer/respondent gender dyad in interview retention and time length in computer assisted telephone interviews (CATI) (Gibson et al., 2017). Yet the cost and time efficiency benefits of telephone interviews as well as their ability to reach out to a larger pool of respondents (Anie et al. 1996; Aziz & Kenford, 2004), to improve response accuracy by reducing social desirability, to provide greater anonymity (Babor, Brown, & Delboca, 1990; Schwarz et al., 1991), and to minimize interferences from other household members (Anie et al., 1996) make telephone surveys powerful tools for survey data collection. In the face-to-face household surveys, female interviewers are simply assumed to be better interviewers because, being considered as less threatening than men, they are more

likely to gain access into a respondent's home. The lack of personal contacts between the interviewer and respondent in telephone surveys has mitigated respondent reluctance to participate, and has encouraged more males in interviewing roles (Huddy et al., 1997). The existing literature suggests a more pronounced gender effect in telephone interviews compared to face-to-face interviews due to the lack of additional information about an interviewer's socioeconomic status, physical attractiveness, personal demeanor, or other cues that might influence face-to-face survey responses (Ballou, 1990; Groves & Fultz, 1985). Other authors suggest no differences in interview length between male and female interviewers (Groves & Fultz, 1985). Rapid survey technological developments and the limited state of research about determinants and correlates of their length and accuracy present the need and opportunity to further probe into such important aspects of telephone surveys. The gender effect on CATI, both in terms of response accuracy and interview length is one of the most important questions to answer. Responses to such concerns would help to improve retention and length of telephone surveys, which suffer lower percentage of interview completion than face-to-face interviews (Nelson et al., 2003; O'Toole, Sinclair, & Leder, 2008).

Moreover, landline telephone interviews have been recently challenged by the rise of cellphone surveys (Brick et al., 2007; Ekman & Litton, 2007; Vehovar et al., 2010). The global increase of mobile phone ownership and access as well as CATI applications through cellphone technologies represents an opportunity to collect low cost survey data in low and middle income countries through mobile phone surveys (MPS) (Gibson et al., 2017; Ghandour, El Hayek, & Mehio Sibai, 2019). Cellphone proliferation worldwide, along its diminishing costs and technological barriers is making MPS an inevitable mode for collecting data (Vicente, Marques, & Reis, 2017). Yet, country idiosyncrasies in mobile technology and service as well as cultural peculiarities call for contextualizing MPS feasibility according to each country's settings and circumstances (Ghandour, El Hayek, & Mehio Sibai, 2019). Because people use differently cellphones and landline telephones, researchers are realizing that existing landline telephone survey practices do not necessarily offer the same efficiency with cellphone surveys (Reimer, Roth, & Montgomery, 2012; Vicente, Marques, & Reis, 2017). Rather than an extension of landline telephone surveys, cellphone survey is emerging as a data collection category on its own, with a distinct methodological toolkit, often different from landline telephone surveys (Montgomery, et al., 2011). Therefore, the new survey opportunities opened up with mobile technology come with new challenges, and only recently have we begun to understand them, and assess their importance in improving our survey technology, methodology and skills accordingly.

We consider the cellphone random digit dialing (RDD) sampling in the Balkans to have several advantages compared to other sampling techniques. First, it allows for unbiased randomization in cases with complicated residential patterns caused by the close proximity of single-family and multi-family dwellings, as well as in cases where local norms, the family structure, or suspicion of state authority make difficult inviting strangers inside residences. Therefore, a household sampling method would create strong and systematic biases due to the difficulty of sorting out which family unit is the interviewer exactly sorting out, given that more than one of such reside under the same roof (Peshkopia & Voss, 2016). Second, unlike in the United States, in most European countries cellphone providers use a single, national code number, therefore freeing the sampling process from any need of survey stratification, thus facilitating the sampling of individual cellphone users. Third, cellphone sampling makes possible a better coverage of individuals from marginal groups, which are typically more difficult to reach through household sampling, in particular, "the highly elusive young adult cohort" (AAPOR Cell

Phone Task Force, 2010, 4). Fourth, the iziSurvey app is a survey tool designed specifically to enable cellphone RDD sampling. Fifth, since the Balkans and the Albanian cellphone space has not yet been invaded by phone marketers in the same way as in postindustrial societies, people continue to be receptive to calls from unknown numbers. Sixth, different from the United

States, European cellphone providers do not charge their clients for incoming services, so Albanian cellphone users do not incur any costs for incoming calls, making them more inclined to participate in cellphone surveys. Seventh, similar to other cases of RDD application, a RDD sampling project coordinator can always be in close proximity with the interviewers to assure their maximum performance, and provide clarifications and corrections as needed.

Notwithstanding, MPS carry the usual deficiency of landline telephone surveys, that is, significantly lower response rates than household surveys (Nelson et al., 2003; Schofield & Forrester-Knauss, 2017). Applying cellphone RDD sampling technique in Albania and Kosovo over the past several years, we have noticed that response rates continue to hover around low to mid-forties. This research is part of our efforts to improve MPS responsivity and time efficiency. Relying on MPS data collected in Albania in winter 2018-2019, we find that, indeed, interviewer/respondent gender dyad could predict interview retention and length, with Male/Female and Male/Male dyads predicting earlier interview breakoffs compared to the Female/Female dyad, but we found no effect differences of the Female/Male dyad compared to the Female/Female dyad. By the same token, our results show that, for completed interviews, the Female/Male, Male/Female and Male/Male gender dyads predict longer interviews compared to the Female/Female gender dyad.

Most of the theoretical explanations about interviewer gender's role in quality of responses and response rates have been framed either within the social distance theory or the social desirability theory (Landis, Sullivan, & Sheley, 1973; Davis et al., 2010; Lipps & Lutz, 2017). We argue that, while useful, those theories alone carry limitations in fully explaining the complexity of gender role in MPS. They cannot explain different interview results yielded by interviewer/respondent gender dyads which seem symmetrical from the vantage point of social distance and social desirability theories. Over the years, our findings show large discrepancies of interview retention and length between presumably symmetrically socially distanced and desired Female-Female and Male-Male interview/respondent gender dyads, as well as from the presumably symmetrically socially distanced and desired Female-Male and Male-Female dyads. We try to explain those discrepancies by expanding our theoretical framework to account for gender differences in personality traits that affect interpersonal relations, namely Extraversion and Agreeableness. We conclude with some suggestions for additional research to better understand the relationship between personality traits and social distance and social desirability theories. Also, we point to the need for more work to generalize our findings, and additional research to translate interview time efficiency into better response quality.

The Interpersonal Circumplex and the Role of Interviewer/Respondent Gender Dyad in MPS

According to the social distance theory, perceived social distance between interviewer and respondent in a public opinion survey affects non-sampling biases (Williams, 1964). According to this approach, under some circumstances, respondents' perceptions of what answers the interviewer expect from them could condition their answers to survey items (Fendrich et al., 1999). Although social distance remains a fuzzily defined concept, the intuitive application of social distance theory in survey research maintains that the more the respondents perceive discrepancies between their norms and those of the interviewers' the more they try to modify their responses to comply with those perceived norms. Originating as an effort to predict non-sampling biases across race, recent social distance literature has increasingly focused on the impact of gender differences on the survey response quality (Landis, Sullivan, & Sheley, 1973; Davis et al., 2010; Lipps & Lutz, 2017). Meanwhile, the social desirability theory argues that respondents might show social desirability bias in the form of answering questions in a way that they perceive as preferable to interviewers (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). In those cases,

respondents build those perceptions based on the interviewer's observable traits and possible additional cues given by the interviewer based on their opinions. This problem could appear more pronounced in developing countries, with more rigid social hierarchies and reigning traditional customs such as hospitality, where the local host is expected to please the interviewer "guest" (Himelein, 2015).

Although social distance theory could be useful in explaining interview retention respondents would tend to complete interviews if someone whom they feel closer conducts them gender might represent only one of the demographic features that could define social distance (Johnson et al., 2000). By the same token, social distance could help interview completion by overcoming response dilemmas and make respondent answer even if the latter would prefer not to, mostly encouraged by the perceived shorter social distance with the interviewer. An alternative argument would maintain that longer respondent-interviewer social distance might also lead to shorter interviews, and perceptions that they have less in common may lead to a more formal, standardized survey interview interaction, with decreased non-survey-question-and-answer conversation. Also, the social desirability theory could only partially help to explain the role of interviewer/respondent gender dyad in interview's retention and length: whereas higher social desirability could make the respondent continuing to respond questions even if the latter is not enjoying the process, up to what point social desirability could overcome other factors that would drive respondents toward a different behavior from the one expected under the social desirability theory?

Obviously, only those theories, on their own or combined, could not cover the entire possibility of outcomes regarding the retention and length of a MPS interview. Their major shortcomings rest with their presumed symmetry in the interviewer-respondent relationship. Under such a symmetry, Female-Female gender dyads would produce same interview outcomes in terms of efficiency and accuracy as Male-Male gender dyads, and Female-Male gender dyads would produce same interview outcomes in terms of efficiency and accuracy as Male-Female gender dyads. However, literature shows that this is seldom the case (Johnson & Moore, 1993; Johnson et al., 2000). For a more accurate explanation we should heed psychological discrepancies across genders. The study of personality could be particularly useful in examining those differences (Weisberg, DeYoung & Hirsh, 2011). The extent to which one displays certain degrees of specific traits serves as a measure of personality. Since personality tends to be stable over the years, those traits represent consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings motives, attitudes and behavior across situations (Fleeson & Gallagher, 2009). In other words, someone who scores high on a certain trait will exhibit behavior consistent with that trait more often and to a greater extent than those who score low on that trait (Weisberg, DeYoung, & Hirsh, 2011). Gender differences in personality traits represent personality patterns that more often and to a greater extent appear with one gender than with another, although significant gender differences can exist along with a high degree of trait overlap (Hyde, 2005). Developments in personality taxonomy seem to have converged to the five factor model or Big Five, which clusters traits into the five broad categories of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Neuroticism, and Openness/Intellect (Digman, 1990; John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008). Agreeableness includes traits relating to altruism, such as empathy and kindness. Agreeableness involves the tendency toward cooperation, maintenance of social harmony, and consideration of other people's concerns. Conscientiousness describes traits related to self-discipline, organization, and the control of impulses, and appears to reflect the ability to exert self-control in order to follow rules or maintain goal pursuit. Extraversion reflects sociability, assertiveness, and positive emotionality, all of which have been linked to sensitivity to rewards (Depue & Collins, 1999; DeYoung & Gray, 2009). Neuroticism describes the tendency to experience negative emotion in response to perceived threats and punishments, including anxiety, depression, anger, self-consciousness, and emotional lability. And finally, Openness/Intellect reflects imagination, creativity, intellectual curiosity, and appreciation of esthetic experiences. Broadly, Openness/Intellect reflect ability of and interest in attending to and processing complex stimuli.

Patterns found most frequently across cultures show that women consistently score higher than men on Agreeableness and related measures, such as tender-mindedness (Feingold, 1994; Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001). Also, women tend to score higher than men on some aspects of Conscientiousness, such as order, dutifulness, and self-discipline (Feingold, 1994; Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001). However, those differences are not consistent across cultures, and no significant gender differences have typically been found in Conscientiousness at the Big Five trait level (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001). Whereas there are little gender differences in the Extraversion domain (with women typically scoring higher), such a small effect size might represent gender differences in different direction at the aspect level: whereas women tend to score higher than men on Warmth, Gregariousness, and Positive Emotions, men tend to score higher than women on Assertiveness and Excitement Seeking (Feingold, 1994; Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001). Also, women tend to score higher than men on Neuroticism (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001). Moreover, women tend to score higher than men on other aspects not included into any of the Big Five traits, namely anxiety (Feingold, 1994) and low self-esteem (Kling et al., 1999). However, in one aspect of Neuroticism, Anger, or Angry Hostility, women do not always score higher than men (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001). And finally, no significant gender differences are usually found in Openness/Intellect, likely due to the divergent content of trait's aspects, where women have been found to score higher than men on the aspects of Esthetics and Feelings (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001), whereas men tend to score higher on the Ideas aspect (Feingold, 1994; Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001).

A combination of Extraversion with Agreeableness describes the two dimensions of the interpersonal circumplex (IPC) (Wiggins, 1979). Circumplex models represent terms of a systematic increasing and decreasing pattern of correlations among those trait indexes, and can be visually portrayed in terms of a circle where adjacent trait indexes are highly correlated and opposing trait indexes are inversely correlated (McCrae & Costa, 1989). Originally intended to describe interpersonal traits along axes of Love and Status/Dominance, the IPC can also be conceptualized as a rotation of Extraversion and Agreeableness (McCrae & Costa, 1989). Since Extraversion is an important component of the interpersonal domain, we can expect women to consistently score higher than men in that trait. However, men score higher in the pole of the IPC, namely Dominance, which contains aspects such as bossy, domineering, and assertive (Helgeson & Fritz, 1999). Gender differences in Extraversion may therefore switch directions according to which a specific trait falls closer or further from the dominance pole (Weisberg, DeYoung, & Hirsh, 2011).

Whereas the five-factor model offers a comprehensive view of personality, the IPC encapsulates only dispositions related to interpersonal interactions (Wiggins, 1979; McCrae & Costa, 1989). Therefore, the IPC corresponds only to a portion of the five-factor model (Weisberg, DeYoung, & Hirsh, 2011). Since it includes two out of the three personality traits where women and men significantly differ, IPC becomes a useful tool to gauge the interpersonal relationship between an interviewer and a respondent. Previous applications of the IPC model have used various aspects of Agreeableness and Extraversion. However, for the purpose of our research, Weisberg, DeYoung, and Hirsh's (2011) analysis of two aspects for each of the Big Five traits related to interpersonal relations, namely Agreeableness and Extraversion, would be a working model both because of its simplicity compared to other models and its symmetrical composition. Empirical work has shown that women score higher than men in both aspects of Agreeableness, Compassion, and Politeness, whereas in the two aspects of Extraversion, namely Enthusiasm, and Assertiveness, gender patterns diverge because women score higher than men in Enthusiasm which combines sociability and positive emotionality and men score higher in Assertiveness (Weisberg, DeYoung, & Hirsh, 2011). An alternative view could claim that, because Female Interviewer-Female Respondent dyads are likely to be more sociable because their social distance, they might result in longer interview because they talk longer than people involved in dyads with less in common. However,

interviewer training and pressure to perform would help Female Interviewer-Female Respondent dyads to increase interview retention and decrease interview time, while their agreeableness helps avoiding impressions of being rude and formal. Therefore, due to both higher scores in Agreeableness, shorter social distance and higher social desirability, we should expect that Hypothesis 1.1. The Female Interviewer/Female Respondent gender dyad would predict longest interview retention (more questions asked).

Hypothesis 1.2. Female Interviewer/Female Respondent gender dyad would predict highest interview time efficiency (shorter time interview).

Two other interview/respondent gender dyads are Female Interviewer/Male Respondent and Male Interviewer/Female Respondent. Gender-based personality differences and social distance are moderated among other factors by interviewer/respondent motivation differences for conducting the interview, as well as the interviewer training. However, it should be noted that those dyads are not symmetric: female respondents may tend to feel threatened by an unknown male interviewer more than male respondents would feel threatened by a female interviewer. Such an asymmetry is more pronounced in societies with traditional patriarchic structures still up and functioning, such as Albania (Lerch, 2013). Therefore, we expect that:

Hypothesis 2.1. The Female Interviewer/Male Respondent gender dyad would predict longer interview retention (more questions asked) than the Female Interviewer/Female Respondent gender dyad, but shorter interview retention (fewer questions asked) than the Male Interviewer/Female Respondent gender dyad.

Hypothesis 2.2. The Female Interviewer/Male Respondent gender dyad would predict lower interview time efficiency (longer interview time) than the Female Interviewer/Female Respondent gender dyad, but higher interview time efficiency (shorter interview time) than the Male Interviewer/Male Respondent gender dyad.

By the same token, the Male Interviewer/Male Respondent dyad is not negatively symmetrical with the Female Interviewer/Female Respondent dyad. Combined, the Male-Male dyad tends to suffer from the lowest levels of Agreeableness and Extraversion compared to the other dyads. However, this dyad has a closer social distance than the Female-Male and Male-Female dyads. But since the female interviewer manages to bridge the feeling of being threatened by a male respondent through motivation and training, and a female respondent has a free choice to interrupt a phone interview at any point without any consequences, we expect that:

Hypothesis 3.1. The Male Interviewer/Male Respondent gender dyad would predict longer interview retention (more questions asked) than the Female Interviewer/Male Respondent gender dyad, but shorter interview retention (fewer questions asked) than the Male Interviewer/Female Respondent gender dyad.

Hypothesis 3.2. The Male Interviewer/Male Respondent gender dyad would predict the lowest interview time efficiency (longest interview time) than any other gender dyad.

Data and Methods

We test our hypotheses with a simple random sample of public opinion data that we collected in Albania in winter 2018-2019 through the iziSurvey digital platform using the cellphone randomdigit dialing (RDD) technique, specifically developed to overcome telephone survey coverage bias in countries with uneven distribution of landline telephone service (Mohorko, de Leeuw, & Hox, 2013; Peshkopia et al., 2014). A team of well-trained interviewers conducted interviews on all the three major cellphone networks in the country, Vodafone, AMC, and Eagle, which combined for 100% of the country's cellphone users. In its 2018 Annual Report, the National Agency of Electronic and Postal Communication (AKEP) (2018) stated that the penetration of landline telephony in Albania was only 8.6%, almost seven times lower than

Southeastern Europe regional average (40%) and almost twice as low as the world average (15.2%), and even lower than developing country's average (10%). The number of cellphone users in Albania in 2018 was around 2.7 million (AKEP 2018), whereas the total population of the country on December 31, 2018 was 2.862.427 (INSTAT, 2019). Such a deep penetration of cellphone in the Albanian telecommunication market offers confidence that we reached a very good sampling frame. Our team of well-trained interviewers conducted the interviews on three major cellphone networks in the country, Vodafone, AMC and Eagle which combined for 100% of the country's cellphone market, 54%, 34% and 12% respectively (AKEP 2018).

Our survey asked respondents about their general socioeconomic conditions as well as attitudes and opinions toward mainstream political issues concerning the Albanian society. As a generic survey, it lacks controversial questions related to sexual, drug and/or criminal behavior, therefore providing a good testing set that minimizes interview breakoffs due to the socially tabooed topics, thus allowing a better observation of the effect of interviewer/respondent gender dyad on interview retention and length.

With interview retention we understand the interview progress toward the final question without being dropped by the respondent. Interview length represents the time in seconds for completing an interview. Our interviewers conducted RDD calls from a iziSurvey function that randomly selects a number within the number range of each cellphone network. About half of our call within the Vodafone Albania, about two third with AMC and about none tenth with Eagle Mobile met unassigned numbers. According to the Albanian cellphone usage habit, almost all those numbers that were not available at the moment either called us back or sent us text messages to call them back. We performed one callback only to those few numbers who did not contacted us back. We contacted 2863 individuals, and of those, only 1572 people accepted to participate, hence a 54.91% participation rate. From those who started the interview, only 1155 completed the interview to the very last question. Using one of the AAPOR (2016, 17) standard definitions for completed interviews, partially completed interviews and breakoff, we categorized as breakoffs interviews that equal 50% of the essential questions, which is our case is question 89; partially completed interviews rest between 50% and 99% of the essential questions (which in our case is between questions 89 and 157); and complete interviews equal 100% of the questions (158 questions asked). According to this definition, we reached a total completion rate of 40.34%, 61 partially complete interviews (3.88%); and 356 breakoffs (22.65%). It is obvious that those numbers are way higher than the usual 10%-20% response rate that RDD cellphone surveys achieve in the US (AAPOR Cell Phone Task Force, 2010).

We apply two dependent variables: (1) interview retention, which we measure as the number of the last question answered by the respondent before the breakoff, with 3 being the minimum value (the number of gender question), and 158 being its maximum value (a completed interview); (2) interview length as the amount of time spent in a complete interview, which we measure in seconds. Since both variables are interval variables that take many values, we treat them as continuous variables. Therefore, OLS regression analysis would be the best modeling strategy for our explanatory analysis. We also apply two control variables, respondent's age and education, which have been found to significantly affect the interviewer's perceived difficulty in conducting survey interviews (Vidovičová & Dosedel, 2018).

Analysis and discussion

We begin by describing the dependent variables. Table 1 includes summaries of the interview retention and interview length variables. Figures 1.1 and 1.2 offer visual representations of dependent variables' distributions. The clear data departure from normality warrants for possible heteroscedasticity. We address this issue in the analysis and discussion section.

Table 1. Summary of the dependent variables, interview retention and length

Dependent variables	Obs	Mean	SD	Med	Min	Max	Skew	Kurt	SE
Interview retention (# of questions completed)	1570	127.25	55.63	158	3	158	-1.38	0.06	1.4
Interview length (in seconds)	1571	1009.13	529.28	1067	5	3977	0.18	1.03	13.35

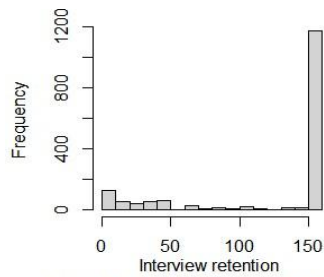


Figure 1.1. Interview retention distribution

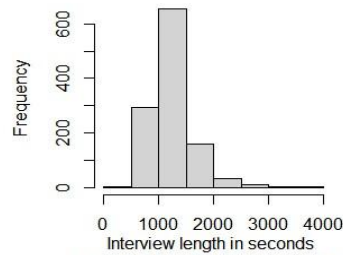


Figure 1.2. Interview length distribution

Figure 1. Value distribution for interview retention and interview length

Table 2. Dyad estimates for interview retention and length dyad estimates for interview retention

Gender dyads	Dyad estimates for interview retention					Dyad estimates for interview length				
	Mean	SE	df	Lower CL	Upper CL	Mean	SE	df	Lower CL	Upper CL
Fem.-Fem.	130	2.38	1566	125	135	976	22.6	1567	932	1021
Fem.-Male	129	2.06	1566	124	133	1027	19.6	1567	988	1065
Male-Fem.	117	4.99	1566	108	127	998	47.5	1567	905	1092
Male-Male	121	4.02	1566	112	129	1047	40.2	1567	986	1126

P-value adjustment: Tukey method for comparing a family of 4 estimates

Table 3. Predictive models of MPS interview retention

OLS models	MODEL 1A		MODEL 1B	
DV: Interview retention	Coefficients	<i>p</i>	Coefficients	<i>p</i>
Female/Female			Base category	
Female/Male	-1.439		-.045	
	<i>3.146</i>		<i>.047</i>	
Male/Female	-12.518	***	-.160	
	<i>5.526</i>		<i>.082</i>	
Male/Male	-9.211	**	-0.116	*
	<i>4.846</i>		<i>.072</i>	
Age			.003	***
			<i>.001</i>	
Education			.030	***
			<i>.005</i>	
Intercept	129.945	***	4.237	***
	<i>2.377</i>		<i>.106</i>	
Observations	1569		1531	
Multiple R^2	.005		.018	
Adjusted R^2	.003		.015	
Residual standard error	1.023		.805	
Degree of freedom	1566		1496	
<i>F</i> -Statistic	2.638		5.634	***

Note. Standard errors are in italics beneath β coefficients. Statistical significance is counted on the α -level = .1. *** for $p < .01$; ** for $p < 0.05$; * for $p < 0.1$

Male-Male dyads with the Female-Female dyad as a base category. The results show that the effect of the interview/respondent Female-Male dyad carries no statistical significance. On the other hand, the Male-Female and Male-Male dyads show β coefficient values and direction signs (-12.518 and -9.211, respectively) consistent with our hypotheses, and their effects are statistically significant at .05 and .1 α levels ($p < .024$ and $p < .058$, respectively). The lack of statistical significance for the Female-Male dyad, when contrasted with the Female-Female dyad does not allow support for Hypothesis 2.1, and allows only for partial support for Hypotheses 1.1 and 3.1). The model produced very small R^2 and adjusted R^2 , most likely due to the dependent variable's large variance.

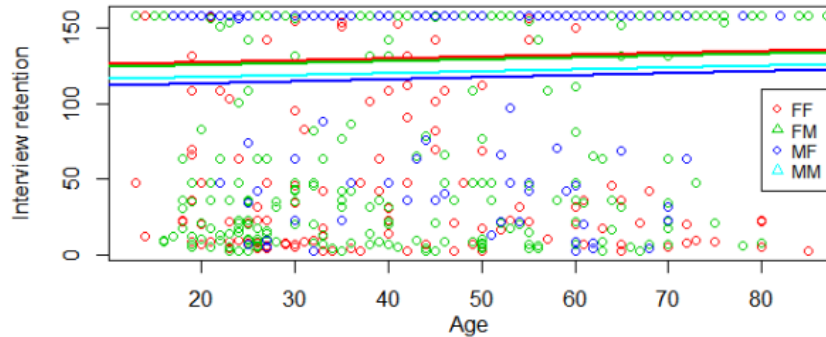


Figure 2.1. Effect of interviewer's age on interview retention by gender dyad

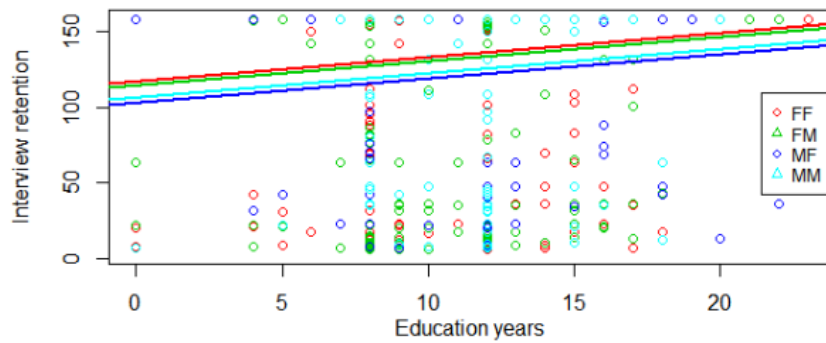


Figure 2.2. Effect of interviewer's education on interview retention by gender dyad

Figure 2. Visual presentation of age (Figure 2.1) and education (Figure 2.2) effects by gender dyad on interview retention

Model 1B replicates model 1A by adding two control variables, age and years of education. Controlling for those variables positively affect all the categories of the key explanatory variable, as their β coefficient values move toward the hypothesized direction, and produce a better fitted model than Model 1A (R^2 and adjusted R^2 significantly increase from .005 and .003 in Model 1A respectively, to .024 and .020 respectively). Those results further confirm the findings from Model 1A. We also replicated Model 1B both with the interaction variable between interviewer/respondent gender dyad and age, and with the interaction variable between interviewer/respondent gender dyad and years of education. However, the interaction variables did not show any statistical significance in any of the new models, and in both cases the effect of independent variable's categories did not show any statistical significance, so we are not displaying those results. Meanwhile, as Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2 show, the effect of both age and years of education (both positively correlated with the dependent variable) are the same for each of the interviewer/respondent gender dyads, which means that there is neither interaction nor effect modification between the gender dyads.

Table 4. Predictive models of MPS interview length OLS models MODEL 2A MODEL 2B

OLS models DV: Interview length	MODEL 2A		MODEL 2B	
	Coefficients	<i>P</i>	Coefficients	<i>P</i>
			Base category	
Female/Female				
Female/Male	69.92	***	68.863	***
	<i>25.30</i>		<i>23.625</i>	
Male/Female	101.12	**	103.664	**
	<i>44.38</i>		<i>44.137</i>	
Male/Male	150.42	***	149.870	***
	<i>38.63</i>		<i>38.225</i>	
Age			-1.034	
			<i>.643</i>	
Education			13.338	***
			<i>3.313</i>	
Intercept	1182.24	***	1068.783	***
	<i>17.95</i>		<i>55.017</i>	
Observations	1571		1564	
Multiple <i>R</i> ²	.017		0.037	
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	.014		0.033	
Residual standard error	365.3		360.1	
Degree of freedom	1151		1142	
F-Statistics	6.456	***	8.782	***

Note. Standard errors are in italics beneath coefficients. Statistical significance is counted on the α -level = .1. *** for $p < .01$; ** for $p < 0.05$; * for $p < 0.1$

Table 4 displays the two predictive models for interview length. Model 2A predicts interview length in seconds by interviewer/respondent gender dyad. Again, we applied the gender dyad variable as a factor variable, and we interpret the results in term of comparisons of Female-Male, Male-Female and Male-Male dyads with the Female-Female dyad as a base category. The results show that the interviewer/respondent Female-Male dyad strongly predicts longer interviews ($\beta = 69.92$, $p < .000$), hence longer interviews than the Female-Female dyad. Also, the effects of the Male-Female and Male-Male dyads strongly predict longer interviews ($\beta = 101.12$ and $\beta = 150.42$, respectively), thus our findings strongly support Hypotheses 1.2 and 2.2 ($p < 0.023$ and $p < .000$, respectively). However, with the multiple R^2 and the adjusted R^2 showing low values (.017 and .014, respectively), the model explains a very small portion of the dependent variable's variance, mostly due to this large variance.

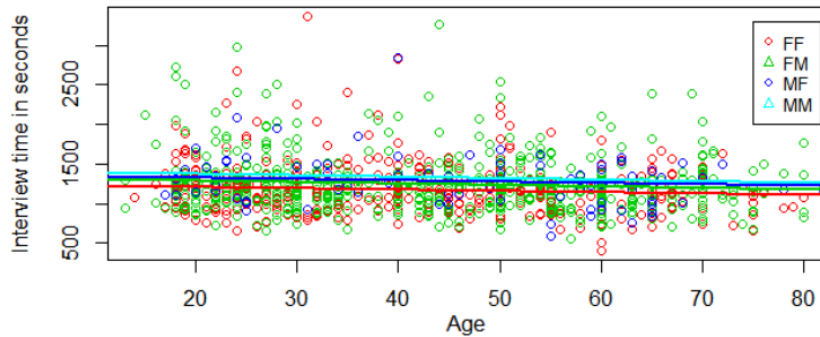


Figure 3.1. Effect of respondent's age on interview length by gender dyad

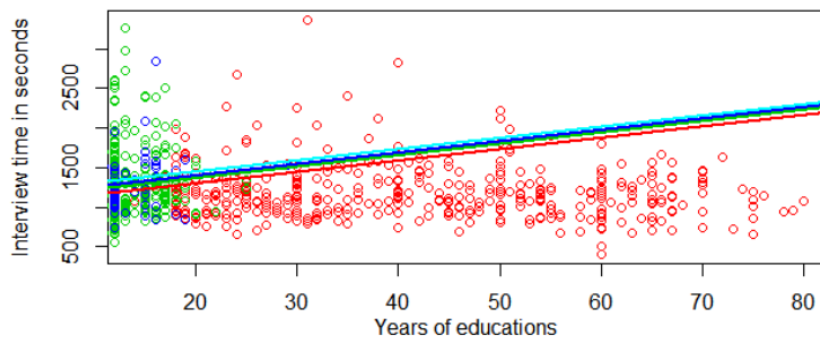


Figure 3.2. Effect of respondent's education on interview length by gender dyad

Figure 3. Age and education effects on interview length by gender dyad

Model 2B replicates Model 2A by adding two control variables, age and education. The addition of these variables does not impact the interviewer/respondent gender dyad's performance in any significant way, but helps to achieve a better model fit (multiple R² increases to .037 compared to .017 in Model 2A, and adjusted R² increases to .033 compared to .014 in Model 2A). Also, a look at the control variables' performance show that the effect of age did not carry any statistical significance at our predetermined α level, but years of education predict longer interviews ($F = 13.338, p < .000$). These findings increase our confidence in support of Hypotheses 1.2, 2.2 and 3.2. In addition, we also replicated Model 2B once with the interaction variable between interviewer/respondent gender dyad and age, and then with the interaction variable between interviewer/respondent gender dyad and years of education. In neither case did the interaction variable show any statistical significance, and in both cases the effect of independent variable's categories lost statistical significance. Again, Figures 3.1 and 3.2 show effects of age and years of education to be the same for each of the interviewer/respondent gender dyads, which means that there is no interaction or effect modification between each of the control variables (interviewer age and years of education) and key independent variables (interviewer/respondent gender dyad).

Table 5 displays dyads' estimated contrasts. As the results show, none of the contrast estimates carry any statistical significance. Therefore, in spite of statistically significant differences in interview retention and time length between the interviewer/respondent Female- Female dyad

and each of the other dyads, there is no evidence of any significant contrasts in survey performance in those two aspects between each of the dyads, just as graphs in Figures 2.1, 2.2, 3.1 and 3.2 show. As Figures 4.1 and 4.2 show, there is some overlap of confidence interval arrows between each of the marginal mean estimates, which confirms our decision of not rejecting the null hypothesis of contrast significance between each of the dyads both in interview retention and interview length.

Table 5. Dyad contrast estimates for interview retention and length

Contrasts	Dyad contrast estimates for interview retention					Dyad contrast estimates for interview length				
	Contr. estim.	SE	df	t-ratio	p	Contr. estim.	SE	df	t-ratio	p
FF-FM	1.44	3.15	1566	0.457	0.9682	-50.5	30.0	1567	-1.687	0.3311
FF-MF	12.52	5.53	1566	2.265	0.1067	-22.3	52.6	1567	-0.424	0.9744
FF-MM	9.21	4.85	1566	1.901	0.2281	-70.6	46.2	1567	-1.530	0.4195
FM-MF	11.08	5.40	1566	2.053	0.1693	28.2	51.4	1567	0.549	0.9468
FM-MM	7.77	5.70	1566	1.654	0.3487	-20.1	44.8	1567	-0.450	0.9697
MF-MM	-3.21	6.54	1566	-0.506	0.9577	-48.3	62.3	1567	-0.776	0.8751

P-value adjustment: Tukey method for comparing a family of 4 estimates

Models' goodness of fit

As histograms in Figures 1. and 1.2 show, our dependent variables are far from normally distributed. Whereas dependent variables' normal distribution is not an assumption for linear regression, homoscedasticity, which often associates data skewness, is. Therefore, we performed

a homoscedasticity test on Model 1A, and we acquired a chi-squared coefficient 1.606 for a p-value < 0.205 . Those findings do not suggest a rejection of test's H_0 (the uniformity of regression residuals). By the same token, presumably, adding more variables with statistically significant effects (such as age and years of education in Model 2A) only increases homoscedasticity, thus we can claim that Models 1A and 2A best fit our data.

On the other hand, the homoscedasticity test on Model 2A produced a chi-squared coefficient of 7.185 for a test p-value < 0.007 , sufficient to reject H_0 and accept H_a of model's

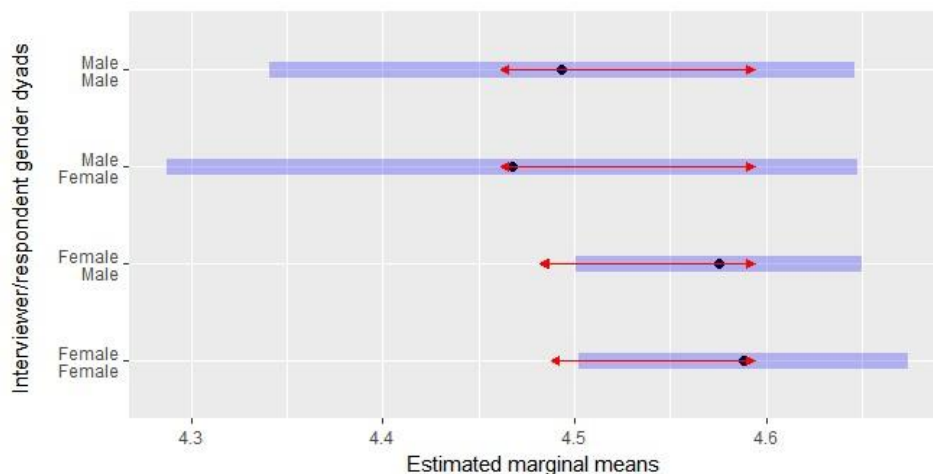


Figure 4.1. Dyad contrasts in interview retention

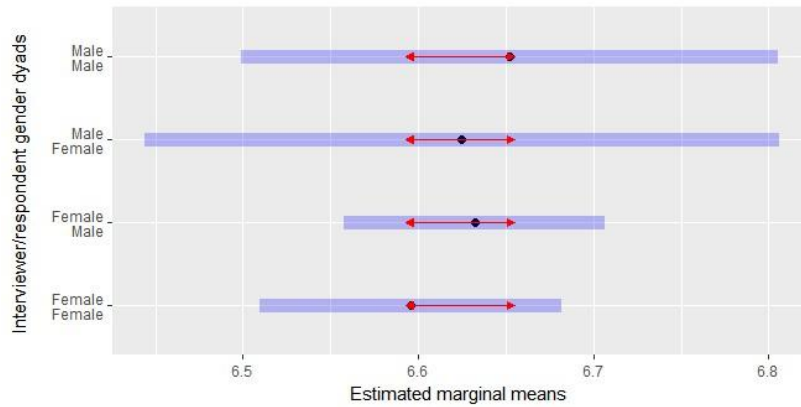


Figure 4.2. Dyad contrasts in interview time length

Figure 4. Dyad contrasts in interview retention (Figure 4.1) and time length (Figure 4.2)

heteroscedasticity at the 99.99 confidence level. By the same token, the homoscedasticity test for Model 2B produced a chi-squared coefficient of 11.61056 for a p -value < 0.001 , sufficient to reject H_0 and accept H_a of model's heteroscedasticity at the 99.99 confidence level.

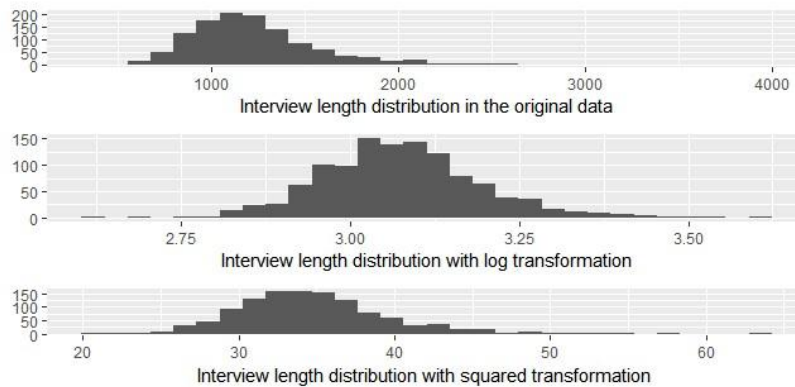


Figure 5. Interview length value distribution

Figure 5. Interview length value distribution

These test results suggest that Models 2A and 2B are not the best fits for the data, and that a data transformation would help to improve model accuracy. Figure 4 includes histograms of interview length value distribution in the original data as well as their log transformed and squared transformed distributions. As the graphs show, log transformation offers better results, hence our decision to run Models 3A and 3B with the log-transformed data.

Log-linear Models 3A and 3B in Table 6 replicate Models 2A and 2B. Compared to Model 2A, Model 3A offers a stronger statistical significance for the Male-Female dyad effect as well as slightly higher R2 and adjusted R2 statistics. By the same token, Model 3A offers a higher statistical significance for the Male-Male dyad, and now we also acquire some weak evidence

for age as a predictor of shorter interviews, as its effect's statistical significance now appears at the 90% confidence level. Also, Models 3A and 3B offer slightly higher R2 and adjusted R2 statistics. Overall, Models 3A and 3B are better models than Models 2A and 2B, but their results do not dramatically alter those of Models 2A and 2B.

Conclusions

The purpose of this research was to figure out the role of interviewer/respondent gender dyad on MPS interview retention and length. Combining social distance theory and social desirability theory frameworks with literature on gender differences across personality traits, we developed a series of hypotheses establishing expectations about interview retention and length under the four gender interviewer/respondent gender combinations. Our findings brought only partial support for our hypotheses related to the gender dyad effect on interview retention. The results showed that the Female-Female gender dyad represents the best chances of having MPS interviews advancing toward survey's last question, followed by the Male-Male and Male-Female dyads,

Table 6. Predictive models of MPS interview length with log transformed data

OLS models	MODEL 3A		MODEL 3B	
DV: Interview length	Coefficients	<i>p</i>	Coefficients	<i>p</i>
Female/Female			Base category	
Female/Male	.053	***	.052	***
	<i>.018</i>		<i>.017</i>	
Male/Female	.087	***	.089	***
	<i>.033</i>		<i>.033</i>	
Male/Male	.111	***	.110	***
	<i>.028</i>		<i>.028</i>	
Age			-.001	*
			<i>.000</i>	
Education			.011	***
			<i>.002</i>	
Intercept	7.049	***	6.953	***
	<i>.013</i>		<i>.041</i>	
Observations	1571		1564	
Multiple <i>R</i> ²	.018		.042	
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	.016		.038	
Residual standard error	.269		.266	
Degree of freedom	1151		1142	
F-Statistics	6.891	***	9.966	***

Note. Standard errors are in italics beneath coefficients. Statistical significance is counted on the α -level = .1. *** for $p < .01$; ** for $p < 0.05$; * for $p < 0.1$

but we could not find evidence of any effect of the Female-Male dyad on interview retention compared to the Female-Female dyad, as our hypothesis claimed. Moreover, our findings fully supported our hypothesized effect of Female-Female, Female-Male, Male-Female and Male-Male dyads on interview length. As expected, the Female-Female dyad tends to conduct the highest time efficient interviews (shorter interview time), followed by the Female-Male, Male-Female and Male-Male dyads, and the differences between the effect of each of the dyads and the base category were statistically significant.

Our findings confirm that even in the case of cellphone surveys, where the perceived cross-gender threat is remote and almost intangible, female interviewers tend to achieve better results

their male counterparts both in progressing with the questionnaire toward completion and conducting it faster. However, those findings need complementation by additional knowledge in two aspects. First, does this better time length performed by female interviewers translate also into a better response quality? And second, how much can those findings represent a more general pattern of interviewer/respondent gender dyad time efficiency. The extant literature that we reviewed suggest in favor of such a trend, but cultural and/or political idiosyncrasies might affect interview time efficiency in unpredictable ways.

We argued that an introduction of personality traits in hypothesizing the relationship between interviewer/respondent gender dyads would complement the social distance theory and the social desirability theory as theoretical tools to frame the argument. Our findings show that taking into account gender differences in two personality traits known to affect interpersonal relations complements the social distance and social desirability theories, since it helps to explain much of the asymmetrical results between Female-Female and Male-Male gender dyads as well as the Female-Male and Male-Female gender dyads. Alone, social distance and social desirability theories could not explain asymmetrical outcomes generated by such presumably symmetrical social relationships. However, in spite of the personality traits' stability across age and social context, we recognize that we need a deeper understanding, formalization and modulation of the relationship between the IPC on the one side and social distance and social desirability theories on the other. In this aspect, this article lays the ground for future discussion, but obviously, more research is needed to clarify this complex relationship.

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Data availability

The R dataset and codes in a MS Word document are as online supplement files hosted by SRM. Alternatively, please send an email to the principal author (ridvan.peshkopia@ubt-uni.net) to request all replication materials, including the dataset and dofile free of charge.

Software information

The random digit dialing (RDD) procedure and cellphone interviews were conducted on the iziSurvey app (iziSurvey.com), The statistical analysis was conducted on R.

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Importance of psychological support in pain management in terminal patients

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Abstract. Pain is unpleasant sensation, suffering or distress of the body or mind. This feeling impairs active life and and make you feel tired and tense. Pain often accompanies terminal patients affecting all aspects of life. In the cancer population, its prevalence is over 75% for those with advanced disease (Dahlia Rizk, 2017.). Techniques mainly used in Albania for pain management are those with medications, ranging from mild to severe such as morphine or other opiate family medications.

The purpose of this research is to investigate the services offered to terminal patients in Albania, in terms of pain management. The psychological approach to treating pain is lacking, affected not only by the mentality of the sick and their families, but also by the total (or few in number) lack of psychological services integrated into primary health care facilities.

Key words: pain, psychological counseling, terminal patients

Introduction

Cancer today is the second major cause of death in Albania. Most cancers are detected at a late stage to heal. But, fortunately, today there is the knowledge to prevent one third of all cancers, to cure one third of them and to reduce pain and suffering in most cancers. Currently, cancer is a major global problem. There are about 10 million new cases a year, of which over 7 million result in deaths. In the next 10 years, 84 million people will die of cancer unless measures are taken. It is estimated that by 2020 there will be 16 million new cancer cases per year and by 2050, today's incidence will double to 24 million new cancer cases per year [1]. In Albania, as in many other countries around the world, cancer is a growing problem that needs to be addressed with a Public Health approach. As the number of cancer victims increases, the health system faces the need to provide effective drugs and high technology equipments [1].

From 2012-2017 more than 3500 people have lost their lives by tumor diseases every year. Malignant diseases were the second leading cause of deaths in Albania in 2017, with a 2.1 percent increase over the previous year. But as the population is shrinking and aging as the number of births and immigration declines, the number of people dying from the disease is on the rise, especially at younger ages, according to INSTAT official data. In 2017, the number of people dying of tumor disease was 74 more than in 2016. INSTAT data processed by Monitor per 1000 habitant shows that in 2017 the prevalence of tumor deaths has increased for the 10-29 years old; 40-59 years old; while there were decreases for the age groups of 30-39 years and over 60 years [2]. According to statistics obtained from the Department of Oncology in the city of Durres, for 2018 and the first 6 months of 2019 the number of patients affected by the cancer is 2034, 1204 were followed with chemotherapy regimen and 830 in palliative regimen.

“Pain in cancer patients”

Palliative Care in Albania

Palliative care and screening for cancer pain relief are still some of the unresolved issues in Albania, as well as in other Eastern European public health systems. Patients' access to palliative care services and quality of life in advanced and terminal stages of the incurable disease is less than adequate.

Palliative care in Albania is relatively new. The first palliative care service for terminal cancer patients was created in 1993 by the Ryder Albania Association. The Albanian Palliative Care Association was established in 2002 as a union to develop palliative care in the country. There are currently several associations and only one palliative care public service providing service to terminal patients with cancer across the country. But these services cannot meet the high demands for palliative care. They can cover 34% of the needs and 66% of patients do not benefit from palliative care services. Meanwhile, there are no pain control units in public hospitals, or units with hospitalized patients in terminal cases of cancer. It should be noted that in our country palliative care is not yet a specialty or subspecialty in the field of medicine [1]. There are about 17,800 deaths per year in Albania. It can be estimated that about 60% of deaths in Albania (over 10,000) need palliative care and pain relief through the administration of an opioid analgesic such as morphine. With at least two family members caring for their terminally ill, it would become about 30,000 individuals a year, at least, whom would have their quality of life greatly improved if palliative care support was provided. The majority of people, 95%, die at home and this is preferred by both the sick and their family members. Thus, the way of death has not yet been institutionalized in Albania, which should be avoided through the strengthening of home services, better care in the future, and the strengthening of cultural and medical services. WHO recommends that pain relief and palliative care should be included in existing health care institutions, PHC services.

Based on the age structure in Albania it is estimated that there are over 4000 new cases of cancer per year. With the aging of the younger generation and the aging trend of the population, the incidence of cancer is expected to increase significantly in the future. A high number, over 2/3 of patients, are diagnosed at an advanced and incurable stage. So for most cancer sufferers, pain relief and palliative care is the most realistic and appropriate therapy to offer [1].

Approaches of Pain treatment

Management of chronic pain requires a multidisciplinary approach that is focused on combining physiotherapy with regular exercise psychosocial interventions and other alternative approaches. These are valuable techniques especially for cancer survivors. These approaches should not only relieve pain but improve the functioning of individuals affected by the disease. Since chronic pain can cause, besides physical sensation, anger, anxiety, lack of hope for improvement, there is a need to address not only physiological but also psychological and emotional aspects in the treatment of pain.

Although not every type of cancer is accompanied with a pain problem, where it is present it can appear in different shapes and intensities, depending on the type of disease, the localization of the affected mass, the stage of the disease and the individual sensitivity threshold.

Pharmacological Approach

Pain is a common problem in cancer survivors, especially in the first years after treatment. About 5% to 10% of survivors have severe chronic pain that interferes with function, and administration of this pain can be a challenging clinical problem. Severe opioids can be advised for survivors with moderate to severe pain, but most survivors do not seek them. In addition,

more than 40% of cancer survivors now live longer than 10 years, and there is no evidence of the safety and long-term effectiveness of chronic opioid therapy in this population. A "universal measures" approach to opioid abuse is recommended. Emphasis should be placed on non-opioid analgesics and non-pharmacological therapies in this population in order to restore functionality and ensure serenity. Oncologists and different service providers should have access to the most up-to-date education on chronic pain management among cancer survivors. They should also collaborate with or consult with pain management specialists when patients have survived this disease and have complex pain problems [3].

Pain relief can be provided by a number of medications, including:

- Aspirin - these medicines are used for bone pain and pain caused by inflammation (such as pleuritis). Some people suffer from stomach problems, such as digestion and bleeding, with this type of medication. Aspirin itself is generally avoided because it is very difficult in the stomach if taken regularly.
- Paracetamol - is important in controlling cancer pain. It is usually well tolerated, does not affect the stomach and does not dilute blood. It is useful to minimize fever and relieve bone pain, and is often used in conjunction with opiates.
- Opiates - such as codeine and morphine. Some of the side effects may include nausea, vomiting, drowsiness and constipation. There is no risk of addiction if taken for pain relief purposes. There are several new opiates in circulation, so those that are best suited to patients can usually be found. Many people worry about taking opiates because they are afraid of becoming addicted or think they have to wait until they get very ill before using these medications. The evidence shows that it is much better to find a suitable opiate and use it regularly from the time your pain becomes constant. This makes it easier to maintain activities and interests that are patient-centered.

In summary, the pharmacological treatment of pain according to Timothy J. Moinihan is through aspirin, acetaminophen, ibuprofen, weak opiates (codeine), strong opiates including morphine, oxycodone, methadone, fentanyl, among others. Steroids, antidepressants or nerve blockers (as a local anesthetic) can also be prescribed in the treatment of pain in terminal illnesses. [4].

Relaxation and pain management from cancer

Deep physical and mental relaxation reduces anxiety and can help a person cope with pain better. Some useful therapies may include: breathing and relaxation that can soothe the nervous system and manage stress; • Hypnotherapy may also help alleviate some of the side effects of cancer treatment, such as vomiting; Massage works by calming soft tissue and encouraging relaxation; • Meditation where regular meditation practice offers many long-term health benefits, such as reduced stress and blood pressure; Yoga is an ancient system of Indian behavior synchronized with the spirit.

Other techniques that may be helpful to relieve chronic pain include: Acupuncture - an ancient form of Chinese medicine involves the insertion and stimulation of fine needles at specific points of skin. There has been little research that has evaluated this technique for pain relief from cancer as well as Transcutaneous Electrical Nerve Stimulation Therapy (TENS) - an electrical current per minute passes through the skin through the electrodes, causing a pain-relieving response from the body.

Cognitive Behavioral Therapy

Behavioral cognitive therapy is the most commonly used therapy for the psychological treatment of sustained pain. This therapy involves several steps. The first step is pain education. Pain is described as a complex sensory and emotional experience, influenced by the patient's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. By discussing this topic, patients understand how their pain responses affect their pain experience and begin to recognize the role that their coping efforts

can play in controlling pain. The second step is training in one or more coping skills to manage pain (e.g., relaxation or problem solving). For each skill, a therapist provides rational reasoning, basic guidance and practice as well as guided feedback. The third step is to practice these skills learned at home.

Patients are initially encouraged to practice in non-demanding situations (e.g., resting in a quiet room) and then to apply their skills in more challenging tasks (e.g., managing pain that may occur during walking or while transferring from one position to another). The final step involves helping patients create a program for maintaining their abilities once this education process is completed and for overcoming obstacles and relapses in their coping efforts.

A recent systematic review of studies testing the efficacy of cognitive behavioral therapy for cancer pain revealed that, overall, this treatment significantly reduces pain [5].

Imagery and hypnosis based on cognitive behavioral therapy

This has been the most promising psychosocial intervention in the treatment of cancer pain. During this therapy the patient is taught self-directed imaging. The patient should focus on a pleasant or distracting scene to experience the scene's sensations such as sights, sounds, smells, and so on. When the patient develops this ability, they can distract attention from the pain. In Hypnosis based CBT, the therapist teaches these skills to the patient which help him to relax. This intervention showed significant reduction in pain in children with lumbar puncture and bone marrow biopsy [6] This therapy has been proven to be effective in reducing pain in women with metastatic breast cancer and in adults undergoing spinal cord transplantation. An RCT has demonstrated that imaging, relaxation, and CBT can reduce the pain of certain side effects of chemotherapy. [7] It has also been discovered that hypnosis itself is one of the techniques that can provide relief in cancer pain, and that relaxation and imaging can help with the pain of oral wounds caused by chemotherapy [8].

Behavioral pain education and abbreviated cognitive behavioral therapy

Guidelines for treating cancer pain include educating the patient and their family about the cancer throughout the treatment process. These guidelines are intended to provide the patient and caregivers with the necessary information regarding pain management, the types of pain medication prescribed, the type, cost, and effectiveness of pain treatment options. In a study of 174 cancer patients with pain due to bone metastases, pain education plus brief cognitive behavioral therapy provided a significant reduction in pain [9].

In a recent review just over 50% of studies testing pain education plus brief cognitive behavioral therapy showed positive results. Studies involving more intensive skill training showed the best results. Educational interventions have led to patients and resulted in their improvement, however the mechanisms by which these improvements occur are still unclear. Michael and other authors suggest the use of educational intervention with routine clinical practice in addition to optimal oncological and analgesic management [10].

A systematic review suggests that educational intervention can successfully improve cancer pain knowledge and attitudes of the healthcare professional, but does not have much impact on patients' pain level.

“Role of psychological support in treating pain in cancer patients”

Various psychological factors affect the assessment and treatment of pain in patients with cancer such as anxiety, depression, anger, and dementia complicate assessment by maximizing symptoms.

Ward and other colleagues studied how patients' attitudes toward pain and opiates create barriers to treatment. Fear of addiction, tolerance and other side effects were rated as the major concerns of the patients. Some patients claimed that the pain was unavoidable and that they did not expect that medication would alleviate this condition [11]. Patients linked pain to worsening illness. This affected reluctance to report pain or adaptation to the opiate treatment regimen.

Patients with cancer, who feel unhappy, worried, pessimistic, hopeless, anxious or angry over time, need the support of a psychologist or psychiatrist. Such psychological reactions can adversely affect the treatment process if left unchecked. Patients with cancer should avoid being in such situations themselves. The role of psychological support helps patients not to experience such conditions especially during treatment. Psychological support can improve patients' quality of life by removing their fears and concerns. In this way patients are better able to cope with their illness and better protected from major psychological disorders in the future.

The person diagnosed with cancer usually faces a number of difficult challenges. Treating cancer can be physically difficult, it generally destroys the social and professional lives of patients, and may even limit their ability to take care of themselves or live independently for some time. In addition to these physical and functional burdens, cancer patients often face fears of death or disability, and may be prone to feelings of isolation or depression.

Many patients show severe signs of mood, or depression, acute stress reactions at some point during their diagnosis and treatment. Taking in consideration the physical, economic, and psychological burdens experienced by cancer patients during treatment, this is probably a testament to the human resistance and quality of care and social support that patients receive that are most needed in these challenges and have a positive psychological outcome. Studies with cancer survivors show that most do not suffer from significant psychological distress, although they may be at higher risk for depression than people who are never affected by cancer [12].

Methodology

The study based on the survey method as a quantitative study, targeted 23 patients who were followed by the oncology service at the Durres Regional Hospital. Some of these patients for different issues and needs are followed by the Ryder Durres Center.

The questionnaire containing open-ended and closed-ended questions addressed three issues: Patients' knowledge of pain; Experience of pain at the time the study was undertaken and the techniques they used to reduce it; their perception of the role of psychological support in reducing pain and extent of its use by them or their family members.

During this study, ethical principles were adhered to by informing patients' families and patients themselves about the purpose of the study - respecting the timing of completing the survey and respecting their willingness to complete it. They were informed on how to use the secured data and respect their confidentiality.

Study limitations

During data processing did not consider whether patients had undergone any surgery, thereby excluding the role of psychological support in managing pain from surgery; weren't included patients who are followed up at home but only those hospitalized and under palliative care regime.

Study sample

The study involved 23 patients, 18 of whom were female and 5 male. Of these 21% belonged to the age group 26-30 years, 22% to the age group 35-40 years, 35% to the age group 45-50 years

and the rest to the age group above 50 years. Over 50% had over 3 years having discovered their illness mainly through a routine checkup and pain experienced. 78% were employed and the rest either unemployed or at retirement age.

Results

After communicating with the oncologists of the regional hospital of Durrës, patients follow a pharmacological regimen for the management of various pains - both short-term and long-term. Even their confidence is stronger in the effect of opioid-based medications.

Respondents stated that various techniques such as relaxation, massages and psychological support are not treatments that can be considered as appropriate to reduce the pain experienced by patients. They fully agree that when they feel spiritually depressed they experience more intense physical pain caused by the illness they carry.

They rated the importance of psychological support more for their family members or for treating moods than for managing pain. 96% of them did not attend any psychological service outside the hospital context - this was also influenced by the degree of trust created with the support staff of this institution.

Psychological support within the oncology department has been functioning for 5 years so far but patients are not voluntarily referred. It is family members who seek this service primarily for the treatment of serious psychological conditions - depression and anxiety experienced by patients.

This department, in a study conducted in 2017 on the moods experienced by cancer patients, concluded that anxiety states were reduced after treatment with therapy and that there was often confusion among patients between the consequences of chemotherapy and various psychological experiences.

Table 1. Respondents' responses to the methods used to relieve pain

	Never	Sometimes	Often
When I have physical pain I use medications prescribed by a doctor.	0	2%	98%
When I have physical pain I try to overcome it by thinking positively.	72%	18%	0
When I am not feeling well spiritually I feel more physical pain.			100%
When I have a lot of physical pain it may take more than the dose allowed by medication.		78%	12%
When I have pain, I go to the physiotherapist for some relief massage.	91%	9%	0
When I have pain I try to talk to someone		89%	11%

Conclusions

While in some international studies, patients appear to have perceptions of medical treatment of pain, concerns about communicating pain to medical staff, and beliefs about the inability to avoid and control pain, [9] in this study was found a tendency of terminal patients, to emphasize and express verbally, the pain experienced as a result of the disease.

The main approaches to pain management in our country to patients diagnosed with cancer are mainly pharmacological.

The existing psychological service makes the most of the technique of “Pain education and brief cognitive therapy” for patients who refer to this service. These techniques are also applied to patients' families who, according to the patients themselves, are affected "frequently" in 86% of the pain experienced by these ones.

The experience of pain by cancer patients has a significant impact on their emotional state as well as on their family members.

Psychological support is considered important by the patient's family in both pain management education and in alleviating the emotional consequences of the disease. The lack of confidence in the efficacy of this service in terms of pain management by patients is significant and the confidence in the efficacy of the pharmacological regimen in pain relief is extremely high.

Recommendations

- Physicians should insist on understanding the presence, type, and intensity of pain experienced by terminal patients in order to build an adequate pain management plan across all dimensions.
- Psychological support for terminally ill patients in pain management should be promoted, not only within palliative care structures, but also more broadly by emphasizing the benefits of pain relief
- Establish and strengthen the chain of physical and mental health professionals to coordinate the treatment of terminal patients undergoing pain, to assist their functioning and reduce the pain experienced.
- Structuring information on the terminal patient's disease, on the effects of classical medication treatment and alternative intervention therapies, in informational brochures or educational classes, presenting alternative forms of intervention with their benefits.
- Enhancing forms of pain management intervention, with alternative treatments, and raising capacities of care staff to apply these treatments
- Adaptation and application of chronic pain intensity measurement instruments to terminal patients
- Educate family members on forms of terminal patient care emphasizing the benefits of psychological treatment for the psycho-emotional aspects associated with the chronic pain they experience.

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The relationship between personality traits, ethnicity and the tendency for social dissimulation in persons involved and uninvolved in politics

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Abstract. The purpose of the research was to examine the relationship between personality traits of individuals involved and uninvolved in politics with ethnicity and the tendency for social dissimulation. In assessing the personality traits of individuals involved and uninvolved in politics, the Big Five personality traits model was applied. The study included 525 respondents from RNM, of whom 35 later included in politics (of whom 8 were female) aged 24 to 61 years. The Hexaco Questionnaire was used to assess the features of individuals involved and uninvolved in politics, and the EPQ subscale was used to assess the tendency of social dissimulation.

In the data analysis, links were observed between personality traits and ethnicity and social dissimulation. The results show that in the sample tested, Honesty, Social dissimulation and Agreeableness are the most present traits in individuals involved in politics compared to individuals who are not involved in politics. Those involved in politics have a dominant presence of traits such as honesty, modesty, unconventionality and prudence. When it comes to the tendency for social dissimulation, the results state that there are significant differences between individuals involved and not involved in politics. Individuals involved in politics are more likely to display dissimulation. Regression analyzes have shown that Flexibility, Social Boldness, Liveliness, Openness to experiences are considered as the best predictors (out of a total of 26 personality traits) of involving in politics.

Keywords: personality traits, ethnicity, social dissimulation, unconventionality.

Introduction

It is true, personality is an individual psychological category, but it must always be seen as the result of all social events, of all history and historical heritage, as well as of the individual's position in society.

The underlying theme of this problematic relation between personality and politics consists of two issues: political socialization and political culture, which in fact aim at forming political personality and the constellation of "social mentality" or rather political culture (Siber, 1998).

Psychological approaches to personality traits

The process of political socialization it takes into account that it treats the integration of the individual into society as a whole. Seen from this aspect, the individual is the one who creates an interference with the political phenomena as such, within which the personality traits of this

individual create completely new dynamics regarding to the implication and non-implication in the political processes (Maldini, 2011). In these schemes where we observe the mutual relation of the individual with society within a social structure, it is possible to observe several levels of approach to the analysis of the problems of political psychology:

- A. aggregate analysis - this approach starts from the general social conditions within which the individual socializes, from the assumption of the individual's socialization and, together with it the psychological content within a population.
- B. typological analysis (based on the assumption that there are relatively stable psychological peculiarities that characterize a particular crowd and distinguish it from the others) and
- C. analysis of the individual (focuses on the need to understand the behavior of designated individuals. Here, first of all, is worked for some particular forms of behavior) (creative, protective, pathological) of specific people, in most cases of political leaders who most effectively influence political processes) (Siber, 1998).

These three levels of analysis also provide three basic approaches to the research of political psychology. In it we will start from Kluckohm and Murray's well-known assumption, which states that the individual resembles no one, the individual resembles some, and the individual is similar to all others.

It is interesting the position of psychological approaches in analyzing ethnic and interethnic relations. In relation with these anthropological-racial approaches it is impossible to disagree with the very early words of John Stuart Mill (1848) which states: "Of all the vulgar forms of escape from the approach of the effects of social and moral effects and influences on human consciousness, the most vulgar is the one that describes differences in behavior and character by highlighting inherited and natural characteristics "(Hutchinson & Smith, 1996, pp. 29).

According to such theories, man and the whole social group are defined by biological inheritance, within which there are genetic differences that condition determination and ability, and with it the rights of peoples assigned to a dominant position. In terms of anthropological and scientifically valid approach, ethnic identity is usually the result of the political, cultural, religious and linguistic history of a community before it is the result of "common origin". In this context, eminent British analyst Hugh Seton-Watson wrote: "after studying the ethnic identity problem my whole life, I came to the conclusion that it is not possible to define the nation scientifically. All I can say in this direction is that a nation exists when a significant part of the population of a given community considers that it belongs to a specific nation and behaves in that way". (Siber 1998 pp 48). Psychologically, national feelings can and should be defined as processes of identification and socialization whereby man through this identification reaches to accept the culture, acquires the language, values, and heritage of a given community. One of the most standard definitions is that of Anthony Smith (1973): The national feeling is awareness of the nation's membership and a sense of solidarity with its members; also a desire for the strengthening and freedom of the nation "(Hutchinson & Smith, 1996, pp. 8-9).

Personality is the unique organization of peculiarities, that is formed by the mutual, reciprocal action of the organism & the social circle and which determines the general way for the individuals and his behavioral characteristics. Allport defines personality as : "dynamic structure of those psychophysical systems which in the individual determine its particular adaptability to the circle"(Cloninger & Svrakic, 2009). Millon defines : Personality consists of the embedded, pervasive, consistent and ordinary directions of the psychological functioning of a style ... it is a closely intertwined organization of the attitude, perceptions, habits, emotions and behavior of a person ... ". Personality consists of more restricted characteristics - traits, the matching between which defines it, the personality. Most personalities have a mix of contradictory traits, personality is named based on the dominant trait while basic personality functions are to feel, perceive, think and act (Cloninger & Svrakic, 2009; Martin, 2010; Myers, 2010).

Upon the basic functions, personality consists the lustful, the emotional and the cognitive parts, while in the phenomenological sense: temperament, character & intelligence. (Cloninger & Svrakic, 2009; Martin, 2010; Myers, 2010). Most authors define personality in five main areas: extroversion, pleasantness, awareness, neuroticism, and openness (Cloninger & Svrakic, 2009; Martin, 2010; Myers, 2010).

Methodology

The problem and purpose of this research is to validate the relationship between the personality traits of individuals involved and not involved in politics with ethnicity and the tendency for social dissimulation. The following research hypotheses derive from the research problem:

- H 1 : There is a significant interaction between politics involvement and personality traits according to the Big Five +2 model.
- H 2 : Personality traits are presented with significant predictive contribution to involvement in politics. The study included 525 respondents, 35 of whom were later involved in politics (8 of whom were female) aged 24 to 61 years.

In assessing personality traits about involvement in politics, the Big Five personality traits model was applied, through the HEXAC 1 O model. Ashton and Lee (2009) developed a questionnaire measuring six dimensions of personality HEXACO (H = Honesty / Mumlity -; E = Emotionality; X = Extraversion; A = Agreeableness compliance-comfort; C = Conscientiousness; O = Openness to experience – open to experience and A= Altruism). It consists of 100 verses divided into four subscales for each of the seven dimensions of personality. Participants were asked to rate each assertion, i.e., a statement on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Specific results are obtained for each of the 24 dimensions, calculating the arithmetic mean of the evaluations of statement upon the 13 individual aspects.

Social dissimulation is operationalized through the EPQ scale dimension. 22 items provide the degree of manifestation of social dissimulation of those involved and not involved in politics. Both measuring instruments have satisfactory reliability. For the Hexako scale $\alpha = 0.92$ and for the EPQ $\alpha = 0.83$.

Results

Statistical package SPSS 21 was used for hypothesis testing purposes, parametric and nonparametric statistics were used, and correlation-regression analysis and *multipla prediktion*.

Table 1. Presentation of the results of the differential analysis between the subsamples of the included and not included in the politics, depending on the dimensions of personality

	Not included in politics		Included politics		in t-testi
	M	DS	M	DS	
Honesty	53.29	7.60	54.52	6.75	t=3.32; p<0.05
Emotionality	53.48	6.89	53.10	7.70	t=1.21; p>0.05
Extraversion	53.24	9.65	53.95	8.71	t=1.73; p>0.05

Agreeableness	53.46	6.71	52.96	6.65	t=1.84; p>0.05
Conscientiousness	53.88	8.82	53.05	6.78	t=1.56; p>0.05
Openness to experience	53.69	6.68	54.69	5.68	t=1.95; p>0.05
Social dissimulation	59.21	5.89	64.51	6.72	t=3.78; p<0.01

The results indicated that there were statistically significant differences between those not involved in politics and those involved in politics in the honesty dimension ($t = 3.32$; $p < 0.05$) with those involved in politics achieving average greater than respondents not involved in politics. Also, the differential analysis confirmed that significant differences also appear in the social dissimilarity variable ($t = 3.78$; $p < 0.01$) with those involved in politics more likely to exhibit a tendency for social dissimilarity than those not included in politics.

Table 2. Results from the analysis of variance in the EPQ questionnaire in the context of political inclusion and social dissimulation

Effect	Not included in politics	
	F	df
Political involvement dimensions	0.19	1.63
Personality	89.88	2.29
Involvement * dimensions	8.81	2.25

The results showed a significant main effect of personality dimensions ($F(2,29) = 89.88$, $p < 0.01$) and a significant interaction of involvement in politics and personality traits ($F(2,25) = 8.81$, $p < 0.1$). Post hoc testing with the Tukey HSD test showed that those involved in politics and not involved in politics manifest the dimensions of the Emotionality traits. It has also been shown that those involved in politics are significantly more likely to have a dominant presence of traits such as honesty, modesty, unconventionalism and prudence compared to those who are not involved in politics where this manifestation is not significant. Furthermore, post hoc testing showed that those not involved in politics use altruism and honesty significantly more than those involved in politics.

Multivariate regression analysis was used to confirm the predictive value of personality traits for inclusion or exclusion in politics. The regression analysis was performed on the sample as a whole by including all the predicted variables. To determine whether the information provided by the model in which the predicates such as dimension of personality are included is valid or not, a variance analysis was performed. The value of the obtained coefficient $F = 9,521$ $p < 0.00$ indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the explained and unexplained part of the general multiple regression variance. In other words, the information provided by the coefficient of determination is valuable.

Table 3 Tabular presentation of statistics that corroborate the predicted contribution of structural components of personality traits in the context of involvement or noninvolvement in politics (step-wise analysis)

Dependent variable - personality traits	Predictor model	R2 parcial	B	t

R ² =0.35p<.001	Social boldness	R ² =0.221;p<.001	0.421 p<.001	5.61 p<.001
	Liveliness	R ² =0.151;p<.001	0.372 p<.001	3.86 p<.001
	Openness	R ² =0.141;p<.001	0.359 p<.001	3.24 p<.001
	to experience	R ² =0.124;p<.001	0.334 p<.001	2.97 p<.001
	Flexibility			

Determination of the relative value of the contribution of particular features in predicting politics involvement or non-involvement is accomplished through a step-wise procedure. The predicative value determination was accomplished through the successful inclusion of the particular predicate in the regression analysis (Table 3).

The results presented in Table 3 confirm that the model in which 4 of the 26 personality traits are included explains 35% of the variance of the criterion variable in the politics commitment. Regression analyzes have shown that Flexibility, Social boldness, Liveliness, Openness to experience are considered to be the best predictors (out of 26 personality traits) of involvement in politics. The greatest contribution is provided by social courage which itself explains 16.3% of the variable criterion of involvement in politics. The values of the coefficient of determination for the remaining 22 personality dimensions suggest that they should be removed from the prediction variables model since the values obtained are statistically insignificant.

Discussion

The work done in the field of examining the personality traits of politicians shows that there are existential characteristics of politicians. Extensive media coverage of politicians' lives offers great opportunities for clinicians to draw conclusions about the psychological traits of politicians. Specifically, the conclusions of different psychologists are very similar.

Although there are still many models that try to explain the underlying sources of individual changes in personality, in last twenty years, the known model Bige Fife is distinguished as a foundational research and conceptual paradigm in this area (Knezevic, 2003). The model assumes the existence of five basic broad personality traits called Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Cooperation and Conscientiousness (John, Naumann and Sotro, 2008).

The results show that in relation to personality traits behavioral forms can be identified, which in the broadest sense can be characterized as predicate traits, and which may have latent or manifest character in readiness for involvement in politics (Siber, 1998). . Regression analyzes have shown that flexibility, social courage, vivacity, Openness to experience are considered to be the best predictors (out of 26 personality traits) of engaging in politics.

The greatest contribution is provided by social courage which itself explains 16.3% of the criterion variable of involvement in politics. The distinctive features of those involved in politics are the product of an individual's interference with political phenomena as such, in which the personality traits of this individual create completely new dynamics regarding (non) implication in political processes (Maldini, 2011).

Results indicated that there were statistically significant differences between those not involved in politics and those involved in politics in the honesty dimension ($t = 3.32$; $p < 0.05$), with those involved in politics achieving a higher average than non-respondents. . Also, the differential analysis confirmed that significant differences also appear in the social dissimilarity variable ($t = 3.78$; $p < 0.01$) with those that the involved in politics more likely to exhibit a tendency for social dissimilarity than those not involved in politics. The findings show that most personalities have a mix of contradictory traits, but personality is determined based on the dominant trait (Cloninger & Svrakic, 2009; Martin, 2010; Myers, 2010).

The findings showed a significant main effect of personality dimensions ($F = 89.88$; $p < .01$) and a significant interaction of social inclusion and personality dimensions ($F = 8.81$; $p < .01$). Complementary post-hoc tests showed that those involved in politics and those not involved in politics manifest the dimensions of the Emotionality feature. Those involved in politics prove the dominant presence of traits such as honesty, modesty, unconventionalism and prudence compared to the uninvolved. Furthermore, post hoc testing showed that those not involved in politics use altruism and honesty significantly more than those involved in politics. These hypotheses and the empirical findings after them highlight the theoretical and practical importance of more accurately examining personality traits of those involved and uninvolved in politics, obtained by different methods.

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Identify individual, contextual, parenting style factors in reporting violence and their relationship to Tepelena district schools

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Abstract. School and family are key players in maintaining a healthy society. The purpose of this study is to identify the relationship between individual, contextual and parenting factors in reporting atmosphere, psychological well-being, victimization and violence in Tepelena district schools. The study has a mixed design consisting of quantitative, qualitative and observational methodologies. The study methodology involves hierarchically overlapping multiple analyzes. Sampling in school selection was appropriate while classes were selected according to spatial sampling. The self-report questionnaires used are: The California School Climate and Safety Survey (CSCSS), Kessler-10 and Scale of Parenting Style (SPS). In addition, the qualitative House-Tree-Person (HTP) test and observation were used. 375 questionnaires were administered in 5 district 9-year schools. The mean age of the sample is ($M = 14.2$, $SD = 1.33$) among which 144 are boys (47.7%) and 210 girls (59.3%). SPSS software version 22.0 was used for data analysis. The analysis showed that students reported low levels of violence and forms of victimization. Quality tests and observation did not support these results. Reporting of school risk factors was low while the presence of firearms and drug use was noted. There were statistically significant relationships between the presence of violence, school atmosphere, psychological well-being, school victimization, family atmosphere, and parenting style. Situation and satisfaction in the family are predictors of the school atmosphere. It is noted that student recognition of rules increases with increasing responsiveness and accountability/control by both parents and vice versa and there is a strong relationship between knowledge of rules against violence and maternal accountability. The study recommends organizing meetings and seminars among psychologists, parents, teachers and/or students as well as longitudinal studies to look at changing factors related to school atmosphere, psychological well-being, perceived parenting styles, and violence by experts in the field. The recommendation relates specifically to schools in rural areas.

Keywords: Parenting style, violence, psychological well-being, school, adolescence.

Introduction

Based on other research this study aims to reflect the factors that are related to violence mainly in the elementary schools of the city of Tepelena. Being a contextual and holistic approach, the study provides a clearer picture of the indicators of violence in these schools. Studying violence against children is a difficult undertaking. They relate to both the lack of previous comprehensive studies and the delicate nature of the problem itself. Violence is accompanied

by unpleasant experiences and generally there is no pleasure or desire to talk about it. On the contrary, there is a tendency to refrain from expressing and experiencing violence even when it is visible.

Purpose of the Study: To analyze the role of perceived parenting style, cultural context, school environment, and family environment in reporting psychological well-being, victimization, and violence to students in elementary schools in Tepelena District.

Methodology

The study has a mixed design consisting of quantitative, qualitative and observational methodologies. This is in line with the study which builds on the theory that emphasizes the role of context in reporting school violence. Context provides the opportunity to research from small homogeneous environments to international and global rankings. The methodology includes hierarchically overlapping multiple analyzes ranging from analyzes at the classroom, school, community, state, and region levels. Analyzes and interpretation of results follow a linear hierarchical model where independent effects of the "context" variable are identified despite multiple analyzes across levels. The interpretation is not one-dimensional and focused only on the context of the school but beyond.

The quantitative method part aims to find out what the relationship is between individual and contextual factors, parenting styles, and violence in elementary schools. Part of the qualitative method and observation have been used to assist in the analysis of results and in the fulfillment of discussions. Correlational study combined with qualitative study form enables understanding of the relationship between variables as well as through regression to understand how one variable can be predicted using another variable. The methodology incorporates self-report instruments, drawing techniques that are easily accessible to children, and observation, thus creating a comprehensive mixing methodology.

The selection of participants was done according to the convenience sampling, based on the accessibility to these schools, the greater number of students and the possibility of cheaper introductory classes. After selecting the schools, a random sampling of sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth grade for each 9 - year school was included in the study. The instruments were completed by all students present in the class.

Participants were voluntarily involved in completing the questionnaire. The administration of 375 questionnaires was supervised by the school researcher and psychologist. Based on the validity of the questionnaires, 21 questionnaires were eliminated and proved to be invalid. After explaining the purpose of the study and the procedure to be followed for the participants, the questionnaires selected for the study were distributed. Questionnaire completion took 2 hours and each class had an average of 13 students. The data includes demographic data of each participant, data on classes, schools (grade level, size, ethnicity, religion), families (mother / father education, economic status, members, children), neighborhood and nation.

Instruments

Three questionnaires were used to collect the data, which were merged into one. The first questionnaire is CSCSS, (The California School Climate and Safety Syrvey), one of the tools used in studies of school violence (CSCSS: Furlong, Morrison & Boles, 1991). This instrument analyzes the individual and contextual factors. The Kessler-10 questionnaire was chosen to measure these concerns. In addition to being a simple and comprehensible questionnaire, the Kessler-10 was also used in other studies in conjunction with CSCSS, where violence is associated with psychological dysfunction. The instrument used to measure students' perceived parenting style is the Scale of Parenting Style (SPS) (Gafoor & Kurukan, 2014).

The administration of the instruments took place at the same time of 2 hours without the presence of teachers and this proved to be favorable for administration and the students felt free

to inquire about the uncertainties. Questionnaire administrators were always present for possible clarifications during the filling. Fill time was 2 weeks from May 7-14, 2018.

Results and Discussions

Demographic data: Regarding demographic data, there are no significant differences between the samples. Study participants were distributed almost equally between schools and classes. The school with the highest number of students was the AR school with 31 or 8.8%, sixth grade students, 30 seventh grade students, 28 eighth grade students and 33 ninth grade students. The school with the lowest number of students is the “AA” school with 52 students in total (N = 52, 14.7%). A total of 354 students (N = 354) participated in this study, among whom 144 males (N = 144) or 47.7% and 210 females (N = 210) or 59.3%.

Descriptive results: School risk levels where 78% of students report having a very low level of risk factors in school, 16.7% report having a low level of risk factors in school, 4.5% report having a medium level of risk school risk factors and 0.8% report that there is a very high level of school risk factors. Thus, the reporting of very low levels of risk factors at school is reported. The level of school violence is reported to be very low in 78% of respondents. While only 0.8% of primary school students in Tepelena report high level.

Regarding the possession of weapons and other hurtful means at school, it is seen that eighth grade students brought weapons to school in 5 cases, while sixth grade students in most cases brought wood, stones, sticks. From the graph of drug use at school, we find that this phenomenon is more widespread or over reported in sixth grade students.

Results shows 1.4% of students reported a poor school climate, 38.7% reported a good school climate and 59.9% of students reported a very good school climate. It seems that a very low percentage of students reported a bad school climate.

Results shows that 7.3% of students report moderate school violence, while 92.7% of the sample report no school violence and none of the students report high school violence. The differences in reporting appear to be pronounced even though the sample distribution is homogeneous.

In response to this statement, 27% of students reported that there was no problem with violence at their school. 23% reported minor problems of violence. 23% reported very minor problems. 23% reported minor problem, 18% reported moderate problem and only 9% reported major and very large problem. The results shows that in Tepelena schools problems with violence are perceived as missing problems in their school or as minor and very minor problems.

Regarding the presence of Cyberbullying, it seems an unknown and unreported phenomenon for students as 92% of students reported no presence of cyberbullying while 8% reported a low level of cyberbullying. Minor gender differences are noted in cyperbullying reporting where females reported the presence of the phenomenon in 15 cases and males themselves in 6 cases.

Referring to household climate reporting 7.6% of the sample reported having a bad family climate, 68.8% of the sample reported a good family climate while 22.6% reported a very good family climate.

Table 1. Family climate reporting

	N	%
Poor climate	27	7.6
Good climate	247	69.8
Very good climate	80	22.6
Total	354	100

Table 1 shows that for the last 6 months, the majority of students (93.8%) reported low psychological distress. 4.5% report moderate levels of psychological distress and 1.1% report high psychological distress. This indicates good reporting of psychological well-being by students.

Table 2. Presentation of the general level of psychological distress

	N	%
Low level of psychological distress	332	93.8
Moderate level of psychological distress	26	4.5
High level of psychological distress	3	1.1
Very high level of psychological distress	1	.3
Total	1300	100.0

In terms of perceived dimensions of parenting styles among students in grades 6, 7, 8, and 9, descriptive analyzes show that the highest mean value assertions are: "maternal responsiveness" (M = 1.9541; DS = .20962), "dad's responsiveness" (M = .1.8338; DS = .37279), "mother's control" (M = 1.9265; DS = .26139), and "father's control" (M = 1.9083; DS = .28905). The results showed that 82.2% of the students report high maternal responsiveness and 79.4% of the sample high level of father responsiveness. From the comparison of the control we find that the most frequent control was reported to the mother 89%. A significant difference lies between the low maternal responsiveness reported by 4% of the sample and the low maternal responsiveness reported by 15.8% of the sample.

Table 3. Comparisons of results

	N	M	DS	Coefficient Interval for average		Min	Max
				Lower level	Upper level		
Risk factors in school	354	23.7373	8.95164	22.8016	24.6730	14.00	58.00
The atmosphere in the school	353	72.5326	10.01333	71.4844	73.5808	32.00	92.00
School violence Victimization	354	1.0819	0.27463	1.0532	1.1106	1.00	2.00
School violence	354	12.8842	2.88508	12.5826	13.1858	10.00	26.00
Family situation	354	22.1751	3.63534	21.7951	22.5551	0.00	30.00
Psychological concerns	354	43.5650	7.39554	42.7919	44.3380	0.00	50.00
The style of parenting	354	294.7910	68.45773	287.6351	301.9468	0.00	380.00

Most students reported “psychological distress” $M = 43.5650$; $SD = 7.39554$. Risk factors at school ($M = 23.7373$; $SD = 8.95164$). In conclusion, the level of school risk factors reported at 95% confidence level reaches the high limit of 22.8016 and the low limit of 24.6730. So, the risk factors tendency is between values 4 and 58. The parenting style reported in all dimensions has values ($M = 294.7910$; $SD = 68.45773$).

It appears from the table that there is a very small difference between groups in the level of reporting of violence between groups. Compared to other classes and 8th graders, moderate violence was reported at 46% by eighth grade students, while less reported violence among 6th grade students by 29.0%.

Hypothesis testing results: The results show that the variable schools show a significant relation with the reporting of violence ($p < .05$). So there are significant differences in reporting violence between schools.

There is a statistically significant difference between schools in the variable risk factors at school, school violence, family situation and parenting style where ($p < .05$).

There are statistically significant differences between the sexes in reporting the atmosphere in the school, the relationship with the teachers, the rules against violence. No statistically significant differences between the sexes for the variable of student participation in decision making and school safety were reported ($p < .05$).

There is a statistically significant difference between children where at least one parent lives outside reporting on anti-violence and teacher relations rules. No significant statistical differences are reported in reporting participation in school rules and school safety at ($p < .05$).

There is a significant difference depending on the number of children reporting the rules against violence and relationships with teachers and there is no significant difference regarding the number of families, reporting on school safety and student participation in decision making.

Correlational analyzes of the study: The results showed that there is no statistically significant relationship with any of the dimensions of parenting styles. Anti-violence rules and student participation in decision making have statistically significant positive relationships with all four dimensions of parenting style. It is noted that the dimension of anti-violence rules has a positive relationship with all dimensions of parenting styles from both mother and father is the dimension of consciousness. There is a very strong relationship between knowledge of anti-violence rules and maternal responsiveness ($r = .272$; $p < .01$) and maternal control ($r = .271$, $p < .01$). There was also a statistically significant association between father control and teacher relationships ($r = .207$, $p < .01$), knowledge of anti-violence rules ($r = .224$, $p < .01$), and student participation in decision making ($r = .20$). = .265; $p < .01$).

Correlational analyzes showed that perceived maternal responsiveness has statistically weak negative correlations with all dimensions of victimization.

Based on the statistical results in Table 5, it is observed that psychological well-being is positively correlated with school atmosphere ($r = .226$; $p < .01$) and all subscales of school atmosphere. The strongest positive statistical correlation is with the underlying security at school ($r = .256$; $p < .01$). This indicates that with the increase of positive atmosphere in school, students' psychological well-being will increase and vice versa.

Table 4. Relationship between family satisfaction and anti-violence rules

The atmosphere in the school	Safety at school	Relationships with teachers	Rules against violence	Student participation in rulemaking
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Psychological well-being	.226**	.256**	.209**	.154**	0.078
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There was a statistically significant positive relationship between family satisfaction and anti-violence rules ($r = .173$; $p < 0.01$).

There is a statistically significant negative association between all dimensions of victimization and the school atmosphere. In the case of sexual victimization there is a positive relationship to the atmosphere in the school, but this results in the dot being inverted where value 5 represents "no sexual violence". So with the increase in school atmosphere all forms of victimization decrease. The same results are presented for each subset of the atmosphere. Consequently the hypothesis is confirmed. There is a significant positive relationship between school atmosphere and psychological well-being.

Predictability of variables: The regression analysis shows that the regression coefficient is the second model with ($R = .272$). This indicates that 7.4% according to R^2 (R Square) and 7.1% according to Adjusted R^2 of the variance of the school rule recognition scale is predicted by the perceived dimension of maternal responsiveness.

According to the table, it is noted that R Square 1.6% of the school atmosphere is predicted by family satisfaction and satisfaction ($r = .126$).

Tabela 5. Regression model for predicting school atmosphere by family status and satisfaction

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Df	F	Sig.
1	.126	.016	.010	2;350	2.837	.060

Dependent variable: School atmosphere
 Predictive variable: Family status, Family satisfaction.

Conclusions

The realization of this study resulted in empirical data important in identifying the presence of violence, atmosphere, psychological well-being, school victimization, family atmosphere and parenting style. Significant statistical relationships between variables were identified. Marital status and perceived dimension of mother's responsibility were predictive variables of school atmosphere.

The analysis showed that students reported lower levels of moderate violence than 7.3% of participants and forms of victimization (physical, sexual, staff victimization, cyberbullying). Reporting of school risk factors was low while the presence of firearms and drug use was noted. More than half of the participants reported very good school climate compared to the average

among them. Likewise, the perception of violence as a problem was at very low levels. Students reported low cyberbullying presence. The family climate was well reported and no psychological problems were reported.

Regarding the dimensions of parenting styles the sample reported high levels of responsiveness and control to both mother and father. Comparisons between schools showed significant differences. There was a difference in reporting violence between classes where 8th graders reported higher percentages of violence. It was noted that there were significant differences between schools in reporting violence. Gender differences were reported in reporting on family status, school violence, risk factors, school atmosphere, and parenting styles. There were statistically significant differences between the sexes in reporting the atmosphere in the school, relationships with teachers, rules against violence. no statistically significant gender differences were reported for the variable of student participation in decision making and school safety.

Anti-violence rules and student participation in decision making have statistically significant positive relationships with all four dimensions of parenting style. It was also found that there was a significant association with anti-violence rules with mother's accountability and control. Teacher relationships have statistically significant positive correlations with perceived control in the father. In conclusion, it is noted that student recognition of rules increases with increasing responsiveness and accountability/control by both parents and vice versa. There is a very strong link between knowing the rules against violence and maternal accountability.

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The relationship between mode of delivery and postpartum depression

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Abstract. Although a number of perinatal factors have been implicated in the etiology of postpartum depression, the role of mode of delivery should be explored. The study was performed on 136 mothers (aged 16-48 years) in Obstetrician and Gynecological Clinic at the University Clinical Center of Kosovo. This research seeks to investigate the relationship between mode of delivery and postpartum depression. Sociodemographic, obstetric, and depression-related data were gathered using questionnaires and Edinburg Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS). The questionnaires were administered by the researcher for 25-35 min. Results showed that the mother's age, economic status, education, progress of pregnancy, type of delivery, number of delivery, and maternal depression are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) as well as the prevalence of postpartum depression is 12.61%. There was a significant relationship between mode of delivery and postpartum depression ($p < 0.05$). Bad experiences during delivery had effect on EPDS scores ($p < 0.01$). In conclusion healthcare providers and clinical psychologists should be aware of postpartum depression risks. During perinatal care, the psychologist should also be involved and apply EPDS to them for early detection of postpartum depression.

Keywords: Postpartum depression, mothers, delivery, normal vaginal delivery, Cesarean section

Introduction

Postpartum depression (PPD) is considered as an important health problem in modern societies, with consequences on pregnancy outcome, mother affective status and child behavioral and emotional development (Eckerdal. P et al, 2017; Goodman et al, 2011). The prevalence of postpartum depression is estimated at around 10-20% of mothers after delivery (O'Hara and McCabe, 2013; Vigod et al, 2013). Two studies conducted in Obstetrician and Gynecological Clinic at the University Clinical Center of Kosovo found the prevalence of PPD ranged from 17.6% to 27.86% (Obërtinca et al, 2015; Obërtinca et al, 2016). The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of mental Disorders defines postpartum depression as having five or more of the following symptoms for at least two weeks: insomnia/hypersomnia, psychomotor agitation or retardation, fatigue, appetite changes, feelings of hopelessness or guilt, decreased concentration, and suicid. These episodes begin within four weeks postpartum and may last one year (APA, 2000). Thus, the latest Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of mental Disorders of the American Psychiatric Association DSM-5 does not recognize postpartum depression as a separate diagnosis. Instead, patients should meet the criteria for a major depressive episode. Definition is: an important depressive episode that begins in pregnancy or within four weeks after birth (APA, 2013). Although the physiology of pregnancy in humans is the same throughout the world,

many factors influence the experience of women. Risk factors that have been identified are poor material relationship, prenatal depression, illness of the child, low socioeconomic status, low educational level, unwanted pregnancy, obesity, previous history of postpartum depression, hormonal changes, and physical symptoms (Beck, 2006; Howel et al, 2006), low self-esteem, stressful life events and lack of social support (Pariante, 2014). Postpartum depression during pregnancy and the time after that can cause the problems in the relations between mother, child and family. In the first days after birth risk factors include a difficult birth, a history of abuse, low family income and lower professional status.

Mode of delivery has been investigated as a possible risk factor for PPD, but there are conflicting results showing no association with mode of delivery and risk of PPD. Complicated labour resulting in an emergency procedure has been identified as a potential risk factor for postpartum depression (Koo et al, 2003). Also prolonged recovery period may lead to increased stress, somatic complaints and low self-esteem, predisposing to PPD. A recent meta-analysis showed that Cesarean section was associated with an increased risk of PPD (Xu et al, 20017). In addition, medical complications during the birth process or mixed feelings about pregnancy have been found to increase a woman's changes of developing postpartum depression. PPD can create a wide range of severity symptoms for mothers, so this mental health disorder usually requires treatment. If left untreated, PPD can last for a period of time, often months or years, sometimes becoming a chronic depressive disorder (Hoeflinger, 2003). PPD can be stigmatizing and difficult to accept for some women, so many do not seek help and ignore their postpartum symptoms. The potential long-term complications of PPD are the same as other mental health disorders.

Today, postpartum depression draws attention to clinicians and researchers as a problem that affects not only the mother but also the health and development of the baby. For these reasons the prevention of postpartum depression is very important. Birth with sudden environmental changes is considered as a type of stress (Bahadoran et al, 2014).

Methods

The aim of this study was to assess the impact of mode delivery on postpartum depression. Part of this study were woman's who gave birth in University Clinical Centre of Kosovo Clinic for Gynaecology and Obstetric. In total they were 136 mothers from 16-48 years old and all of them were interview by the researcher of this study and lasted between 25-35 minutes. Only women who were willing to participate in the survey were interviewed, where they were informed about the objectives of the survey, ensured anonymity and written informed consent from all participants were obtained.

The questionnaire consisted of two sections: demographic data and Edinburg Postnatal Depression Scale. In the first part participants were asked about their residence, age, education, economic status, chronic illness, progress of pregnancy, mode of delivery, complication during delivery and number of delivery were also recorded.

Edinburg Postnatal Scale questionnaire is used in a significant number of research works and reliability and validity are well documented. Item of the scale correspond to various clinical depression symptoms, such as guilt feeling, sleep disturbance, low energy, anhedonia and suicidal ideation. EPDS consists of 10 items with 4 possible answers and scores from 0 to 3. The maximum score is 30. A cut off value of 11 has been used to determine women at risk for depression.

Descriptive data analysis for demographic variables were expressed as mean and standard deviation for continuous variables and number (percentage) for categorical variables. Overall statistical significance level was set at $p < 0.05$. The SPSS v22 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used for the analysis.

Results and discussions

This was a correlational study. A total of 136 mothers had complete records and complete inform consent. The mean age of the women was 31.3 ± 6.4 years ranging between 16 and 48. When categorized, most of the subjects were by 31-35 years (28.7%). Sociodemographic characteristics of the subjects are shown in Table 1.

The majority of women were unemployed 53.7%, lived in city 55.1%. the education level of women was bachelor degree with 42.6%. income level was described as middle-high by 66.2%. In 33 cases a complication during pregnancy was recorded. Chronic illness had 24 of them. History of depression declared 38 of mothers. Only 8 of the women declared that their pregnancy was unplanned and unwanted. As far as gender of the baby 79 of those had a male baby.

Mode of delivery was 39% for spontaneous vaginal in term, 5.9% for vaginal premature delivery, 67 cases respectively 49.3% for cesarean section and with complication during childbirth 8 cases (cephalopelvic disproportion, using instrumental delivery such as forceps, vacuum extractor).

Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics

	Number (%)
Gravidity	
1	39 (28.7)
2	40 (29.4)
3	30 (22.1)
≥4	27 (19.8)
Parity	
1	46 (33.8)
2	43 (31.7)
3	28 (20.6)
≥4	19 (13.9)
Chronic illness	
Yes	24 (17.6)
No	112 (82.4)
History of depression	
Yes	38 (27.9)
No	98 (72.1)
Pregnancy was:	
Planned	64 (47.1)
Unplanned, but welcomed	54 (39.7)
Unplanned, unwanted	8 (5.9)
IVF	10 (7.4)
Progress of pregnancy	
Good	103 (75.7)
With complication	33 (24.3)
Mode of delivery	
Vaginal in term	53 (39.0)
Vaginal premature	8 (5.9)
Cesarean section	67 (49.3)
With complication	8 (5.9)
Infant gender	
Female	57 (41.9)
Male	79 (58.1)

Table 2 demonstrates variables associated with postpartum depression. Pregnancy planning, progress of pregnancy, complication and bad experiences during delivery were significantly associated with the risk of postpartum depression ($p < 0.01$). When calculated according to mode of delivery, it was found as 39% for vaginal delivery and 49.3% for Cesarean section, we found that, delivering by spontaneous vaginal birth and Cesarean section had effect on EPDS scores ($p < 0.05$)

Table 2. Correlation for postpartum depression

Related factors	Correlation
Pregnancy planning	.230**
Progress of pregnancy	.241**
Vaginal delivery	.180*
Cesarean section	.192*
Delivery complication	.243**
Bad experiences	.543**

Note: *. Correlation is significant at 0.05

** . Correlation is significant at 0.01

The prevalence of depressive symptoms ($EPDS \geq 11$) was ($M=12.62$; $SD=6.67$). This result is relatively low when compared to those reported in two other Kosovar studies conducted in University Clinical Centre of Kosovo Clinic for Gynaecology and Obstetric, where the rates were 17.6% in the sample of 385 women after delivery (Obërtinca et al, 2015) and 27.86% in the sample of 122 women after induced abortion (Obërtinca et al 2016), but similar to the study by (Eckerdal et al 2017), where the cut-off score was ≥ 12 and the prevalence was reported as 13%. These difference may be due to the variations in the application of the tests, time of the tests, sample size, design of the study, cut-off values of EPDS, and type of the test such as EPDS, Beck depression inventory, etc.

There was association between portpartum depression risk and delivery mode in agreement with previous studies (Xu et al, 2017; Obërtinca et al, 2015). There are conflicting results about the effect of delivery mode on PPD. A longitudinal-cohort study by Eckerdal et al (2017) in Uppsala, Sweden with 3888 subjects showed that mode delivery has no direct impact on risk of PPD, nevertheless, several modifiable or non-modifiable mediators are present in this association. Bahadoran et al (2014), however found no difference between mode delivery in regard to PPD. According to another longitudinal, prospective study conducted by Rauch., C, et al, (2012) for impact that have delivery mode to PPD, found significant difference between spontaneous delivery primary Cesarean section ($P=0.04$), so they are prone to postpartum depression at second births. So, this should be considered when patients requesting an elective Cesarean section are being counseled by physician or clinical psychologist. Based on the fact that Kosovo is experiencing a rapid rise in Cesarean section rates. From 2000 to 2015 CS rates have increased from 7.5% to 27.3%. In 2015, across public hospitals in Kosovo, CS rates ranged from 9.6% to 35.2%, and 15.2% to 36.9% (Ukaj et al, 2016; Hoxha et al, 2019). We need to be careful about this population group, because women who are prone to depression should be categorized as high risk patients and counselors, family physicians as well as obstetricians or midwives should be aware of the increased risk of PPD. Psychiatric consultation may be helpful during the peripartum and postpartum period.

According to our study, planning of pregnancy, complication during pregnancy and bad delivery experiencing are important risk factors for PPD. This association has been found in numerous previous studies (Norhayati, 2015; O'Hara and Swain, 2009; Söderquist et al,

2009). An unplanned or unwanted pregnancy may change life considerably, be a stressful experience with social and economic changes, and further impact on difficulties with motherhood. Complication during pregnancy has been found to be an important factor in many studies independent of where it was done. A study from Turkey showed association between complication during pregnancy, such as history of depression, history of hyperemesis gravidarum, and being a housewife (Goker, 2012).

Our results of association between postpartum depression and delivery mode is consistent with other recent studies. Studies that found a relationship between PPD and CS are mostly conducted in the last two decades. Cesarean section is more acceptable with low complication rates compared to the past.

Conclusions

Healthcare providers and clinical psychologists should be aware of postpartum depression risks. During perinatal care, the psychologist should also be involved and apply EPDS to them for early detection of postpartum depression. Further evidence is needed to explore the associations between the specific types of delivery mod and the risk of PPD.

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Design for Repair as a Strategy to Foster Sustainable User Behavior: A Case of Undergraduate Product Design Studio

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Abstract. Increased frequency of product replacement in a consumerist society eventually leads to unbearable sustainability problems. Manufacturing and sales-focused linear economies give insufficient concern to the use phase and afterlife of products. Fewer consumers engage in the practice of repair to increase product longevity. On the contrary goal of a circular economy is producing less waste through increasing connections between product lifecycles, which makes product afterlife a crucial debate. In the circular design literature, modularity, material selection and disassembly properties of products are often highlighted. However, the practice of repair is often neglected in sustainable product design researches. This paper focuses on design strategies to enhance the reparability of products to support circular user behavior. Major design strategies to change user behavior towards repairing are discussed. The process and outcomes of undergraduate product design focused on design for repair presented.

Keywords: Design for Repair, Circular Design, Sustainable Behavior, Design Studio

Introduction

Running a linear economic model in a resource-limited environment creates serious consequences on nature such as global warming, invasion of plastic particles and massive waste [1]. Manufacturing and consumption activities globally push the environmental borders of the planet into a new stage for all beings. At the age of Anthropocene related crisis, in addition to our decisions on the use of materials and energy, overconsumption plays an important role in sustainability [2]. Beyond having ethical and environmentally friendly choices of material and energy consumption, we might need to reduce the speed of consumption itself in order to achieve meaningful progress towards sustainability [3].

Fundamentally, Circular Economy (CE) criticizes unrealistic promises and unbearable consequences of the linear economic model. The concept is not a new idea and its theoretical foundation was established with the notions of industrial ecology, industrial symbiosis, and cradle to cradle [4]. The philosophy of cradle to cradle departs from the concept of waste, which differs in natural cycles and human-made technocycles. A biological cycle refers to organic nutrients flowing and transforming in the system while the technical cycle is explained as inorganic or synthetic materials in the system [5]. In this complex cyclic logic, profit is derived not only from selling artifacts but also the flow of materials [6]. Design for resource conservation, slowing resource loops, and whole system design are vital for circularity [7]. Moreover, two fundamental objectives of a CE are slowing the loops and closing the loops [6], [8], [9]. Slowing down loops means reducing the frequency of material and energy transactions, and are critical for keeping a balance between technocycles and biocycles. The design of a

product and its components is an important intervention point for slowing the cycles and closing the loops. Since the concept mainly derives from connecting material and energy flows as cycles, the literature on circular design often discusses the physical aspects of products for closing the loops [10], [11]. However, strategies like dematerialization, design for repair and design for sustainable behavior are also valuable for reducing purchasing frequency. However, repairing is a critical but often neglected activity in design studies. Thus, as a part of ongoing research exploring design for repair strategies, this study reviews circular design literature to understand the role of repairing. The study presents an undergraduate design studio experience focused on applying design for repair strategies.

Product Design Strategies for Circular Economy

The product design discipline developed itself by fostering the progress of the linear economic model for decades. Besides a dedicated focus on the needs and wants of users, designers undertook the responsibility for the growth of the business by increasing sales. Following the great depression in the USA, the design community embraced the idea of planned obsolescence for the sake of economic growth. The idea was intentionally shortening the life of consumer goods in order to increase repurchasing rates. Eventually, it became a standard approach for the design and development of products in various industries. Enterprises long experienced the growing profit margins based upon the ever-increasing speed of transactions that shadowed enormous waste production for decades.

Following the rise of environmental concerns globally, the role of designers also covered tasks dealing with the cost of products on social and environmental sustainability. The green design approach concentrates on intervention through energy efficiency and the use of green materials. A more holistic approach arrived later as design for sustainability, which focuses on products, services, and user behaviors. Lifecycle analysis and footprint calculations were the main measurement tools for green design and design for sustainability. However, both approaches have never truly challenged the linear economic system. At this point, the circular design opens a new perspective by considering the system through cycles. Moreover, the success of an intervention is relatively clear since a loop is closed or open. Virtanen et. al. [5] offers a material library for closing loops. The literature focusing on CE in the context of product design underlines six broad design strategies [12]-[15];

- Design for Attachment and Trust,
- Design for Durability and Longevity,
- Design for Standardization,
- Design for Adaptability and Upgradability,
- Design for Ease of Maintenance and Repair
- Design for Disassembly and Reassembly

Design strategies listed above focus on both before and after the purchase of products. User motivation for repair is related to most of the strategies listed above. Literature indicates that lack of product user attachment and trust also raises potential decisions towards replacing the product with another one. Adaptable and upgradable products have more chances of satisfying the changing needs and desires of users. Today, with the open fabrication tools such as a table-top CNCs and 3D printers, online manuals and DIY websites, users are much closer to hacking their existing products according to their needs and desires.

Durability is an attribute often derived as an outcome of the design and development decisions given at the manufacturing phase. In contrary to planned obsolescence, enterprises may focus on delivering ultimate durable products. But, eventually all products prone to failure and need maintenance. Companies such as Mud Jeans keep ownership of garments while selling the use of products and supporting users with free repair services. Rise of social media and extensive

use of the internet, product sharing platforms became an alternative way to circulate products and to extend the product lifespan. Design decisions towards reparability have to involve aftersales services and online user communities to benefit from user involvement.

Design for Repair and Upgrade

Maintenance as a practice aims to retain in or restore the product to a state in which ordered functions are performed. While maintenance focus on keeping a product functioning as it is, upgrading is a process of enhancing the original design specifications including functional capabilities and cosmetic condition. Repairing can be understood as an activity that belongs to the practice of maintenance. The principal idea of repairing is to reanimate a nonfunctioning product. Repairing doesn't involve upgrading while some upgrades could be classified as a repair. Repair is not necessarily an environmentally friendly way of intervening in a nonfunctioning product [15]. Some products consume much more material and energy during the use phase compared to their manufacturing phase. For instance, continuous repair of the same fossil fuel car instead of replacing it with an electrical car may not be an environmentally friendly decision. However, often extending product life through repairing and upgrading is still a valuable choice compared to recycling which is a lower value loop closing activity. Van Nes and Cramer [16] underlines following design strategies for improving the reparability of products;

- division of fast and slow developing parts
- division of fast and slow wearing parts
- changeable appearance
- enhanced upward and downward compatibility

Repair and upgrade usually handled by the manufacturer company through aftersales services. Post-purchase phase lifecycle hacking and repair is a promising concept for involving users into sustainability goals [17]. However, repairing a product is often not a preferable practice for today's users [18]. Thus, design strategies should also focus on features fostering repairing habits. According to Lilley et al., [18] customer's lack of confidence or knowledge to repair, high cost of aftersales service and low cost of retail prices, planned obsolescence and design that prohibits user's ability to repair are important factors limiting users to engage repair.

As summarized so far, in the literature strong emphasis is given to product design and engineering approaches. However, the symbolic meaning of products and product-person relationships, and product attachment are also crucial for slowing cycles at the post-purchase phase. In the case of repair, there are several reasons to be explored why a consumer decides towards replacing old products. Human decision-making process is not a clear cognitive process and often habitual elements are more influential than rational causes [19], [20]. Identity and lifestyle act as symbolic representations during decision-making towards buying [21]. Consumers tend to replace their goods because of wear and tear; improved utility; improved expression and new desires [16]. Often only objects with strong bonds are not replaced such as family heirlooms [22]. In order to redesign a product to create better attachment, the following strategies are suggested [22], [13];

- using memories and factors to evoke memories such as smell
- pleasure and enjoyment
- self-expression and uniqueness
- usability
- sensory design
- superior appearance
- utility and reliability
- product personality

- group affiliation, encouraged social contact
- involving users in the design process

Physical attributes such as standardization, use of simple disassembly tools and techniques, and modularity are important design principles. Moreover, products and services should be designed to invite users physically and emotionally for the practice of repair, instead of excluding them from the product. The next section of the study aims at creating a better understanding of design for repair through the examination of an undergraduate design studio process.

A Design Studio Experience

Seven undergraduate students were engaged in design for repair and upgrade studio for eight weeks in Spring 2018. The design brief focused on exploring redesign strategies for non-repairable electrical consumer goods sold in the market. Each participant defined a product line that is often not repairable by the user when the product is faulty or broken. Products included project were; steam iron, sandwich maker, filter coffee machine, headphones, shaving machine, digital camera, and hand blender.

Several research methods employed including netnography, online questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Through the research, students illustrated the most common reasons for obsolescence. The main goal was to overcome reasons of obsolescence as much as possible to extend the product lifespan. A product autopsy phase executed and documented by design students followed by think-aloud repair task executed by a user representing the target consumers. Students run four weeks of re-design workshop in order to reduce or replace; faulty parts, items subjected to break potentially during assembly and disassembly, complex tools needed for the practice of repair. The idea was making the product as easy to repair as changing batteries of remote control. Additionally, students were expected to bring ideas for perceived obsolescence. In sum, students used following approaches to achieve the goal;

- Encouraging users with repair and upgrade process with online services and dedicated social networks for exchanging product parts, repair hints and DIY experiences
- Replacing intimidating or fragile parts with easy to disassemble ones in order to encourage the user to approach confidently to the product with available tools.
- Providing an aesthetic box which both keeps the headphone and guides user during the repair activity.
- Encouraging users to build their own headphone experience through product intervention points such as upgradable audio equipment matching user's taste of music, variable wooden rings which helps users to customize their products.
- A new, repairable cable connection element that used to be the most common and breaking point of headphones.

Repairing is an act of creation and design for repair also brings another layer for designers to act creatively. Starting a design project with a brief intentionally focusing on redesigning to foster repair was challenging but also self-instructive for students. Differentiating planned obsolescence and perceived obsolescence were challenging for some of the products such as digital cameras. Moreover, some products were not welcoming user attachment by their function-oriented nature such as hand blender. In this case, students were not really creative to improve users' emotional bonding with the product. The task of bringing back a product into use aesthetically, critically and functionally underlines designers' role beyond the purchase phase.

Conclusion

Design for repair and upgrade is a valid challenge for both designers and businesses pursuing CE. The challenge dictates us to redesign consumer goods in a way that both physically and emotionally promotes the act of repair. Closing the loops and slowing cycles in natural and technical systems necessitates changing our design decisions towards product life extension rather than planned obsolescence. Embodying products with green materials is not a sufficient act to achieve goals of circular design. Designers have to think beyond green materials and energy efficiency. In such a circular system each element of a product has to be nutrient for other cycles. Thus, designers have to think at least two scenarios for each element; reuse and recycle. Moreover, the design of a product should favor life extension and reuse of parts than recycling. Extending product life by durable design is not sufficient for overcoming the obstacle of perceived obsolescence. Fewer users are attached to their product which makes it difficult to convince them mending. As a holistic approach design for repair involves product and service interventions aiming at enabling user behavior change towards committing to act of repair.

Noticeably, this strategy needs a paradigm shift in the business as usual. Profiting not only from selling goods but circulating materials could be an opportunity for the business. Fortunately, several business cases illustrate successful and profitable examples of life extension and repair. Patagonia's "Worn Wear" repair program provides repair service and a platform for marketing repaired products of the company. HP's Z1 workstations with their modular design constitute an example of introducing the notion of repair for products that embodies a rapidly changing technology. The company also supports consumers with online guides and manuals for encouraging them to repair and upgrade. Increase in DIY and product fixing videos on the internet, repair dedicated websites such as iFixit facilitates user behavior change towards attachment to the product.

Integrating repair strategies at the undergraduate design education might help to shift future designers' mindset on CE and also provide them a new field of creative interventions. Designers need to explore new ways to expand the economic, physical and psychological limits of repairing. Further studies on the subject might focus on elaborating technical and economical limits and intervention points for mending.

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