DRUŠTVENA ISTRAŽIVANJA

Časopis za opća društvena pitanja

UDK 1:3/33
CODEN DSTRES
ISSN 1848-6096 (Online)

DRUŠ. ISTRAŽ. ZAGREB
GOD. 33 (2024), BR. 2
STR. 179-344
ZAGREB
TRAVANJ-LIPANJ 2024.

164

Institut
društvenih znanosti
Institute
of Social Sciences
IVO **PILAR**

DRUŠTVENA ISTRAŽIVANJA

Časopis za opća društvena pitanja
Journal for General Social Issues

Nakladnik / *Publisher:*
Institut društvenih znanosti IVO PILAR / *Institute of Social Sciences IVO PILAR*

Prilozi objavljeni u časopisu referiraju se u / *Indexed in:*
Current Contents – Social & Behavioral Sciences, Social Sciences Citation Index, Journal Citation Reports (Thomson Reuters); ERIH PLUS (Norwegian Social Science Data Services – NSD); IBSS – International Bibliography of the Social Sciences (LSE); Political Science Complete, SocINDEX with Full Text (EBSCO); Scopus (Elsevier); DOAJ – Directory of Open Access Journals; Hrčak – Portal znanstvenih časopisa Republike Hrvatske (MZO, Srce & HIDD); Social Science Premium Collection (ProQuest)

C O P E
Member since 2017
JM12997

DRUŠTVENA ISTRAŽIVANJA

UDK 1:3/33
CODEN DSTRE5
ISSN 1848-6096 (Online)

ČASOPIS ZA OPĆA DRUŠTVENA PITANJA
JOURNAL FOR GENERAL SOCIAL ISSUES

DRUŠ. ISTRAŽ. ZAGREB
164
GOD. 33 (2024)
BR. 2
STR. 179-344
ZAGREB
TRAVANJ-LIPANJ 2024.
VOL 33 (2024)
NO 2
PP 179-344
ZAGREB
APRIL-JUNE 2024

SADRŽAJ / CONTENTS

https://doi.org/10.5559/di.33.2.01

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF LOCUS OF CONTROL IN RESPONSES TO REMOTE JOB OFFERS? A HIGH-POWERED STUDY OF UNEMPLOYED PARTICIPANTS IN RETRAINING COURSES

Tatiana PETHÖ, Miroslava BOZOGÁŇOVÁ
Institute of Social Sciences of the Centre of Social and Psychological Sciences SAS, Košice, Slovakia

Pavol KAČMÁR
Faculty of Arts, Pavol Jozef Šafárik University in Košice, Košice, Slovakia

UDK: 331.108.3:159.9
Original scientific paper

Received: September 15, 2023

Limited number of studies have explored role of locus of control (LoC) in job search. In this study, involving over fourteen thousand participants enrolled in retraining courses, we examined the role of LoC in individuals' responses to a hypothetical job offer located 100 km away from their current place of residence. Results indicated that internal locus of control predicted a positive response to the job offer and the tendency to seek additional information about the job offer. In addition, the internal locus of control predicted worries and the automatic rejection of job offers negatively. Conversely, the external locus of control predicted worries and a tendency to reject job offer positively and engagement in further seeking of information and positive reactions to job offer negatively. However, the size of the effects was small, indicating a need to continue the search for predictors of the reaction to the job offer. Neither type of locus of control was found to be associated with seeking advice from friends or family.

Keywords: LoC, internal LoC, external LoC, job search, unemployment

✉ Tatiana Pethö, Institute of Social Sciences of the Centre of Social and Psychological Sciences SAS, Karpatska 5, 040 01, Košice, Slovakia.
E-mail: petho@saske.sk

INTRODUCTION

The concept of locus of control (LoC), which refers to individual beliefs about the causal relationship between one's actions and their effects on one's life, has been studied for seven decades. Moreover, in recent years, there has been a resurgence of interest in this construct, as researchers have recognised its importance and potential for further exploration. For instance, Galvin et al. (2018, p. 4) called for "renewed consideration of the LoC as an independent construct and increased vigour in extending its theory and nomological network", and the Google Scholar search engine indicates more than 36,000 resources in the last 5 years alone. However, despite this extensive research literature, little is known about how LoC influences the decisions of unemployed people. In particular, what role does LoC play in refusing a job offer, feeling worried, seeking advice, searching for more information, and responding positively to an offer far away from their place of residence? We aimed to answer these research questions in the present study. First, we will review the concept of LoC and its dimensions, then discuss previous research on LoC among the unemployed, and provide an overview of the present research.

Locus of control (LoC)

LoC is a measurement of individual beliefs regarding the causal relationship between one's own efforts and their consequences on life (Rotter, 1966; Preuss & Hennecke, 2018). It is a concept that refers to a generalised expectation about the extent to which reinforcements are under internal or external control. People with an 'internal' LoC believe that reinforcements are largely determined by personal effort, ability, and initiative (Rotter, 1966). Such individuals may come to believe that outcomes are generally in line with the effort put into them, so they tend to work harder when engaged in important tasks (Lefcourt, 1991). On the other hand, individuals with an 'external' LoC believe that reinforcements are primarily determined by other people, social structures, luck, or fate (Rotter, 1966; Heinström, 2010).

LoC in an organisational context is conceptualised through two factors: personal and political control (Mirels, 1970; Coombs & Schroeder, 1988; Ferguson, 1993), which correspond with internal and external LoC.

Personal control represents the extent to which individuals believe they have control over their personal outcomes and experience at work (task accomplishment, career advancement, and job satisfaction). On the other hand, political control refers to the perception of control over work outcomes that are influenced by external or organisational factors, such as policies, procedures, and management decisions (Ferguson, 1993). The two-dimensional explanation provides a framework for researchers to explore how personal (internal) and political (external) dimensions of control explain different outcomes, employees' approach to work, both attitudinally and behaviourally.

LoC is often conceptualised as one of the indicators of core self-evaluation, a multidimensional construct (Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge et al., 1997, 1998), where emotional stability/non-neuroticism, generalised self-efficacy and self-esteem are included alongside LoC (Chang et al., 2012). The concept of *core self-evaluations* was first defined by Judge et al. (1997, 1998), in an effort to understand the dispositional sources of job satisfaction. It can be understood as "fundamental, subconscious conclusions individuals reach about themselves, other people, and the world" (Judge et al., 1998, p. 18). Despite leading to many inspiring findings (see, e.g., Chang et al., 2012 for a review), such a synthesising approach has its limitations. For example, in their review, Galvin et al. (2018) claim, inter alia, that the current findings point to a unique role of LoC instead. They also point out that important theoretical and empirical aspects are overlooked when LoC is analysed together with the other dimensions of the core self-concept. The fact that specific variance associated with this variable is considered unimportant within the superordinate factor may serve as an example. Furthermore, according to some authors, LoC is more an evaluation of the environment and external rewards than an evaluation of one's self (Johnson et al., 2015). Several studies on factor structure are in line with these objections (Johnson et al., 2015; Johnson et al., 2011, 2016), as are studies that aim to examine the pattern of relationships with other variables or the conceptual analysis of the construct itself (Chang et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 2008).

Therefore, we will focus on LoC as a two-dimensional stand-alone variable that plays a potentially important role in the context of unemployment and job search, rather than focusing on the broader multi-dimensional construct of core self-evaluation in the present research.

LoC in the context of work, unemployment, and job search

The role of LoC in the context of work has been a significant topic for many researchers, such as Ng et al. (2006), Judge & Bono (2001), Kanfer et al. (2001) and Spector (1982), to name a few influential classic studies. In fact, LoC is associated with several professional outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction and willingness to work, and it is also important in explaining employees' approach to work, both in terms of attitude and behaviour. However, there is some merit in examining the LoC specifically in unemployed individuals. For example, although the LoC is considered to be a relatively stable variable (Bono & Judge, 2003; Galvin et al., 2018), it turns out that the LoC is the result of activity in the labour market. In particular, losing one's job is an event that can have a significant impact on one's beliefs. This is because it has not only short-term effects but also long-term consequences in terms of the control of the individual.

Previous studies indicated that young people who were unemployed for a long time had increasing levels of external LoC and feelings of helplessness (Goldsmith et al., 1995). Similarly, being out of work for a long time can make a person feel more powerless and unable to influence their situation (Legerski et al., 2006). In fact, Ross and Mirowsky (1992) found that employed people reported higher levels of control than the unemployed or people exposed to intermittent work. Waters and Moore (2002) stated that the long-term unemployed had lower levels of internal control beliefs. They pointed to the finding that a high level of 'internal control' affects the ability to find employment, and a lack of 'internal control' is associated with persistent unemployment.

External LoC has also been found to reduce an individual's job-seeking efforts (Caliendo et al., 2015). Studies also indicate that people who believe they can influence their outcomes are more likely to find a new job and spend less time out of work (see, e.g., Gallo et al., 2003). Unemployed people with internal LoC are willing to put in more effort and look for higher-paid jobs because they are aware of the skills associated with the LoC, which, as econometricians see it, makes them more desirable in the eyes of employers than unemployed individuals with lower levels of internal LoC. Subsequent studies (Caliendo et al. 2015; McGee, 2015) have also shown that internal LoC is associated with the job-seeking efforts of the unemployed. Unemployment has significant psychological consequences for young people, leading to more negative mood, lower self-esteem and higher depressive affect compared to their employed counterparts. On the other hand, researchers have not found the predicted difference between the employed and unemployed in the locus of control (Tiggermann & Winefield, 1984).

McGree and McGree (2016) found that individuals with an internal LoC search for jobs more intensively because they believe that their efforts will lead to a job offer. They expect offers to depend on their efforts, unlike individuals with a lower internal LoC. An important framework in the context of LoC, work, and unemployment (Kafner et al., 2001) refers to job search behaviour, which was significantly and positively related to finding employment. Moderator analyses showed significant differences in the magnitude of the variable relationships for the type of job search measure (effort vs. intensity) and sample type (job loser vs. employed job seeker vs. new entrant). From a theoretical perspective, such a pattern of results is in line with the model of Caliendo et al. (2015) which posits that each person has a belief about the impact of job search effort on job offer arrival rate, which depends on the extent to which an individual has an internal locus of control. The impact of unemployment on an individual's psychological health is an important part of the research and is significantly related to the LoC. Feather and O'Brien (1986) state that unemployment led to a decrease in perceived competence, activity, and life satisfaction, as well as an increase in depressive affect. The study was conducted on large samples of young Australian school leavers over a two-year period, providing robust evidence of the impact of unemployment on psychological well-being.

Overall, these pioneering findings indicate the need to further examine the LoC in the context of the unemployed, particularly in the broader context of job search. However, little is known about how people respond to a new job offer that requires them to relocate, and what role the LoC plays in the initial response to such an offer. As many job offers are located far from the current residence, and different factors including the LoC can influence the initial response and the later decision to accept or reject the offer, this gap in the literature calls for further investigation. Belgium, Estonia and the Slovak Republic have the largest disparities between metropolitan regions and rural regions (OECD, 2022). The main reason for regional disparities is the combination of low economic growth and job creation in the eastern and central parts of the country and insufficient labour mobility to the west, in particular for low-skilled workers (see more Demmou et al., 2015). Furthermore, research addressing the role of the LoC in retraining courses is absent. This is unfortunate, as retraining courses are important for job search and career development. Retraining centres also provide a unique opportunity to work with the target group for research and interventions, as retraining courses may provide a more controlled and representative environment to assess the effects of the LoC on different outcomes, and may be efficient in implementing different interventions aimed at the unemployed population.

THE PRESENT RESEARCH

Building on the research line documenting the role of LoC in the field of work (Ng et al., 2006; Judge & Bono, 2001; Spector, 1982) and job search in particular (Caliendo et al., 2015; McGee & McGee, 2016; Ng et al., 2006), and following the recent call for renewed interest in studying the LoC as a distinct construct as well as efforts to expand its nomological network (Galvin et al., 2018), we focused on developing the existing knowledge base by examining the role of the LoC in the context of unemployed participants in retraining courses. In the research conducted on a sample of 14,626 participants, we focused on the different ways in which individuals can initially respond to a hypothetical job offer located more than 100 km away from their current residence.

Due to the novelty of the research topic and related ambiguity, we formulated a series of exploratory research questions instead of precise hypotheses. In particular, the following research questions were formulated: how is LoC related to responding to a job offer in terms of rejecting the offer (RQ1), experiencing worries about the offer (RQ2), positively reacting to the offer (RQ3), searching for further information about the offer (RQ4), and seeking advice from friends and family (RQ5)?"

METHOD

Sample and procedure

The research sample consisted of 14.626 participants (55% were male) with a mean age of 37.65 (Med = 38, Mod = 20.00 years).

Of all the participants, 54% were single, 35% were married, 9% were divorced, and 2% were widowed. 31.12% completed primary education and 6.76% did not complete primary education; 33.77% attained lower secondary vocational education; 33.77% attained higher secondary vocational education; 4.16 attained general secondary education; 0.26% attained post-secondary vocational education; 0.48% had a bachelor's degree; 1.49% had a master's degree; 0.03% had a doctoral degree; 42% of all participants lived in the countryside, 58% lived in cities.

The research respondents were "Ready to Work!" ("Home – pripravenynapracu.sk," 2020) applicants – unemployed people who were registered with the Centre for Labour, Social Affairs and Family. "Ready for Work" was a project of the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family that supported the retraining of registered unemployed people with a focus on production and technical training.

The unemployed participated in an inclusive education course. The content of the course was tailored to the needs of employers so that each participant had the opportunity to acquire the key soft skills needed to work effectively in a team and to be prepared for a successful job interview. During the practical part of the course, participants learnt basic manual skills used in production operator roles, basic automotive, mechanical, and electrical terminology and learnt how to work safely with basic tools and coordinate their tasks with their colleagues. The course lasted four weeks, and the candidates completed questionnaires after the first half. Respondents completed the questionnaires under the supervision of a tutor who guided them during the course. Data collection took place in 20 waves between June 2018 and February 2020.

Measures

Locus of control

LoC was based on Lumpkin's Brief LoC Scale (1985), inspired by Rotter's original 6-item LoC scale (1966). The scale consisted of 10 items focused on internal and external LoC (e.g., "What happens to me is mostly a consequence of my behaviour"), these are evaluated on a 5-item Likert scale of (dis)agreement (1 – strongly disagree; 5 – strongly agree). The internal consistency for the external LoC was McDonald's $\varpi = 0.60$ and internal LoC was McDonald's $\varpi = 0.63$. Although this is below the optimal threshold of 0.7, we decided to work with two subscales rather than merging them into one subscale or otherwise adjusting the subscales. First, although not optimal, the value of internal consistency in the range between 0.6-0.7 could be considered acceptable, especially considering the lower number of items per subscale. Second, although the number of items could be reconsidered to increase internal consistency, in this case, the internal consistency will not increase substantially if some items are dropped from a scale. Third, the differentiation between internal and external LoC may be of theoretical importance in the present context, and there were convergence problems when two subscales were merged into one.

Response to job offers

The response to job offers was assessed on a 7-point scale (1 – definitely yes; 7 – definitely not), while the individual items were formulated based on (dis)interest in a particular job offer. *The response to job offers* was divided into three subscales: worries, search for further information and offer refusal.

1. The "Search for further information" subscale consisted of 3 items, examining the level of intended effort of the unemployed to obtain information about the particular company, the working and wage/salary conditions (e.g., "I'll find out more about this company"). The analysis of internal consistency yielded a McDonald's ϖ of 0.87.

2. The "Worries" subscale consisted of 2 items. Its purpose was to find out whether the job offer would render the unemployed person nervous and tense with regard to the job offer (e.g., "Such an offer makes me nervous"). The analysis of the internal consistency yielded a Cronbach α of 0.73.

3. The "Refusal of offer" subscale consisted of 3 items and was focused on the tendency to automatically reject job offers and neglect job offer information by the unemployed (e.g., "I will refuse this offer"). The analysis of the internal consistency yielded a McDonald's ϖ of 0.63.

The "Seeking advice" scale consisted of 2 items and was focused on seeking advice from family and friends (e.g., "I will consult friends"). The analysis of the internal consistency yielded a McDonald's ϖ of 0.73.

The "Positive reaction" scale consisted of two items and was focused on the positive emotions associated with the job offers and the tendency to accept the offer (e.g., "I am pleased with this information"). The analysis of the internal consistency yielded a McDonald's ϖ of 0.75.

Materials, data, and analytical code can be found at https://osf.io/65bq9/?view_only=540e55ab308a475997effdd5dbdc0c85.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1.

➲ TABLE 1
Descriptive statistics

		Overall (N=14626)
ILoc	Mean (*SD*)	3.28 (0.697)
	Median [Min, Max]	3.40 [1.00, 5.00]
ELoc	Mean (*SD*)	3.29 (0.751)
	Median [Min, Max]	3.40 [1.00, 5.00]
Search for information	Mean (*SD*)	3.32 (1.61)
	Median [Min, Max]	3.00 [1.00, 7.00]
Offer refusal	Mean (*SD*)	4.01 (1.34)
	Median [Min, Max]	4.00 [1.00, 7.00]
Positive reaction	Mean (*SD*)	4.42 (1.54)
	Median [Min, Max]	4.50 [1.00, 7.00]
Advice seeking	Mean (*SD*)	3.16 (1.55)
	Median [Min, Max]	3.00 [1.00, 7.00]
Worries	Mean (*SD*)	4.32 (1.51)
	Median [Min, Max]	4.00 [1.00, 7.00]

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was selected as the main analytical tool in the present study because A) this method is in line with the research question of interest, B) SEM can analyse complex relationships among constructs, and C) it can handle unobserved variables (allowing the measurement of error).

The WLSMV (i.e., weighted least squares mean and variance adjusted) estimator was implemented, as this estimator can handle categorical and non-normal data in structural equation modelling (SEM). For analysis, we used the Lavaan package (Rosseel, 2023) in R environment (R Core Team, 2017).

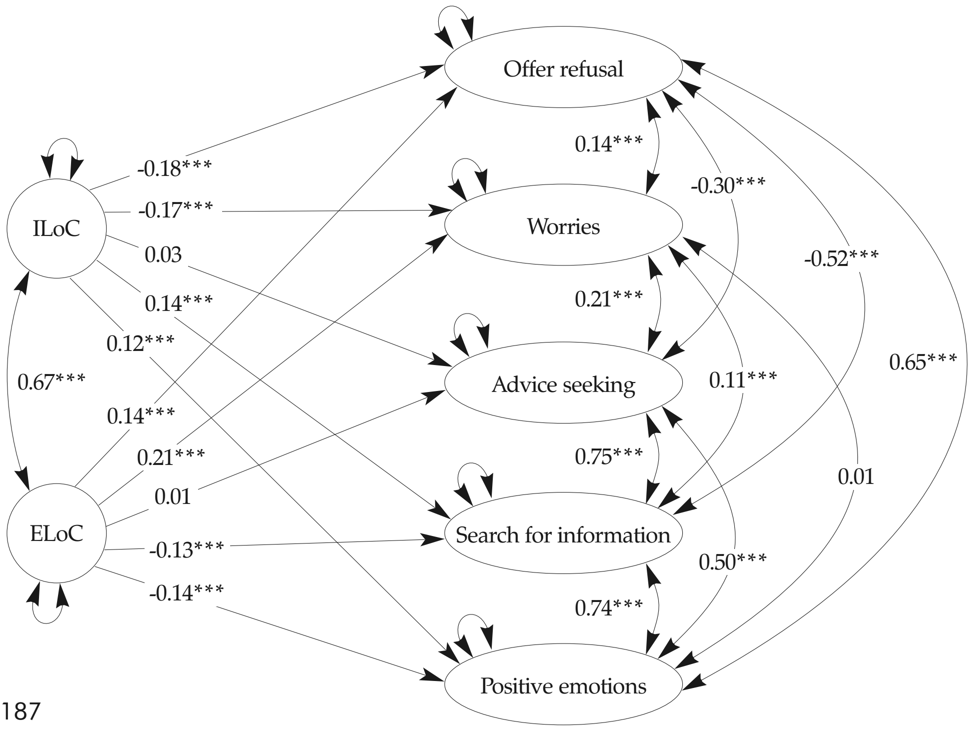
The following criteria for evaluating model fit were considered. First and foremost, the chi-square statistic is reported and considered for the global model fit evaluation. However, the approximate fit indices are also reported and evaluated. The benchmarks were selected as follows: RMSEA < 0.05 or at most 0.08; CFI > 0.90 or preferably 0.95; SRMR < 0.08 or ideally 0.05.

RESULTS OF SEM

Considering more traditional global fit statistics, it can be concluded that the model failed an exact fit test, as the chi-square test was statistically significant ($\chi^2(188) = 4352.71$, $p = 0.001$). The local fit can be assessed by inspecting residuals provided in Appendix C. As the chi-square statistic is sensitive to discrepancy detection in larger samples, and such discrepancy can be inconsequential, the results of approximate fit indices are provided and examined. In particular, the values of the comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) with 90% confidence interval (CI) and standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) were in the acceptable range (CFI = 0.97, RMSEA = 0.04, 90% CI [0.04, 0.04], SRMR = 0.04).[1] Therefore, the model was tentatively retained, and both the measurement and structural parts were examined.

The structural part of the model is graphically depicted in Figure 1, while both the measurement and structural parts are described in Appendix B in detail.

➊ FIGURE 1
The structural part of the model



Considering the measurement component of the model, all items loaded on the latent variables (all $p < 0.001$). However, as shown in Appendix A, it is worth noting that some factor loadings for LoC were lower than optimal (< 0.7).[2] When considering the structural component of the model, the internal LoC negatively predicted the tendency to automatically reject the job offer ($\beta = -0.18$, $p < 0.001$) and experience worries ($\beta = -0.17$, $p < 0.001$). Internal LoC also positively predicted a positive response to the offer ($\beta = 0.12$, $p < 0.001$) and search for further information regarding the offer ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.001$). External LoC positively predicted the tendency to automatically reject the job offer ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.001$) and worries ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.001$). Also, external LoC negatively predicted positive reaction ($\beta = -0.14$, $p < 0.001$) and search for further information ($\beta = -0.13$, $p < 0.001$). However, seeking advice from friends and family was not predicted by either internal ($\beta = 0.03$, p = 0.025), or by external LoC ($\beta = 0.01$, $p = 0.615$). As can be seen, the effect sizes, although significant, are modest. Further insight into the effect size obtained can be gained by examining the correlations between the latent variables (all correlations were below 0.10) and the percentage of variance explained in endogenous variables (up to 2.5%), as shown in Appendix A and B.

DISCUSSION

Following the call for "renewed consideration of LoC as an independent construct and increased vigour in extending its theory and nomological network" (Galvin et al., 2018; p. 4), and a line of research focusing on the LoC of unemployed people in general and in the context of job search in particular (see, e.g., Caliendo, et al., 2015; McGee & McGee, 2016; Ng et al., 2006), we aimed to examine the role of LoC in responding to a hypothetical job offer on a sample of over fourteen thousand participants in retraining centres. The hypothetical offer stated that a large company was offering a new job, but the job was more than 100 km away from the individual's current residence. It was believed that such an endeavour has the potential to extend the existing knowledge base, as previous research (McGee & McGee, 2016; Caliendo et al., 2015; Srinisavan & Surinder, 1992) has mainly focused on examining the issue of information search and locus of control (LoC) in the context of human capital, personality, effort costs, search time, and search activities of unemployed individuals.

The results indicate that internal LoC predicted positive reactions to the job offer and the search for additional information about the job offer. Internal LoC was also negatively related to worries as a response to the job offer and to the automatic rejection of the job offer. On the other hand, external locus of control was positively related to worries and automatic rejection of the offer, and negatively associated with positive reactions to the offer and searching for further information. Seeking advice from friends and family was not related to internal or external locus of control.

These findings demonstrate that both internal and external LoC are associated with different response tendencies to job offers located far from the current residence of unemployed individuals. Why is this the case? On the one hand, a new job offer from a large company is potentially very positive information for unemployed people. At the same time, however, if they don't believe that their efforts will have any impact on their life, a new offer and the associated distance could pose a considerable challenge.

The present findings are consistent with the previous research documenting the role of LoC in the process of job search. For example, according to prior research, those who believe they have control over their outcomes tend to secure a new job faster and have shorter spells of unemployment (Gallo et al., 2003). It has been suggested that people with internal LoC are more active in looking for jobs because they are confident that their efforts will result in a job offer. Unlike people with a lower internal LoC, they attribute offers to their actions (McGree & McGree, 2016). Also, their awareness of their skills makes them willing to work harder and look for jobs with higher pay, making them more attractive to employers. The present findings also suggest that people with a higher level of internal LoC tend to respond to the job offer differently than people with a higher level of external LoC, as they believe they can cope with the associated challenges, in this case, the distance. However, due to the larger sample size, it is important to explicitly consider not only the statistical but also the practical significance of the presented findings.

Positive correlation between internal and external LoC is a surprising finding of the conducted research. The positive correlation of 0.67 can be explained in several ways:

- unemployed respondents may experience cognitive dissonance, leading them to believe in control over certain aspects of their lives (internal LoC), while recognising the external factors also plays a significant role (external LoC);
- unemployed respondents looking for work may be under the influence of strong external factors (economic situation, labour market), but, on the other hand, they may have internal belief that their personal efforts and abilities can lead to an improvement in their situation;
- the unemployed who are actively looking for work may be more motivated to believe that they can change their situation (internal LoC), but at the same time realise that success also depends on external factors such as job offers and economic situation (external LoC).

People may tend to believe that they have some degree of control over their personal actions (for example, how they write their resume, how they prepare for interviews), but at the same time realise that the success of their efforts also depends on factors beyond their control (for example, the number of available jobs, employers' decisions). This dual perception of control may result in respondents showing high values in both dimensions of locus of control. Unemployed people, especially those registered with the employment office, can have a realistic view of their situation. They understand that they must put forth their best effort (internal LoC), but are also aware that their efforts may be affected by external circumstances such as the job market or the economic situation (external LoC). This realistic approach can explain the positive correlation between both dimensions of LoC.

Unemployment is a stressful situation that can lead to various psychological adaptations. One such adaptation may be the development of a belief in personal control over some aspects of life, while other aspects are perceived to be influenced by external factors. This adaptation can be a mechanism for coping with stress and uncertainty, which can lead to a positive correlation between internal and external LoC.

Is LoC worth considering in the present context when looking at the effect size? It depends. On the one hand, small effects are barely distinguishable from the crud factor (but see Orben & Lakens, 2020, for a discussion regarding the crud factor) and have no substantial explanatory or predictive importance, at least not in the short run (see Funder & Ozer, 2019 for interpretation of the effect size). On the other hand, as stressed by Funder and Ozer (2019, p. 166), "an effect-size *r* of 0.05 indicates an effect that is very small for the explanation of single events but potentially consequential in the not-very-long run, an effect-size *r* of 0.10 indicates an effect that is still small at the level of single events but potentially more ultimately consequential, an effect-size *r* of 0.20 indicates an effect of medium size that is of some explanatory and practical use even in the short run and therefore even more important".

The reason is that a small effect can accumulate over time, and this is particularly true in individual differences research (see e.g. Abelson, 1985). This argument can be illustrated by an example provided by Funder and Ozer (2019). Imagine a situation, where a student transfers to a dormitory, and this student is highly agreeable. If we work with an estimate of the correlation between agreeableness and successful social interaction as low as 0.05, the one-time effect is, in fact, negligible. However, if this student has twenty interactions per day, then "the consequences for his popularity in less than a month (550 interactions / 20 interactions per day = 27.5 days) will be noticeable" (Funder & Ozer, 2019, p. 161). This could also be true in the present context. Imagine, for example, a situation where an unemployed person searches for job offers. Although the frequency will be lower than in the previous example, over time, people with a higher LoC will respond more positively to different (even more challenging) job offers, and, subsequently, they will find a new job sooner.

Practical implications

The findings presented here demonstrate implications for practice. However, it should be reminded one more time that although relationships were significant, the effect size was small. Therefore, future research should focus on determining other predictors of job search.

Based on the findings from the "Ready to Work" project, it would be beneficial to tailor retraining programmes for unemployed individuals to emphasise enhancing skills in job search techniques, understanding job roles, and encouraging them to pursue further qualifications in their chosen fields. In terms of education and training, special attention could also be paid to determining the level of LoC and the possibilities of its development (internality) for the benefit of the unemployed in the form of retraining courses. It is important for the unemployed to understand LoC in the context of finding a job. Education and training in the field of LoC and its development (internality) increase the chances of getting and keeping a job; therefore, the issue of LoC should be focused on at the end of secondary school, which could be of particular benefit to students who have decided to join the labour market right after their graduation. Recognising that individuals with an external locus of control may have worries and tend to automatically decline opportunities, employers might consider addressing these concerns directly in their communication and offering extra support or information to alleviate their apprehensions.

Limitations

As the sample consisted of the participants of the "Ready to Work" project (hereinafter referred to as the participants), the methods used had to be comprehensible for the different educational categories of respondents, ranging from people without any education to people with a PhD. The validity of the completed questionnaires could be influenced by the presence of the instructor (who spent four weeks with the participants during the course) and was present when the questionnaire was completed. Moreover, respondents from different regions of Slovakia were not evenly represented in the research group – a reason for this could be the regional headcount differences between the registered unemployed and the willingness of the unemployed to participate in the "Ready to Work" project.

Also, in some cases, the internal consistency of the scales was not optimal (i.e., below 0.7). Furthermore, although the brief versions of the scale have some benefits (e.g., Brief LoC is compatible with the theoretical framework of Rotter and it is easy and quick to administer, making it suitable for large surveys), the full versions could have better psychometric properties (see critique of Brief LoC provided by John et al., 1988). Relatedly, as data on all variables were collected from the same respondents at the same time and using the same questionnaire, there is a risk of common source bias that should be addressed in future research.

Perspectives for future research

Future research on LoC and unemployment should consider the availability of job positions, the unemployment history of an individual, and the stages and spells of unemployment in the context of human control capacity. More extended periods of unemployment can increase one's sense of helplessness and loss of control in terms of work (Legerski et al., 2006). A perspective for further research is to understand the two-dimensional nature of LoC (i.e., internal and external LoC). As noted by certain authors active in the field of organisational sciences (e.g., Galvin et al. 2018), an approach that emphasises the unidimensionality of LoC prevails. According to this approach, LoC lies in a continuum, and internal and external LoC are its two opposite poles. However, as suggested by research on the so-called bi-local expectancy (e.g., April et al., 2012), internal and external LoC may represent not one but two separate dimensions that balance each other, which can serve as a basis for further research. Furthermore, a systematic examination of the role of LoC could be beneficial, as the present results suggest that LoC may play some role in the current context, but this role is somewhat limited given the effect size. In addition, instead of examining LoC, one may focus on other psychological variables associated with individual differences that might – theoretically – be important in a particular context. An example of this is psychological capital (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017), which consists of self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience as core factors for work motivation. This construct could be important in the job search process and should be examined in this researched context in the future.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the present study, conducted with more than fourteen thousand participants in retraining courses, provided a high-powered opportunity to examine the role of LoC in the intention to respond to specific job offers in a particular way. We found that internal and external LoC were associated with various ways in which individuals may respond to new job offers. However, the effects were small. This study provides new findings regarding the role of LoC in job search and encourages further research on the topic.

NOTES

[1] Diagonally weighted least squares are recommended for ordered data. Therefore, a DWLS estimator and a mean- and variance-adjusted (MV) chi-squared test statistic have been used for analysis. However, it was suggested that applying benchmarks created for maximum likelihood for alternative estimators could be problematic (see Xia & Yang, 2019, for the argument that conventional cutoff values based on maximum likelihood method may not be appropriate and can lead to overestimation of the model fit). Thus, we also conducted a sensitivity analysis with a robust maximum likelihood estimator to ensure that fit indices are not inflated and can be interpreted. Although the model fit was slightly worse ($\chi^2(188) = 5821.44$, $p = 0.001$; CFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.05, 90% CI Š0.05, 0.05Ć, SRMR = 0.04), the difference was not substantial, and the interpretation remained the same.

[2] It is worth noting that one-factor loading was below the recommended threshold (i.e., 0.4). We computed sensitivity analysis omitting this item, but as the results remained conceptually identical, the original model without post-hoc modifications was preferred and is reported.

APPENDIX

A Detailed SEM results

	Model		Estimate (std. err.)	Standardised estimate	CI lower	CI upper
Measurement part of the model	ELoc	G1	1.00+	0.41	0.39	0.43
		G2	1.17 (0.04)***	0.46	0.44	0.48
		G3	1.12 (0.04)***	0.47	0.45	0.48
		G4	1.45 (0.04)***	0.59	0.58	0.61
		G5	1.52 (0.04)***	0.61	0.59	0.63
	ILoc	G6	1.00+	0.50	0.48	0.52
		G7	0.42 (0.03)***	0.19	0.17	0.22
		G8	1.02 (0.03)***	0.55	0.53	0.57
		G9	1.15 (0.03)***	0.58	0.57	0.60
		G10	1.18 (0.03)***	0.60	0.59	0.62
	Search_for_information	D6	1.00+	0.81	0.80	0.82
		D7	1.01 (0.01)***	0.86	0.85	0.87
		D8	0.97 (0.01)***	0.83	0.82	0.84
	Offer_refusal	D2	1.00+	0.73	0.71	0.75
		D4	0.43 (0.02)***	0.32	0.29	0.34
		D5	1.12 (0.02)***	0.77	0.76	0.79

(continues)

(continued)

	Model		Estimate (std. err.)	Standardised estimate	CI lower	CI upper
	Positive_reaction	D1	1.00+	0.74	0.73	0.75
		D3	1.17 (0.01)***	0.81	0.79	0.82
	Advice_seeking	D9	1.00+	0.77	0.76	0.79
		D10	0.92 (0.01)***	0.75	0.73	0.76
	Worries	D11	1.00+	0.60	0.57	0.62
		D12	1.69 (0.07)***	0.96	0.93	1.00
Structural part of the model	Search_for_ information	ILoc	0.36 (0.05)***	0.14	0.18	0.10
		ELoc	-0.40 (0.06)***	-0.13	-0.09	-0.16
	Offer_refusal	ILoc	-0.39 (0.05)***	-0.18	-0.14	-0.22
		ELoc	0.38 (0.06)***	0.14	0.19	0.10
	Positive_reaction	ILoc	0.27 (0.05)***	0.12	0.16	0.08
		ELoc	-0.37 (0.05)***	-0.14	-0.10	-0.18
	Advice_seeking	ILoc	0.06 (0.05)	0.03	0.07	-0.02
		ELoc	0.03 (0.06)	0.01	0.05	-0.03
	Worries	ILoc	-0.29 (0.04)***	-0.17	-0.13	-0.21
		ELoc	0.43 (0.04)***	0.21	0.25	0.17
R squared	Search.for.information		0.01			
	Offer.refusal		0.02			
	Positive.reaction		0.01			
	Advice.seeking		0.00			
	Worries		0.03			
Fit Indices	χ^2		4033.04***			
	Scaled χ^2		4352.71(188)***			
	CFI		0.97			
	TLI		0.96			
	RMSEA		0.04			
	SRMR		0.04			

+Fixed parameter; ***$p < 0.001$

B Correlations among latent variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 ILoc	1.00						
2 ELoc	0.67	1.00					
3 Search_for_information	0.05	-0.03	1.00				
4 Offer_refusal	-0.08	0.03	-0.53	1.00			
5 Positive_reaction	0.03	-0.06	0.74	-0.66	1.00		
6 Advice_seeking	0.03	0.03	0.75	-0.30	0.50	1.00	
7 Worries	-0.03	0.10	0.09	0.16	-0.02	0.28	1.00

C Covariance residuals

	G6	G7	G8	G9	G10	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	D6	D7	D8	D2	D4	D5	D1	D3	D9	D10	D11	D12
G6	0.000																					
G7	0.009	0.000																				
G8	-0.001	0.013	0.000																			
G9	-0.022	-0.004	0.020	0.000																		
G10	-0.033	0.009	-0.062	0.077	0.000																	
G1	-0.013	0.026	-0.060	-0.081	-0.011	0.000																
G2	0.017	-0.016	-0.021	-0.052	0.003	0.095	0.000															
G3	0.028	-0.029	0.005	-0.021	-0.006	0.040	0.029	0.000														
G4	0.031	-0.032	0.038	0.002	-0.007	-0.010	-0.041	0.009	0.000													
G5	0.036	-0.021	0.080	0.010	0.019	-0.026	-0.019	-0.054	0.015	0.000												
D6	-0.019	0.024	0.000	0.001	-0.004	-0.019	-0.015	0.002	-0.009	-0.009	0.000											
D7	-0.014	0.026	-0.011	-0.010	0.007	-0.008	0.001	-0.009	-0.008	0.015	-0.044	0.000										
D8	-0.009	0.019	0.009	0.003	0.018	-0.004	0.014	0.011	0.007	0.019	-0.061	0.119	0.000									
D2	0.017	-0.047	0.023	0.018	-0.006	-0.011	-0.016	0.011	0.005	-0.003	-0.044	0.019	0.038	0.000								
D4	-0.008	-0.004	-0.019	0.005	-0.012	0.017	0.014	-0.032	0.006	0.003	0.043	0.047	0.036	0.047	0.000							
D5	0.008	-0.027	-0.010	-0.012	0.006	0.024	0.009	-0.021	0.002	-0.003	-0.086	0.014	0.016	-0.057	0.120	0.000						
D1	-0.019	0.059	-0.029	-0.007	0.015	0.003	0.009	-0.020	-0.007	-0.002	0.068	-0.029	-0.047	-0.094	0.078	0.029	0.000					
D3	-0.012	0.043	-0.003	0.009	0.001	-0.014	0.000	0.014	0.009	0.004	0.097	-0.042	-0.053	0.000	0.052	0.002	0.000	0.000				
D9	-0.014	0.050	-0.029	-0.007	0.024	0.022	0.017	-0.028	-0.019	-0.011	-0.058	0.009	0.037	-0.025	0.054	0.000	0.010	0.010	0.000			
D10	-0.011	0.012	-0.003	-0.004	0.017	0.007	0.022	0.009	0.007	-0.010	-0.062	0.027	0.069	0.008	0.016	-0.011	-0.024	0.002	0.000	0.000		
D11	-0.003	-0.010	-0.057	-0.010	0.013	0.053	0.024	0.010	0.000	-0.021	-0.119	-0.092	-0.078	0.090	0.076	0.127	-0.093	-0.116	-0.035	-0.041	0.000	
D12	0.024	0.022	-0.048	-0.004	0.053	0.054	0.016	-0.016	-0.027	-0.034	0.030	0.070	0.073	-0.087	0.013	-0.072	0.062	0.067	0.026	0.019	0.000	0.000

REFERENCES

Abelson, R. P. (1985). A variance explanation paradox: When a little is a lot. *Psychological Bulletin, 97*(1), 129–133. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.97.1.129

April, K. A., Dharani, B., & Peters, K. (2012). Impact of locus of control expectancy on level of well-being. *Review of European Studies, 4*(2), 124–137. https://doi.org/10.5539/res.v4n2p124

Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2003). Core self-evaluations: A review of the trait and its role in job satisfaction and job performance. *European Journal of Personality, 17*(1_suppl), S5–S18. https://doi.org/10.1002/per.481

Caliendo, M., Cobb-Clark, D. A., & Uhlendorff, A. (2015). Locus of control and job search strategies. *Review of Economics and Statistics, 97*(1), 88–103. https://doi.org/10.1162/REST_a_00459

Coombs, W. N., & Schroeder, H. E. (1988). Generalized locus of control: An analysis of factor analytic data. *Personality and Individual Differences, 9*(1), 79–85. https://doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869(88)90032-3

Chang, C.-H. (Daisy), Ferris, D. L., Johnson, R. E., Rosen, C. C., & Tan, J. A. (2012). Core self-evaluations: A review and evaluation of the literature. *Journal of Management, 38*(1), 81–128. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311419661

Demmou, L., Haluš, M., Machlica G., & Menkyna, R. (2015). *Spurring growth in lagging regions in Slovak Republic*. OECD Economics Department Working Papers, No. 1211, OECD Publishing, Paris. https://doi.org/10.1787/5js1pzv05lkd-en

Feather, N. T., & O'Brien, G. E. (1986). A longitudinal study of the effects of employment and unemployment on school-leavers. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 59*(2), 121–144. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1986.tb00219.x

Ferguson, E. (1993). Rotter's locus of control scale: A ten-item two-factor model. *Psychological Reports, 73*(3), 1267–128. https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1993.73.3f.1267

Funder, D. C., & Ozer, D. J. (2019). Evaluating effect size in psychological research: Sense and nonsense. *Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science, 2*(2), 156–168. https://doi.org/10.1177/2515245919847202

Gallo, W. T., Endrass, J., Bradley, E. H., Hell, D., & Kasl, S. V. (2003). The influence of internal control on the employment status of German workers. *Journal of Contextual Economics–Schmollers Jahrbuch, 123*(1), 71–81. https://doi.org/10.3790/schm.123.1.71

Galvin, B. M., Randel, A. E., Collins, B. J., & Johnson, R. E. (2018). Changing the focus of locus (of control): A targeted review of the LoC literature and agenda for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 39*(7), 820–833. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2275

Goldsmith, A. H., Veum, J. R., & Darity, W. (1995). Are being unemployed and being out of the labor force distinct states?: A psychological approach. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 16*(2), 275–295. https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-4870(95)00009-D

Heinström, J. (2010). 11 – Locus of control. In J. Heinström, *From fear to flow* (pp. 133–138). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-1-84334-513-8.50011-X

Home – pripravenynapracu.sk. (2020, July 16). Retrieved May 25, 2021, from Pripravenynapracu.sk website: https://pripravenynapracu.sk/en/

John, J., Tansuhaj, P., Gentry, J. W., Manzer, L. L., & Cho, B. J. (1988). Lumpkin's abbreviated version of Rotter's Locus of Control Scale: How reliable is it? *Psychological Reports, 62*(3), 835–839. https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1988.62.3.835

Johnson, R. E., Rosen, C. C., & Djurdjevic, E. (2011). Assessing the impact of common method variance on higher order multidimensional constructs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(4), 744–761. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021504

Johnson, R. E., Rosen, C. C., & Levy, P. E. (2008). Getting to the core of self-evaluation: A review and recommendations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 29*(3), 391–413. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.514

Johnson, R. E., Rosen, C. C., Chang, C.-H. (Daisy), & Lin, S.-H. (Joanna). (2016). Assessing the status of LoC as an indicator of core self-evaluations. *Personality and Individual Differences, 90*, 155–162. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.11.002

Johnson, R., Rosen, C., Chang, C.-H., & Lin, S. H. J. (2015). Getting to the core of LoC: Is it an evaluation of the self or the environment? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*(5), 1568–1578. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000011

Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations traits – self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability – with job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(1), 80–92. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.1.80

Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., & Durham, C. C. (1997). The dispositional causes of job satisfaction: A core evaluations approach. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 19,* 151–188.

Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(1), 17–34. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.1.17

Kanfer, R., Wanberg, R. C., & Kantrowitz, M. T. (2001). Job search and employment: A personality-motivational analysis and meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 57*(1), 33-42. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1984.tb00145.x

Lefcourt, H. M. (1991). Chapter 9 – Locus of Control. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver, & L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.), *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes* (pp. 413–499). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-590241-0.50013-7

Legerski, E. M., Cornwall, M., & O'Neil, B. (2006). Changing LoC: Steelworkers adjusting to forced unemployment. *Social Forces, 84*(3), 1521–1537. https://doi.org/10.1353/sof.2006.0054

Lumpkin, J. R. (1985). Validity of a brief LoC scale for survey research. *Psychological Reports, 57*(2), 655–659. https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1985.57.2.655

Luthans, F., & Youssef-Morgan, C. M. (2017). Psychological capital: An evidence-based positive approach. *Annual Review of Organizational*

Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 4(1), 339–366. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032516-113324

McGee, A. D. (2015). How the perception of control influences unemployed job search. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review, 68*(1), 184–211. https://doi.org/10.1177/0019793914556245

McGee, A., & McGee, P. (2016). Search, effort, and LoC. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization, 126,* 89–101. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jebo.2016.03.001

Mirels, H. L. (1970). Dimensions of internal versus external control. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 34*(2), 226–228. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0029005

Ng, T. W. H., Sorensen, K. L., & Eby, L. T. (2006). LoC at work: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27*(8), 1057–1087. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.416

OECD (2022). *OECD regions and cities at a glance 2022.* OECD Publishing, Paris. https://doi.org/10.1787/14108660-en

Orben, A., & Lakens, D. (2020). Crud (re)dfined. *Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science, 3*(2), 238–247. https://doi.org/10.1177/2515245920917961

Preuss, M., & Hennecke, J. (2018). Biased by success and failure: How unemployment shapes LoC. *Labour Economics, 53,* 63–74. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2018.05.007

Ross, C. E., & Mirowsky, J. (1992). Households, employment, and the sense of control. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 55*(3), 217–235. https://doi.org/10.2307/2786793

Rosseel, Y., Jorgensen, T. D., & Rockwood, N. (2023). *lavaan: Latent Variable Analysis. R package version 0.6-16.* https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=lavaan

Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs: General and Applied, 80*(1), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0092976

R Core Team (2017) *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. https://www.R-project.org/

Spector, P. E. (1982). Behavior in organizations as a function of employees' LoC. *Psychological Bulletin, 91*(3), 482–497. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.91.3.482

Srinivasan, N., & Surinder, T. (1992). Effect of LoC on information search behavior. *Advances in Consumer Research, 19*(1), 495-504.

Tiggermann, M., & Winefield, H. A. (1984). The effects of unemployment on the mood, self-esteem, locus of control, and depressive affect of school-leavers. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 57*(1), 33–42. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1984.tb00145.x

Xia, Y., & Yang, Y. (2019). RMSEA, CFI, and TLI in structural equation modeling with ordered categorical data: The story they tell depends on the estimation methods. *Behavior Research Methods, 51*(1), 409–428. https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-018-1055-2

Waters, L. E., & Moore, K. A. (2002). Self-esteem, appraisal and coping: A comparison of unemployed and re-employed people. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(5), 593–604. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.156

Koja je uloga lokusa kontrole u odgovorima na ponude udaljenih poslova? Opsežno istraživanje nezaposlenih polaznika programa za prekvalifikaciju

Tatiana PETHÖ, Miroslava BOZOGÁŇOVÁ
Institut društvenih znanosti Centra za društvene i psihološke znanosti SAS, Košice, Slovačka

Pavol KAČMÁR
Filozofski fakultet Sveučilišta Pavol Jozef Šafárik u Košicama, Košice, Slovačka

Ulogu lokusa kontrole u traženju posla istraživao je ograničen broj studija. U ovoj studiji, koja je uključivala više od četrnaest tisuća sudionika upisanih na programe prekvalifikacije, ispitali smo ulogu lokusa kontrole (LoC-a) u odgovorima pojedinaca na hipotetsku ponudu posla koji je 100 km udaljen od njihova sadašnjega mjesta stanovanja. Rezultati su pokazali da unutarnji lokus kontrole predviđa pozitivan odgovor na ponudu posla i tendenciju traženja dodatnih informacija o toj ponudi. Osim toga, unutarnji lokus kontrole pokazao je negativnu povezanost sa zabrinutosti i automatskim odbijanjem ponuda za posao. Nasuprot tome, vanjski lokus kontrole pozitivno je predviđao zabrinutost i sklonost odbijanju ponude posla, a negativno je korelirao s nastavkom traženja informacija i pozitivnim reakcijama na tu ponudu. Međutim, veličina učinaka bila je mala, što upućuje na potrebu nastavka potrage za prediktorima reakcije na ponudu za posao. Ni jedna vrsta lokusa kontrole nije bila povezana s traženjem savjeta od prijatelja ili obitelji.

Ključne riječi: lokus kontrole (LoC), unutarnji LoC, vanjski LoC, traženje posla, nezaposlenost

https://doi.org/10.5559/di.33.2.02

POVEZANOST GLOBALNE I KONTEKSTUALIZIRANE LIČNOSTI SA SAGORIJEVANJEM NA POSLU KOD SREDNJOŠKOLSKIH NASTAVNIKA

Krešimir JAKŠIĆ, Irena BURIĆ
Odjel za psihologiju, Sveučilište u Zadru, Zadar, Hrvatska

UDK: 159.923:37
005.32:331.101.3
373.5.011.3-051:159.9
Izvorni znanstveni rad

Primljeno: 2. veljače 2024.

Istraživanje je financirano sredstvima Hrvatske zaklade za znanost (IP-04-2019-5472)

Spoznaje o odnosu osobina ličnosti i sagorijevanja na poslu kod nastavnika dominantno se zasnivaju na operacionalizaciji ličnosti kao stabilnoga konstrukta (globalna ličnost) i operacionalizaciji sagorijevanja na poslu putem modela Maslach i suradnika. Međutim, prema suvremenim konceptualizacijama, ličnost se može promatrati i kao kontekstualno određen konstrukt. Također, Schaufeli i suradnici iznijeli su vlastitu konceptualizaciju sagorijevanja na poslu, koja se, za razliku od modela Maslach i suradnika, zasniva na jasnim teorijskim postavkama. Stoga je cilj istraživanja bio ispitati odnos ličnosti i sagorijevanja na poslu na temelju suvremene konceptualizacije ličnosti (globalna naspram kontekstualizirana) i sagorijevanja na poslu (model Schaufeli i suradnika). Provedeno je korelacijsko istraživanje na uzorku od 142 srednjoškolska nastavnika. Rezultati istraživanja upućuju na doprinos dimenzija globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti dimenzijama sagorijevanja na poslu.

Ključne riječi: osobine ličnosti, globalna ličnost, kontekstualizirana ličnost, sagorijevanje na poslu, nastavnici

✉ Krešimir Jakšić, Odjel za psihologiju, Sveučilište u Zadru, Šime Vitasovića 1, 23000, Zadar, Hrvatska.
E-mail: kjaksic@unizd.hr

Radni su uvjeti nastavnika specifični te podrazumijevaju prekomjeran rad, nedostatak resursa, vremenski pritisak, administrativni rad i poteškoće s učenicima (Carroll i sur., 2022). Također, pandemija COVID-19 pred nastavnike je postavila nove izazove (npr. *online* nastava), čime je njihovo radno opterećenje dodatno povećano (Pressley, 2021). Uslijed prolongirane anksioznosti uzrokovane navedenim faktorima nastavnici su pod visokim rizikom od sagorijevanja na poslu (Cheng, 2022), što može imati važne posljedice. Primjerice, Madigan i suradnici (2023) sagorijevanje na poslu kod nastavnika doveli su u vezu s narušenim zdravstvenim stanjem (npr. glavobolje, gastroenteritis, upalna stanja), dok prema nalazima Madigan i Kim (2021), sagorijevanje na poslu i zadovoljstvo poslom objašnjavaju 27 % varijance namjere napuštanja posla kod nastavnika, pri čemu sagorijevanje na poslu objašnjava većinu navedene varijance.

Rezultati metaanalitičkih studija pokazuju na negativnu povezanost savjesnosti, ugodnosti, ekstraverzije i otvorenosti k iskustvu sa sagorijevanjem na poslu, odnosno pozitivnu povezanost neuroticizma sa sagorijevanjem na poslu kod nastavnika (Roloff i suradnici, 2022). Ovi rezultati dominantno se zasnivaju na pretpostavci o ličnosti kao stabilnom konstruktu u različitim domenama funkcioniranja (Church i sur., 2008), kao i na operacionalizaciji sagorijevanja na poslu putem modela Maslach i suradnika (1997), koji predstavlja dominantan model u području.

Međutim, u međuvremenu su se pojavili suvremeni pristupi konceptualizaciji – kako ličnosti, tako i sagorijevanja na poslu. Schaufeli i suradnici (2020) iznijeli su vlastiti model sagorijevanja na poslu, koji ima jasno teorijsko uporište, za razliku od modela Maslach i suradnika, koji se zasniva na empirijskim nalazima (de Beer i sur., 2020). Nadalje, prema suvremenim modelima ličnosti, prisutan je varijabilitet u iskazanim osobinama ličnosti ovisno o kontekstu u kojemu se pojedinac nalazi (Fleeson i Jayawickreme, 2015). Stoga će fokus ovoga rada biti na odnosu globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti sa sagorijevanjem na poslu kod nastavnika, operacionaliziranim putem modela Schaufeli i suradnika (2020).

Sagorijevanje na poslu

Dominantnu paradigmu u operacionalizaciji sagorijevanja na poslu postavili su Maslach i suradnici (1997). Prema njihovome modelu, sagorijevanje na poslu može se promatrati kroz tri dimenzije: emocionalnu iscrpljenost, cinizam ili depersonalizaciju i smanjeno osobno dostignuće (Edú-Valsania i sur., 2022). Glavna kritika ovome modelu jest to što se zasniva na empirijskim podacima, a ne na teorijskim postavkama (de Beer i sur., 2020). Stoga su Schaufeli i suradnici (2020) iznijeli vlastitu konceptualizaciju sagorijevanja na poslu. Prema njihovome modelu, središnja dimenzija sagorijevanja na poslu jest iscrpljenost (izrazit gubitak energije), uslijed koje dolazi do poteškoća u kognitivnom (problemi s pamćenjem, pažnjom i koncentracijom) i emocionalnom funkcioniranju pojedinca (prisutnost snažnih emocionalnih reakcija, kao što su tuga i ljutnja, emocionalno preplavljivanje), kao i njegova psihološkoga distanciranja od posla (snažna averzija prema poslu, ravnodušnost i cinizam) (Schaufeli i De Witte, 2023). Sagorijevanje na poslu se prema navedenoj operacionalizaciji može promatrati kao sindrom, odnosno, može se mjeriti kao globalni konstrukt (prosječan rezultat na skali), ali je moguće i interpretirati rezultat na pojedinoj dimenziji (Schaufeli i De Witte, 2023). Prikladnost ovoga modela sagorijevanja na poslu potvrđena je u raznim kulturnim kontekstima (Consiglio i sur., 2021; de Beer i sur., 2020; Redelinghuys i Morgan, 2023; Sakakibara i sur., 2020), uključujući i nacionalni (Tomas i sur., 2023).

Osobine ličnosti

Osobine ličnosti definiraju se kao relativno stabilne razlike između pojedinaca (Church i sur., 2008). Kroz povijest je definirano više modela ličnosti, a jedan od najprihvaćenijih modela jest petofaktorski model, koji podrazumijeva 5 temeljnih dimenzija ličnosti: ekstraverziju, ugodnost, savjesnost, neuroticizam i otvorenost k iskustvu (McCrae i Costa, 1987). Prema Borghansu i suradnicima (2008), ekstraverzija obuhvaća socijabilnost, toplinu, asertivnost, aktivnost, traženje uzbuđenja, pozitivnu emocionalnost. Ugodnost se može opisati kao crta koju definiraju sklonost povjerenju, jednostavnost, altruizam, poslušnost, umjerenost i nježnost. Za savjesnost su karakteristični kompetentnost, usmjerenost prema postignuću, samodisciplina, promišljenost, metodičnost i osjećaj dužnosti. Neuroticizam se očituje u anksioznosti, ljutnji, depresivnosti, impulzivnosti, ranjivosti i samosvjesnosti. Osobe koje su visoko na otvorenosti k iskustvu karakterizira sklonost fantaziranju, estetičnost, otvorenost osjećajima, otvorenost različitim ponašanjima, otvorenost prema novim i drugačijim idejama, otvorenost različitim vrijednostima i uvjerenjima.

U novije vrijeme aktualno je razmatranje prema kojemu se osobine ličnosti, iako relativno stabilne kroz vrijeme, različito manifestiraju, ovisno o kontekstu u kojemu se pojedinac nalazi (Fleeson i Jayawickreme, 2015). U prilog ovakvoj konceptualizaciji ličnosti idu i rezultati do sada provedenih istraživanja, prema kojima kontekstualizirana ličnost može imati snažniji prediktivni doprinos u odnosu na globalnu ličnost (Holtrop i sur., 2014; Slatcher i Vazire, 2009; Shaffer i Postlethwaite, 2012; Swift i Peterson, 2019; Woo i sur., 2015). Ipak, u kontekstu rada nastavnika, uloga kontekstualizirane ličnosti u velikoj je mjeri neistražena, osim iznimki, kao što je istraživanje Kim i suradnika (2018).

Osobine ličnosti i sagorijevanje na poslu kod nastavnika

Petofaktorski model ličnost pokazao se prediktivnim za razne organizacijske ishode (Chiaburu i sur., 2011; Zell i Lesick, 2022), tako i za sagorijevanje na poslu. Rezultati metaanalitičkih studija upućuju na negativnu povezanost savjesnosti, otvorenosti, ekstraverzije i otvorenosti k iskustvu sa sagorijevanjem na poslu, odnosno pozitivnu povezanost neuroticizma sa sagorijevanjem na poslu (Angelini, 2023). U recentnoj metaanalizi Roloff i suradnici (2022) utvrdili su kod nastavnika pozitivnu povezanost neuroticizma sa sve tri dimenzije sagorijevanja na poslu (emocionalna iscrpljenost, depersonalizacija i smanjeno osobno dostignuće) definiranih na temelju modela Maslach i suradnika (1997), kao i negativnu povezanost ekstraverzije, ugodnosti, savjesnosti i otvorenosti k iskustvu sa sve tri dimenzije sagorijevanja (uz izuzetak neznačajne povezanosti otvorenosti k iskustvu i emocionalne iscrpljenosti).

Kao što se može vidjeti iz prethodno navedenih nalaza, ekstraverzija, ugodnost, savjesnost i u određenoj mjeri otvorenost k iskustvu protektivne su dimenzije ličnosti kada je sagorijevanje na poslu u pitanju, dok neuroticizam povećava rizik. Roloff i suradnici (2022) navode kako se zaštitni doprinos ekstraverzije očituje u tome što visoko ekstravertirani nastavnici doživljavaju radno okruženje pozitivnijim te su izloženi velikom broju socijalnih interakcija kroz koje dobivaju potporu. Nadalje, nastavnici koji su visoko na ugodnosti imaju bolje odnose s učenicima i roditeljima uslijed interpersonalne bliskosti i topline koju iskazuju. Visoko savjesni nastavnici proaktivni su i organizirani, zbog čega mogu aktivno mijenjati radno okruženje i lakše se prilagoditi radnim zahtjevima. Nastavnici koji postižu više rezultate na dimenziji otvorenosti k iskustvu skloniji su tome da poteškoće na koje nailaze u radu s učenicima vide kao priliku za osobni razvoj. S druge strane, nastavnici koji postižu više rezultate na dimenziji neuroticizma skloniji su doživljavanju anksioznosti, depresivnosti i hostilnosti, što intenzivira njihove emocionalne reakcije na stresore kojima su izloženi.

Provedeno istraživanje

Većina dosadašnjih istraživanja na temu odnosa osobina ličnosti i sagorijevanja na poslu kod nastavnika zasniva se na operacionalizaciji sagorijevanja na poslu na temelju modela autorice Maslach i suradnika (1997). S obzirom na to da je doprinos kontekstualizirane ličnosti u objašnjenju nastavničkih ishoda relativno neistražen, a da je nastavničko radno okruženje dinamično i promjenjivo (Foster, 2015), kao i na recentnost modela sagorijevanja na poslu Schaufeli i suradnika (2020), javila se potreba za provođenjem istraživanja koje se zasniva na suvremenoj konceptualizaciji sagorijevanja na poslu i uzima u obzir kontekstualnu određenost rada nastavnika. Stoga je cilj istraživanja bio ispitati ulogu dimenzija globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti u objašnjenju sagorijevanja na poslu, operacionaliziranog modelom Schaufelija i suradnika (2020). U skladu s ciljem, postavljeni su odgovarajući problem i hipoteza.

Problem: ispitati prediktivni doprinos globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti u objašnjenju varijance dimenzija sagorijevanja na poslu (iscrpljenost, psihološka distanciranost, narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje, narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje) operacionalizirane modelom Schaufelija i suradnika (2020).

Hipoteza: u skladu s teorijskim postavkama i dosadašnjim nalazima o odnosu osobina ličnosti i sagorijevanja na poslu (Angelini, 2023; Roloff i sur., 2022), očekuje se da će ekstraverzija, ugodnost, savjesnost i otvorenost[1] biti negativni prediktori sagorijevanja na poslu, odnosno da će negativna emocionalnost biti pozitivan prediktor sagorijevanja na poslu. Pri tome se očekuje da će prediktivan doprinos kontekstualizirane ličnosti u objašnjenju varijance dimenzija sagorijevanja na poslu biti veći od doprinosa globalne ličnosti.

METODA

Sudionici

U istraživanju je sudjelovalo 142 nastavnika (120 žena, 21 muškarac, 1 osoba koja nije navela spol) prosječne dobi $M = 41{,}49$, $SD = 9{,}26$. Nastavnici u prosjeku imaju $M = 14{,}62$, $SD = 8{,}84$ godina radnoga staža. Zaposleni su u 17 gimnazija s područja Dalmacije, Slavonije, Istre i Kvarnera te središnje Hrvatske na neodređeno vrijeme ($n = 126$), razrednici su ($n = 95$) i poučavaju širok spektar predmeta (hrvatski jezik, strani jezik, latinski/grčki jezik, matematika, fizika, informatika, kemija, biologija, geografija, etika, filozofija, logika, politika i gospodarstvo, sociologija, psihologija, povijest, glazbena umjetnost, likovna umjetnost, tjelesna i zdravstvena kultura, vjeronauk). U prosjeku poučavaju $M = 7{,}79$, $SD = 3{,}88$ razrednih odjeljenja te tjedno održe $M = 20{,}51$, $SD = 5{,}89$ sati nastave u školi u kojoj su sudjelovali u istraživanju.

Mjerni instrumenti

Ličnost

(*Big Five Inventory – Short Form*; Soto i John, 2017)

Upitnik sadrži 30 čestica kojima se 5 dimenzija ličnosti, po 6 čestica, mjeri na globalnoj razini: ekstraverzija (*U životu općenito, sebe vidim kao osobu koja je dominantna, ponaša se kao vođa*), ugodnost (*U životu općenito, sebe vidim kao osobu koja je suosjećajna, ima meko srce*), savjesnost (*U životu općenito, sebe vidim kao osobu koja je pouzdana, može se računati na nju*), negativna emocionalnost (*U životu općenito, sebe vidim kao osobu koja se puno brine)* i otvorenost (*U životu općenito, sebe vidim kao osobu koja je općinjena umjetnošću, glazbom ili književnosti*). Sudionici procjenjuju stupanj slaganja sa svakom pojedinom tvrdnjom na skali od 1 (uopće se ne slažem) do 5 (u potpunosti se slažem). Unutarnja pouzdanost dimenzija je zadovoljavajuća: $\alpha_{\text{ekstraverzija}} = 0{,}70$, $\alpha_{\text{ugodnost}} = 0{,}71$, $\alpha_{\text{savjesnost}} = 0{,}74$, $\alpha_{\text{negativna emocionalnost}} = 0{,}80$, $\alpha_{\text{otvorenost}} = 0{,}67$.

Za mjerenje kontekstualizirane ličnosti uzet je isti upitnik kao i za mjerenje globalne ličnosti, ali uz promijenjenu referentu točku za svaku česticu, i to tako da se procjena odnosi na kontekst rada s učenicima: ekstraverzija (*Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima dominantna, ponaša se kao vođa*), ugodnost (*Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je suosjećajna prema učenicima, ima meko srce*), savjesnost (*Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je pouzdana, učenici mogu računati na nju*), negativna emocionalnost (*Sebe vidim kao osobu koja se u radu s učenicima puno brine*) i otvorenost (*Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima općinjena umjetnošću, glazbom ili književnosti*). Sudionici procjenjuju stupanj slaganja sa svakom pojedinom tvrdnjom na skali od 1 (uopće se ne slažem) do 5 (u potpunosti se slažem). Zabilježena unutarnja pouzdanost pojedinačnih dimenzija prihvatljiva je do zadovoljavajuća $\alpha_{\text{ekstraverzija}} = 0{,}62$, $\alpha_{\text{ugodnost}} = 0{,}77$, $\alpha_{\text{savjesnost}} = 0{,}79$, $\alpha_{\text{negativna emocionalnost}} = 0{,}56$, $\alpha_{\text{otvorenost}} = 0{,}64$.

Sagorijevanje na poslu

(*Burnout Assessment Tool – BAT*;
Schaufeli i sur., 2020; adaptirali Tomas i sur., 2023)

Upitnik sadrži 12 čestica kojima se, po 3 čestice, mjere 4 dimenzije sagorijevanja na poslu: iscrpljenost (*Na svom se poslu osjećam psihički iscrpljeno*), psihološka distanciranost (*Teško mi je pronaći bilo kakav entuzijazam za posao*), narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje (*Teško mi je zadržati koncentraciju na poslu*) i narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje (*Na poslu imam poteškoća s kontrolom svojih emocija*). Sudionici procjenjuju stupanj slaganja s pojedinom tvrdnjom na skali od 1 (nikada) do 5 (uvijek). Unutarnja pouzdanost pojedinačnih dimenzija prihvatljiva je do zadovoljavajuća: $\alpha_{\text{iscrpljenost}} = 0{,}78$, $\alpha_{\text{distanciranost}} = 0{,}72$, $\alpha_{\text{narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje}} = 0{,}77$, $\alpha_{\text{narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje}} = 0{,}60$.

Postupak

Istraživanje je provedeno u sklopu 2. faze projekta *Ličnost, emocije i radna uspješnost nastavnika: dinamička perspektiva* (IP-04-2019--5472, voditeljica prof. dr. sc. Irena Burić), uz odobrenje Ministarstva znanosti i obrazovanja, Agencije za odgoj i obrazovanje i Etičkoga povjerenstva afilijacije autora. U ovu fazu projekta, zbog potrebe za relativno ujednačenim uvjetima nastave, uključene su isključivo gimnazije. Nastavnici su dobrovoljno sudjelovali u provedbi istraživanja, na poziv školskoga koordinatora istraživanja (stručni suradnik). Glavni uvjet za sudjelovanje bio je da nastavnici većinu satnice ostvaruju u toj školi. Podaci su prikupljeni u veljači 2023. godine putem online platforme *Lime Survey*. Nastavnici su naveli osnovne sociodemografske podatke (dob, spol, godine radnoga staža, mjeseci radnoga staža, status zaposlenja u školi, tjedna satnica u školi, broj razrednih odjeljenja koje nastavnici trenutačno poučavaju, jesu li razrednici, predmeti koje poučavaju), a potom su ispunili mjere globalne i kontektstualizirane ličnosti, kao i upitnik sagorijevanja na poslu. Anonimnost je osigurana tako što su nastavnici u istraživanju sudjelovali pod šifrom (školskim koordinatorima dodijeljen je popis šifri za pojedinu školu) s kojom članovi istraživačkoga tima nisu upoznati.

Obradba podataka

Zbog male veličine uzorka za primjenu latentnih modela, regresijske analize provedene su na manifestnim varijablama. Prije provedbe glavnih analiza, provjerena je faktorska struktura mjere kontekstualizrane ličnosti pomoću konfirmatorne faktorske analize (CFA). Uzimajući u obzir kompleksnost modela i broj ispitanika, provedeno je 5 faktorskih analiza, po jedna za svaku dimenziju kontekstualizirane ličnosti. Kao mjere pristajanja modela podacima uzeti su CFI (eng. Comparative Fit Index), TLI (eng. Tucker-Lewis Index), RMSEA (eng. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation i SRMR (eng. Standardized Root Mean Square Residual). Sukladno navodima Hu i Bentler (1999), CFI i TLI vrijednosti iznad 0,90, odnosno 0,95, označavaju zadovoljavajuće, odnosno odlično, pristajanje modela podacima, dok su ciljane vrijednosti za RMSEA ispod 0,06, odnosno ispod 0,08 za SRMR.

Potom su izračunane bivarijatne korelacije između ukupnih rezultata na mjerama globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti i mjerama sagorijevanja na poslu. Završno su provedene regresijske analize, kojima je ispitan prediktivni doprinos dimenzija globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti za pojedine dimenzije sagorijevanja na poslu.

Sve analize provedene su u programu M*plus* 8.10 (Muthén i Muthén, 1998–2017).

REZULTATI

Deskriptivni pokazatelji i bivarijatne povezanosti

Deskriptivni podaci zabilježeni za mjere globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti, kao i za mjeru sagorijevanja na poslu, prikazani su u Tablici 1.

	M_{gl}	SD_{gl}	M_{kont}	SD_{kont}
Ekstraverzija	3,53	0,59	4,09	0,49
Ugodnost	4,09	0,54	4,39	0,50
Savjesnost	4,04	0,61	4,38	0,54
Negativna emocionalnost	2,71	0,68	2,13	0,47
Otvorenost	3,75	0,57	3,74	0,57
Iscrpljenost	2,55	0,75		
Distanciranost	1,87	0,66		
Narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje	1,80	0,58		
Narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje	1,58	0,47		

TABLICA 1
Deskriptivni podaci za mjere globalne ličnosti, kontekstualne ličnosti i sagorijevanja na poslu

Napomena. gl – globalna; kont – kontekstualizirana.

U terminima apsolutnih vrijednosti, sudionici postižu nešto više rezultate na mjeri kontekstualizirane ličnosti za ekstraverziju, savjesnost i ugodnost, u odnosu na mjeru globalne ličnosti. S druge strane, navode nešto niže procjene kontekstualizirane negativne emocionalnosti u odnosu na globalnu negativnu emocionalnost. Za dimenzije sagorijevanja na poslu, u terminima apsolutnih vrijednosti, sudionici najviše procjene daju za dimenziju iscrpljenosti, a najniže za dimenziju narušenoga emocionalnog funkcioniranja. Ovakav je trend rezultata u skladu s istraživanjem koje su na reprezentativnom uzorku zaposlenika u nacionalnom kontekstu proveli Tomas i suradnici (2023).

Vrijednosti indeksa pristajanja modela kontekstualizirane ličnosti podacima prikazani su u Tablici 2.

TABLICA 2
Indeksi pristajanja modela kontekstualizirane ličnosti podacima

	χ^2 (*df*)	CFI	TLI	RMSEA (90% CI)	SRMR
Ekstraverzija	17,052 (9)	0,91	0,85	0,08 (0,01 – 0,14)	0,05
Ugodnost	22,28 (9)	0,93	0,88	0,10 (0,05 – 0,16)	0,05
Savjesnost	23,05 (9)	0,94	0,90	0,11 (0,05 – 0,16)	0,05
Negativna emocionalnost	15,53 (9)	0,94	0,90	0,07 (0,00 – 0,13)	0,06
Otvorenost	55,12 (9)	0,64	0,40	0,19 (0,14 – 0,24)	0,10

Pristajanje modela kontekstualizirane ličnosti podacima za većinu dimenzija, osim otvorenosti, u prihvatljivim je granicama (CFI i TLI > 0,90, RMSEA < 0,06, SRMR < 0,08). Faktorska zasićenja na svim dimenzijama, osim otvorenosti, za većinu čestica prelaze graničnu vrijednost od 0,50 (Cheung i sur., 2023). Standardizirana faktorska zasićenja prikazana su u Dodatku.

Korelacije između dimenzija globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti prikazane su u Tablici 3. Najsnažnija povezanost između dimenzija globalne ličnosti zabilježena je za ekstraverziju i negativnu emocionalnost (r = -0,51, p < 0,01), dok su kod kontekstualizirane ličnosti najsnažnije povezane savjesnost i ugodnost (r = 0,47, p < 0,01). Povezanosti između korespondentnih dimenzija ličnosti variraju od r = 0,52 (globalna ekstraverzija – kontekstualizirana ekstraverzija; p < 0,01) do r = 0,75 (globalna ugodnost – kontekstualizirana ugodnost; p < 0,01).

TABLICA 3
Pearsonovi koeficijenti korelacije između globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Ekstraverzija – gl.	-									
2 Ugodnost – gl.	0,05	-								
3 Savjesnost – gl.	0,21*	0,50**	-							
4 Negativna emocionalnost – gl.	-0,51**	-0,21**	-0,41**	-						
5 Otvorenost – gl.	0,14	0,06	-0,05	-0,03	-					
6 Ekstraverzija – kont.	0,52**	0,24**	0,29**	-0,19*	0,13	-				
7 Ugodnost – kont.	0,19*	0,75**	0,38*	-0,24**	-0,06	0,36**	-			
8 Savjesnost – kont.	0,16	0,52**	0,73**	-0,25**	-0,02	0,45**	0,47**	-		
9 Negativna emocionalnost – kont.	-0,36**	-0,14	-0,35**	0,59**	0,06	-0,20**	-0,31**	-0,31**	-	
10 Otvorenost – kont.	0,19*	0,24*	0,10	-0,01	0,73**	0,30**	0,17*	0,22*	0,03	-

Napomena. **p < 0,01; *p < 0,05; gl. – globalna; kont. – kontekstualizirana.

Povezanosti između dimenzija sagorijevanja na poslu i sociodemografskih varijabli nalaze se u Tablici 4.

TABLICA 4
Pearsonovi koeficijenti korelacije između dimenzija sagorijevanja na poslu i sociodemografskih varijabli

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Iscrpljenost	-							
2 Distanciranost	0,67**	-						
3 Narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje	0,42**	0,43**	-					
4 Narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje	0,50**	0,59**	0,51**	-				
5 Godine radnog staža	0,11	0,14	0,04	0,00	-			
6 Satnica	-0,04	-0,02	0,05	-0,10	-0,06	-		
7 Broj razrednih odjeljenja	0,08	0,08	-0,06	0,05	0,07	0,08	-	
8 Razredništvo	0,31**	0,10	-0,05	0,04	0,04	-0,08	0,24*	-

Napomena. *p < 0,05; **p < 0,01.

Zabilježene povezanosti između dimenzija sagorijevanja na poslu variraju od r = 0,42 (distanciranost – narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje; p < 0,01) do r = 0,67 (distanciranost – iscrpljenost; p < 0,01). Sociodemografske varijable (godine radnoga staža, tjedna satnica u školi, broj razrednih odjeljenja koje nastavnici trenutačno poučavaju, razredništvo)[2] nisu statistički značajno povezane s dimenzijama sagorijevanja na poslu, osim razredništva, koje je pozitivno povezano s iscrpljenosti ($r = 0{,}31$, $p < 0{,}01$).

U Tablici 5 prikazane su povezanosti između dimenzija globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti i sagorijevanja na poslu. Generalno, globalna i kontekstualizirana ekstraverzija, ugodnost i savjesnost, negativno su povezani sa sve četiri dimenzije sagorijevanja na poslu. Raspon korelacija kreće se od $r = -0{,}18$ (globalna ekstraverzija – distanciranost; $p < 0{,}05$) do $r = -0{,}50$ (kontekstualizirana savjesnost – narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje; $p < 0{,}01$). Globalna i kontekstualizirana negativna emocionalnost pozitivno su povezani sa svim dimenzijama sagorijevanja na poslu, pri čemu se raspon povezanosti kreće od $r = 0{,}18$ (kontekstualizirana negativna emocionalnost – distanciranost; $p < 0{,}05$) do $r = 0{,}43$ (globalna negativna emocionalnost – iscrpljenost; $p < 0{,}01$). Jedino je kontekstualizirana otvorenost negativno povezana s dimenzijama sagorijevanja na poslu, i to s distanciranosti ($r = -0{,}19$; $p < 0{,}05$) i narušenim kognitivnim funkcioniranjem ($r = -0{,}17$; $p < 0{,}05$).

➊ TABLICA 5
Pearsonovi koeficijenti korelacije između globalne ličnosti, kontekstualizirane ličnosti i sagorijevanja na poslu

	Iscrpljenost	Distanciranost	Narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje	Narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje
Ekstraverzija – gl.	-0,33**	-0,18*	-0,21**	-0,27**
Ekstraverzija – kont.	-0,32**	-0,35**	-0,38**	-0,21**
Ugodnost – gl.	-0,34**	-0,37**	-0,32**	-0,40**
Ugodnost – kont.	-0,39**	-0,36**	-0,40**	-0,44**
Savjesnost – gl.	-0,38**	-0,24**	-0,40**	-0,34**
Savjesnost – kont.	-0,31**	-0,26**	-0,50**	-0,30**
Negativna emocionalnost – gl.	0,43**	0,34**	0,29**	0,38**
Negativna emocionalnost – kont.	0,37**	0,18*	0,31**	0,39**
Otvorenost – gl.	0,06	0,00	0,11	0,05
Otvorenost – kont.	-0,11	-0,19*	-0,17*	-0,02

Napomena. $^{**}p < 0{,}01$; $^{*}p < 0{,}05$; gl. – globalna; kont. – kontekstualizirana.

Doprinos globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti sagorijevanju na poslu nastavnika

Rezultati regresijskih analiza prikazani su u Tablici 6 i Tablici 7. Provedeno je 8 regresijskih analiza, po dvije za svaku dimenziju sagorijevanja na poslu. U jednoj regresijskoj analizi prediktori su bile dimenzije globalne ličnosti (Tablica 6), koje su na bivarijatnoj razini značajno povezane s kriterijem, a u drugoj dimenzije kontekstualizirane ličnosti (Tablica 7). Regresijske analize za dimenziju iscrpljenosti provedene su uz kontrolu za razredništvo, s obzirom na to da je razredništvo na bivarijatnoj razini statistički značajno i pozitivno povezano s iscrpljenosti nastavnika (Tablica 4).

Globalna ličnost objašnjava od 20 % (narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje) do 30 % (iscrpljenost) varijance u dimenzijama sagorijevanja na poslu. Pri tome je ugodnost negativan, a negativna emocionalnost pozitivan prediktor iscrpljenosti, distanciranosti i narušenoga emocionalnog funkcioniranja. Zabilježene veličine efekata za ugodnost kreću se u rasponu od β = -0,22 (iscrpljenost, $p < 0,05$) do β = -0,32 (distanciranost, $p < 0,01$), odnosno od β = 0,21 (narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje, $p < 0,05$) do β = 0,31 (distanciranost, $p < 0,01$) za negativnu emocionalnost. Dodatno, savjesnost je negativan prediktor narušena kognitivnog funkcioniranja (β = -0,25, $p < 0,01$).

TABLICA 6
Rezultati regresijske analize za sagorijevanje na poslu s prediktorima globalne ličnosti

	Iscrpljenost	Distanciranost	Narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje	Narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje
Razredništvo	0,15*			
Ekstraverzija – gl.	-0,15	0,02	-0,15	-0,10
Ugodnost – gl.	-0,22*	-0,32**	-0,31**	-0,17
Savjesnost – gl.	-0,11	0,04	-0,07	-0,25**
Negativna emocionalnost – gl.	0,24*	0,31**	0,21*	0,10
R^2	0,30	0,22	0,27	0,20

Napomena. $^{**}p < 0,01$; $^{*}p < 0,05$; gl – globalna; vrijednosti u tablici odnose se na standardizirane regresijske koeficijente (β).

TABLICA 7
Rezultati regresijske analize za sagorijevanje na poslu s prediktorima kontekstualizirane ličnosti

	Iscrpljenost	Distanciranost	Narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje	Narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje
Razredništvo	0,17*			
Ekstraverzija – kont.	-0,17*	-0,22*	-0,01	-0,15
Ugodnost – kont.	-0,21*	-0,25**	-0,32**	-0,15
Savjesnost – kont.	-0,04	-0,02	-0,07	-0,30**
Negativna emocionalnost – kont.	0,24**	0,05	0,27**	0,15
Otvorenost – kont.		-0,06		-0,05
R^2	0,28	0,19	0,27	0,32

Napomena. $^{**}p < 0,01$; $^{*}p < 0,05$; kont – kontekstualizirana; vrijednosti u tablici odno-se se na standardizirane regresijske koeficijente (β).

Kontekstualizirana ličnost objašnjava od 19 % (distanciranost) do 32 % (narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje) varijance u dimenzijama sagorijevanja na poslu. Ugodnost je negativan, a negativna emocionalnost pozitivan prediktor iscrpljenosti i narušenoga emocionalnog funkcioniranja. Zabilježene veličine efekata za ugodnost kreću se u rasponu od $\beta = -0{,}21$ (iscrpljenost) do -0,32 (narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje), odnosno od $\beta = 0{,}24$ (iscrpljenost) do $\beta = 0{,}27$ (narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje) za negativnu emocionalnost. Dodatno, ugodnost ($\beta = -0{,}25$, $p < 0{,}01$) i ekstraverzija ($\beta = -0{,}22$, $p < 0{,}05$) negativni su prediktori distanciranosti, ekstraverzija je ujedno i negativan prediktor iscrpljenosti ($\beta = -0{,}17$, $p < 0{,}05$), dok je savjesnost negativan prediktor narušenoga kognitivnog funkcioniranja ($\beta = -0{,}33$, $p < 0{,}01$).

DISKUSIJA

Cilj istraživanja bio je ispitati prediktivan doprinos dimenzija globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti za dimenzije sagorijevanja na poslu definirane prema modelu Schaufeli i suradnika (2020). Pretpostavljeno je kako će modeli kontekstualizirane ličnosti imati veći prediktivni doprinos u odnosu na modele globalne ličnosti te da će ekstraverzija, savjesnost, ugodnost i otvorenost biti negativni prediktori dimenzija sagorijevanja na poslu, dok će negativna emocionalnost biti pozitivan prediktor dimenzija sagorijevanja na poslu. Rezultati istraživanja djelomično su potvrdili postavljenu hipotezu.

Za početak, deskriptivni podaci zabilježeni na mjerama globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti, kao i jačina povezanosti između korespondentnih dimenzija, opravdavaju dvostruku operacionalizaciju ličnosti u ovome istraživanju. Naime, sudionici, u terminima apsolutnih vrijednosti, postižu nešto više rezultate na mjerama kontekstualizirane ličnosti za dimenzije ekstraverzije, savjesnosti i ugodnosti, odnosno niže na mjeri negativne emocionalnosti u odnosu na mjere globalne ličnosti. S obzirom na to da su se navedene dimenzije u dosadašnjim istraživanjima pokazale relevantnima u kontekstu povezanosti s radnim učinkom nastavnika (Kim i sur., 2019), moguće je da su nastavnici s vremenom iskaz svoje osobnosti prilagodili zahtjevima učionice. Navedeno je u skladu s postavkama o "kućnoj" i "poslovnoj" ličnosti (Sutton, 2018). Korelacije između korespondentnih osobina ličnosti relativno su visoke i njihove su vrijednosti u skladu s prethodnim nalazima (Sutton, 2018), ali, ipak, ne prelaze 0,80, što daje dodatnu potporu pretpostavci prema kojoj globalna i kontekstualizirana ličnost imaju distinktivnu varijancu (Holtrop i sur., 2014; Slatcher i Vazire, 2009; Shaffer i Postlethwaite, 2012; Swift i Peterson, 2019; Woo i sur., 2015). Daljnju potporu diferencijaciji globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti daju rezultati regresijskih analiza, prema kojima modeli koji uključuju globalnu i kontekstualiziranu ličnost imaju značajan i u određenim slučajevima nešto drugačiji prediktivni doprinos.

Radi lakšega praćenja, prikaz rezultata započet će s dimenzijama koje se odnose na emocionalno funkcioniranje nastavnika, a to su *iscrpljenost* i *narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje*. Naime, prema navodima Houkes i suradnika (2011), emocionalna iscrpljenost predstavlja začetak sagorijevanja na poslu kod žena, koje čine većinu uzorka i zaposlenih nastavnika (Han i sur., 2020). Kao značajni prediktori iscrpljenosti i narušenoga emocionalnog funkcioniranja pokazali su se globalna i kontekstualizirana ugodnost (negativni prediktor), odnosno globalna i kontekstualizirana negativna emocionalnost (pozitivni prediktor). Navedeno se može objasniti time što nastavnici koji postižu više rezultate na ugodnosti ujedno imaju više povjerenja u učenike, u većoj mjeri suosjećaju s njima te imaju više razumijevanja za njih, čak i kada njihovo ponašanje u učionici odstupa od idealnog. Ovakve osobine čine ih kompatibilnijima zahtjevima nastavničke profesije, u kojoj se traži strpljenje, razumijevanje i podrška učenicima, pa njihove osobine ličnosti predstavljaju osobni resurs koji ih štiti od sagorijevanja na poslu. S druge strane, nastavnici koji postižu viši rezultat na dimenziji negativne emocionalnosti češće doživljavaju negativne emocije, što ih čini podložnijima razvoju sagorijevanja (Angelini, 2023). Pri tome oba modela objašnjavaju približno podjednaki udio varijance (iscrpljenost: 30 % globalna ličnost prema 28 % kontekstualizirana ličnost; narušeno emocionalno funkcioniranje: 27 % globalna ličnost prema 27 % kontekstualizirana ličnost), što sugerira da osobine ugodnosti i negativne emocionalnosti koje nastavnici iskazuju izvan i unutar učionice podjednako pridonose začetku sagorijevanja na poslu i njihovu emocionalnom funkcioniranju. Međutim, dodatni negativni prediktor iscrpljenosti jest i kontekstualizirana ekstraverzija, ali ne i globalna ekstraverzija. Protektivna uloga kontekstualizirane ugodnosti i ekstraverzije zabilježena je i za dimenziju *psihološke distanciranosti*, gdje su u modelu globalne ličnosti značajni prediktori ove dimenzije ugodnost (negativni) i negativna emocionalnost (pozitivni), dok su u modelu kontekstualizirane ličnosti to ugodnost i ekstraverzija (oba modela objašnjavaju oko 20 % varijance). S obzirom na to da su ekstraverzija i ugodnost pozitivno povezani s upotrebom strategije emocionalne regulacije "dubinski pristup", koja podrazumijeva pokušaj zaposlenika da uistinu dožive emocije koje se od njih očekuju na radnom mjestu, te da je ova strategija medijator njihove povezanosti s organizacijskim ponašanjem (Kiffin-Petersen i sur., 2011), moguće je da su nastavnici s višim razinama kontekstualizirane ekstraverzije i ugodnosti uslijed bolje emocionalne regulacije manje iscrpljeni, pa iskazuju i manji stupanj mentalne distanciranosti od posla, odnosno ostaju fokusirani na radne zadatke. Nadalje, prema rezultatima zabilježenima za dimenziju *narušeno kognitivno funkcioniranje* ona se, u oba modela, najbolje može objasniti dimenzijom savjesnosti (negativna povezanost), ali je prediktivan doprinos modela kontekstualizirane ličnosti nešto viši (32 % prema 20 % objašnjene varijance). Više razine savjesnosti su se i u prethodnim istraživanjima pokazale kao protektivni faktor kada su u pitanju poteškoće u kognitivnom funkcioniranju, a kao moguće objašnjenje navode se osobine planiranja i promišljanja koje su karakteristične za visoko savjesne osobe (Armon i sur., 2012).

Važno je napomenuti kako je ovo jedno od rijetkih istraživanja u kojima je ispitana kontekstualizirana ličnost nastavnika. Stoga se utvrđeni rezultati ne mogu usporediti s rezultatima sličnih istraživanja kada je u pitanju različit doprinos dimenzija globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti za pojedine dimenzije sagorijevanja na poslu. Potrebna su daljnja istraživanja kako bi se provjerila robusnost utvrđenih nalaza.

Ograničenja i smjernice za buduća istraživanja

Provedeno istraživanje nije bez ograničenja. Prije svega, mjere kontekstualizirane ličnosti mogle bi imati bolja psihometrijska svojstva. Dimenzija ekstraverzije ima nešto nižu unutarnju pouzdanost ($\alpha_{ekstraverzija} = 0{,}62$) i sadrži česticu (*Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima dominantna, ponaša se kao vođa*) s jako niskim faktorskim zasićenjem ($\lambda = 0{,}19$). S obzirom na sadržaj čestice, moguće je da su je nastavnici doživjeli negativno, odnosno kao primjer autokratskoga ponašanja, te da stoga ne korelira visoko s preostalim česticama s iste dimenzije. Nadalje, dimenzija negativne emocionalnosti također ima nešto nižu unutarnju pouzdanost ($\alpha_{negativna\ emocionalnost} = 0{,}56$) i jednako tako sadrži česticu s jako niskim faktorskim zasićenjem ($\lambda = 0{,}12$; *Sebe vidim kao osobu koja se u radu s učenicima puno brine*). Moguće je da je sadržaj čestice nastavnicima bio dvosmislen, jer se može odnositi na brigu prema učenicima, ali i općenito na prisutnost brige za vrijeme rada s učenicima. U konačnici, dimenzija otvorenosti k iskustvu nema zadovoljavajuće indekse pristajanja modela podacima i većina čestica ima niska faktorska zasićenja. Razlog tome jest taj što se njihov sadržaj ne može u većoj mjeri primijeniti na rad s učenicima. Primjerice, čestica s najnižim zasićenjem ($\lambda = 0{,}26$) odnosi se na umjetničke interese nastavnika, koji za većinu nastavnika (osim za one koji poučavaju predmete iz toga područja) nisu relevantni: *U radu s učenicima sebe vidim kao osobu koja ima malo umjetničkih interesa u radu s učenicima.* S druge strane, čestica s najvećim faktorskim zasićenjem na ovoj dimenziji ($\lambda = 0{,}78$; *U radu s učenicima sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima* *originalna, smišlja nove ideje*) obuhvaća sadržaj koji se može primijeniti na rad svih nastavnika. Za razliku od navedenih dimenzija, kontekstualizirana ugodnost i savjesnost u cjelini su pokazale najbolja psihometrijska svojstva. Navedeno se može objasniti time što je ugodnost dimenzija koja je najkonzistentnije od svih dimenzija ličnosti povezana s nastavničkim ishodima (Kell, 2019), pa je samim time i sadržaj njezinih čestica relevantan u kontekstu rada nastavnika, dok je savjesnost općenito visoko relevantna dimenzija u radnom okruženju (Sutton, 2018; Zell i Lesick, 2022).

Uzrok relativno niskih faktorskih zasićenja jest način operacionalizacije kontekstualizirane ličnosti. Čestice su kontekstualizirane tako da je u svaku tvrdnju uključen dodatak "u radu s učenicima", kako bi se promijenila referentna točka. Odnosno, sadržaj koji obuhvaća mjere globalne ličnosti izmjeren je u školskom kontekstu. Iako je ovakav način konceptualizacije kontekstualizirane ličnosti relativno čest (Heller i sur., 2007), on nije i najbolji. Naime, potpuna kontekstualizacija čestica – tako da se promijeni sadržaj same čestice – trebala bi rezultirati povećanjem prediktivne valjanosti (Holtrop i sur., 2014). S obzirom na kompleksnost interakcije nastavnika i učenika (Foster, 2015), čije elemente čestice globalne ličnosti ne obuhvaćaju, potpuna kontekstualizacija čestica dovela bi do povećanja prediktivne valjanosti mjere kontekstualizirane ličnosti.

Osim operacionalizacije kontekstualizirane ličnosti, u obzir treba uzeti kako je istraživanje provedeno sredinom školske godine, a da se krajem školske godine može očekivati porast sagorijevanja na poslu, uslijed stresa što ga to razdoblje školske godine donosi nastavnicima (Markelj i sur., 2023). Također, s obzirom na to da je istraživanje provedeno u jednoj vremenskoj točki, nije moguće pratiti promjene u prediktivnom doprinosu osobina ličnosti kroz vrijeme. Nadalje, zbog manjega broja ispitanika nisu mogli biti provedeni kompleksniji latentni modeli, putem kojih bi se kontrolirala pogreška mjerenja. Zbog navedenog je i statistička snaga istraživanja umanjena. U konačnici, uzorak nije reprezentativan za sve škole i programe.

ZAKLJUČAK

Provedeno istraživanje jedno je od rijetkih u kojima je ispitana kontekstualizirana ličnost nastavnika. Rezultati istraživanja sugeriraju kako mjere kontekstualizirane ličnosti, uz mjere globalne ličnosti, značajno predviđaju pojedine dimenzije sagorijevanja na poslu, pri čemu njihov doprinos u određenoj mjeri može biti i distinktivan (npr. model kontekstualizirane ličnosti objašnjava 12 % više varijance narušenoga kognitivnog funkcioniranja u odnosu na model globalne ličnosti).

Međutim, potrebna je daljnja prilagodba mjere kontekstualizirane ličnosti, kako bi sadržaj čestica bio relevantniji za radni kontekst nastavnika i kako bi stupanj povezanosti mjere globalne i kontekstualizirane ličnosti bio manji nego u ovom istraživanju, što bi omogućilo provedbu analiza (npr. hijerarhijska regresijska analiza) na temelju kojih bi se s većom sigurnosti moglo zaključivati o distinktivnom doprinosu dimenzija kontekstualizirane ličnosti.

BILJEŠKE

[1] Zbog konzistentnosti s nazivima dimenzija u sklopu korištenog upitnika ličnosti, umjesto neuroticizma rabimo termin negativna emocionalnost, odnosno otvorenost, umjesto otvorenost k iskustvu.

[2] Spol i status zaposlenja nisu uključeni u regresijske analize s obzirom na izrazito neujednačen uzorak na ovim varijablama. Više od 85 % ispitanika ženskoga je spola, odnosno zaposleno je na neodređeno vrijeme.

DODATAK

Standardizirana faktorska zasićenja za mjeru kontekstualizirane ličnosti

Dimenzija	Čestica	λ
Esktraverzija	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima često tiha.	0,42
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima dominantna, ponaša se kao vođa.	0,19
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je puna energije u radu s učenicima.	0,69
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima društvena, voli se družiti s njima.	0,46
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja više voli kad drugi preuzmu inicijativu u radu s učenicima.	0,61
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima manje aktivna od drugih nastavnika.	0,46
Ugodnost	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je suosjećajna prema učenicima, ima meko srce.	0,62
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je ponekad bezobrazna prema učenicima.	0,58
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja pretpostavlja najbolje o svojim učenicima.	0,63
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja može biti hladna i ne brinuti za učenike.	0,60
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je puna poštovanja, odnosi se prema učenicima s poštovanjem.	0,61
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja nastoji učenicima naći mane.	0,58
Savjesnost	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima sklona neorganiziranosti.	0,69
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja u radu s učenicima teško započinje stvari.	0,39
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je pouzdana, učenici mogu računati na nju.	0,60
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja u radu s učenicima drži stvari urednima i čistima.	0,73

(nastavlja se)

(nastavak)

Dimenzija	Čestica	λ
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je uporna u radu s učenicima, radi dok stvari nisu završene.	0,72
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima ponekad nemarna.	0,66
Negativna emocionalnost	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja se u radu s učenicima puno brine.	0,12
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja se u radu s učenicima često osjeća tužnom.	0,46
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima emocionalno stabilna, ne uzrujava se lako.	0,64
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je opuštena, dobro se nosi sa stresom u radu s učenicima.	0,87
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja se u radu s učenicima osjeća sigurno, ugodno sa samom sobom.	0,44
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja lako postane emocionalna u radu s učenicima.	0,29
Otvorenost	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima opčinjena umjetnošću, glazbom ili književnosti.	0,31
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja se malo zanima za apstraktne ideje u radu s učenicima.	0,37
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima originalna, smišlja nove ideje.	0,78
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja ima malo umjetničkih interesa u radu s učenicima.	0,26
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima kompleksna, duboki mislilac/dubokoumna.	0,29
	Sebe vidim kao osobu koja je u radu s učenicima uglavnom nekreativna.	0,68

LITERATURA

Angelini, G. (2023). Big five model personality traits and job burnout: A systematic literature review. *BMC Psychology, 11*, 49. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-023-01056-y

Armon, G., Shirom, A. i Melamed, S. (2012). The Big Five personality factors as predictors of changes across time in burnout and its facets. *Journal of Personality, 80*(2), 403–427. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2011.00731.x

Borghans, L., Duckworth, A. L., Heckman, J. J. i Weel, B. (2008). The economics and psychology of personality traits. *Journal of Human Resources, 43*, 972–1059. https://doi.org/10.3368/jhr.43.4.972

Carroll, A., Forrest, K., Sanders-O'Connor, E., Flynn, L., Bower, J. M., Fynes-Clinton, S., York, A. i Ziaei, M. (2022). Teacher stress and burnout in Australia: Examining the role of intrapersonal and environmental factors. *Social Psychology of Education, 25,* 441–469. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-022-09686-7

Cheng, Y. (2022). Investigating factors responsible for teacher burnout in English as foreign language classes. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13*. https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.876203

Cheung, G. W., Cooper-Thomas, H. D., Lau, R. S. i Wang, L. C. (2023). Reporting reliability, convergent and discriminant validity with structural equation modeling: A review and best-practice recommendations. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-023-09871-y

Chiaburu, D. S., Oh, I.-S., Berry, C. M., Li, N. i Gardner, R. G. (2011). The five-factor model of personality traits and organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *The Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(6), 1140–1166. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024004

Church, A. T., Katigbak, M. S., Reyes, J. A., Salanga, M. G., Miramontes, L. A. i Adams, N. B. (2008). Prediction and cross-situational consistency of daily behavior across cultures: Testing trait and cultural psychology perspectives. *Journal of Research in Personality, 42*(5), 1199–1215. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2008.03.007

Consiglio, C., Mazzetti, G. i Schaufeli, W. B. (2021). Psychometric properties of the Italian version of the Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT). *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(18), 9469. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18189469

de Beer, L. T., Schaufeli, W. B., De Witte, H., Hakanen, J. J., Shimazu, A., Glaser, J., Seubert, C., Bosak, J., Sinval, J. i Rudnev, M. (2020). Measurement invariance of the Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT) across seven cross-national representative samples. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 17*(15), 5604. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17155604

Edú-Valsania, S., Laguía, A. i Moriano, J. A. (2022). Burnout: A review of theory and measurement. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 19*(3), 1780. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19031780

Fleeson, W. i Jayawickreme, E. (2015). Whole trait theory. *Journal of Research in Personality, 56,* 82–92. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2014.10.009

Foster, C. (2015). Exploiting unexcepted situations in the mathematics classroom. *International Journal of Science and Mathematics Education, 13,* 1065–1088. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10763-014-9515-3

Han, S. W., Borgonovi, F. i Guerriero, S. (2020). Why don't more boys want to become teachers? The effect of a gendered profession on students' career expectations. *International Journal of Educational Research, 103,* 101645. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2020.101645

Heller, D., Watson, D., Komar, J., Min, J.-A. i Perunovic, W. Q. E. (2007). Contextualized personality: Traditional and new assessment procedures. *Journal of Personality, 75*(6), 1229–1254. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2007.00474.x

Holtrop, D., Born, M. Ph., de Vries, A. i de Vries, R. E. (2014). A matter of context: A comparison of two types of contextualized personality measures. *Personality and Individual Differences, 68,* 234–240. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.04.029

Houkes, I., Winants, Y., Twellaar, M. i Verdonk, P. (2011). Development of burnout over time and the causal order of the three dimensions of burnout among male and female GPs. A three-wave panel study. *BMC Public Health, 11,* 240. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-11-240

Hu, L. i Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling, 6*(1), 1–55. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118

Kell, H. J. (2019). Do teachers' personality traits predict their performance? A comprehensive review of the empirical literature from 1990 to 2018. *ETS Research Report Series, 2019*(1), 1–27. https://doi.org/10.1002/ets2.12241

Kiffin-Petersen, S. A., Jordan, C. L., & Soutar, G. N. (2011). The big five, emotional exhaustion and citizenship behaviors in service settings: The mediating role of emotional labor. *Personality and Individual Differences, 50*(1), 43–48. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2010.08.018

Kim, L. E., Dar-Nimrod, I. i MacCann, C. (2018). Teacher personality and teacher effectiveness in secondary school: Personality predicts teacher support and student self-efficacy but not academic achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 110*(3), 309–323. https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000217

Kim, L. E., Jörg, V. i Klassen, R. M. (2019). A meta-analysis of the effects of teacher personality on teacher effectiveness and burnout. *Educational Psychology Review, 31,* 163–195. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-018-9458-2

Madigan, D. J. i Kim, L. E. (2021). Towards an understanding of teacher attrition: A meta-analysis of burnout, job satisfaction, and teachers' intentions to quit. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 105*, 103425. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2021.103425

Madigan, D. J., Kim, L. E., Glandorf, H. L. i Kavanagh, O. (2023). Teacher burnout and physical health: A systematic review. *International Journal of Educational Research, 119,* 102173. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2023.102173

Markelj, N., Kovač, M. i Jurak, G. (2023). The dynamics of burnout among Slovenian primary school teachers over the school year in relation to their perceptions of various predictors of burnout in the school context. *Frontiers in Psychology, 14*. https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1108322

Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E. i Leiter, M. P. (1997). Maslach Burnout Inventory: Third edition. U C. P. Zalaquett i R. J. Wood (Ur.), *Evaluating stress: A book of resources* (str. 191–218). Scarecrow Education.

McCrae, R. R. i Costa, P. T. (1987). Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*(1), 81–90. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.52.1.81

Muthén, L. K. i Muthén, B. O. (1998-2017). *Mplus user's guide* (8th edition). Muthén & Muthén.

Pressley, T. (2021). Factors contributing to teacher burnout during COVID-19. *Educational Researcher, 50*(5), 325-327. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X211004138

Redelinghuys, K. i Morgan, B. (2023). Psychometric properties of the Burnout Assessment Tool across four countries. *BMC Public Health, 23,* 824. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-023-15604-z

Roloff, J., Kirstges, J., Grund, S. i Klusmann, U. (2022). How strongly is personality associated with burnout among teachers? A meta-analysis. *Educational Psychology Review, 34,* 1613–1650. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-022-09672-7

Sakakibara, K., Shimazu, A., Toyama, H. i Schaufeli, W. B. (2020). Validation of the Japanese Version of the Burnout Assessment Tool. *Frontiers in Psychology, 11.* https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01819

Schaufeli, W. i De Witte, H. (2023). Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT): A fresh look at burnout. U C. U. Krägeloh, M. Alyami, O. N. Medvedev (Ur.), *International handbook of behavioral health assessment* (str. 1–24). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-89738-3_54-1

Schaufeli, W. B., Desart, S. i De Witte, H. (2020). Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT) – development, validity, and reliability. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 17*(24), 9495. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17249495

Shaffer, J. A. i Postlethwaite, B. E. (2012). A matter of context: A meta-analytic investigation of the relative validity of contextualized and noncontextualized personality measures. *Personnel Psychology, 65*(3), 445–493. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2012.01250.x

Slatcher, R. B. i Vazire, S. (2009). Effects of global and contextualized personality on relationship satisfaction. *Journal of Research in Personality, 43*(4), 624–633. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2009.02.012

Soto, C. J. i John, O. P. (2017). Short and extra-short forms of the Big Five Inventory–2: The BFI-2-S and BFI-2-XS. *Journal of Research in Personality, 68,* 69–81. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2017.02.004

Sutton, A. (2018). Distinguishing between authenticity and personality consistency in predicting well-being: A mixed method approach. *European Review of Applied Psychology / Revue Européenne de Psychologie Appliquée, 68*(3), 117–130. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.erap.2018.06.001

Swift, V. i Peterson, J. B. (2019). Contextualization as a means to improve the predictive validity of personality models. *Personality and Individual Differences, 144,* 153–163. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2019.03.007

Tomas, J., Maslić Seršić, D., Mikac, U., Rebernjak, B., Buško, V. i De Witte, H. (2023.). Validation of the Croatian version of the short form of the Burnout Assessment Tool: Findings from a nationally representative sample. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 32*(1), 40–53. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijsa.12447

Zell, E. i Lesick, T. L. (2022). Big five personality traits and performance: A quantitative synthesis of 50+ meta-analyses. *Journal of Personality, 90*(4), 559–573. https://doi.org/10.1111/jopy.12683

Woo, S. E., Jin, J. i LeBreton, J. M. (2015). Specificity matters: Criterion-related validity of contextualized and facet measures of conscientiousness in predicting college student performance. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 97*(3), 301–309. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223891.2014.1002134

DRUŠ. ISTRAŽ. ZAGREB
GOD. 33 (2024), BR. 2,
STR. 201-221

The Relationship Between Global and Contextualised Personality and Workplace Burnout in Secondary School Teachers

Krešimir JAKŠIĆ, Irena BURIĆ
Department of Psychology, University of Zadar, Zadar, Croatia

Knowledge about the relationship between personality traits and workplace burnout in teachers is predominantly based on the operationalisation of personality as a stable construct (global personality) and the operationalisation of workplace burnout by means of the Maslach et al. model. However, according to contemporary conceptualisations, personality can also be considered as a context-dependent construct. In addition, Schaufeli et al. have presented their own conceptualisation of burnout at work, which, in contrast to Maslach et al.'s model, is based on clear theoretical assumptions. The aim of the study was therefore to investigate the relationship between personality and burnout at work based on the contemporary conceptualisation of personality (global versus contextualised) and burnout at work (Schaufeli et al. model). A correlational study was conducted with a sample of 142 secondary school teachers. The research findings point to the contribution of the global and contextualised personality dimensions to the dimensions of burnout in the workplace.

Keywords: personality, global personality, contextualised personality, burnout, teachers

https://doi.org/10.5559/di.33.2.03

ROMANTIC EXPERIENCES IN EMERGING ADULTS: HOW THEY RELATE TO THE IMPORTANCE OF ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS AND THE QUALITY OF RELATIONSHIPS WITH PARENTS

Timotej GLAVAČ, Melita PUKLEK LEVPUŠČEK
Faculty of Arts, University of Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia

UDK: 159.922.8(497.4):177.6
316.362.1-055.52-055.62(497.4)
Original scientific paper
Received: August 18, 2023

This study examined the link between perceived romantic relationship (RR) importance (relationship desire and dismissal) and emerging adults' romantic experiences, including relationship status, number of partnerships, and relationship durations. It also explored how individuation from parents contributes to the prediction of these experiences. Participants (N = 464, 64.4% female, M_{age} = 22.59) reported on their romantic relationship importance, relationship experiences, and perceived connectedness and intrusiveness from parents. Hierarchical regression analyses revealed that perceived RR importance significantly contributed to the prediction of romantic experiences beyond demographic factors. Additionally, paternal intrusiveness negatively predicted the duration of current and longest relationships. The findings suggest that RR importance and individuation, especially in relation to the father, play an important role in emerging adults' romantic experiences.

Keywords: romantic experiences, emerging adulthood, importance of romantic relationships, connectedness, intrusiveness

✉ Timotej Glavač, Department of Psychology, Faculty of Arts, University of Ljubljana, Aškerčeva 2, 1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia.
E-mail: Timotej.Glavac@ff.uni-lj.si

INTRODUCTION

Romantic Experiences and Importance of Romantic Relationships in Emerging Adulthood

Growing interest in and engaging in romantic/intimate relationships is a normative rite of passage for young people (Moore et al., 2012). Romantic experiences and sexual experimentation in adolescence and emerging adulthood provide an important foundation for the formation of personal preferences for emotional and physical intimacy that later lead to more mature romantic relationships and sexual behaviours (van de Bongardt et al., 2015). Interest in romantic relationships begins to develop in early adolescence when romantic relationships are casual and short-lived. In mid-adolescence, interactions with romantic partners and sexual activity increase, whereas in late adolescence, the focus is on developing intimacy and emotional support in the relationship (Seiffge-Krenke & Stemmler, 2003). As young people enter the stage of emerging adulthood, they develop more exclusive and dyadic romantic relationships. These are characterised by deeper intimacy, a stronger sense of love and commitment, and a stronger tendency to care in a relationship than at earlier ages (Ponti et al., 2010).

In his theory of emerging adulthood, Arnett (2004) emphasised that emerging adulthood is a time to explore possibilities related to romance and love, to determine what kind of person one wants to commit to, and to gain experience in romantic relationships before settling down with a steady partner. As a result, young people today may have many different romantic relationships that tend to be short-term or noncommittal (Beckmeyer & Jamison, 2021; James-Kangal et al., 2018; Norona et al., 2017). Shulman and Connolly (2013) relate the transience of relationships and noncommittal partnerships to the unpredictable modern world and unstable economic conditions. In this way, young people should increase their flexibility, choices, and various opportunities. Nevertheless, attitudes towards committed, long-term relationships are positive and young people want to live this way in their future (Braithwaite et al., 2010; Gonzalez Avilés et al., 2021).

In reviewing the literature on romantic relationships in emerging adulthood, we found that authors focus primarily on the quality of the romantic relationship or relationship style, its psychosocial antecedents, and mental health outcomes (Beckmeyer & Jamison, 2021; Mirsu-Paun & Oliver, 2017; Ponti et al., 2010). Other characteristics of romantic experiences in emerging adulthood, such as relationship status, length of romantic relationship, and number of lifetime partnerships, have been reported primarily as descriptive characteristics of study samples. However, empirical evidence shows that romantically involved emerging adults have higher life satisfaction and positive self-esteem (Beckmeyer & Cromwell, 2019; Gonzalez Avilés et al., 2021), fewer feelings of loneliness (Beckmeyer & Cromwell, 2019), more positive sexual well-being (Kaestle & Evans, 2018), and fewer mental health problems (Braithwaite et al., 2010) than emerging adults with casual romantic relationships or singles. Another interesting question is how much romantic experience is sufficient to enter a stable long-term relationship. Madsen & Collins (2011) examined the relationship between the involvement and quality of dating experiences of adolescents in mid-adolescence and the quality of their romantic relationships in their early 20s. They found that adolescents who had fewer dating partners in middle adolescence and maintained higher quality relationships at age 16 had smoother romantic partner interactions in emerging adulthood. Conversely, adolescents who had more dating partners in mid-adolescence tended to experience more negative emotions in romantic partner relationships in emerging adulthood.

One of the explanatory psychological variables for more or less engagement in romantic experiences among young people could be the degree of subjective importance of romantic relationships and their value in the context of other life priorities. The subjective importance and value of romantic relationships are an important source of motivation for individuals to enter into and maintain an intimate relationship (Chan, 2017; Watkins & Beckmeyer, 2020). A stronger desire for a romantic relationship implies a stronger belief in the value of a lasting partnership and binding romantic commitments. Relationship dismissal, on the other hand, represents a belief in the lesser importance of a romantic relationship in one's life, often seen as an obstacle to an individual's life plans, and the prioritisation of personal goals over romantic commitments (Watkins & Beckmeyer, 2020). A recent study of a sample of Polish adults found that single individuals reported lower relationship desire and higher relationship dismissal than coupled individuals (Adamczyk et al., 2022). In addition, emerging adults who placed greater importance on romantic relationships in their lives were more satisfied with their romantic experiences, whereas emerging adults with higher relationship dismissal reported a lower number of romantic relationships in their lives and higher cycling in their current relationship (Watkins & Beckmeyer, 2020).

Relationships with Parents in Emerging Adulthood and Romantic Involvement

The relationships that children have with their parents can affect their later relationships with others inside and outside the family (Bretherton, 1985). There is empirical evidence showing that positive parent-child relationships are related to healthy romantic relationships in adulthood (Conger et al., 2000; Donnellan et al., 2005; Feldman Barrett & Russell, 1998; Seiffge-Krenke et al., 2001), whereas conflict, hostility, and emotional dysregulation in parent-child relationships have been shown to be negatively related to the quality of romantic relationships (Fite et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2009). Specifically, strong, and reliable attachment to parents at ages 15 and 17 has been shown to predict connectedness and attraction in romantic relationships at age 20 (Seiffge-Krenke et al., 2001), and adolescent reports of family cohesion and adaptability have been associated with romantic happiness in young adulthood (Feldman Barrett et al., 1998).

The theory of the second individuation process (Blos, 1967; Josselson, 1998; Youniss & Smollar, 1985) provides a background that explains the intrapsychic process of developing individuality while maintaining connectedness with parents, which in modern societies begins in adolescence and continues into the individual's third decade of life (Lamborn & Groh, 2009). Connectedness with parents, which is composed of the individual's experiences of mutual understanding, respect, and trust in the relationship and the perception of parents as good, sincere companions, appears to have an important influence on the socio-emotional life and psychological well-being of emerging adults (Komidar et al., 2016). Accordingly, the dimensions of parental warmth and consistency have been found to be significantly associated with young adults' feelings of comfort with intimacy, less difficulty relying on others, and less fear of being abandoned or unloved (Hagerty et al., 2002). On the other hand, intrusive parenting, in which the boundaries of the parent-child relationship are disrupted, has been linked to unhealthy individuation and poor adjustment in children (Barber, 2002; Kerig, 2005). While there has been growing interest in the effects of intrusive parenting on young adult psychosocial functioning and in factors that may influence couple functioning (Gagliardi et al., 2013; Gasbarrini et al., 2015; Parise et al., 2017), surprisingly little attention has been paid to the effects of intrusive parenting on the characteristics of adult children's romantic experiences. One example is a recent longitudinal study by Parise et al. (2017), who found that perceived intrusive parenting was a negative predictor of relationship quality for both men and women.

The Present Study

In the present study, we examined how the perceived importance of romantic relationships was related to aspects of romantic experiences, such as whether one was in a relationship or single, how many romantic relationships one had, how long the longest romantic relationship lasted, and how long the current romantic relationship lasted (only participants in a relationship). In addition, we were interested in whether experiencing connectedness and intrusiveness in relation to mother and father significantly contributed to predicting emerging adults' romantic experiences beyond the perceived importance of romantic relationships and demographics. In predicting romantic experiences, we controlled for relevant demographic variables, i.e., participants' age, gender, and living arrangement. Based on the theoretical background presented, we hypothesised that relationship desire would be positively related to current romantic relationship duration, number of romantic relationships, and longest romantic relationship duration, while higher levels of relationship dismissal would be inversely related to the three indicators of romantic experiences. We also hypothesised that perceived parental intrusiveness would be negatively related to romantic relationship experiences, while higher levels of connectedness with parents were expected to be positively related to romantic relationship experiences. Due to the lack of literature on the different effects of paternal and maternal parenting on later romantic relationship dynamics, we did not propose specific hypotheses in relation to mothers and fathers.

METHOD

Participants

The sample consisted of 464 emerging adults, of whom 63.4% were women, 35.6% were men, and 1.0% identified as other. Participants ranged in age from 19 to 29 years (M_{age} = 22.57, SD = 2.63). Most participants were students (84.7%), 12.7% were employed, and 2.6% were unemployed. 34.5% of participants lived with their parents (M_{age} = 22.04), 50.6% lived partly with their parents and partly alone (i.e., semi-independent, M_{age} = 22.10), and 14.9% lived independently (M_{age} = 25.35).

Measures

The Brief Measure of Relationship Importance (BMRI; Watkins & Beckmeyer, 2020) is a six-item self-report instrument that captures emerging adult's beliefs about the value and cost of a romantic relationship. The measure consists of two subscales. Relationship Desire measures enthusiasm and desire to be in a romantic relationship (two items, an item example: "A romantic relationship is one of the most satisfying things a young adult can have") and Relationship Dismissal measures devaluation of the importance of romantic relationships in one's life (four items, an item example: "I prefer not being involved in a committed romantic relationship"). Participants rate each item on a four-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree). The Cronbach's alphas for Relationship Desire and Relationship Dismissal in our study were 0.78 and 0.79, respectively. Because the BMRI had not been previously validated in a Slovenian sample, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to examine the construct validity of the measure. The fit indices were as follows: Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.981, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) = 0.964; RMSEA = 0.069, SRMR = 0.031. The factor loadings of the items ranged from 0.65 to 0.88. Thus, the two-dimensional structure of the BMRI showed good construct validity in a Slovenian sample.

The Individuation Test for Emerging Adults - Short Form (ITEA-SF; Komidar et al., 2016) is a 21-item self-report measure. Participants respond on a 5-point rating scale ranging from 1 (completely untrue) to 5 (completely true). The ITEA-SF measures five dimensions of individuation in relation to mother and father: Support Seeking, Connectedness, Intrusiveness, Self-Reliance, and Fear of Disappointing the Parent. The construct validity and concurrent validity of both mother and father forms proved to be satisfactory (Komidar et al., 2016). In this study, we only used the subscales Connectedness and Intrusiveness, which were completed independently for mother and father immediately after each other. The order of presentation of the two forms was automatically rotated. Connectedness consists of 4 items and refers to the experience of mutual understanding, trust, and respect between the emerging adult and the parent (e.g., "He/she respects my wishes") (α = 0.87/0.88, respectively for the father and mother form). Intrusiveness consists of 5 items and refers to the perception of parental intrusion into individual's privacy (i.e., "I think he/she wants to know too much about me") (α = 0.86/0.90, respectively for the father and mother form).

Romantic relationship experiences. Relationship status was measured by asking participants: "Are you currently in a relationship with a romantic partner?". Below the question was a description of the term romantic partner: "A romantic partner is someone you are physically attracted to and have an intimate relationship with (holding hands, kissing, etc.)." Participants answered yes or no, and those who were currently in a relationship indicated the duration of their current romantic relationship in months. All participants then answered the question: "How many romantic partners have you had in your lifetime?" The response options were 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, and more than 4. Finally, participants indicated the duration of their longest romantic relationship (in months).

Demographics. Participants were asked about their age, gender ("male," "female," "other"), employment status ("student," "employed," "unemployed"), and living arrangement ("with parents," "semi-independent (partly with parents, partly alone)," "independent").

Procedure

The study was conducted between October and December 2021. The majority of participants were students from various study programmes at the University of Ljubljana, the University of Maribor, and the University of Primorska. A subset of the sample included students attending a course in educational psychology taught by one of the researchers. We also advertised the study on various social networks and invited all individuals between the ages of 19 and 29 to participate. The measures were presented in the following order: demographic variables, relationship importance, and individuation in relation to mother and father. Participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and anonymous and that the data would only be used for the purpose of this study. After participants agreed to the consent form, they were asked to begin completing the survey. Completing the questionnaire took about 10 minutes on average. Data were analysed using the SPSS 25 statistical package. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed in R version 4.1.2 (R, 2021). The study was approved by the Ethics Commission of the Faculty of Arts, University of Ljubljana.

RESULTS

We first calculated the average scores of the relationship desire and relationship dismissal scales, and connectedness and intrusiveness in relation to mother and father and then assessed distribution of the measures. The Kolmogorov-Smirnoff coefficients were statistically significant, as was the Shapiro-Wilk test ($p < 0.01$), indicating a non-normal distribution of the scores on measured variables. However, since these tests are sensitive to sample size, we decided to investigate additional indicators of normality by examining kurtosis and skewness values. All subscales had moderate values for skewness and kurtosis that were within the range of +/- 1.5, which is considered acceptable for the use of parametric tests (George & Mallery, 2016). As can be seen in Table 1, participants in the sample scored above the mean for relationship desire, below the mean for relationship dismissal as well as above the mean for connectedness in relation to both mother and father, and below the mean for perceived intrusiveness of both mother and father. Slightly more than half of the sample was in a relationship at the time of the study (51.3%). 25.9% of participants had never been in a relationship, 25.4% reported having had one romantic partner, 23.5% reported having two partners, 14.9% reported having three partners, 5.4% reported having four partners, and 5% reported having four or more partners ($M = 1.63$, $SD = 1.40$). Among those currently in a romantic relationship, the average duration of the relationship was 35.45 months. The average duration of the longest romantic relationship that participants had was 33.77 months. The majority of participants who had never been in a relationship were between 19 and 23 years old (90.1%).

Table 1 shows additional descriptive statistics for the included variables, split by gender, relationship status and living arrangement, as well as the respective effect sizes (Cohen's *d* or partial eta squared (ηp^2) in each comparison. Participants with partnered status scored higher on relationship desire, number of lifetime romantic relationships, and duration of longest romantic relationship than single participants, while the latter scored higher on relationship dismissal and perceived intrusiveness of mothers and fathers. Men reported a stronger relationship desire and a stronger intrusiveness of both parents than women, while women reported a stronger connectedness to both parents, a higher number of romantic relationships in life, a longer duration of the longest romantic relationship and a longer duration of the current romantic relationship than men. Living arrangement was only significantly associated with romantic experiences. Pairwise comparisons (Tukey's) showed that participants who lived independently were significantly more likely to report a higher number of lifetime romantic relationships (ps < 0.001) and a longer duration of current romantic relationship (ps < 0.001) than participants who lived with their parents or semi-independently. Because living arrangement was related to age ($r = 0.38$, ps $= < 0.001$), we conducted additional ANCOVA analyses to control for the potentially confounding effect of age. After controlling for age, a significant main effect of living arrangement remained in explaining the number of lifetime romantic relationships (ps $= 0.002$) and the duration of the current romantic relationship (ps $= 0.015$).

Table 2 shows the correlations between the included measures. Relationship dismissal was moderately and negatively associated with relationship desire. In addition, those participants who expressed higher relationship dismissal, reported lower connectedness in relation to mother and father and higher perceived intrusiveness of both parents (correlations were significant but negligible or small). Participants with higher relationship dismissal had fewer romantic experiences (i.e., fewer lifetime romantic relationships, shorter duration of longest romantic relationship, and shorter duration of current romantic relationship) than participants with lower relationship dismissal. In contrast, participants with higher relationship desire reported a longer duration of their romantic relationships (current and longest romantic relationship) than their peers with lower relationship desire.

➲ TABLE 1
Descriptive statistics for the total sample and comparisons according to relationship status, gender and living arrangement

Variables	Total sample *M (SD)*	Partnered emerging adults *M (SD)*	Single emerging adults *M (SD)*	Effect size Cohen's *d*	Females *M (SD)*	Males *M (SD)*	Effect size Cohen's *d*	Living with parents *M (SD)*	Living semi-inde-pendently *M (SD)*	Living inde-pendently *M (SD)*	ηp^2
Relationship dismissal	1.62 (0.65)	1.35 (0.48)	1.91 (0.68)	0.95**	1.60 (0.67)	1.64 (0.59)	0.07	1.63 (0.69)	1.65 (0.62)	1.47 (65)	0.009
Relationship desire	2.73 (0.92)	3.95 (0.83)	2.49 (0.95)	-0.52**	2.67 (0.93)	2.85 (0.87)	0.21*	2.72 (0.93)	2.67 (0.93)	2.95 (0.90)	0.011
Connectedness M	3.80 (0.98)	3.88 (0.97)	3.74 (1.00)	-0.14	3.90 (0.98)	3.64 (0.95)	-0.27*	3.79 (1.05)	3.83 (0.91)	3.77 (1.09)	0.001
Intrusiveness M	2.21 (1.07)	2.01 (1.04)	2.39 (1.07)	0.32*	2.08 (1.04)	2.48 (1.07)	0.38**	2.29 (1.03)	2.24 (1.09)	1.95 (1.07)	0.012
Connectedness F	3.40 (1.03)	3.47 (1.07)	3.33 (0.99)	-0.13	3.46 (1.04)	3.32 (1.00)	-0.13	3.46 (1.07)	3.37 (0.98)	3.38 (1.12)	0.001
Intrusiveness F	1.69 (0.82)	1.56 (0.75)	1.83 (0.88)	0.32*	1.61 (0.81)	1.84 (0.81)	0.28*	1.72 (0.84)	1.70 (0.81)	1.60 (0.85)	0.002
Lifetime number of RRs	1.63 (1.40)	2.10 (1.34)	1.15 (1.31)	-0.71**	1.74 (1.39)	1.38 (1.34)	-0.27*	1.46 (1.37)	1.51 (1.32)	2.46 (1.48)	0.062**
Duration of longest RR	33.77 (27.73)	41.90 (28.27)	20.54 (21.00)	-0.83**	37.00 (28.22)	25.60 (23.70)	-0.44**	28.38 (24.67)	31.00 (26.61)	50.45 (29.68)	0.085**
Duration of current RR+	/	35.45 (29.90)	/	/	37.00 (26.64)	27.27 (26.51)	-0.35*	28.38 (24.67)	32.06 (28.49)	51.72 (32.58)	0.088**

Note. RR = romantic relationship, M = mother, F = father, +only participants in a relationship. $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Age	-								
2 Relationship dismissal	-0.096*	-							
3 Relationship desire	0.099	-0.522**	-						
4 Connectedness M	-0.022	-0.101*	0.031	-					
5 Intrusiveness M	-0.061	0.117*	-0.027	-0.591**	-				
6 Connectedness F	-0.011	-0.184**	0.112*	0.356**	-0.206**	-			
7 Intrusiveness F	0.044	0.107*	0.016	-0.267**	0.449**	-0.254**	-		
8 Lifetime number of romantic relationships	0.264**	-0.150**	0.077	-0.059	-0.018	-0.016	-0.001	-	
9 Duration of longest romantic relationship	0.352**	-0.289**	0.174**	0.031	-0.184**	-0.095	-0.227**	0.062	-
10 Duration of current romantic relationship +	0.367**	-0.191**	0.170**	0.070	-0.209**	0.189**	-0.227**	-0.137*	0.761**

TABLE 2
Zero-order correlations for study variables

Note. RR = romantic relationship, M = mother, F = father, +only participants in a relationship. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$.

Only connectedness in relation to the father (and not in relation to the mother) was associated with the romantic experiences of emerging adults in the sample. Those emerging adults who felt more connected in relation to the father reported longer durations of the current romantic relationship and the longest romantic relationship. Lastly, emerging adults in the sample who reported more intrusiveness from their parents had fewer lasting romantic relationships.

Before we ran regression analyses, we examined the assumptions for all hierarchical linear regressions. The Cook's distances were all below 1, suggesting the absence of outliers. There were no signs of multicollinearity (any correlation was above 0.70). VIF scores were predominantly in the 1-2 range. Collinearity tolerances were consistently above 0.1 in all the iterations of the hierarchical linear regressions.

To examine the effects of demographic variables (gender, age, and living arrangement), perceived importance of the relationship, and the two dimensions of individuation (connectedness and intrusiveness in relation to each parent) on aspects of romantic experience (number of lifetime romantic relationships, duration of current relationship, and duration of longest relationship), we ran multiple hierarchical linear regressions. The three demographic variables were inserted into a separate block in the first step, relationship dismissal and desire were inserted into the second block, and the two individuation dimensions related to each parent were inserted separately in the last step, using the default Enter method.

The results of the multiple regression analysis (Table 3) show that demographic data, perceived importance of the relationship, and connectedness and intrusiveness in relation to the mother (father) explain 13.4% (12.2%) of the variance in emerging adults' lifetime number of romantic relationships. The first block, which includes demographic data, shows that women, older emerging adults, and those who lived independently or semi-independently were more likely to have a greater number of romantic relationships in their lives. Adding the importance of the relationship in the second block of the regression model significantly increased the explained variance in the lifetime number of romantic relationships ($R^2\Delta = 0.012$). Relationship dismissal (but not desire) proved to be a significant and negative predictor of the lifetime number of romantic relationships. The addition of the two dimensions of individuation related to mother and father in the third block of the regression model did not significantly contribute to the prediction of lifetime number of romantic relationships.

TABLE 3
Summary of hierarchical multiple regression analysis predicting the number of lifetime romantic relationships

		Number of romantic relationships		
	Predictor	*B*	β	95% CI *B*
Step 1	Female	0.339	0.118**	[-2,669, -0.146]
	Age	0.105	0.200**	[0.054, 0.156]
	Living arrangement d1	-0.610	-0.160**	[-1.021, -0.199]
	Living arrangement d2	-0.603	-0.158**	[-0.997, -0.208]
Step 2	Female	0.318	0.111*	[0.062, 0.574]
	Age	0.100	0.191**	[0.049, 0.151]
	Living arrangement d1	-0.592	-0.205**	[-1.003, -0.182]
	Living arrangement d2	-0.576	-0.209**	[-0.970, -0.182]
	Relationship dismissal	-0.259	-0.121*	[-0.484, -0.035]
	Relationship desire	-0.019	-0.013	[-0.178, 0.140]
Step 3a (mother)	Female	0.384	0.133**	[0.120, 0.647]
	Age	0.093	0.181**	[0.042, 0.145]
	Living arrangement d1	-0.607	-0.211**	[-1.017, -0.197]
	Living arrangement d2	-0.570	-0.208**	[-0.963, -0.177]
	Relationship dismissal	-0.307	-0.142*	[-0.542, -0.071]
	Relationship desire	-0.002	-0.001	[-0.166, 0.163]
	Connectedness	-0.115	-0.082	[-0.270, 0.039]
	Intrusiveness	0.003	0.002	[-0.140, 0.146]
Step 3b (father)	Female	0.370	0.128**	[0.096, 0.645]
	Age	0.097	0.186**	[0.044, 0.151]
	Living arrangement d1	-0.573	-0.197**	[-1.00, -0.139]
	Living arrangement d2	-0.585	-0.212**	[0.999, -0.171]
	Relationship dismissal	-0.292	-0.131*	[-0.542, -0.041]
	Relationship desire	-0.008	-0.005	[-0.179, 0.164]
	Connectedness	0.048	-0.036	[-0.177, 0.081]
	Intrusiveness	0.052	0.031	[-0.109, 0.213]
R^2 Step 1		0.108**		
R^2 Step 2		0.120*		
R^2 Step 3a		0.134		
R^2 Step 3b		0.122		

Note. Living arrangement (reference = living independently, d1 = living with parents, d2 = living semi-independently). *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$.

Predictor	Duration of current RR			Duration of longest RR		
	B	β	95% CI *B*	*B*	β	95% CI *B*
Step 1						
Female	12.104	0.179*	[4.091, 20.118]	11.625	0.206**	[6.122, 17.127]
Age	3.190	0.312**	[1.811, 4.570]	2.769	0.291**	[1.720, 3.818]
Living arrangement d1	-12.523	-0.201*	[-.22.743, -2.303]	-11.944	-0.214**	[-20.036, -3.851]
Living arrangement d2	-10.764	-0.192*	[-20.134, -1.395]	-9.868	-0.188*	[-17.647, -2.088]
Step 2						
Female	12.296	0.182*	[4.359, 20.233]	11.858	0.210**	[6.538, 17.177]
Age	3.030	0.296**	[1.663, 4.397]	2.777	0.292**	[1.771, 3.782]
Living arrangement d1	-12.388	-0.199*	[-22.478, -2.298]	-10.706	-0.192**	[-18.474, -2.937]
Living arrangement d2	-9.596	-0.171*	[-18.891, -0.302]	-7.639	-0.146*	[-15.154, -0.123]
Relationship dismissal	-7.226	-0.124	[-14.628, 0.176]	-10.786	-0.256**	[15.376, -6.196]
Relationship desire	2.518	0.074	[-1.864, 6.899]	0.635	0.022	[-2.517, 3.787]
Step 3a (mother)						
Female	9.895	0.144*	[1.570, 18.219]	12.337	0.217**	[6.803, 17.870]
Age	3.060	0.300**	[1.678, 4.441]	2.899	0.308**	[1.902, 3.895]
Living arrangement d1	-9.309	-0.148*	[-19.804, 1.187]	-9.424	-0.169*	[-17.209, -1.638]
Living arrangement d2	-7.354	-0.131*	[-16.964, 2.256]	-6.345	-0.121	[-13.837, 1.148]
Relationship dismissal	-6.706	-0.115	[-14.191, 0.778]	-10.073	-0.232**	[-14.970, -5.176]
Relationship desire	2.662	0.077	[-1.862, 7.187]	1.152	0.040	[-2.139, 4.443]
Connectedness	-1.314	-0.045	[-5.748, 3.119]	-2.020	-0.075	[-5.155, 1.114]
Intrusiveness	-3.881	-0.143	[-8.157, 0.395]	-2.766	-0.111	[-5.753, 0.222]
Step 3b (father)						
Female	11.937	0.174*	[3.522, 20.352]	12.279	0.217**	[6.631, 17.926]
Age	2.891	0.283**	[1.477, 4.306]	2.752	0.291**	[1.707, 3.797]
Living arrangement d1	-10.333	-0.164	[-5.019, 10.964]	-8.904	-0.160*	[-17.109, -0.699]
Living arrangement d2	-7.360	-0.132	[-.291, 20.957]	-5.825	-0.111	[-13.671, 2.021]
Relationship dismissal	-5.736	-0.097	-13.473, 2.000]	-8.141	-0.184**	[-13.392, -2.890]
Relationship desire	2.493	0.073	[-2.043, 7.029]	2.201	0.076	[-1.218, 5.620]
Connectedness	3.380	0.129*	[.141, 6.620]	0.513	-0.020	[-2.105, 3.131]
Intrusiveness	-5.484	-0.147*	[-10.121, -0.847]	-4.559	-0.140**	[-7.872, -1.246]
R^2 Step 1	0.196**			0.195**		
R^2 Step 2	0.224*			0.266**		
R^2 Step 3a	0.232			0.291		
R^2 Step 3b	0.249**			0.277*		

TABLE 4
Summary of hierarchical multiple regression analyses predicting the duration of current romantic relationship and the duration of the longest romantic relationship

Note. n = 229 (predicting duration of current romantic relationship, RR), n = 329 (predicting the longest romantic relationship, RR). Living arrangement (reference = living independently, d1 = living with parents, d2 = living semi-independently). *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$.

Demographic characteristics, perceived importance of the relationship, and connectedness and intrusiveness in relation to the mother (father) explained 23.2% (24.9%) of the variance in the duration of the current romantic relationship (see Table 4). The first block of demographic characteristics shows that women and older emerging adults were more likely to have a longer current romantic relationship, while those emerging adults who lived with their parents or semi-independently reported a shorter length of current romantic relationship than their peers who lived independently. The addition of relationship importance in the second block of the regression model significantly increased the explained variance in the duration of the current romantic relationship ($R^2\Delta$ = 0.028). However, the independent contributions of relationship dismissal and desire in explaining the duration of the current romantic relationship were not confirmed. Moreover, adding connectedness and intrusiveness in relation to the mother in the third block of a regression model did not significantly contribute to predicting the duration of current romantic relationship. On the other hand, connectedness and intrusiveness in relation to the father made a significant contribution to predicting the duration of the current romantic relationship over and above demographics and perceived importance of the relationship ($R^2\Delta$ = 0.025). Specifically, higher paternal connectedness contributed positively, and higher paternal intrusiveness contributed negatively to the duration of the current romantic relationship. Table 4 also shows the results of a regression model predicting emerging adults' duration of the longest romantic relationship. Demographics, perceived importance of the relationship, and connectedness and intrusiveness in relation to the mother (father) explained 29% (28%) of the variance in the duration of the longest romantic relationship. The first block of demographic data shows that being female, older, and living away from parents mean having longer duration of the longest romantic relationship. The addition of relationship importance in the second block of the regression model significantly increased the reported duration of the longest romantic relationship ($R^2\Delta$ = 0.071). Those emerging adults who were more dismissing of romantic relationships had a shorter duration of their longest relationship, whereas relationship desire did not significantly contribute to explaining the duration of the longest romantic relationship. Of the measures assessing the two aspects of individuation, only paternal intrusiveness significantly and negatively predicted the duration of the longest romantic relationship.

DISCUSSION

One of the most important relational developmental tasks during emerging adulthood is the ability to form and maintain long-term romantic relationships. In this study, we examined how beliefs about the importance of romantic relationships and the two aspects of individuation related to parents (perceived connectedness with parents and parental intrusiveness) are related to emerging adults' relationship status and the frequency and duration of their romantic experiences, while controlling for emerging adults' age, gender, and living arrangements.

First, we found that single emerging adults showed lower relationship desire and higher relationship dismissal than coupled emerging adults. In addition, single emerging adults showed a lower number of lifetime romantic relationships and an overall shorter duration of the longest romantic relationship. These findings support our first hypothesis and add to the results of previous studies that have examined the association between emerging adults' relationship beliefs and the characteristics of their romantic experiences. Young participants who currently have a partner reported more positive romantic beliefs and more satisfying romantic experiences than their single counterparts (Adamczyk et al., 2022; Beckmeyer & Cromwell, 2019; Watkins & Beckmeyer, 2020). In terms of relationships with parents, single emerging adults reported higher levels of paternal and maternal intrusiveness than partnered emerging adults. These findings could be interpreted in light of research emphasising the importance of parent-child dynamics in the formation and maintenance of relationships (Conger et al., 2000; Donnellan et al., 2005; Seiffge-Krenke et al., 2001). Overly intrusive parents who are unable to interact with their children in a warm, loving way may disrupt children's attachment styles and consequently impact their ability to form and maintain romantic relationships later in life (Parise et al., 2017). However, the lack of relationship experiences is not necessarily due to problems in psychosocial functioning, as today's emerging adults generally have fewer romantic relationship experiences than previous generations. These changes in relationship experiences could therefore be related to broader societal factors – a finding that has been observed in both Generation Z and Millennials compared to previous generations (Demarinis, 2020; Twenge et al., 2017; Wagner et al., 2015).

The second aim of our study was to determine how gender, age, and living arrangement relate to the frequency of emerging adults' romantic relationships and the duration of current and longest romantic relationships, and whether beliefs about the importance of romantic relationships and the two aspects of individuation in relation to parents (connectedness and intrusiveness) predict aspects of romantic experiences over and above demographic characteristics. We found that gender, age, and living arrangement explained the largest proportion of variance in all three regression models. Gender appears to be an important predictor of romantic experiences, as confirmed in previous studies. Demographic data from the United States show large gender differences in relationship status: 51% of young men (under 30) report being single compared to 32% of young women (Brown, 2020). This finding is consistent with a general pattern showing that men marry later in life than women (Allendorf et al., 2017). Age is an important predictor of relationship experience, as older emerging adults are more likely to be in a relationship and have more relationship experience than younger individuals (Beckmeyer & Cromwell, 2019; Watkins & Beckmeyer, 2020). Similarly, older emerging adults are more likely to be in more stable, long-term relationships (Ponti et al., 2010). Finally, all three regression models show that emerging adults who lived independently had more romantic experiences in their lives than those who lived with their parents or semi-independently. These results may suggest that independent living is an important criterion for reaching adulthood (even after controlling for age), which in turn is associated with other criteria such as having a stable romantic relationship and a job (Zupančič et al., 2014). Another explanation is that emerging adults who live independently are under less parental supervision and have more freedom to explore romantic and sexual relationships (Tillman et al., 2019).

In predicting the lifetime number of romantic relationships, the importance of romantic relationships contributed significantly to the second step of the regression, but only relationship dismissal (and not relationship desire) was a significant independent predictor. The authors of the BMRI questionnaire (Watkins & Beckmeyer, 2019) reported similar results, with relationship dismissal being a significant predictor of the number of romantic relationships in one's life, whereas relationship desire was not. We can assume that emerging adults who place less importance on a romantic relationship in their lives are less likely to engage in behaviours that could lead to the formation of a romantic relationship. However, as this is a correlational study, an alternative explanation could also be that self-reported relationship dismissal could be the function of defense mechanisms (Cramer, 2015; Freud, 1929) or cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957), as individuals who have difficulty entering into a relationship may tend to invoke rationalisations for their romantic relationship status. Two aspects of individuation related to parents did not contribute to the prediction of the number of lifetime romantic relationships in the third step of the regression model, which does not support our hypothesis about the association between the two aspects of individuation and the frequency of emerging adults' romantic experiences.

After controlling for demographic characteristics, beliefs about the importance of romantic relationships explained a significant amount of the variance in the duration of current and longest romantic relationships. Only relationship dismissal, but not relationship desire, predicted the duration of the longest romantic relationship (negatively). Individuals who are dismissive of their romantic relationships may invest less in their relationship and put less effort into maintaining and improving their romantic commitment. However, the reverse is also possible: Individuals who have had shorter relationships may be more dismissing of their future romantic relationships due to the dissatisfaction they experienced in their short-lived previous relationship. Indeed, negative past relationship experiences have been shown to influence beliefs and expectations about future relationships (Baker et al., 2017; Carnelley & Janoff-Bulman, 1992). In addition, connectedness with mother and maternal intrusiveness did not significantly contribute to the prediction of the duration of the current and longest romantic relationship. However, connectedness with father significantly predicted the duration of the current romantic relationship, whereas paternal intrusiveness negatively predicted the duration of the current and longest relationship. Thus, our hypothesis about the relationship between the two individuation dimensions and the duration of emerging adults' romantic relationships was only partially supported. There are few studies that have examined the differential effects of the father-child relationship and the mother-child relationship on the romantic experiences of their adult children, likely due to the traditional view that mothers are the primary caregivers of children (Arendell, 2000). However, the few studies that do exist in this area have reached similar conclusions to ours. For example, Dalton et al (2006) found that parenting quality of the father (but not the mother) was related to the quality of emerging adults' current romantic relationships. In their longitudinal study, Flouri & Buchanan (2002) followed participants from age 7 to age 33 and found that participants who had good relationships with their fathers at age 16 had better marital satisfaction at age 33, while no relationship was found between mother-child relationships at age 16 and participants' later marital adjustment.

It should be noted that most of the emerging adults in our sample did not experience high levels of parental intrusiveness and most of them reported high levels of connectedness with their parents. In future studies, it would therefore be interesting to focus on those emerging adults who reported high levels of parental intrusiveness and low levels of connectedness with their parents. For example, could the psychological effects of dysfunctional relationships with parents be observed at different stages of an existing partnership? Indeed, studies have found that people often use deceptive self-presentation when trying to achieve their strategic goals (Leary, 1995), which also applies to partnership contexts (Guadagno et al., 2012). The potential negative effects associated with high parental intrusiveness and low connectedness with parents can be hidden from the partner, especially in the early stages of a romantic relationship, whereas they are more difficult to conceal in later stages of a relationship and may consequently lead to the termination of the relationship.

It remains partially unexplained why the dynamics between father and adult child play a more important role in the emerging adult's experience of romantic relationships than the dynamics between mother and adult child. In a study of the differential effects of mother-child and father-child relationship quality (Riggio, 2004), it was found that only father-adult child relationship quality was significantly and negatively related to feelings of anxiety in the adult child's romantic relationships. The authors surmised that this could be due to the fact that relationships with fathers are seen as more voluntary than relationships with mothers and therefore high relationship quality with the father is seen as a sign of the individual's competence and desirability in relationships. Accordingly, Karataş et al. (2019) found that low connectedness with fathers, but not with mothers, was a significant predictor of emerging adults' anxious attachment in a relationship with a romantic partner.

Strengths, Limitations and Future Research

One advantage of our study is that we used objective measures of emerging adults' romantic experiences, i.e. their frequency and duration. However, this could also be seen as a disadvantage, as we did not use a more sensitive measure of the quality of romantic relationships to get a more comprehensive view of the potential relationship dynamics. This was partly because we wanted to include both single and partnered emerging adults in our sample, so a measure of current romantic relationship quality would not apply to the substantial proportion of emerging adults who are single. However, by measuring only the frequency and duration of romantic experiences, we were able to partially support the hypothesis that certain aspects of romantic experiences in emerging adulthood are related to individuals' relationships with their parents, as measured by two important dimensions of individuation (connectedness and intrusiveness). Another notable limitation of this study was its cross-sectional design, which does not allow for causal inferences about the direction of the relationship between the included variables, but only allows for a discussion of the results at the correlational level. The sample was not gender balanced, as almost two-thirds of the sample consisted of women. Another important factor is that the present study was conducted while the coronavirus pandemic was still ongoing. The restrictions put in place to contain the spread of the virus may have influenced various societal dynamics that could also be related to romantic relationship factors. For example, emerging adults have had less romantic relationship experience because they were unable to socialise due to Covid-19 restrictions (Puklek Levpušček & Poredoš, 2023), and the additional stressors associated with the pandemic may have influenced the nature, duration and initiation of potential romantic relationships. An important starting point for future research would be to examine how specific characteristics of emerging adults' relationships with their mothers and fathers are related to the quality of romantic relationships. While a few studies have already examined the differential effects of mothers and fathers (Dalton et al., 2006; Seiffge-Krenke et al., 2010), more extensive research is needed to shed light on this complex dynamic.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we found important differences between emerging adults currently in a relationship and single emerging adults in terms of their relationship beliefs and perceived parental intrusiveness. We also found important effects of age, gender, and living arrangement on the frequency and duration of romantic experiences. After controlling for demographic variables, emerging adults' beliefs about the importance of romantic relationships explained a substantial amount of the variance in objective measures of relationship stability, i.e., the duration of current and longest romantic relationships. We also found that individuation in relation to parents plays a role in certain aspects of romantic experiences, but we only confirmed the significant contribution of perceived paternal intrusiveness in explaining the duration of emerging adults' partnerships. The dynamics underlying the differential role of fathers and mothers in explaining characteristics of children's romantic relationships are not yet fully understood and require further research.

Funding

This work was financially supported by Javna agencija za raziskovalno in inovacijsko dejavnost Republike Slovenije (Slovenian Research and Innovation Agency) within the research program *Applied Developmental Psychology* (research core funding No. P5-0062).

REFERENCES

Adamczyk, K., Park, J. Y., & Segrin, C. (2022). Patterns of intimacy crisis resolution and their associations with romantic loneliness in Polish and US young adults. *Developmental Psychology, 58*(8), 1600–1613. https://doi.org/10.1037/dev0001371

Allendorf, K., Thornton, A., Mitchell, C., Young-DeMarco, L., & Ghimire, D. J. (2017). Early women, late men: Timing attitudes and gender differences in marriage. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 79*(5), 1478–1496. https://doi.org/10.1111/jomf.12426

Arendell, T. (2000). Conceiving and investigating motherhood: The decade's scholarship. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 62*(4), 1192–1207. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2000.01192.x

Arnett, J. J. (2004). A longer road to adulthood. *Emerging Adulthood, 3*, 25. https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195309379.003.0001

Baker, L. R., McNulty, J. K., & VanderDrift, L. E. (2017). Expectations for future relationship satisfaction: Unique sources and critical implications for commitment. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 146*(5), 700–721. https://doi.org/10.1037/xge0000299

Barber, B. K. (2002). *Intrusive parenting: How psychological control affects children and adolescents*. American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10422-000

Beckmeyer, J. J., & Cromwell, S. (2019). Romantic relationship status and emerging adult well-being: Accounting for romantic relationship interest. *Emerging Adulthood, 7*(4), 304–308. https://doi.org/10.1177/2167696818772653

Beckmeyer, J. J., & Jamison, T. B. (2021). Identifying a typology of emerging adult romantic relationships: Implications for relationship education. *Family Relations, 70*(1), 305–318. https://doi.org/10.1111/fare.12464

Blos, P. (1967). The second individuation process of adolescence. *The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child, 22*(1), 162–186. https://doi.org/10.1080/00797308.1967.11822595

Braithwaite, S. R., Delevi, R., & Fincham, F. D. (2010). Romantic relationships and the physical and mental health of college students. *Personal Relationships, 17*(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-6811.2010.01248.x

Bretherton, I. (1985). Attachment theory: Retrospect and prospect. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, *50*(1/2), 3–35. https://doi.org/10.2307/3333824

Brown, A. (2020). *Nearly half of U.S. adults say dating has gotten harder for most people in the last 10 years*. Pew Research Center. https://www.pewresearch.org/social-trends/2020/08/20/nearly-half-of-u-s-adults-saydating-has-gotten-harder-for-most-people-in-the-last-10-years/

Carnelley, K. B., & Janoff-Bulman, R. (1992). Optimism about love relationships: General vs specific lessons from one's personal experiences. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 9*(1), 5–20. https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407592091001

Chan, L. S. (2017). Who uses dating apps? Exploring the relationships among trust, sensation-seeking, smartphone use, and the intent to use dating apps based on the integrative model. *Computers in Human Behavior, 72,* 246–258. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2017.02.053

Conger, R. D., Cui, M., Bryant, C. M., & Elder Jr, G. H. (2000). Competence in early adult romantic relationships: A developmental perspective on family influences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 79*(2), 224–237. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.79.2.224

Cramer, P. (2015). Understanding defense mechanisms. *Psychodynamic Psychiatry, 43*(4), 523–552. https://doi.org/10.1521/pdps.2015.43.4.523

Dalton III, W. T., Frick-Horbury, D., & Kitzmann, K. M. (2006). Young adults' retrospective reports of parenting by mothers and fathers: Associations with current relationship quality. *The Journal of General Psychology, 133*(1), 5–18. https://doi.org/10.3200/GENP.133.1.5-18

Demarinis, S. (2020). Loneliness at epidemic levels in America. *Explore (New York, NY), 16*(5), 278–279. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.explore.2020.06.008

Donnellan, M. B., Larsen-Rife, D., & Conger, R. D. (2005). Personality, family history, and competence in early adult romantic relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 88*(3), 562–576. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.88.3.562

Feldman Barrett, L., & Russell, J. A. (1998). Independence and bipolarity in the structure of current affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*(4), 967–984. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.74.4.967

Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Stanford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781503620766

Fite, J. E., Bates, J. E., Holtzworth-Munroe, A., Dodge, K. A., Nay, S. Y., & Pettit, G. S. (2008). Social information processing mediates the intergenerational transmission of aggressiveness in romantic relationships. *Journal of Family Psychology, 22*(3), 367–376. https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.22.3.367

Flouri, E., & Buchanan, A. (2002). What predicts good relationships with parents in adolescence and partners in adult life: Findings from the 1958 British birth cohort. *Journal of Family Psychology, 16*(2), 186–198. https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.16.2.186

Freud, S. (1929). To Ernest Jones – On the occasion of his fiftieth birthday. *International Journal of Psycho-Analysis, 10,* 123–124.

Gagliardi, S., Bodenmann, G., Heinrichs, N., Bertoni, A. M., Iafrate, R., & Donato, S. (2013). Unterschiede in der Partnerschaftsqualität und im dyadischen Coping bei verschiedenen bindungsbezogenen Paartypen. *PPmP-Psychotherapie • Psychosomatik • Medizinische Psychologie, 63*(05), 185–192. https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0032-1333291

Gasbarrini, M. F., Snyder, D. K., Iafrate, R., Bertoni, A., Donato, S., & Margola, D. (2015). Investigating the relation between shared stressors and marital satisfaction: The moderating effects of dyadic coping and communication. *Family Science, 6*(1), 143–149. https://doi.org/10.1080/19424620.2015.1082044

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2016). *IBM SPSS Statistics 23 Step by Step. 4. Baskı*. Routledge Taylor&Francis Group. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315545899

Gonzalez Avilés, T., Finn, C., & Neyer, F. J. (2021). Patterns of romantic relationship experiences and psychosocial adjustment from adolescence to young adulthood. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 50*(3), 550–562. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-020-01350-7

Guadagno, R. E., Okdie, B. M., & Kruse, S. A. (2012). Dating deception: Gender, online dating, and exaggerated self-presentation. *Computers in Human Behavior, 28*(2), 642–647. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2011.11.010

Hagerty, B. M., Williams, R. A., & Oe, H. (2002). Childhood antecedents of adult sense of belonging. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 58*(7), 793–801. https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.2007

James-Kangal, N., Weitbrecht, E. M., Francis, T. E., & Whitton, S. W. (2018). Hooking up and emerging adults' relationship attitudes and expectations. *Sexuality & Culture, 22*(3), 706–723. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12119-018-9495-5

Josselson, R. (1998). *Revising herself: The story of women's identity from college to midlife*. Oxford University Press.

Kaestle, C. E., & Evans, L. M. (2018). Implications of no recent sexual activity, casual sex, or exclusive sex for college women's sexual well-being depend on sexual attitudes. *Journal of American College Health, 66*(1), 32–40. https://doi.org/10.1080/07448481.2017.1369090

Karataş, S., Levpušček, M. P., & Komidar, L. (2019). Demographic factors and individuation in relation to parents predicting attachment avoidance and anxiety in Turkish emerging adults. *Current Psychology, 38,* 1443–1455. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-017-9691-8

Kerig, P. K. (2005). Revisiting the construct of boundary dissolution: A multidimensional perspective. *Journal of Emotional Abuse, 5*(2-3), 5–42. https://doi.org/10.1300/J135v05n02_02

Kim, H. K., Pears, K. C., Capaldi, D. M., & Owen, L. D. (2009). Emotion dysregulation in the intergenerational transmission of romantic relationship conflict. *Journal of Family Psychology, 23*(4), 585–595. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015935

Komidar, L., Zupančič, M., Puklek Levpušček, M., & Bjornsen, C. A. (2016). Development of the short version of the Individuation Test for Emerging Adults (ITEA–S) and its measurement invariance across Slovene and US emerging adults. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 98*(6), 626–639. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223891.2016.1171231

Lamborn, S. D., & Groh, K. (2009). A four-part model of autonomy during emerging adulthood: Associations with adjustment. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 33*(5), 393–401. https://doi.org/10.1177/0165025409338440

Leary, M. R. (1995). *Self-presentation: Impression management and interpersonal behavior*. Westview Press, Inc.

Madsen, S. D., & Collins, W. A. (2011). The salience of adolescent romantic experiences for romantic relationship qualities in young adulthood. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 21*(4), 789–801. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1532-7795.2011.00737.x

Mirsu-Paun, A., & Oliver, J. A. (2017). How much does love really hurt? A meta-analysis of the association between romantic relationship quality, breakups and mental health outcomes in adolescents and young adults. *Journal of Relationships Research, 8,* e5. https://doi.org/10.1017/jrr.2017.6

Moore, S., Leung, C., Karnilowicz, W., & Lung, C. L. (2012). Characteristics and predictors of romantic relationships in late adolescence and young adulthood in Hong Kong and Australia. *Australian Psychologist, 47*(2), 108–117. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1742-9544.2010.00013.x

Norona, J. C., Olmstead, S. B., & Welsh, D. P. (2017). Breaking up in emerging adulthood: A developmental perspective of relationship dissolution. *Emerging Adulthood, 5*(2), 116–127. https://doi.org/10.1177/2167696816658585

Parise, M., Manzi, C., Donato, S., & Iafrate, R. (2017). Free to love? The role of intrusive parenting for young adult children's romantic relationship quality. *Journal of Prevention & Intervention in the Community, 45*(3), 187–201. https://doi.org/10.1080/10852352.2016.1198127

Ponti, L., Guarnieri, S., Smorti, A., & Tani, F. (2010). A measure for the study of friendship and romantic relationship quality from adolescence to early-adulthood. *The Open Psychology Journal, 3*(1), 76–87. https://doi.org/10.2174/1874350101003010076

Puklek Levpušček, M., & Poredoš, M. (2023). Difficulties in the close social relationships of Slovenian students during the Covid-19 pandemic. *CEPS Journal, 13*(2), 163–187. https://doi.org/10.26529/cepsj.1400

R. (2021). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing* [computer software]. R Foundation for Statistical Computing.

Riggio, H. R. (2004). Parental marital conflict and divorce, parent-child relationships, social support, and relationship anxiety in young adulthood. *Personal Relationships, 11*(1), 99–114. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-6811.2004.00073.x

Seiffge-Krenke, I., & Stemmler, M. (2003). Coping with everyday stress and links to medical and psychosocial adaptation in diabetic adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 33*(3), 180–188. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1054-139X(02)00707-3

Seiffge-Krenke, I., Shulman, S., & Kiessinger, N. (2001). Adolescent precursors of romantic relationships in young adulthood. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 18*(3), 327–346. https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407501183002

Shulman, S., & Connolly, J. (2013). The challenge of romantic relationships in emerging adulthood: Reconceptualization of the field. *Emerging Adulthood, 1*(1), 27–39. https://doi.org/10.1177/2167696812467330

Tillman, K. H., Brewster, K. L., & Holway, G. V. (2019). Sexual and romantic relationships in young adulthood. *Annual Review of Sociology, 45*, 133–153. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-soc-073018-022625

Twenge, J. M., Sherman, R. A., & Wells, B. E. (2017). Sexual inactivity during young adulthood is more common among US Millennials and iGen: Age, period, and cohort effects on having no sexual partners after age 18. *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 46*(2), 433–440. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-016-0798-z

van de Bongardt, D., Yu, R., Deković, M., & Meeus, W. H. (2015). Romantic relationships and sexuality in adolescence and young adulthood: The role of parents, peers, and partners. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 12*(5), 497–515. https://doi.org/10.1080/17405629.2015.1068689

Wagner, J., Becker, M., Lüdtke, O., & Trautwein, U. (2015). The first partnership experience and personality development: A propensity score matching study in young adulthood. *Social Psychological and Personality Science, 6*(4), 455–463. https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550614566092

Watkins, N. K., & Beckmeyer, J. J. (2020). Assessing young adults' beliefs regarding the importance of romantic relationships. *Journal of Family Issues, 41*(2), 158–182. https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X19871080

Youniss, J., & Smollar, J. (1985). *Adolescent relations with mothers, fathers and friends*. University of Chicago Press.

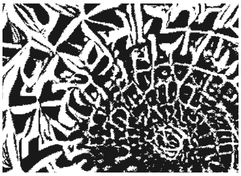
Zupančič, M., Komidar, L., & Levpušček, M. P. (2014). Individuation in Slovene emerging adults: Its associations with demographics, transitional markers, achieved criteria for adulthood, and life satisfaction. *Journal of Adolescence, 37*(8), 1421–1433. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2014.03.014

Romantična iskustva mladih na prijelazu u odraslost: odnos s važnosti romantičnih veza i kvalitetom odnosa s roditeljima

Timotej GLAVAČ, Melita PUKLEK LEVPUŠČEK
Filozofski fakultet, Sveučilište u Ljubljani, Ljubljana, Slovenija

Cilj studije bio je istražiti vezu između percipirane važnosti romantičnih veza (želja za vezom i odbacivanje veze) i romantičnih iskustava, uključujući status veze, broj dosadašnjih partnerskih veza i trajanje veza. Također, zanimalo nas je kako individuacija u odnosu sa svakim roditeljem pridonosi predikciji tih iskustava. Sudionici (*N* = 464, 64,4% žene, prosjek dobi = 22,59 godina) pružili su informacije o važnosti romantičnih veza, iskustvima u vezama te percipiranoj povezanosti s roditeljima i pretjeranom nadzoru roditelja. Hijerarhijska regresijska analiza pokazala je da je percipirana važnost romantičnih veza značajno objasnila varijancu u iskustvima s romantičnom vezom nakon kontrole demografskih varijabli, dok je očinski pretjerani nadzor značajno (negativno) pridonio trajanju trenutačnih i najdužih veza. Rezultati sugeriraju da važnost romantičnih veza kao i određeni aspekti individuacije, posebno u odnosu s ocem, značajno utječu na romantična iskustva mladih na prijelazu u odraslost.

Ključne riječi: romantična iskustva, mladi na prijelazu u odraslost, važnost romantičnih veza, povezanost s roditeljima, pretjeran nadzor



https://doi.org/10.5559/di.33.2.04

ULOGA INDIVIDUALNIH KARAKTERISTIKA I OKOLINSKIH FAKTORA U OBJAŠNJENJU INTERNALIZIRANE MIZOGINIJE

Patricia GALE, Mirjana TONKOVIĆ
Filozofski fakultet Sveučilišta u Zagrebu, Zagreb, Hrvatska

UDK: 305(497.5):176
316.346.2-055.2(497.5):342.726
305-055.2(497.5):329.055.2
Izvorni znanstveni rad

Primljeno: 12. srpnja 2023.

Internalizirana mizoginija oblik je internaliziranoga seksizma koji se odnosi na devaluaciju žena, nepovjerenje prema ženama i vjerovanje u mušku superiornost, a javlja se kada žene usvoje seksističke poruke koje čuju tijekom života te ih upućuju drugim ženama. Cilj je ovog istraživanja bio ispitati ulogu individualnih karakteristika te okolinskih utjecaja u objašnjenju internalizirane mizoginije. U istraživanju je sudjelovalo 530 žena u rasponu dobi od 18 do 90 godina. Uzorak je bio reprezentativan za populaciju odraslih žena u Republici Hrvatskoj. Rezultati su pokazali da je internalizirana mizoginija nisko pozitivno povezana s dobi, desnom političkom orijentacijom, religioznosti, diskriminacijom u obitelji i doživljenim rodnim mikroagresijama te nešto više s desničarskom autoritarnosti. Dobivene su i niske negativne povezanosti s obrazovanjem, samopoštovanjem i ovladavanjem poteškoćama. Suprotno očekivanjima, veličina mjesta i konzervativizam nisu bili povezani s internaliziranom mizoginijom. U regresijskom modelu značajnim prediktorima internalizirane mizoginije pokazali su se desna politička orijentacija, viša razina desničarske autoritarnosti, niže samopoštovanje, niži stupanj ovladavanja životnim poteškoćama i češće doživljavanje rodnih mikroagresija. Povezanost doživljenih rodnih mikroagresija i internalizirane mizoginije nije ovisila o stupnju samopoštovanja žena.

Ključne riječi: seksizam, internalizirana mizoginija, desničarska autoritarnost, rodna diskriminacija

Patricia Gale, Odsjek za psihologiju, Filozofski fakultet Sveučilišta u Zagrebu, Ivana Lučića 3, 10000 Zagreb, Hrvatska.
E-mail: patricia.gale01@gmail.com

UVOD

Seksizam se definira kao diskriminacija ili segregacija ljudi na temelju spola (Galić, 2012). Hostilni seksizam odnosi se na tradicionalno negativne stavove prema ženama, prema kojima one nastoje kontrolirati muškarce putem seksualnosti ili feminističkih ideologija (Glick i Fiske, 2001). S druge strane, benevolentni seksizam odražava uvjerenje kako su žene moralne i čiste te bi trebale biti zaštićene i zbrinute od strane muškarca, a zbog svojega pozitivnog tona manje je prepoznatljiv, što ga čini posebno opasnim jer nastavlja podržavati rodnu neravnopravnost (Jones i sur., 2014). Iako je danas mnogo manje društveno prihvatljiv, u Hrvatskoj seksizam nije stvar prošlosti. To pokazuju i rezultati istraživanja provedenog na nacionalno reprezentativnom uzorku 2009. godine, u kojemu je više od polovine sudionika smatralo kako žene i muškarci u Hrvatskoj nisu potpuno ravnopravni, pri čemu su žene bile svjesnije rodne neravnopravnosti (Baranović i Leinert Novosel, 2011).

Seksizam se može promatrati kao oblik opresije nad ženama koji promiče i održava mušku dominaciju (Cherry i Wilcox, 2021). Međutim, nisu samo muškarci ti koji održavaju sustav rodne neravnopravnosti, nego uslijed internalizacije seksizma to čine i žene (Bearman i Amrhein, 2014). Internalizirani seksizam oblik je internalizirane opresije, a javlja se kada žene primjenjuju seksističke poruke koje čuju tijekom života na sebe i druge žene. Bez obzira na to jesu li seksističke opaske i komentari namjerni, seksizam kumulativno djeluje na to kako se žene osjećaju, kako razumiju situacije koje doživljavaju te kako donose kratkoročne i dugoročne odluke o svojim životima (Bearman i sur., 2009). Žene internaliziraju seksizam i kroz prihvaćanje rodnih uloga koje ih dovode u nepovoljan položaj, potičući muškarce da dominiraju, a žene da se podvrgnu dominaciji (Bearman i Amrhein, 2014). Internalizacija opresije nužan je mehanizam za održavanje opresije u društvu te jedna od glavnih prepreka ženama u prevladavanju seksizma (Constantinescu, 2021).

Autori su opisali razne manifestacije internaliziranoga seksizma. Bearman i Amrhein (2014) definiraju šest oblika: osjećaj nemoći, gubitak sebe, samoobjektifikacija, invalidacija, ponižavanje/derogacija i natjecanje među ženama. Osjećaj nemoći javlja se kada žene vjeruju da su više ograničene i manje sposobne nego što to zapravo jesu, dok se gubitak sebe javlja kada se žene ne uspijevaju prepoznati ili žrtvuju svoje vlastite potrebe i želje. Samoobjektifikacija se javlja kada žene razmišljaju o sebi kao o objektu iz perspektive vanjskoga promatrača te stavljaju u fokus svoja tijela, a ne sposobnosti. Invalidacija se odnosi na odbacivanje vlastitih emocija i misli kao nevažećih ili njihovo umanjivanje, dok se derogacija odnosi na ponižavanje žena, a često obuhvaća pogrdne termine za žene te umanjivanje ženske vrijednosti ili sposobnosti. Natjecanje među ženama javlja se zbog borbe za ograničene resurse dostupne ženama (npr. pozicije moći u društvu). Szymanski i suradnici (2009) navode samoobjektifikaciju, pasivno prihvaćanje rodnih uloga te internaliziranu mizoginiju kao oblike internaliziranoga seksizma, koji su u istraživanjima pokazali negativnu povezanost sa psihosocijalnim zdravljem žena. Samoobjektifikacija je povezana s depresivnosti (Miner-Rubino i sur. 2002; Szymanski i Henning, 2007) i simptomima poremećaja hranjenja (Moradi i sur., 2005), pasivno prihvaćanje rodnih uloga sa psihološkom uznemirenosti (Moradi i Subich, 2002), a internalizirana mizoginija korelira s depresivnosti, samopoštovanjem (Piggott, 2004) i psihološkom uznemirenosti (Szymanski i sur., 2009; Szymanski i Kashubeck-West, 2008). Iako su samoobjektifikacija i pasivno prihvaćanje rodnih uloga važne manifestacije internaliziranoga seksizma, internalizirana mizoginija zahvaća centralni dio internaliziranoga seksizma, dio koji se odnosi na devaluaciju žena i ženskih karakteristika (Szymanski i Kashubeck-West, 2008). Mizoginija je u literaturi često definirana kao duboko ukorijenjen i nasilniji izraz seksizma, ali i mržnja prema ženama (Savigny, 2020). U istraživanju koje su proveli Szymanski i suradnici (2009) internalizirana mizoginija bila je u niskoj korelaciji sa samoobjektifikacijom te umjerenoj korelaciji s pasivnim prihvaćanjem rodnih uloga, što podržava pretpostavku kako se radi o povezanim, ali konstruktno različitim, oblicima internaliziranoga seksizma.

Važno je naglasiti kako žene koje internaliziraju mizogine stavove ne samo da usmjeravaju internalizirani seksizam na sebe nego ga izražavaju i u interakciji s drugima, nepovjerenjem i obezvrjeđivanjem drugih žena, kao i pokazujući rodnu pristranost u korist muškaraca (Constantinescu, 2021), što se naziva horizontalnom opresijom. Prema našim spoznajama, u svim dosadašnjim istraživanjima internalizirane mizoginije rabljena je konceptualizacija internalizirane mizoginije koju je razvila Piggott (2004), koja se specifično fokusira na devaluaciju žena, nepovjerenje prema ženama i vjerovanje u mušku superiornost. U dosadašnjoj literaturi o internaliziranoj mizoginiji istraživana je njezina povezanost sa psihičkim zdravljem (Szymanski i Kashubeck-West, 2008) ili njezina moderatorska uloga u odnosu drugih varijabli (Cherry i Wilcox, 2021), no nismo pronašli niti jedno istraživanje prediktora ovoga vrlo važnog oblika internaliziranoga seksizma. Stoga je ovaj rad usmjeren na istraživanje prediktora internalizirane mizoginije.

Politička orijentacija kreće se na kontinuumu od liberalne (lijeve) do konzervativne (desne), a osobe liberalne političke orijentacije iskazuju snažnije preferencije za društvene promjene i jednakost u usporedbi s osobama konzervativne orijentacije (Jost i sur., 2003). Društveni ili kulturni konzervativizam odnosi se na očuvanje drevnih moralnih tradicija čovječanstva (Kirk, 1953). S obzirom na to da seksizam uključuje težnju k održavanju tradicionalne raspodjele uloga muškaraca i žena u društvu, kao i toleranciju nejednakosti muškaraca i žena, valja pretpostaviti da će politički i društveni konzervativizam biti pozitivno povezani s prihvaćanjem seksističkih stavova kod žena.

Osim konzervativizma, desničarska autoritarnost mogla bi imati važnu ulogu u objašnjavanju internalizirane mizoginije. Ona uključuje komponente konvencionalizma, autoritarne submisivnosti i autoritarne agresije (Altemeyer, 1981) i pokazala se uspješnom u predviđanju širokoga raspona političkih, društvenih, ideoloških i međugrupnih fenomena, kao i etnocentrizma i predrasuda, uključujući i seksizam (Sibley i Duckitt 2008; Sibley i sur., 2007). Neki autori smatraju kako se desničarska autoritarnost odnosi prije svega na stavove prema članovima vlastite grupe, naglašavajući unutargrupne norme i pravila te netoleranciju prema "devijantnim" članovima unutar grupe. Prema tome, žene visoko na desničarskoj autoritarnosti zahtijevat će od drugih žena podložnost tradicionalnim rodnim ulogama te će izražavati predrasude prema onim ženama koje krše tradicionalne vrijednosti koje autoriteti zagovaraju (Roets i sur., 2011).

Pretpostavljamo da će i religioznost predviđati internaliziranu mizoginiju, s obzirom na to da tradicionalne religije teže predstavljanju žena kao različitih od muškaraca, inferiornih i podređenih muškarcima, a religioznije osobe sklonije su imati tradicionalne stavove o rodnim ulogama muškaraca i žena (Taşdemir i Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2010). Mnoga istraživanja pokazala su povezanost religioznosti sa seksizmom među osobama katoličke (Glick i sur., 2002; Burn i Busso, 2005; Mikołajczak i Pietrzak, 2014; Prina i Schatz-Stevens, 2020), židovske (Gaunt, 2012) te islamske vjeroispovijedi (Taşdemir i Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2010).

Seksizam se internalizira prihvaćanjem seksističkih poruka koje žene čuju tijekom života. Djetinjstvo, a posebno adolescencija, formativno je razdoblje za usvajanje stavova i ponašanja od kojih se sastoji ženska rodna uloga (Eagly i Wood, 2012), pri čemu je obitelj jedan od najvažnijih razvojnih konteksta u kojem djeca razvijaju karakteristike konzistentne s rodnom ulogom (Mastari i sur., 2019). Što je seksizam roditelja viši, to su jača njihova očekivanja da se djeca ponašaju u skladu s rodnim ulogama (Barni i sur., 2022). Istraživanje rodnih uloga u adolescenciji provedeno u Hrvatskoj pokazalo je da se od djevojaka očekuje da su nježne, osjećajne i usmjerene na druge ljude, da obavljaju širi raspon kućanskih poslova nego mladići te da se iz noćnog izlaska ranije vrate kući. S druge strane, od mladića se očekuje kompetitivnost, dominantnost, spremnost na rizik, da se razumiju u automobile i računala te da potiču seksualni odnos i hvale se ljubavnim i seksualnim iskustvom (Jugović i Kamenov, 2008). Garaigordobil i Aliri (2011) pronašli su povezanost između hostilnih i benevolentnih seksističkih stavova roditelja i seksističkih stavova njihove djece u adolescentskom razdoblju, sugerirajući tako njihov međugeneracijski prijenos. Neravnopravan tretman, odnosno diskriminacija u primarnoj obitelji na temelju spola, uvrštena je stoga kao prediktor internalizirane mizoginije u ovo istraživanje.

Rodne mikroagresije mogu se definirati kao kratke, uobičajene i svakodnevne uvrede i okolinski znakovi neprijateljskih, degradirajućih i negativnih seksističkih stavova prema ženama (Nadal, 2010). Mikroagresije su specifične po tome što ih počinitelji često čine nesvjesno, ne shvaćajući da njihove izjave i ponašanja šalju negativne i psihološki štetne poruke osobama kojima su upućene (Capodilupo i sur., 2010). Mikroagresije su toliko prožimajuće i automatske u svakodnevnim razgovorima i interakcijama da se često zanemaruju i odbacuju kao nevine i bezazlene. One uključuju različite oblike diskriminacije koji su prisutni u društvu, krećući se od posve suptilnih (mikroinvalidacije), preko nešto otvorenijih (mikrouvrede) do eksplicitnih oblika (mikronapadi) (Basford i sur., 2014). Pretpostavili smo da će ovakve kratke, uobičajene i svakodnevne seksističke uvrede upućene ženama ostavljati trajni trag na njihove stavove o sebi i drugim ženama, bez obzira na to je li počinitelj svjestan upućenih mikroagresija ili nije te je li imao lošu namjeru ili nije.

Kao prediktori internalizirane mizoginije u ovom istraživanju uključene su i dvije varijable koje predstavljaju psihološke karakteristike vezane uz doživljaj i evaluaciju sebe, a to su samopoštovanje i ovladavanje životnim poteškoćama. Samopoštovanje se odnosi na stupanj u kojem se osoba pozitivno evaluira i doživljava sebe kao vrijednu osobu (Rosenberg, 1965). Ovladavanje životnim poteškoćama konstrukt je sličan lokusu kontrole, a odnosi se na stupanj u kojem osoba životne prilike doživljava pod vlastitom kontrolom, nasuprot uvjerenju da su pod kontrolom vanjskih faktora (Pearlin i Schooler, 1978).

U istraživanju koje je provela Piggott (2004) pronađena je povezanost samopoštovanja i internaliziranoga seksizma te je pretpostavljeno da internalizacija seksizma dovodi do nižega samopoštovanja žene. Cowan i suradnici (1998) ponudili su alternativno objašnjenje ovog odnosa. Po njihovu mišljenju, ako pripadnici diskriminiranih skupina vjeruju da izvor njihovih problema leži u njihovim vlastitim neadekvatnostima, nezadovoljstvo samim sobom moglo bi se proširiti u nezadovoljstvo grupom kojoj pripadaju. Tako bi se kod žena, kao pripadnica tradicionalno diskriminirane grupe, osobno nezadovoljstvo i osjećaj neadekvatnosti mogli prenijeti na druge žene. S obzirom na navedeno, pretpostavljeno je kako će žene višega samopoštovanja i višeg ovladavanja životnim poteškoćama u manjoj mjeri internalizirati mizoginiju.

Osim toga, samopoštovanje je psihološki resurs koji ima zaštitnu ulogu prilikom susretanja s prijetnjama u okolini ili stresnim situacijama. Tako je u istraživanju koje je provela Corning (2002) visoko samopoštovanje smanjilo negativne efekte diskriminacije na depresivnost osobe. Istraživanje koje su provele Moradi i Subich (2004) pokazalo je da je kod žena nižega samopoštovanja povezanost između doživljenih rodnih diskriminacija i stresa pozitivna, dok je kod osoba višega samopoštovanja povezanost bila neznačajna. Autorice pretpostavljaju da žene koje imaju snažniji osjećaj vlastite vrijednosti lakše odbacuju seksističke poruke, pa su ove poruke štetnije za žene s nižim osjećajem vlastite vrijednosti. Sukladno ovim nalazima, pretpostavili smo kako će žene visokoga samopoštovanja u većoj mjeri odbacivati seksističke poruke i uvrede koje doživljavaju u obliku mikroagresija. Drugim riječima, visoko samopoštovanje štitit će žene od internalizacije seksizma prilikom doživljavanja rodnih mikroagresija.

CILJ I HIPOTEZE ISTRAŽIVANJA

Cilj ovog istraživanja bio je ispitati ulogu individualnih karakteristika i okolinskih utjecaja u objašnjenju internalizirane mizoginije. Specifično, željeli smo ispitati doprinos sociodemografskih karakteristika, političko-ideoloških stavova, religioznosti, psiholoških karakteristika i okolinskih utjecaja u objašnjenju individualnih razlika u internaliziranoj mizoginiji. Osim toga, cilj je bio i ispitati zaštitnu ulogu samopoštovanja u odnosu između doživljenih rodnih mikroagresija i internalizirane mizoginije.

Pri tome smo pretpostavili da će sociodemografske karakteristike kao skupina prediktora statistički značajno pridonositi objašnjavanju varijance internalizirane mizoginije. Starija dob, niži stupanj obrazovanja te manja veličina mjesta stanovanja predviđat će viši stupanj internalizirane mizoginije. Političko-ideološke varijable i religioznost će kao skupina prediktora objašnjavati dodatnu varijancu internalizirane mizoginije povrh sociodemografskih karakteristika. Desna politička orijentacija, viši društveni konzervativizam, viša desničarska autoritarnost i viša religioznost predviđat će viši stupanj internalizirane mizoginije. Psihološke karakteristike će kao skupina prediktora objašnjavati dodatnu varijancu internalizirane mizoginije povrh sociodemografskih karakteristika, političko-ideoloških varijabli i religioznosti. Niže samopoštovanje i niže ovladavanje životnim poteškoćama predviđat će viši stupanj internalizirane mizoginije. Okolinski utjecaji će kao skupina prediktora objašnjavati dodatnu varijancu internalizirane mizoginije povrh individualnih karakteristika. Viša doživljena rodna diskriminacija u primarnoj obitelji i više doživljenih rodnih mikroagresija predviđat će viši stupanj internalizirane mizoginije.

Što se tiče zaštitne uloge samopoštovanja, pretpostavili smo da će ono moderirati odnos između doživljenih rodnih mikroagresija i internalizirane mizoginije. Kod žena višeg samopoštovanja pozitivna povezanost između doživljenih rodnih mikroagresija i internalizirane mizoginije bit će niža nego kod osoba nižega samopoštovanja.

METODA

Svi instrumenti upotrijebljeni u istraživanju, detaljniji podaci o uzorku kao i baza podataka zajedno s provedenim analizama opisanima u ovom radu javno je dostupna i nalazi se na sljedećem linku: https://osf.io/kxsw9/?view_only=dab592669 82f4107b86adb38878a4e7a

Sudionice

U istraživanju su sudjelovale žene od 18 do 90 godina (M = 49,5; SD = 17,9). Uzorak je bio reprezentativan za populaciju odraslih žena u Republici Hrvatskoj.[1] Prikaz uzorka s obzirom na obrazovanje, veličinu naselja u kojem žive, mjesto stanovanja i radni status nalazi se u dodatnim materijalima (Tablica A).

Mjerni instrumenti

Kao mjera internalizirane mizoginije uzeta je *Ljestvica internalizirane mizoginije*, koju je razvila Piggott (2004). Ljestvica je za potrebe ovog istraživanja prvi put prevedena na hrvatski jezik te nezavisno lektorirana od strane lektorice za hrvatski jezik, koja je i studentica psihologije. Ljestvica se sastoji od 17 čestica koje mjere 3 faktora: devaluaciju žena (npr. "Žene se prelako uvrijede"), nepovjerenje prema ženama (npr. "Općenito je sigurnije ne vjerovati previše ženama") kao i vjerovanje u mušku superiornost (npr. "Preferiram raditi za muškog šefa"). Sudionice su na skali od 1 (u potpunosti se ne slažem) do 7 (u potpunosti se slažem) procjenjivale stupanj u kojem se slažu s ponuđenim tvrdnjama. Osim rezultata na faktorima, na ljestvici se može računati i ukupan rezultat, što je bilo učinjeno u ovom istraživanju. Viši ukupan rezultat označuje višu razinu internalizirane mizoginije. Pouzdanost dobivena u ovom istraživanju iznosi $\alpha = 0{,}87$.

Kao mjera općega samopoštovanja uzeta je *Rosenbergova ljestvica samopoštovanja* (Rosenberg, 1965). Ljestvica se sastoji od 10 čestica (npr. "Općenito govoreći zadovoljan/na sam sobom"). Sudionice su na skali od 0 (niti malo) do 4 (u potpunosti) procjenjivale stupanj u kojem se navedena tvrdnja odnosi na njih. Viši ukupni rezultat označava višu razinu samopoštovanja. Dobivena pouzdanost ove ljestvice iznosi $\alpha = 0{,}82$.

Kao mjera ovladavanja životnim poteškoćama uzeta je *Ljestvica ovladavanja životnim teškoćama* (Pearlin i Schooler, 1978; prevedena i već korištena na hrvatskom uzorku, npr. Mikša i Tonković, 2018). Ljestvica se sastoji od 7 čestica (npr. "Mogu učiniti gotovo sve što odlučim"). Sudionice su na skali od 1 (u potpunosti se ne odnosi na mene) do 5 (u potpunosti se odnosi na mene) procjenjivale svoj stupanj slaganja s tvrdnjama. Viši ukupan rezultat upućuje na veći stupanj percepcije ovladavanja životnim poteškoćama. Pouzdanost ljestvice iznosi $\alpha = 0{,}72$.

Ljestvica rodnih mikroagresija (GMS-R) (Judson, 2014) prevedena je na hrvatski jezik na isti način kao i Ljestvica internalizirane mizoginije i prilagođena za ovo istraživanje. U originalnom obliku ljestvica se sastojala od 33 čestice, dok se u ovom istraživanju sastojala od 23 čestice. Izbačene su čestice koje su se odnosile na unutarnje osjećaje osobe (npr. "Osjećam pritisak da budem dobra kuharica"), s obzirom na to da smo ovom ljestvicom željeli obuhvatiti isključivo okolinske utjecaje, odnosno rodne mikroagresije koje je osoba doživjela od drugih ljudi. Nadalje, čestice koje su zasebno ispitivale doživljaj određene mikroagresije koja dolazi od strane muškaraca i žena spojene su u jednu česticu koja ispituje općenit doživljaj te mikroagresije, bez obzira na spol osobe koja ju je uputila. Ljestvica obuhvaća 7 tema rodnih mikroagresija, a to su očekivanja tradicionalne raspodjele kućanskih poslova (npr. "Drugi ljudi pretpostavljali su da sam ja odgovorna za održavanje kućanstva"), objektifikacija (npr. "Zviždali su mi ili dobacivali na ulici"), oštro etiketirana asertivnost (npr. "Kad bih izrazila neslaganje s muškim kolegom ili autoritetom, nazivalo me se pogrdnim imenima"), pritisak vezan za tjelesni izgled (npr. "Reklame su me podsjetile da moram ostati mladolika"), očekivanja vezana za brak i rađanje djece (npr. "Ljudi su me pitali kada planiram imati djecu"), negiranje seksizma (npr. "Ljudi su mi rekli da su muškarci i žene jednako tretirani u društvu"), patrijarhalna očekivanja vezana za radnu ulogu (npr. "Moji doprinosi nisu se shvaćali tako ozbiljno kao doprinosi muških kolega na mom radnom mjestu"). Sudionice su na skali od 1 (nikad) do 5 (uvijek) procjenjivale koliko su često doživjele određenu mikroagresiju. Viši rezultat upućuje na više doživljenih rodnih mikroagresija. Pouzdanost ljestvice u ovom istraživanju iznosi $\alpha = 0{,}90$.

Osobno iskustvo rodne diskriminacije u primarnoj obitelji ispitano je česticama iz istraživanja Kamenov i suradnika (2011). Pet čestica opisuje primjere rodne diskriminacije u primarnoj obitelji, a sudionice su na Likertovoj skali od 4 stupnja procjenjivale koliko su često doživjele rodnu diskriminaciju u primarnoj obitelji. U našem istraživanju ova je ljestvica prilagođena tako da sudionice samo trebaju naznačiti jesu li ili nisu ikada iskusile navedeni oblik diskriminacije u primarnoj obitelji u djetinjstvu zbog toga što su žene. Smatrali smo kako je ovakva ljestvica primjerena s obzirom na sam sadržaj čestica. Primjerice, na čestici "Obitelj mi nije dozvolila moj odabir struke" nemoguće je procijeniti čestinu doživljavanja, s obzirom na to da se odabir struke događa uglavnom jednom. Ukupan rezultat izražen je kao zbroj vrijednosti na svim česticama, a viši rezultat upućuje na višu doživljenu rodnu diskriminaciju u primarnoj obitelji u djetinjstvu. Pouzdanost ljestvice u ovom istraživanju iznosi $\alpha = 0{,}65$.

Ljestvica društvenoga i ekonomskoga konzervativizma (SECS) (Everett, 2013) sastoji se od 12 čestica, od kojih 7 mjeri društveni, a 5 ekonomski konzervativizam. U ovom istraživanju uzeta je samo podljestvica koja mjeri društveni konzervativizam te uključuje čestice koje se odnose na pobačaj, vojsku i nacionalnu sigurnost, religiju, tradicionalan brak, tradicionalne vrijednosti, obitelj i domoljublje. Sudionice procjenjuju koliko određeni pojam smatraju pozitivnim na skali od 0 do 10 (0 – više negativan pojam, 5 – neutralan pojam, 10 – više pozitivan pojam). Viši ukupan rezultat upućuje na viši društveni konzervativizam. Pouzdanost podljestvice u ovom istraživanju iznosi $\alpha = 0{,}75$.

Kao mjera desničarske autoritarnosti uzeta je *Ljestvica desničarske autoritarnosti* (Čorkalo Biruški i sur., 2022), koja je prilagođena na temelju dviju verzija ljestvice (Bizumic i Duckitt, 2018; Duckitt i sur., 2010). Ljestvica se sastoji od 9 čestica (npr. "Naša će država biti uspješna ako poštujemo autoritete i slušamo naše vođe"), a sudionice su na skali od 1 (u potpunosti se ne slažem) do 5 (u potpunosti se slažem) procjenjivale stupanj u kojem se slažu s pojedinom tvrdnjom. Viši ukupan rezultat označuje višu razinu desničarske autoritarnosti. Pouzdanost ljestvice u ovom istraživanju iznosi $\alpha = 0{,}76$.

Religioznost je ispitana česticom: "Koliko Vam je vjera važna u životu?" Sudionice su odgovarale na skali od 1 (uopće mi nije važna) do 5 (izrazito mi je važna). Politička orijentacija ispitana je pomoću čestice: "Koja je Vaša politička orijentacija?", a sudionice su odgovarale na skali od 1 (izrazito lijevo/liberalna) do 5 (izrazito desno/konzervativna), uz mogućnost odabira 6 (nisam politički opredijeljena). Rezultati su rekodirani tako da su sudionice koje su odabrale odgovor 6 na skali premještene pod 3 (centar). To je u skladu s hipotezom o nezainteresiranosti, prema kojoj je politička pripadnost centru jednaka političkoj neopredijeljenosti jer proizlazi iz nedostatka znanja o politici ili nedostatka kognitivnih kapaciteta sudionika da se smjeste na skali (Rodon, 2015). Rodonova (2015) analiza pokazala je da se osobe s niskim interesom za politiku smještaju na centar, koji doživljavaju neutralnim ili odabiru poziciju "ne znam/bez odgovora".

Postupak

Podaci u ovom istraživanju prikupljeni su u sklopu mjesečnog istraživanja Omnibus, koje je provela agencija za istraživanje tržišta Ipsos u lipnju 2022. godine. Omnibusovo istraživanje provodi se na reprezentativnom uzorku odraslih stanovnika Hrvatske te se njime istodobno prikupljaju podaci za razne klijente u svrhu analize tržišta. Upitnik formiran za ovo istraživanje ubačen je kao zaseban dio u Omnibus. Na samom početku istraživanja sudionice su dale pristanak na sudjelovanje, a ispunjavale su ga na tablet računalu. Za ispunjavanje upitnika bilo je potrebno 15 do 20 minuta. Sudionice su najprije ispunjavale Ljestvicu internalizirane mizoginije, a zatim ostale ljestvice redoslijedom kojim su nabrojene u ovom poglavlju. Na kraju su odgovorile na niz sociodemografskih pitanja, od kojih su u ovo istraživanje uključene varijable dobi, stupnja obrazovanja te veličine mjesta stanovanja.

REZULTATI

Statistička obradba podataka provedena je u programu Jamovi (verzija 2.3). U Tablici 1 prikazani su deskriptivni podaci, a u Tablici 2 vrijednosti Pearsonovih koeficijenata korelacije među svim ispitivanim varijablama. Testovi normaliteta distribucija (npr. Shapiro-Wilk) zbog svoje osjetljivosti na ovako velikim uzorcima obično upućuju na značajne razlike u odnosu na normalnu distribuciju (Navarro i Foxcroft, 2019), stoga su u Tablici 1 prikazani indeksi asimetričnosti i spljoštenosti. Oni ne pokazuju veća odstupanja.

Većina pretpostavljenih prediktorskih varijabli postiže nisku korelaciju s kriterijem internalizirane mizoginije. U skladu s pretpostavkama, dob, desna politička orijentacija, desničarska autoritarnost, religioznost, doživljena diskriminacija u obitelji te doživljene rodne mikroagresije pozitivno su povezani s internaliziranom mizoginijom. Stupanj obrazovanja, samopoštovanje i ovladavanje životnim poteškoćama negativno su povezani s internaliziranom mizoginijom. Iznimke su veličina naselja i društveni konzervativizam koji nisu pokazali značajnu povezanost s kriterijem.

	M	SD	Min	Max	Teorijski raspon	Asimetričnost (SE = 0,11)	Spljoštenost (SE = 0,21)
Internalizirana mizoginija	3,3	1,1	1	6,65	1-7	0,14	-0,52
Politička orijentacija	3,0	0,7	1	5	1-5	-0,09	2,01
Desničarska autoritarnost	3,3	0,7	1	5	1-5	-0,19	0,06
Društveni konzervativizam	6,9	1,7	1,57	10	0-10	-0,07	-0,73
Religioznost	3,7	1,2	1	5	1-5	-0,74	-0,21
Samopoštovanje	3,1	0,7	0,40	4	0-4	-0,67	-0,20
Ovladavanje poteškoćama	3,5	0,7	1,43	5	1-5	-0,01	-0,19
Diskriminacija u obitelji	2,3	1,4	0	5	0-5	-0,03	-0,77
Rodne mikroagresije	2,3	0,7	1	5	1-5	0,33	-0,10

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Internalizirana mizoginija	-										
2 Dob	0,14**	-									
3 Obrazovanje	-0,15**	-0,18**	-								
4 Veličina naselja	-0,07	-0,06	0,17**	-							
5 Politička orijentacija	0,17**	0,01	-0,12**	-0,06	-						
6 Desničarska autoritarnost	0,30**	0,31**	-0,27**	-0,10*	0,21**	-					
7 Društveni konzervativizam	0,08	0,28**	-0,20**	-0,15**	0,26**	0,49**	-				
8 Religioznost	0,11*	0,20**	-0,12**	-0,16**	0,28**	0,35**	0,57**	-			
9 Samopoštovanje	-0,23**	-0,01	0,14**	0,02	0,03	-0,07	0,20**	0,11*	-		
10 Ovladavanje poteškoćama	-0,25**	-0,13**	0,13**	-0,01	0,05	-0,13**	0,04	0,05	0,54**	-	
11 Diskriminacija u obitelji	0,10*	0,26**	-0,12**	-0,02	0,09*	0,19**	0,18**	0,18**	-0,01	-0,15**	-
12 Rodne mikroagresije	0,15**	-0,16**	0,05	0,06	0,04	0,00	-0,20**	-0,08	-0,26**	-0,21**	0,12**

Legenda: *p < 0,05, **p < 0,01; 1 – izrazito lijeva politička orijentacija, 5 – izrazito desna politička orijentacija

TABLICA 1
Prikaz deskriptivne statistike za varijable korištene u istraživanju (N = 530)

TABLICA 2
Korelacijska matrica sa svim varijablama uključenim u istraživanje (N = 530)

Da bismo odgovorili na prvi cilj istraživanja, proveli smo hijerarhijsku regresijsku analizu u četiri koraka (Tablica 3). U prvom koraku sociodemografske karakteristike objašnjavaju 4 % varijance internalizirane mizoginije, pri čemu je dob značajan pozitivan, a razina obrazovanja značajan negativan prediktor. Uvođenjem političko-ideoloških varijabli i religioznosti kao skupine prediktora u drugom koraku objašnjeno je dodatnih 8 % varijance kriterija. Politička orijentacija i desničarska autoritarnost značajni su pozitivni prediktori, dok je društveni konzervativizam značajan negativan prediktor. Dob i spol prestali su biti značajni prediktori. U trećem koraku uvođenjem psiholoških karakteristika kao skupine prediktora objašnjeno je dodatnih 5 % varijance kriterija. Samostalan značajan doprinos imaju samopoštovanje i ovladavanje poteškoćama, koji su negativni prediktori, dok je doprinos konzervativizma u ovom koraku prestao biti značajan. U četvrtom koraku dodavanjem okolinskih utjecaja objašnjeno je dodatnih 1 % varijance kriterija, no ovo povećanje objašnjene varijance nije statistički značajno u odnosu na regresijski model iz trećeg koraka. Konačnim regresijskim modelom objašnjeno je 18 % varijance internalizirane mizoginije, a kao značajni prediktori pokazali su se politička orijentacija, desničarska autoritarnost, samopoštovanje, ovladavanje životnim poteškoćama te doživljene rodne mikroagresije. Prediktor koji najviše pridonosi objašnjavanju varijance kriterija jest autoritarnost, a doživljene rodne mikroagresije najmanje su važan prediktor internalizirane mizoginije.

➲ TABLICA 3
Rezultati hijerarhijske regresijske analize s internaliziranom mizoginijom kao kriterijem (N = 530)

Prediktori	1. korak β	2. korak β	3. korak β	4. korak β
Dob	0,11**	0,07	0,05	0,07
Obrazovanje	-0,13**	-0,07	-0,03	-0,04
Veličina naselja	-0,04	-0,04	-0,04	-0,04
Politička orijentacija		0,13**	0,13**	0,13**
Desničarska autoritarnost		0,29**	0,25**	0,24**
Društveni konzervativizam		-0,15**	-0,09	-0,07
Religioznost		0,03	0,04	0,03
Samopoštovanje			-0,11**	-0,10*
Ovladavanje poteškoćama			-0,15**	-0,14**
Diskriminacija u obitelji				<-0,01
Rodne mikroagresije				0,09*
R	0,20	0,35	0,42	0,42
R^2	0,04	0,12	0,17	0,18
F	7,01**	10,38**	12,01**	10,24**
ΔR^2	-	0,08	0,05	0,01
ΔF	-	12,45**	15,7**	2,03

Legenda: *p < 0,05, **p < 0,01

Nadalje, kako bismo provjerili pretpostavku o zaštitnoj ulozi samopoštovanja u odnosu između doživljenih rodnih mikroagresija i internalizirane mizoginije, proveli smo moderacijsku analizu. Za procjenu parametara uzeta je *bootstrap* metoda ponovnog uzorkovanja na 5000 uzoraka. Analiza je pokazala da je regresijski koeficijent doživljenih rodnih mikroagresija u moderacijskom modelu pozitivan i statistički značajan (b = 0,18; p < 0,05), a regresijski koeficijent samopoštovanja negativan i statistički značajan (b = -0,38; 0,01), što je bilo očekivano s obzirom na ranije dobivene povezanosti ovih varijabli s internaliziranom mizoginijom. Moderacijski efekt samopoštovanja na povezanost između doživljenih rodnih mikroagresija i internalizirane mizoginije pokazao se statistički neznačajnim (b = 0,20; p > 0,05).

RASPRAVA

Prosječne vrijednosti internalizirane mizoginije sudionica u ovom istraživanju jesu ispod srednje vrijednosti ljestvice, što upućuje na niske razine internalizirane mizoginije odraslih žena u Hrvatskoj u skladu s drugim novijim istraživanjima seksizma u Hrvatskoj (Šimac i Klasnić, 2021). Usporedba s rezultatima dobivenim primjenom ove ljestvice u nekoliko drugih zemalja pokazuje kako je internalizirana mizoginija još manje izražena kod žena u Australiji, Kanadi, SAD-u, Engleskoj i Finskoj (Piggott, 2004). Kod ove usporedbe treba uzeti u obzir da je navedeno istraživanje bilo provedeno na prigodnim uzorcima homoseksualnih žena. Moguće je pretpostaviti da je razina internalizirane mizoginije na takvom prigodnom uzorku niža od razine koju bismo zabilježili u općoj populaciji žena.

U okviru prvoga cilja ispitan je doprinos pojedinih skupina varijabli u objašnjavaju internalizirane mizoginije. U prvom koraku hijerarhijske regresijske analize pokazalo se da sudionice starije dobi i nižega stupnja obrazovanja iskazuju više mizoginih stavova. Nije potvrđena pretpostavka o tome da će manja veličina naselja predviđati viši stupanj mizoginije. Dobiveni rezultati u skladu su s prijašnjim nalazima o negativnoj povezanosti stupnja obrazovanja sa seksizmom (Glick i sur., 2002; Hellmer i sur., 2018), dok je ranije pronađena povezanost dobi samo s benevolentnim, ali ne i hostilnim, seksizmom (Glick i sur., 2002). Rasprave o seksizmu češće se događaju tijekom viših stupnjeva obrazovanja i na radnim mjestima koja zahtijevaju visoko obrazovanje (Hellmer i sur., 2018), što žene čini svjesnijima ove problematike te ih može navesti na propitivanje vlastitih stavova. Osim toga, dio internalizirane mizoginije odnosi se na vjerovanje u mušku superiornost. Logično je očekivati da će žene koje su kroz sustav obrazovanja stekle široko znanje o određenom području te kojima je obrazovanje otvorilo veće mogućnosti za razvoj karijere u manjoj mjeri zagovarati ovakve stavove, jer bi time u pitanje dovodile i vlastitu mogućnost napredovanja. Ipak, s obzirom na korelacijski nacrt ovog istraživanja, ne može se zaključivati o uzročno-posljedičnim vezama varijabli te je moguće da žene s višim stupnjem internalizirane mizoginije u manjoj mjeri odlučuju nastaviti visokoškolsko obrazovanje. Povezanost dobi i mizoginije može se objasniti promjenama u društvu, koje idu u smjeru sve veće ravnopravnosti žena i sve jasnije javne osude seksizma u društvu. Tako je logično očekivati da će se internalizirana mizoginija prije javiti kod starijih nego mlađih žena. Takvom objašnjenju u prilog ide i pozitivna povezanost dobi s diskriminacijom u primarnoj obitelji.

U drugom koraku uvršteni su političko-ideološki stavovi i religioznost. U skladu s hipotezom, sudionice desne političke orijentacije iskazuju više mizoginih stavova, kao i sudionice s višim stupnjem desničarske autoritarnosti, koja se u ovom istraživanju pokazala najvažnijim prediktorom internalizirane mizoginije. Ovi su nalazi u skladu s ranijim istraživanjima, u kojima su politička orijentacija (Dehlin i Galliher, 2019) i desničarska autoritarnost bile povezane sa seksizmom kod žena (Sibley i sur., 2007; Van Assche i sur., 2019). Društveni konzervativizam, suprotno očekivanjima, na razini korelacije nije pokazao povezanost s kriterijem, a u regresijskom je modelu u drugom koraku imao značajan samostalni doprinos, ali u smjeru suprotnom od očekivanog. Moguće je da se taj efekt javio kao posljedica pozitivne povezanosti konzervativizma s autoritarnosti i političkom orijentacijom, odnosno kao posljedica oduzimanja varijance koje su povezane s tim varijablama u regresijskom modelu. Preostala varijanca konzervativizma u negativnom je odnosu s mizoginijom. Isto tako ni religioznost se nije pokazala značajnim prediktorom internalizirane mizoginije u regresijskom modelu, dok je povezanost religioznosti i mizoginije na razini bivarijatne korelacije vrlo niska. Prethodna istraživanja pokazala su povezanost religioznosti sa seksizmom (npr. Glick i sur., 2002; Taşdemir i Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2010). Ipak, Van Assche i suradnici (2019) pokazali su da je doprinos religioznosti u objašnjavanju seksizma smanjen ili neznačajan nakon dodavanja desničarske autoritarnosti i orijentacije socijalnoj dominaciji u prediktorski model, što je moguće objašnjenje i naših nalaza. Naše istraživanje također upućuje na neznatnu važnost religioznosti u predikciji seksističkih stavova u odnosu na važnost političko-ideoloških stavova. Ovdje treba uzeti u obzir i da je sam konstrukt internalizirane mizoginije bliskiji hostilnom seksizmu, a ranija istraživanja pokazala su da je religioznost u pretežno katoličkim zemljama povezana samo s benevolentnim seksizmom (Burn i Busso, 2005; Mikołajczak i Pietrzak, 2014). Osim toga, varijabla religioznosti je zbog ograničenoga vremena mjerena samo jednom, generalnom česticom, pa nisu obuhvaćene komponente religioznosti koje bi mogle imati različit odnos s internaliziranom mizoginijom, kao npr. religijski fundamentalizam (Hannover i sur., 2018) ili religijski grupni narcizam (Lockhart i sur., 2023). S obzirom na to da društveni konzervativizam nije povezan s mizoginijom (a neke su komponente te varijable i u negativnom odnosu s njom), a povezanost religioznosti i mizoginije vrlo je niska, dok su istodobno konzervativizam i religioznost povezani s desničarskom autoritarnosti, pretpostavljamo da je za povezanost autoritarnosti s internaliziranom mizoginijom odgovorna agresivna komponenta desničarske autoritarnosti. Naime, jedna od karakteristika koja razlikuje desničarsku autoritarnost od društvenoga konzervativizma jest autoritarna agresija, koja se odnosi na usmjeravanje agresivnosti prema ljudima koji se ne slažu s autoritetima ili ugrožavaju društvenu hijerarhiju (Altemeyer, 1981). Dob i obrazovanje u drugom koraku više nemaju značajan samostalni doprinos u objašnjavanju mizoginije zbog svoje povezanosti s uvedenim prediktorima. Točnije, dob je u pozitivnoj korelaciji s autoritarnosti, dok je obrazovanje negativno povezano s političkom orijentacijom i autoritarnosti.

U trećem koraku regresijske analize pokazalo se da sudionice nižega samopoštovanja i nižeg ovladavanja životnim poteškoćama iskazuju više mizoginih stavova, a konzervativizam više nije značajan prediktor. Obje psihološke karakteristike podjednako su važni prediktori internalizirane mizoginije. Negativna povezanost samopoštovanja i internalizirane mizoginije u skladu je s prijašnjim nalazima (Piggott, 2004), a prema našim spoznajama prvi je put pronađena negativna povezanost ovladavanja životnim poteškoćama i internalizirane mizoginije. Moguće je da žene koje imaju nizak osjećaj vlastite vrijednosti i nizak osjećaj kontrole nad vlastitim životom te osjećaje projiciraju na druge žene, što uključuje devaluaciju drugih žena i nepovjerenje prema njima, kao i vjerovanje u mušku superiornost. Treba uzeti u obzir da je opisani smjer povezanosti ovih varijabli teorijski te su drugi autori teoretizirali suprotan smjer u kojemu je internalizacija mizoginih stavova prediktor nižega samopoštovanja žena (Piggott, 2004; Szymanski i Kashubeck-West, 2008).

U četvrtom koraku okolinski utjecaji nisu doveli do značajnoga povećanja objašnjene varijance internalizirane mizoginije. Doživljene rodne mikroagresije imale su značajan samostalan doprinos u predikciji internalizirane mizoginije, ali ujedno su i najmanje važan prediktor u modelu. Ranija istraživanja povezanosti između doživljenih seksizama i internalizirane mizoginije došla su do različitih nalaza. U istraživanju Cherry i Wilcox (2021) pronađena je negativna povezanost između rodnih mikroagresija i internalizirane mizoginije, a autori tumače kako je moguće da žene s nižim stupnjem internalizirane mizoginije lakše uočavaju rodnu diskriminaciju. S druge strane, u istraživanju provedenom sa studenticama jednoga američkog sveučilišta pronađena je niska pozitivna povezanost između doživljenih seksističkih događaja te internalizirane mizoginije studentica (Szymansky i sur., 2009). Naši rezultati podupiru pretpostavku o socijalizacijskim utjecajima na internalizaciju mizoginih stavova, iako je njihov doprinos u odnosu na druge ispitivane varijable vrlo skroman.

Suprotno očekivanjima, rodna diskriminacija u primarnoj obitelji u djetinjstvu nije bila značajan samostalni prediktor internalizirane mizoginije, iako je na razini bivarijatne korelacije pokazala nisku pozitivnu povezanost s kriterijem. Važno je istaknuti da mjera rodne diskriminacije u primarnoj obitelji korištena u ovom istraživanju obuhvaća doživljena iskustva tijekom djetinjstva, pri čemu se četiri od pet čestica odnose na određene zabrane ili ograničenja koje su žene imale zbog svojega spola. Primjena mjere rodnih diskriminacija u primarnoj obitelji koja bi obuhvatila širi raspon i suptilnije oblike rodnih diskriminacija u djetinjstvu omogućila bi bolji uvid u potencijalnu povezanost ovoga okolinskog faktora s internaliziranom mizoginijom.

U sklopu drugoga cilja istraživanja ispitana je moderacijska uloga samopoštovanja u odnosu između doživljenih rodnih mikroagresija i internalizirane mizoginije. Pretpostavili smo da će visoko samopoštovanje štititi žene od internalizacije mizoginije prilikom doživljavanja rodnih mikroagresija, odnosno da će pozitivna povezanost između doživljenih rodnih mikroagresija i internalizirane mizoginije biti niža kod žena s visokim samopoštovanjem. Ova se pretpostavka nije pokazala točnom. Iako je u prijašnjim istraživanjima visoko samopoštovanje štitilo žene od doživljaja stresa (Moradi i Subich, 2004) i razvoja depresivnosti (Corning, 2002) prilikom doživljavanja rodne diskriminacije, samopoštovanje nije pokazalo interakciju s rodnom diskriminacijom kada je kao ishod promatrana anksioznost ili somatizacija kod žena (Corning, 2002). Uzevši u obzir te i naše nalaze, čini se kako samopoštovanje nije zaštitni faktor za sve negativne ishode rodne diskriminacije koju žene doživljavaju.

Pri interpretaciji dobivenih rezultata potrebno je u obzir uzeti neka metodološka ograničenja. Mjere rodnih mikroagresija i doživljene diskriminacije u obitelji retrospektivne su, što znači da su se ispitanice trebale prisjetiti koliko su ovakvih događaja doživjele općenito tijekom života. Mjere su zato podložne nesustavnosti zbog razlika u dosjećanju, ali i zamjećivanju ovih događaja. Dakle, pri tumačenju rezultata treba uzeti u obzir da je riječ o percipiranim doživljenim rodnim mikroagresijama i percipiranoj doživljenoj diskriminaciji u obitelji. Nadalje, istraživanje je provedeno u sklopu prikupljanja većega broja podataka, tako da je moguće da se u trenutku odgovaranja na ova pitanja kod sudionica već javio zamor, dosada i pad koncentracije. Treba naglasiti da su dobivene povezanosti prediktora s kriterijem u ovom istraživanju niske i da konačan model objašnjava relativno malen dio varijance internalizirane mizoginije. Buduća istraživanja mogla bi uključiti još neke potencijalne prediktore mizoginije, kao što su orijentacija socijalnoj dominaciji te osobine ličnosti ili dispozicije mišljenja (potreba za zatvorenošću, sklonost kritičkom razmišljanju, aktivno otvoreno mišljenje i sl.).

Internalizacija mizoginih stavova povezana je s mnogim negativnim ishodima, kao što su povišena depresivnost i psihološka uznemirenost (Piggott, 2004; Szymanski i sur., 2009;

Szymanski i Kashubeck-West, 2008), što upućuje na potrebu za preventivnim akcijama osnaživanja usmjerenim prema skupinama žena koje su im sklonije. Preventivne akcije trebale bi biti usmjerene i prema muškarcima u obliku edukacije o seksizmu i rodnim mikroagresijama i njihovim posljedicama na mentalno zdravlje žena.

Zahvala

Autorice zahvaljuju agenciji za istraživanje tržišta i javnoga mišljenja Ipsos za pomoć u prikupljanju podataka.

BILJEŠKE

* Ovaj rad proizašao je iz diplomskog rada pod naslovom "Prediktori internalizirane mizoginije kod žena" autorice Patricije Gale pod mentorstvom izv. prof. dr. sc. Mirjane Tonković.

[1] Upotrebom pondera mogu se dobiti još preciznije procjene za navedenu populaciju, no ponderirani rezultati tek se neznatno razlikuju od rezultata koji su prikazani u ovom radu. Zbog upotrebe složenijih statističkih postupaka u daljnjoj obradbi podataka, odlučili smo izbjeći ponderirane rezultate.

LITERATURA

Altemeyer, B. (1981). *Right-wing authoritarianism*. University of Manitoba Press.

Baranović, B. i Leinert Novosel, S. (2011). ZAKLJUČCI I PREPORUKE – Koliko su žene u Hrvatskoj ravnopravne? U Ž. Kamenov i B. Galić (Ur.), *Rodna ravnopravnost i diskriminacija u Hrvatskoj: Istraživanje "Percepcija, iskustva i stavovi o rodnoj diskriminaciji u Republici Hrvatskoj"* (str. 255–270). Biblioteka ONA.

Barni, D., Fiorilli, C., Romano, L., Zagrean, I., Alfieri, S. i Russo, C. (2022). Gender prejudice within the family: The relation between parents' sexism and their socialization values. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13.* https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.846016

Basford, T. E., Offermann, L. R. i Behrend, T. S. (2014). Do you see what I see? Perceptions of gender microaggressions in the workplace. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 38*(3), 340–349. https://doi.org/10.1177/0361684313511420

Bearman, S. i Amrhein, M. (2014). Girls, women, and internalized Sexism. U E. J. R. David (Ur.), *Internalized oppression: The psychology of marginalized groups* (str. 191–225). Springer Publishing Company. https://doi.org/10.1891/9780826199263.0008

Bearman, S., Korobov, N. i Thorne, A. (2009). The fabric of internalized sexism. *Journal of Integrated Social Sciences, 1*(1), 10–47. https://www.jiss.org/archive/1-1.php

Bizumic, B. i Duckitt, J. (2018). Investigating right wing authoritarianism with a very short authoritarianism scale. *Journal of Social and Political Psychology, 6*(1), 129–150. https://doi.org/10.5964/jspp.v6i1.835

Burn, S. M. i Busso, J. (2005). Ambivalent sexism, scriptural literalism, and religiosity. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 29*(4), 412–418. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.2005.00241.x

Capodilupo, C. M., Nadal, K. L., Corman, L., Hamit, S., Lyons, O. B. i Weinberg, A. (2010). The manifestation of gender microaggressions. U D. W. Sue (Ur.), *Microaggressions and marginality: Manifestation, dynamics, and impact* (str. 193–216). John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Cherry, M. A. i Wilcox, M. M. (2021). Sexist microaggressions: Traumatic stressors mediated by self-compassion. *The Counseling Psychologist, 49*(1), 106–137. https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000020954534

Constantinescu, S. (2021). How does the internalization of misogyny operate: A theoretical approach with European examples. *Research in Social Change, 13*(1), 120–128. https://doi.org/10.2478/rsc-2021-0013

Corning, A. F. (2002). Self-esteem as a moderator between perceived discrimination and psychological distress among women. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 49*(1), 117–126. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.49.1.117

Cowan, G., Neighbors, C., DeLaMoreaux, J. i Behnke, C. (1998). Women's hostility toward women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 22*(2), 267–284. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.1998.tb00154.x

Čorkalo Biruški, D., Jelić, M., Kapović, I., Baketa, N., Bovan, K., Dumančić, F., Kovačić, M., Tomić, I., Tonković, M. i Uzelac, E. (2022). *Hrvatsko društvo u vrijeme koronakrize: Godinu dana poslije / Croatian society during the coronavirus crisis: One year later*. Friedrich Ebert Stiftung. https://hrzz.hr/hrvatsko-drustvo-u-vrijeme-koronakrize-godinu-dana-poslije/

Dehlin, A. J. i Galliher, R. V. (2019). Young women's sexist beliefs and internalized misogyny: Links with psychosocial and relational functioning and political behavior. *Psi Chi Journal of Psychological Research, 24*(4), 255–264. https://doi.org/10.24839/2325-7342.JN24.4.255

Duckitt, J., Bizumic, B., Krauss, S. W. i Heled, E. (2010). A tripartite approach to right-wing authoritarianism: The authoritarianism-conservatism-traditionalism model. *Political Psychology, 31*(5), 685–715. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9221.2010.00781.x

Eagly, A. H. i Wood, W. (2012). Social role theory. U P. A. M. Van Lange, A. W. Kruglanski i E. T. Higgings (Ur.), *Handbook of theories of social psychology: Volume* 2 (str. 458–476). Sage. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446249222.n49

Everett, J. A. C. (2013). The 12 item Social and Economic Conservatism Scale (SECS). *PLoS ONE, 8*(12), e82131. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0082131

Galić, B. (2012). Promjena seksističkog diskursa u Hrvatskoj? Usporedba rezultata istraživanja 2004. i 2010. godine. *Socijalna ekologija, 21*(2), 155–178. https://hrcak.srce.hr/84011

Garaigordobil, M. i Aliri, J. (2011). Conexión intergeneracional del sexismo: Influencia de variables familiares [Intergenerational connection of sexism: Influence of family variables]. *Psicothema, 23*(3), 382–387. https://www.psicothema.com/pi?pii=3898

Gaunt, R. (2012). "Blessed is he who has not made me a woman": Ambivalent sexism and Jewish religiosity. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, 67*(9-10), 477–487. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-012-0185-8

Glick, P. i Fiske, S. T. (2001). An ambivalent alliance: Hostile and benevolent sexism as complementary justifications for gender inequality. *American Psychologist, 56*(2), 109–118. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.56.2.109

Glick, P., Lameiras, M. i Castro, Y. R. (2002). Education and Catholic religiosity as predictors of hostile and benevolent sexism toward women and men. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, 47*(9-10), 433–441. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1021696209949

Hannover, B., Gubernath, J., Schultze, M. i Zander, L. (2018). Religiosity, religious Fundamentalism, and ambivalent sexism toward girls and women among adolescents and young adults living in Germany. *Frontiers in Psychology, 9,* Article 2399. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02399

Hellmer, K., Stenson, J. T. i Jylhä, K. M. (2018). What's (not) underpinning ambivalent sexism?: Revisiting the roles of ideology, religiosity, personality, demographics, and men's facial hair in explaining hostile and benevolent sexism. *Personality and Individual Differences, 122,* 29–37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.10.001

Jones, K., Stewart, K., King, E., Botsford Morgan, W., Gilrane, V. i Hylton, K. (2014). Negative consequence of benevolent sexism on efficacy and performance. *Gender in Management: An International Journal, 29*(3), 171–189. https://doi.org/10.1108/GM-07-2013-0086

Jost, J. T., Glaser, J., Kruglanski, A. W. i Sulloway, F. J. (2003). Political conservatism as motivated social cognition. *Psychological Bulletin, 129*(3), 339–375. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.129.3.339

Judson, S. S. (2014). *Sexist discrimination and gender microaggressions: An exploration of current conceptualizations of women's experiences of sexism* (Publication No. 3740179) [Doktorski rad, University of Akron]. ProQuest.

Jugović, I. i Kamenov, Ž. (2008). Razvoj instrumenta za ispitivanje rodnih uloga u adolescenciji. *Suvremena psihologija, 11*(1), 93–106. https://hrcak.srce.hr/81401

Kamenov, Ž., Huić, A. i Jugović, I. (2011). Uloga iskustva rodno neravnopravnog tretmana u obitelji u percepciji, stavovima i sklonosti rodnoj diskriminaciji. *Revija za socijalnu politiku, 18*(2), 195–215. https://doi.org/10.3935/rsp.v18i2.978

Kirk, R. (1953). *The conservative mind: From Burke to Santayana*. Regnery.

Lockhart, C., Sibley, C.G., & Osborne, D. (2023). Religiosity and ambivalent sexism: The role of religious group narcissism. *Current Psychology, 43,* 85–95. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-023-04243-7

Mastari, L., Spruyt, B. i Siongers, J. (2019). Benevolent and hostile sexism in social spheres: The impact of parents, school and romance on Belgian adolescents' sexist attitudes. *Frontiers in Sociology, 4*, 47. https://doi.org/10.3389/fsoc.2019.00047

Mikołajczak, M. i Pietrzak, J. (2014). Ambivalent sexism and religion: Connected through values. Sex Roles: *A Journal of Research, 70*(9-10), 387–399. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-014-0379-3

Mikša, T. i Tonković, M. (2018). Tko pobjeđuje u utrci s vremenom? Individualne razlike u mentalnoj reprezentaciji vremena. *Psihologijske teme, 27*(3), 385–408. https://doi.org/10.31820/pt.27.3.3

Miner-Rubino, K., Twenge, J. M. i Fredrickson, B. L. (2002). Trait self-objectification in women: Affective and personality correlates. *Journal of Research in Personality, 36*(2), 147–172. https://doi.org/10.1006/jrpe.2001.2343

Moradi, B. i Subich, L. M. (2002). Perceived sexist events and feminist identity development attitudes: Links to women's psychological distress. *The Counseling Psychologist, 30*(1), 44–65. https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000002301003

Moradi, B. i Subich, L. M. (2004). Examining the moderating role of self-esteem in the link between experiences of perceived sexist events and psychological distress. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 51*(1), 50–56. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.51.1.50

Moradi, B., Dirks, D. i Matteson, A. V. (2005). Roles of sexual objectification experiences and internalization of standards of beauty in eating disorder symptomatology: A test and extension of objectification theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52*(3), 420–428. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.52.3.420

Nadal, K. L. (2010). Gender microaggressions: Implications for mental health. U M. A. Paludi (Ur.), *Feminism and women's rights worldwide, Volume 2: Mental and physical health* (str. 155–175). Praeger.

Navarro, D. J. i Foxcroft, D. R. (2019). *Learning statistics with jamovi: A tutorial for psychology students and other beginners* (Version 0.70). https://doi.org/10.24384/hgc3-7p15. http://learnstatswithjamovi.com

Pearlin, L. I. i Schooler, C. (1978). The structure of coping. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 19*(1), 2–21. https://doi.org/10.2307/2136319

Piggott, M. (2004). *Double jeopardy: Lesbians and the legacy of multiple stigmatized identities* [Neobjavljeni diplomski rad]. Psychology Strand at Swinburne University of Technology.

Prina, F., & Schatz-Stevens, J. N. (2020). Sexism and rape myth acceptance: The impact of culture, education, and religiosity. *Psychological Reports, 123*(3), 929–951. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033294119826896

Rodon, T. (2015). Do all roads lead to the center? The unresolved dilemma of centrist self-placement. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research, 27*(2), 177–196. https://doi.org/10.1093/ijpor/edu028

Roets, A., Van Hiel, A. i Dhont, K. (2011). Is sexism a gender issue? A motivated social cognition perspective on men's and women's sexist attitudes toward own and other gender. *European Journal of Personality, 26*(3), 350–359. https://doi.org/10.1002/per.843

Rosenberg, M. (1965). Society and the adolescent self-image. Princeton University Press. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781400876136

Savigny, H. (2020). Sexism and misogyny. U K. Ross (Ur.), *The international encyclopedia of gender, media, and communication* (str. 1–7). John Wiley & Sons, Inc. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119429128.iegmc092

Sibley, C. G. i Duckitt, J. (2008). Personality and prejudice: A meta-analysis and theoretical review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 12*(3), 248–279. https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868308319226

Sibley, C. G., Wilson, M. S. i Duckitt, J. (2007). Antecedents of men's hostile and benevolent sexism: The dual roles of social dominance orientation and right-wing authoritarianism. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 33*(2), 160–172. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167206294745

Szymanski, D. M. i Henning, S. L. (2007). The role of self-objectification in women's depression: A test of objectification theory. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, 56*(1-2), 45–53. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-006-9147-3

Szymanski, D. M. i Kashubeck-West, S. (2008). Mediators of the relationship between internalized oppressions and lesbian and bisexual women's psychological distress. *The Counseling Psychologist, 36*(4), 575–594. https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000007309490

Szymanski, D. M., Gupta, A., Carr, E. R. i Stewart, D. (2009). Internalized misogyny as a moderator of the link between sexist events and women's psychological distress. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, 61*(1-2), 101–109. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-009-9611-y

Šimac, B. i Klasnić, K. (2021). Što još one žele? Razvoj nove skale za mjerenje suvremenih oblika seksizma. *Socijalna ekologija, 30*(2), 255–297. https://doi.org/10.17234/SocEkol.30.2.4

Taşdemir, N. i Sakallı-Uğurlu, N. (2010). The relationships between ambivalent sexism and religiosity among Turkish university students. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, 62*(7-8), 420–426. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-009-9693-6

Van Assche, J., Koç, Y. i Roets, A. (2019). Religiosity or ideology? On the individual differences predictors of sexism. *Personality and Individual Differences, 139,* 191–197. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2018.11.016

The Role of Individual Characteristics and External Factors in Explaining Internalised Misogyny

Patricia GALE, Mirjana TONKOVIĆ
Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences,
University of Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia

Internalised misogyny is a form of internalised sexism that refers to devaluing women, distrusting women, and valuing men over women. It occurs when women adopt sexist messages heard throughout their lives and direct them towards other women. The aim of this research was to examine the role of individual characteristics and environmental influences in explaining internalised misogyny. 530 women between 18 and 90 participated in the study. The sample was representative of the population of adult women in Croatia. The results showed that internalised misogyny has a low positive correlation with age, right-wing political orientation, religiosity, discrimination in the family and experienced gender microaggressions, and a somewhat higher correlation with right-wing authoritarianism. Low negative correlations with education, self-esteem and level of mastery were also obtained. Contrary to expectations, the size of the settlement and conservatism were not related to internalised misogyny. In the regression model, right-wing political orientation, higher level of right-wing authoritarianism, lower self-esteem, lower level of mastery and more frequent experience of gender microaggressions were significant predictors of internalised misogyny. The relationship between experienced gender microaggressions and internalised misogyny did not depend on the level of self-esteem.

Keywords: sexism, internalised misogyny, right-wing authoritarianism, gender discrimination

https://doi.org/10.5559/di.33.2.05

HOW DO PERSONAL NETWORKS AFFECT ADHERENCE TO EPIDEMIOLOGICAL MEASURES, VACCINE HESITANCY, AND THE RISK ASSESSMENT OF COVID-19?

Marko LUCIĆ
Ministry of Labour, Pension System, Family and Social Policy, Zagreb, Croatia

Dražen CEPIĆ, Željka TONKOVIĆ
Department of Sociology, University of Zadar, Zadar, Croatia

Teo MATKOVIĆ
Institute for Social Research in Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia

UDK: [316.776:004.77](497.5):614.4
Original scientific paper

Received: June 5, 2023

Since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, adherence to epidemiological measures was proved related to the information exchanged through personal networks. However, there is still limited evidence on the effect of specific network properties. Using data from a randomised national sample of adults in Croatia (*N* = 765), we examine the role of various personal networks attributes with regard to three dependent variables: risk assessment of COVID-19, adherence to epidemiological measures and intention to avoid vaccination. We propose "pandemic discussion networks" as personal networks that encompass social contacts with whom respondents exchange pandemic-related information. Network heterogeneity in terms of the discussants' education level contributed to more protective behaviour, while network heterogeneity in terms of age contributed to an inclination towards vaccination. These associations were confirmed independently of behavioural homophily in terms of risky health behaviour, which was also found.

Keywords: COVID-19, discussion networks, demographic network heterogeneity, vaccination, social pressure

✉ Marko Lucić, Ministry of Labour, Pension System, Family and Social Policy, Ulica grada Vukovara 78, 10000 Zagreb, Croatia.
E-mail: marko.lucic@mrosp.hr

INTRODUCTION

The study of COVID-19 examined many important aspects of spreading information and misinformation about the virus, regarding the psychological properties (Kwon et al., 2022; Betta et al., 2022; Li et al., 2022), sociodemographic factors which explain the affinity to accepting conspiracy theories (Ančić & Cepić, 2021), and technological properties of news outlets and social media (Huang, 2022). However, the aspect which remained understudied concerns the role of personal networks in spreading the news related to the COVID-19 pandemic. Certainly, psychological properties such as a tendency towards anxiety and anger, levels of interpersonal and generalised trust, sociodemographic attributes which include education level or economic vulnerability, or technological properties of social media, are all deemed important in explaining pandemic attitudes and behaviour (Kwon et al., 2022; Betta et al., 2022; Li et al., 2022; Ančić & Cepić, 2021; Huang, 2022). But how are COVID related information and narratives transmitted via personal non-virtual channels? In this paper we have studied the latter through social network analysis. Using the name generator on the national representative sample from Croatia, we examined who do people directly exchange information on the pandemic with. This is relevant as the composition of information networks is likely to influence the formation of pandemic attitudes and behaviour.

Social network analysis (SNA) has been widely used in COVID research, regarding the transmission patterns (Saraswathi et al., 2020; Fraser & Aldrich, 2021) and visualisation (So et al., 2020), policy implications (Jo et al., 2021), social support (Cugmas et al., 2021; Bian et al., 2020; Radey et al., 2022) and loneliness (Kovacs et al., 2021). Furthermore, regarding the topics closer to the COVID "infodemic", SNA was used to study the reporting of COVID on social media (Ahmed et al., 2020; Westmoreland et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2022; Singh et al., 2022; O'Leary et al., 2022; Luo & Ren, 2022; Faccin et al., 2022), which, however, still makes up only a fraction of the overall human communication. Past studies of epidemics found that "information from trusted personal ties was more effective in changing health behaviours than centralised information campaigns" (Fraser & Aldrich, 2021), while peer endorsements and health advice from friends and acquaintances were found to be effective at facilitating population-level behaviour change (Quinn, 2020). Therefore, the question of how COVID news is transmitted via personal non-virtual networks is very relevant. This has been especially the case given the reported trend towards "information avoidance", which occurs when a person diverts attention away from news coverage and skips social media newsfeeds to evade the topic (Qu et al., 2023).

From the research of COVID, it is known that personal networks not only provide emotional support but they also may foster virus-preventive behaviours (Qu et al., 2023). However, a specific contribution of our research is that we examine the role of personal networks attributes, including network size, composition, and the effect of network homophily with regard to three dependent variables: attitudes towards the COVID-19 pandemic, adherence to epidemiological measures and the intention to avoid vaccination. Following this research perspective, we propose pandemic discussion networks as a special subset of personal network that encompasses social contacts with whom respondents exchange information related to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Information sharing and personal networks in the COVID-19 pandemic

One of the main postulates of social epidemiology is that humans are not just hosts for viruses, but are actively involved in social contact with others, and therefore, how humans form social networks affects the overall state and structure of the spread of infection (Jo et al., 2021; Quinn, 2020). However, the aspect of social networks which was of primary interest for us in this paper concerned the sharing of information. In the research on COVID-19, this aspect of personal networks has been mostly studied in comparison to other sources of information, such as state authorities, science and health experts, news outlets, and social media (Westmoreland et al., 2021; Amiri et al., 2022; Ahmadinia et al., 2022; Baker et al., 2022; Freeman et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2022). This is relevant insofar as people's perceptions of risk can be amplified or weakened depending on the channels through which they receive risk-related information, as Zhao and Wu explain using the social amplification theory (Zhao & Wu, 2021). Nevertheless, what remained unclear in the literature on the COVID-19 pandemic were the specificities of personal, non-virtual information sharing networks and the effects of personal network properties (such as network size, composition and degree of heterogeneity) on personal attitudes towards the pandemic, risk perception and protective behaviour.

For instance, Westmoreland et al. (2021) used a US national cohort study to analyse sources of trusted information about COVID-19, including official and unofficial sources. The top three responses were immediate family (77.1%), close friend/someone you see or talk to regularly (69.8%), and partner/significant other (56.1%). These findings are consistent with Fraser and Aldrich (2021) and Quinn (2020), regarding the high importance of personal ties in information sharing. News media present official information regarding the risks, whereas personal networks offer unfiltered and sometimes unique information from grassroots that may not be available in other channels (Zhao & Wu, 2021). Furthermore, the literature suggests that people usually perceive less psychological distance with those who are socially proximal, and interpersonal discussions about risks often involve personal stories and experiences — therefore the information from such channels will be deemed as more trustworthy (Zhao & Wu, 2021). However, what remains unclear from these studies is the effect of various network properties and mechanisms, such as homophily and transitivity.

An important step in this direction is the study of Qu et al. (2023) on information avoidance and personal networks. According to this study, the relationship of network size with information avoidance followed a U-shape curve, showing that discussion networks both too small and too large may encourage individuals to avoid information related to COVID-19. In addition, network heterogeneity with respect to perceived severity was an important predictor of pro-information behaviour. This study, however, did not explore the effect of personal networks on other aspects of behaviour and attitudes related to the COVID-19 pandemic, including adherence to epidemiological measures or intention to avoid vaccination, which we have sought to do in this paper.

HYPOTHESES

Network size refers to the number of alters in a personal network and is related to the amount of social support one receives from one's personal community. Besides that, network size is related to information diversity: the greater the number of people with whom one communicates, the greater the probability of obtaining diverse information (Wellman & Wortley, 1990; Chua et al., 2011). For instance, some research suggests that smaller interpersonal networks may lead to a health knowledge gap (Askelson et al., 2011). In the case of COVID-19, broader, more diverse social networks boost the spread of quality information on how to keep community members from contracting the virus (Fraser & Aldrich, 2021). Therefore, we hypothesise that individuals with larger personal networks are less prone to conspiracy theories related to COVID-19 and are more likely to adhere to epidemiological measures introduced by the authorities.

H1: Network size is positively related to the adherence to epidemiological measures.

When it comes to network composition, the proportion of strong and weak ties is one of the most widely used indicators in network research. This network property is also related to the network size, in the sense that larger personal networks usually contain more weak ties. While strong ties are an important source of emotional support, their above-average representation in relation to more diverse weak ties may result in densely knit homogeneous networks in which disinformation may circulate easily (Burt, 2009; Granovetter, 1973). Therefore, it can be assumed that areas characterised primarily by strong bonding social ties and low heterogeneity of network would lack diverse sources of information from experts and outsiders. This is in line with findings from two studies of the spread of antivaccination beliefs (Campbell & Salathé, 2013; Salathé & Bonfoeffer, 2008), which showed that such beliefs spread more easily in a clustered social network composed of bonding, overlapping ties. Hence, we expect that deeper reservoirs of bridging and linking ties, containing alters with diverse demographics might facilitate the spread of quality information. In line with that, residents who discuss the topic with different social groups should be more likely to adhere to epidemiological measures (e.g. implement physical distancing, personal protective equipment, and hand washing); less likely to be vaccine hesitant; and more likely to perceive COVID-19 as exceptionally dangerous.

H2a: Higher share of weak ties is positively related to adherence to epidemiological measures.

H2b: Higher share of weak ties is negatively related to vaccine hesitancy.

H2c: Higher share of weak ties is positively related to the risk assessment of COVID-19.

H3a: Higher network demographic heterogeneity is positively related to adherence to epidemiological measures.

H3b: Higher network demographic heterogeneity is negatively related to vaccine hesitancy.

H3c: Higher network demographic heterogeneity is positively related to the risk assessment of COVID-19.

From the network theory perspective, there are different mechanisms through which personal relations create more complex networks. A number of empirical studies have identified homophily as a ubiquitous principle of social organisation, both at micro and macro levels (Kadushin, 2012; McPherson et al., 2001; Cepić & Tonković 2020). Basically, this mechanism assumes that people who socialise together are more likely to have similar attitudes, values and behaviours. In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, we can expect that people who do (or do not) adhere to protective behaviour are more likely to socialise with others of similar behaviour.

H4a: The presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour is negatively related to adherence to epidemiological measures.

H4b: The presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour is positively related to vaccine hesitancy.

H4c: The presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour is negatively related to the risk assessment of COVID-19.

DATA AND METHODS

Sample

We used the survey data collected from 765 respondents in the second wave of the "Panel survey of attitudes and experiences related to the COVID-19 pandemic among Croatian residents: How do we live during the pandemic?" (Matković et al., 2024), collected between March 4 and April 11, 2021. The initial sample was realised in autumn 2020 using phone interviews based on the land-line phone register supplemented by members of the agency-recruited panel, while the follow-up wave was enacted with consenting participants from the initial wave, using web-based self-completion questionnaire with computer assisted telephone interview as a backup collection mode.

In line with the object of our inquiry, we further constrained our analysis to the sub-sample of 506 respondents who named at least two alters with whom they discussed the pandemic, since most of the network measures that we used as covariates are defined only for networks of 2 or more alters. In the total sample, 12.9% did not name any alters in the name generator, and 20.9% named only one alter, introducing additional bias, as men and respondents with 3-year vocational education or less were more likely to be in this group (pseudo $R^2 = 0.02$). Furthermore, 83 of those respondents included at least one "collective entry" as an alter (for example, "Friends", "Colleagues" or "Mirela, Branko and Suzana"), introducing noise alongside other valid entries with regards to attributes of those alters. The mainstay of our analysis is constrained to 423 respondents whose every response to the name generator was discernible as an individual, since exclusion of such alters from the analysis while keeping the respondents would render networks incomplete. The logistic regression of exclusion due to collective responses on the three dependent variables and the demographic variables (gender, age group, education level, and the occupation category) did not show significant differences.

Descriptive statistics of all variables used in the analysis of the focal sub-sample of 423 respondents are shown in Table 1. Regarding the demographic structure, the average age of 50 years closely corresponded to the average age of adults in Croatia according to the 2021 population census (51 years), while women (60 versus 51 percent) and persons with tertiary educational attainment (44 versus 23 percent) were overrepresented relative to the adult population. While underrepresentation of younger cohorts present in the first wave was counterbalanced by attrition in the follow-up, the initial education bias towards the more educated was intensified in the follow-up wave, and by exclusion of respondents with less than two alters. In an attempt to account for this, weights were constructed to account for age, gender, education and region disbalance both in the initial sample and subsequent attrition.

TABLE 1
Descriptive statistics

Quantitative variables		*Mean* (*SD*)
Index of adherence to epidemiological measures and recommendations		7.0 (1.9)
Age (years)		50.1 (14.3)
Network size		3.7 (1.8)
Share of weak ties		0.2 (0.3)
Network gender heterogeneity		0.3 (0.2)
Network age group heterogeneity		0.5 (0.2)
Network education level heterogeneity		0.3 (0.2)
Categorical variables		***f* (%)**
Vaccine hesitancy	Vaccinated or intends to get vaccinated	310 (73.5%)
	Does not intend to get vaccinated	112 (26.5%)
Risk assessment of COVID-19	Not perceiving the virus as exceptionally dangerous	295 (69.7%)
	Perceiving the virus as exceptionally dangerous	128 (30.3%)
Gender	Male	166 (39.2%)
	Female	257 (60.8%)
Education level	Without high school	19 (4.5%)
	High school	212 (50.1%)
	Higher education	192 (45.4%)
Been infected	Not been infected	375 (88.7%)
	Been infected	48 (11.3%)
Social proximity to hospitalized and/or deceased	No	154 (36.6%)
	Yes, weak tie	183 (43.5%)
	Yes, strong tie	84 (20.0%)
The presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour	No	397 (93.9%)
	Yes	26 (6.1%)
N		423

The highest intercorrelation among the quantitative covariates was 0.43 (between network age group heterogeneity and network size) and the average intercorrelation was 0.10.

Network measures

The name generator was used to elicit the discussants with whom respondents "over the last few weeks had talked most often about the COVID-19 pandemic (for example, about epidemiological measures, consequences of the pandemic, decisions of the civil protection headquarters, etc.)". The respondents could list up to 10 alters. For each of the alters listed, the respondents were asked about the alters' demographics (age group, gender, and education level); and the ego's relationship with the alter on a 9-degree scale, with degrees arranged on a pre-supposed scale of the relationship's closeness ("1" being "Partner", "8" being "Neighbour", "9" being "Other"). Furthermore, the respondents were asked to assess how much the alter "abides by the epidemiological measures and recommendations (for example, avoiding contacts, physical distance, wearing masks)" on a 4-degree scale ("1" being "Does not abide at all", "4" being "Abides completely").

Network size was measured by the number of discussants listed by each respondent for whom the respondent also stated age group, gender, and education level.

Share of weak ties was measured by the ratio of the number of alters for whom the respondent stated one of the degrees of the relationship's closeness that were deemed as substantially more distant ("Acquaintance [from common activities, hobbies, etc.]", "Acquaintance [from social media, for example Facebook]", "Colleague from work or college", "Neighbour", "Other") than the degrees we deemed as close ("Partner", "Immediate family member", "Extended family member", "Close friend") and the network size.

Network demographic heterogeneity was measured by three Blau indices (Blau, 1977), the most commonly used measure to capture group diversity on a categorical scale (Harrison & Klein, 2007), pertaining to gender, age group and education level. The Blau index expresses the probability that any two alters in a network (excluding ego) belong to different categories of a categorical variable and thus theoretically ranges from 0 (completely homogenous network) to 1 (completely heterogeneous network).

$$Blau = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i^2$$

In the formula, k is the number of categories of the variable and p_i is the proportion of the i-th category in the network size which is squared (multiplied by itself) to express the probability that two independent events occur, i.e. that any two alters belong to the same category *i*. The sum of the squared proportions of all categories is subtracted from total probability of belonging to different categories (its value set at 1), which means that the more categories there are and, at the same time, the more equal their proportions in the network, the larger is the probability that any two alters belong to different categories (since squaring numbers less than 1 and closer to zero results in smaller numbers to be subtracted from total probability). There were two gender categories in the network gender heterogeneity measure (which means that this measure has a theoretical maximum of 0.5), six age groups of alters (up to 29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60-69, 70+) in the network age group heterogeneity measure and three groups of alters' education levels (no high-school, high-school, higher education) in the network education level heterogeneity measure.

The presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour was operationalised by a simple indicator of whether an ego assessed for at least one of the listed alters that he or she did not abide by epidemiological measures and recommendations, which was a relatively rare occurrence in the sample (6.1%).

Dependent variables

All dependent variables were developed by the project research team (Matković et al., 2024).

Index of adherence to epidemiological measures and recommendations (IAEMR) was constructed as a sum index of 9 binary items where "0" is "No" and "1" is "Yes" (for example, "You wash or disinfect your hands more often than usual", "You avoid public transport [tram, bus, train]") (Cronbach Alpha = 0.75). The higher result on this index meant higher adherence.

Vaccine hesitancy was constructed as a binary recode of an ordinal variable ("0" being "I am already vaccinated", "I will surely get vaccinated", and "I shall probably get vaccinated"; "1" being "I shall probably not get vaccinated" and "I will surely not get vaccinated"), whereby 26.5% in the focal sub-sample stated they did not have the intention to get vaccinated.

Risk assessment of *COVID-19* was constructed as a binary recode of an ordinal variable whereby only the last degree was counted as "1" ("[Virus]exceptionally dangerous, the consequences may be fatal for many people"), chosen by 30.3%. The preceding degrees, counted as "0", were "Quite dangerous, but the consequences will not be fatal for a vast majority of people" (53.0%), "Dangerous to some extent, but the fear and caution are an overreaction" (13.0%), "Danger to a smaller extent, coronavirus is like the flu" (3,6%) and "No danger at all, coronavirus actually does not exist" (0.2%).

Control variables

Among the control variables were the standard demographics in social research (age, gender and education level), also confirmed as predictors of the attitude towards the pandemic and the epidemiological measures (Ančić & Cepić, 2021; Morales et al., 2022). The other two control variables were chosen following the notion that the direct or indirect salient ("serious") experience with the pandemic might influence the dependent variables. Direct experience with the pandemic was operationalised as personally having been infected (11.3%), while the indirect "serious" experience with the pandemic was operationalised through social proximity to hospitalised and/or deceased, i.e. knowing someone who suffered grave consequences. The respondent could either be not knowing anyone who was hospitalised or died from the consequences of COVID (36.6%), having a weak connection to someone with those outcomes (acquaintance, colleague, neighbour, someone else) (43.5%), or having a strong connection with someone with those outcomes (partner, family member or friend) (20.0%).

Analytical strategy

In the regression analyses of the three dependent variables, in each case we start with the null model including the control set of ego's characteristics only, then proceed by adding three blocks of network characteristics measures successively: network size, network composition (share of weak ties and demographic heterogeneity), and finally the presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour (models 2-4 in Tables 1, 2 and 3). The rationale for adding the blocks of network characteristics successively are intercorrelations between the network characteristics which could obscure contributions of each set of variables to the explanation. Therefore, not only individual covariates, but also changes of model fit statistics are of interest in the results' interpretation.

Network size is added in the first block of network characteristics as the most basic network characteristic with relatively larger correlations with network heterogeneity measures (from 0.14 with the gender heterogeneity to 0.43 with the age group heterogeneity) among all intercorrelations of the network measures (the average correlation being 0.13). This is followed by a block of more complex network composition traits with hypothesised associations with the outcome. Finally, we assess whether the introduction of a covariate indicating behavioural homophily of alters with the observed outcome (the presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour) demonstrates the expected association, or moderates the effects of network size and composition introduced in prior steps.

Among the three dependent variables, Poisson regression was used in the case of IAEMR, since it is a count variable, while logistic regression was used in the case of the other two, binary dependent variables. We used heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors.

Respondents with missing values in the case of social proximity to the hospitalised and/or deceased (2 respondents) and vaccine hesitancy (1 respondent) in the focal sub-sample were deleted listwise in the three sets of models shown in Tables 2-4.

Given the bias of our sample, the use of survey weights in modelling was considered. While survey weights may help to address the potential estimates' bias, they tend to reduce the estimates' efficiency (Bollen et al., 2016). To test if survey weights are needed, the method proposed by Pfefferman and Sverchkov (2007) was used as the only consistently applicable test in our case among all the tests mentioned in a review (Bollen et al., 2016). The method entails regressing the weight variable on the dependent variable and the covariates, whereby a significant association of survey weights with the dependent variable indicates that the weights make a substantial difference to the estimates and are therefore needed. In three OLS regressions (one for each dependent variable), there were no significant associations with the dependent variables ($p(\mathrm{t}) > 0{,}05$) and it was decided not to use the survey weights.

A robustness check of the regression results was made by comparing the significance patterns in the focal sub-sample (shown in Tables 2-4) and in the larger sub-sample of 506 respondents that listed collective entries as alters, where such respondents were retained in analysis, but only with alters for whom the ego had stated the age group, education level and gender in the name interpreters (the "noisy" sample).

RESULTS

Network size was not associated with adherence to epidemiological measures and recommendations (H1) in the linear regression analyses (Table 2).

Among network composition variables, the share of weak ties was not connected to adherence to the measures and recommendations (H2a). Network heterogeneity in terms of education level significantly and positively contributed to the ego's adherence to epidemiological measures and recommendations (H3a): having all the alters with different education levels as opposed to having all the alters with the same education level (a unit change in the covariate) meant on average about 1 point more on the IAEMR. Network gender heterogeneity was negatively associated with IAEMR (H3a) before adding the presence of the alters who do not exercise protective behaviour.

Behavioural homophily in terms of risky health behaviour was found, as the presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour had a significantly negative and relatively strong association with the ego's own risky behaviour (H4a), substantially improving model fit (as indicated by lower information criteria values) and decreasing the ego's adherence to measures and recommendations for somewhat less than 2 points (on a 0-9 scale) on average.

Significance pattern of the findings related to network heterogeneity and behavioural homophily in terms of risky health behaviour held also in the "noisy" sample that included those respondents who named "collective entries" as alters, though the effects were smaller.

TABLE 2
Hierarchical Poisson regression analyses for adherence to epidemiological measures and recommendations

	(1) b (SE)	(2) b (SE)	(3) b (SE)	(4) b (SE)
Female (Ref: Male)	0.03 (0.03)	0.03 (0.03)	0.02 (0.03)	0.01 (0.02)
Age	0.01*** (0.00)	0.01*** (0.00)	0.01*** (0.00)	0.01*** (0.00)
Education level (Ref: High school)				
No high school	-0.03 (0.06)	-0.03 (0.06)	-0.02 (0.06)	-0.00 (0.06)
Higher education	0.02 (0.03)	0.02 (0.03)	0.02 (0.03)	0.03 (0.02)
Been infected (Ref: No)	-0.05 (0.05)	-0.05 (0.05)	-0.06 (0.05)	-0.05 (0.05)
Social proximity to hospitalised and/or deceased (Ref: No)				
Yes, weak tie	0.03 (0.03)	0.03 (0.03)	0.02 (0.03)	0.02 (0.03)
Yes, strong tie	0.02 (0.03)	0.02 (0.03)	0.01 (0.03)	0.02 (0.03)
Network size		0.00 (0.01)	-0.00 (0.01)	-0.00 (0.01)
Share of weak ties			0.13 (0.12)	0.09 (0.12)
Share of weak ties # Share of weak ties			-0.12 (0.14)	-0.09 (0.14)
Network heterogeneity: gender			-0.13* (0.06)	-0.09 (0.05)
Network heterogeneity: age group			0.07 (0.07)	0.08 (0.07)
Network heterogeneity: educ. level			0.14* (0.06)	0.15* (0.06)
The presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour (Ref: No)				-0.31** (0.10)
Constant	1.63*** (0.07)	1.62*** (0.07)	1.62*** (0.08)	1.60*** (0.08)
Observations	421	421	421	421
AIC	1839.3	1841.2	1845.7	1835.0
BIC	1871.6	1877.6	1902.3	1895.7

Robust standard errors in parentheses; $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$

In the logistic regressions of vaccine hesitancy (Table 3), the share of weak ties was associated with less vaccine hesitancy (H2b), albeit non-linearly; those having about half of their ties were somewhat less prone to express vaccine hesitancy, though this pattern was not pronounced (Figure 1). Among the network heterogeneity measures (H3b), only the network heterogeneity in terms of age group was significantly associated with the intention to get vaccinated (a negative sign), albeit not in the "noisy" sample. Naming all alters different in terms of age group as opposed to naming all alters as belonging to the same age group meant about 70% less chance of stating the intention to not get vaccinated (expressing the log-odds as the odds-ratio: exp(-1.27) = 0.28). The presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour was significantly and positively associated with vaccine hesitancy (H4b), increasing the odds of vaccine hesitancy for about 2.8 times (exp(1.03) = 2.80).

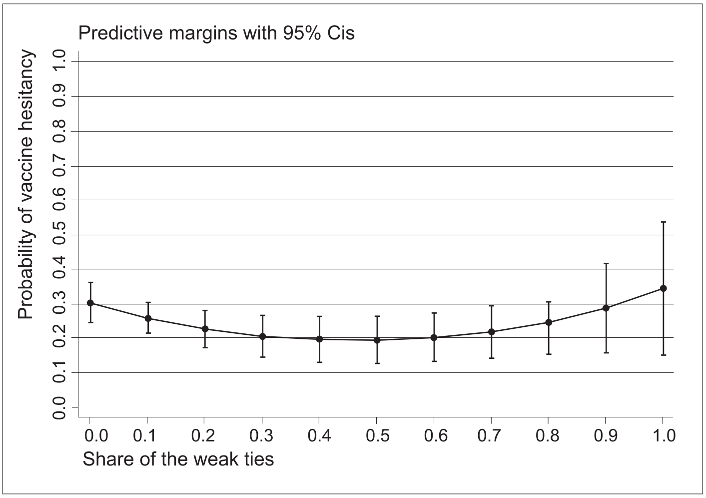
TABLE 3
Hierarchical logistic regression analyses for vaccine hesitancy (log-odds)

	(1) b (SE)	(2) b (SE)	(3) b (SE)	(4) b (SE)
Female (Ref: Male)	0.42 (0.25)	0.43 (0.25)	0.54* (0.25)	0.58* (0.25)
Age	-0.04*** (0.01)	-0.04*** (0.01)	-0.04*** (0.01)	-0.04*** (0.01)
Education level (Ref: High school)				
No high school	1.00 (0.53)	1.00 (0.53)	0.97 (0.56)	0.90 (0.59)
Higher education	-0.07 (0.24)	-0.06 (0.24)	0.02 (0.25)	-0.01 (0.25)
Been infected (Ref: No)	0.29 (0.36)	0.32 (0.36)	0.44 (0.37)	0.39 (0.37)
Social proximity to hospitalised and/or deceased (Ref: No)				
Yes, weak tie	-0.19 (0.26)	-0.18 (0.26)	-0.18 (0.26)	-0.21 (0.27)
Yes, strong tie	-0.77* (0.34)	-0.76* (0.34)	-0.81* (0.34)	-0.81* (0.34)
Network size		-0.05 (0.07)	0.07 (0.08)	0.05 (0.08)
Share of weak ties			-2.84* (1.26)	-2.70* (1.28)
Share of weak ties # Share of weak ties			3.05* (1.47)	2.95* (1.50)
Network heterogeneity: gender			-0.02 (0.61)	-0.17 (0.61)
Network heterogeneity: age group			-1.20* (0.61)	-1.27* (0.61)
Network heterogeneity: educ. level			-0.21 (0.55)	-0.23 (0.55)
The presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour (Ref: No)				1.03* (0.44)
Constant	1.01* (0.50)	1.15* (0.55)	1.39* (0.59)	1.48* (0.59)
Observations	420	420	420	420
AIC	462.7	464.1	464.2	461.7
BIC	495.0	500.5	520.8	522.3

Robust standard errors in parentheses; $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$

In the logistic regressions of the high risk assessment of COVID-19 (Table 4), none of the network heterogeneity measures nor the share of weak ties were significantly associated with perceiving the virus as an exceptionally grave danger (H2c, H3c).

➲ FIGURE 1
Adjusted predictions of vaccine hesitancy according to the share of weak ties



➲ TABLE 4
Hierarchical logistic regression analyses for Risk assessment of COVID-19 (log-odds)

	(1) b (SE)	(2) b (SE)	(3) b (SE)	(4) b (SE)
Female (Ref: Male)	0.52* (0.23)	0.52* (0.23)	0.53* (0.23)	0.52* (0.24)
Age	0.05*** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)	0.05*** (0.01)
Education level (Ref: High school)				
No high school	1.00 (0.55)	1.00 (0.55)	0.99 (0.53)	1.13* (0.51)
Higher education	-0.09 (0.23)	-0.11 (0.24)	-0.11 (0.24)	-0.05 (0.24)
Been infected (Ref: No)	-0.01 (0.38)	-0.05 (0.38)	-0.05 (0.39)	0.02 (0.39)
Social proximity to hospitalised and/or deceased (Ref: No)				
Yes, weak tie	-0.13 (0.25)	-0.16 (0.26)	-0.12 (0.26)	-0.09 (0.26)
Yes, strong tie	0.02 (0.31)	0.01 (0.31)	0.03 (0.31)	0.07 (0.32)
Network size		0.08 (0.07)	0.07 (0.08)	0.09 (0.08)
Share of weak ties			-0.53 (1.23)	-0.75 (1.25)
Share of weak ties # Share of weak ties			0.28 (1.49)	0.45 (1.53)
Network heterogeneity: gender			-0.18 (0.61)	0.00 (0.62)
Network heterogeneity: age group			0.84 (0.65)	0.85 (0.66)
Network heterogeneity: educ. level			-0.42 (0.56)	-0.34 (0.57)
The presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour (Ref: No)				-1.64* (0.71)
Constant	-3.48*** (0.55)	-3.75*** (0.60)	-3.90*** (0.67)	-4.12*** (0.69)
Observations	421	421	421	421
AIC	487.2	487.5	494.6	488.9
BIC	519.6	523.8	551.2	549.5

Robust standard errors in parentheses; $^*p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{***}p < 0.001$

On the other hand, high risk assessment of COVID-19 was significantly negatively and relatively strongly associated with the presence of alters who do not exercise protective behaviour (H4c), which was also found in the "noisy" sample; naming at least one alter who did not adhere to the measures meant about 80% less chance to assess the danger as exceptional (exp(-1.64) = 0.19).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Previous studies of COVID related communication reported the importance of personal networks in comparison to other sources of information, such as state authorities, science and health experts, news outlets, and social media. However, the aspect which remained insufficiently studied concerned the structure of the personal, non-virtual information sharing networks. In this research, we were interested in the effect of personal COVID-19 information-sharing network properties. The overarching question was to what extent the crucial aspects of risk-aversive behaviour – including adherence to epidemiological measures, intention to get vaccinated, and perception of the virus as exceptionally dangerous – are a network-mediated phenomenon. With this in mind, we sought to provide a more nuanced understanding of how behaviour in the context of the pandemic is shaped by horizontal social ties.

The size of the reported information-sharing network does not seem to be associated with any of the outcomes observed here. This lack of association is interesting and may indicate that a greater number of people with whom one communicates do not imply the greater probability of obtaining diverse information. This is partly in line with findings from Qu et al., 2023), as their research confirmed that the relationship between personal network size and information avoidant behaviour followed a U-shape curve. Similarly, previous findings from social support theory and research also imply that there is a curvilinear relationship between the network size and individual outcomes (KIm & Lee, 2011). However, what seems more important is the strength of ties and network heterogeneity.

As for the network characteristics, the share of weak ties was non-linearly connected to vaccine hesitancy, so those who personally shared COVID-19 information with both weak and strong ties were somewhat less likely to express vaccine hesitancy than respondents who communicated the topic mostly or exclusively with those they share either strong or weak ties. This does not conform to our expectations to the full extent. Also, this network characteristic did not turn associated with either adherence to epidemiological measures and recommendations or risk perception.

With respect to network heterogeneity, the pattern of effects varies regarding the observed outcome. The ego's adherence to epidemiological measures and recommendations is positively associated with education heterogeneity. Having all the alters with different education levels as opposed to having all the alters with the same education level meant on average about 1 point more on the index of adherence to epidemiological measures. This pattern being only the case with education heterogeneity, but not with age or gender heterogeneity of the discussion network, might be due to the education level being a stronger marker of societal distance, or the "bridging" characteristic of the social network, than the other two. However, only network heterogeneity with respect to age is associated with vaccination intent. This is not surprising as age is one of the key determinants of adverse outcomes from the COVID-19 infection.

Regarding behavioural homophily among the respondents participating in such networks, we found that if the network contains alter(s) not adhering to epidemiological measures and recommendations, the ego is substantially more likely not to be adhering to measures themselves, to be vaccine-hesitant, and not to perceive COVID-19 as exceptionally dangerous. Those findings, while expected and in line with previous studies that examine behaviour change with regard to the characteristics of personal networks (Valente & Pitts, 2017; Valente, 2015), are important as, in addition to demonstrating that attitudes and behaviour related to pandemics are a network phenomenon, they also suggest that it takes only one alter in the discussion network to make a difference. Though, the effects of the network characteristics remained robust after introducing behavioural homophily in the model, indicating an independent mechanism of action. In a context broader than the discussion networks, baseline models indicate that social proximity (strong ties) to someone who was hospitalised or deceased as a consequence of COVID was associated with the ego's higher vaccination propensity, but intriguingly no such association was found for their adherence to epidemiological measures and recommendations, or COVID-related risk assessment.

In light of the obtained findings, future research may benefit from exploring in more detail the effects of network structure, especially the effect of network closure mechanisms. In particular, transitivity is of special importance as it explains the creation of dense cohesive networks characterised by reciprocal relationships and mutual trust. In the pandemic context, this type of dense support network was identified as a special type of social capital – virus-combat social capital (Bian et al., 2020) which helps people deal with containment measures and prolonged stress. However, cohesive networks may also be more prone to spreading disinformation and, consequently, risky behaviour related to COVID-19. Besides that, future research may focus on complete networks instead of personal networks and thus explore the effect of different network metrics and positions in the network.

Funding

The research was funded by the Croatian Science Foundation via the project "The social resilience of Croatian society in the midst and aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic" (IP-CORONA-2020-04-2044). Ethical approval was given by the Institute for Social Research in Zagreb Ethics Committee (08/2020).

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

REFERENCES

Ahmadinia, H., Eriksson-Backa, K., & Nikou, S. (2022). Health-seeking behaviours of immigrants, asylum seekers and refugees in Europe: A systematic review of peer-reviewed articles. *Journal of Documentation, 78*(7), 18–41. https://doi.org/10.1108/JD-10-2020-0168

Ahmed, W., Vidal-Alaball, J., Downing, J., & Seguí, F. L. (2020). COVID-19 and the 5G conspiracy theory: Social network analysis of Twitter data. *Journal of Medical Internet Research, 22*(5), e19458. https://doi.org/10.2196/19458

Amiri, P., Moulaei, K., Bahaadinbeigy, K., Ghaemi, M. M., & Sheikhtaheri, A. (2022). The information-seeking behavior of medical sciences students toward COVID-19 in mass and social media: A cross-sectional study. *Health Science Reports, 5*(3), e648. https://doi.org/10.1002/hsr2.648

Ančić, B., & Cepić, D. (2021). Tko su antimaskeri u Hrvatskoj? Prilog istraživanju antimaskerske reakcije tijekom pandemije bolesti COVID-19 u Hrvatskoj [Who are the anti-maskers in Croatia? A contribution to the research on the anti-masker reaction during the COVID-19 disease pandemic in Croatia]. *Sociologija i prostor, 59*(219), 187–218. https://doi.org/10.5673/sip.59.0.7

Askelson, N. M., Campo, S., & Carter, K. D. (2011). Completely isolated? Health information seeking among social isolates. *Health Education & Behavior, 38*(2), 116–122. https://doi.org/10.1177/1090198110369055

Baker, L., McLeod-Morin. A., Rampold. S., Lindsey, A., Telg, R., & Ogelsby, M. (2022). Search, seek, share: A national survey assessing Americans' information channels and sharing behaviors during a pandemic. *Advancements in Agricultural Development, 3*(2), 62–74. https://doi.org/10.37433/aad.v3i2.219

Betta, S., Castellini, G., Acampora, M., & Barello, S. (2022). The effect of message framing on COVID-19 vaccination intentions among the younger age population groups: Results from an experimental study in the Italian context. *Vaccines, 10*(4), 559. https://doi.org/10.3390/vaccines10040559

Bian, Y., Miao, X., Lu, X., Ma, X., & Guo, X. (2020). The emergence of a COVID-19 related social capital: The case of China. *International Journal of Sociology, 50*(5), 419–433. https://doi.org/10.1080/00207659.2020.1802141

Blau, P. M. (1977). *Inequality and heterogeneity*. Free Press.

Bollen, K. A., Biemer, P. P., Karr, A. F., Tueller, S., & Berzofsky, M. E. (2016). Are survey weights needed? A review of diagnostic tests in regression analysis. *Annual Review of Statistics and Its Application, 3*(1), 375–392. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-statistics-011516-012958

Burt, R. S. (2009). *Structural holes: The social structure of competition.* Harvard University Press.

Campbell, E., & Salathé, M. (2013). Complex social contagion makes networks more vulnerable to disease outbreaks. *Scientific Reports, 3,* Article number 1905. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep01905

Cepić, D., & Tonković, Ž. (2020). How social ties transcend class boundaries? Network variability as tool for exploring occupational homophily. *Social Networks, 62,* 33–42. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socnet.2020.02.003

Chua, V., Madej, J., & Wellman, B. (2011). Personal communities: The world according to me. In J. Scott, & P. J. Carrington (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of social network analysis* (pp. 101–115). Sage. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446294413.n8

Cugmas, M., Ferligoj, A., Kogovšek, T., & Batagelj, Z. (2021). The social support networks of elderly people in Slovenia during the Covid-19 pandemic. *PloS One, 16*(3), e0247993. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0247993

Faccin, M., Gargiulo, F., Atlani-Duault, L., & Ward, J. K. (2022). Assessing the influence of French vaccine critics during the two first years of the COVID-19 pandemic. *PloS One, 17*(8), e0271157. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0271157

Fraser, T., & Aldrich, D. P. (2021). The dual effect of social ties on COVID-19 spread in Japan. *Scientific Reports, 11*(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-81001-4

Freeman, D., Waite, F., Rosebrock, L., Petit, A., Causier, C., East, A., Jenner, L., Teale, A. L., Carr, L., Mulhall, S., Bold, E., & Lame, S. (2022). Coronavirus conspiracy beliefs, mistrust, and compliance with government guidelines in England. *Psychological Medicine, 52*(2), 251–263. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291720001890

Granovetter, M. (1973). The strength of weak ties. *American Journal of Sociology, 78*(6), 1360–1380. https://doi.org/10.1086/225469

Harrison, D. A., & Klein, K. J. (2007). What's the difference? Diversity constructs as separation, variety, or disparity in organizations. *The Academy of Management Review, 32*(4), 1199–1228. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2007.26586096

Huang, J. (2022). *Rumor and conspiracy formation in post truth era under COVID-19. International Conference on Comprehensive Art and Cultural Communication (CACC 2022)* (pp. 146–150). Atlantis Press. https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.220502.032

Jo, W., Chang, D., You, M., & Ghim, G. H. (2021). A social network analysis of the spread of COVID-19 in South Korea and policy implications. *Scientific Reports, 11*(1), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-87837-0

Kadushin, C. (2012). *Understanding social networks. Theories, concepts and findings*. Oxford University Press.

Kim, J. & Lee, J. E. R. (2011). The Facebook paths to happiness: Effects of the number of Facebook friends and self-presentation on subjective well-being. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking, 14*(6), 359–364. https://doi.org/10.1089/cyber.2010.0374

Kovacs, B., Caplan, N., Grob, S., & King, M. (2021). Social networks and loneliness during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Socius, 7*. https://doi.org/10.1177/2378023120985254

Kwon, K. H., Pellizzaro, K., Shao, C., & Chadha, M. (2022). "I heard that COVID-19 was...": Rumors, pandemic, and psychological distance. *American Behavioral Scientist*. https://doi.org/10.1177/00027642211066026

Li, K., Li, J., & Zhou, F. (2022). The effects of personality traits on online rumor sharing: The mediating role of fear of COVID-19. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 19*(10), 6157. https:// doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19106157

Luo, H., & Ren, Y. (2022). Analysis of COVID-19 collective irrationalities based on epidemic psychology. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.825452

Matković, T., Ančić, B., Bagić, D., Bilić, P., Brajdić Vuković, M., Cepić, D., Puđak, J., Rodik, P., Šuljok, A., & Tonković, Ž. (2024). *Panel istraživanje stavova i iskustava stanovnika Hrvatske vezanih uz pandemiju bolesti COVID-19: Kako živimo u pandemiji?* [*Panel survey of attitudes and experiences related to the COVID-19 pandemic among Croatian residents: How do we live in a pandemic?*]. https://doi.org/10.23669/18WAHG, CROSSDA, V1, UNF:6:25h1yKGlbIpn99WDsus6/w=[fileUNF]

McPherson, M., Smith-Lovin, L., & Cook, J. (2001). Birds of a feather: Homophily in social networks. *Annual Review of Sociology, 27*, 415–444. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.27.1.415

Morales, D. X., Beltran, T. F., & Morales, S. A. (2022). Gender, socioeconomic status, and COVID-19 vaccine hesitancy in the US: An intersectionality approach. *Sociology of Health & Illness, 44*(6), 953–971. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9566.13474

O'Leary, L., Erikainen, S., Peltonen, L. M., Ahmed, W., Thelwall, M., & O'Connor, S. (2022). Exploring nurses' online perspectives and social networks during a global pandemic COVID-19. *Public Health Nursing, 39*(3), 586–600. https://doi.org/10.1111/phn.12994

Pfeffermann, D., & Sverchkov, M. (2007). Small-area estimation under informative probability sampling of areas and within the selected areas. *Journal of the American Statistical Association, 102*(480), 1427–1439. https://doi.org/10.1198/016214507000001094

Qu, Y., Saffer, A. J., & Austin, L. (2023). What drives people away from COVID-19 information?: Uncovering the influences of personal networks on information avoidance. *Health Communication, 38*(2), 216–227. https://doi.org/10.1080/10410236.2021.1944457

Quinn, K. G. (2020). Applying the popular opinion leader intervention for HIV to COVID-19. *AIDS and Behavior, 24*(12), 3291–3294. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10461-020-02954-7

Radey, M., Lowe, S., Langenderfer-Magruder, L., & Posada, K. (2022). "Showing everybody's true colors": Informal networks of low-income single mothers and their young children during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Children and Youth Services Review, 137*, 106479. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2022.106479

Salathé, M., & Bonhoeffer, S. (2008). The effect of opinion clustering on disease outbreaks. *Journal of Royal Society Interface, 5*(29), 1505–1508. https://doi.org/10.1098/rsif.2008.0271

Saraswathi, S., Mukhopadhyay, A., Shah. H., & Ranganath, T. (2020). Social network analysis of COVID-19 transmission in Karnataka, India. *Epidemiology & Infection, 148,* e230. https://doi.org/10.1017/S095026882000223X

Singh, K., Lima, G., Cha, M., Cha, C., Kulshrestha, J., Ahn, Y. Y., & Varol, O. (2022). Misinformation, believability, and vaccine acceptance over 40 countries: Takeaways from the initial phase of the COVID-19 infodemic. *Plos One, 17*(2), e0263381. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0263381

So, M. K., Tiwari, A., Chu, A. M., Tsang, J. T., & Chan, J. N. (2020). Visualizing COVID-19 pandemic risk through network connectedness. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases, 96,* 558–561. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2020.05.011

Valente, T. W. (2015). Social networks and health behavior. In K. Glanz, B. K. Rimer, & K. Viswanath (Eds.), *Health behavior: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 205–222). Wiley.

Valente, T. W., & Pitts, S. R. (2017). An appraisal of social network theory and analysis as applied to public health: Challenges and opportunities. *Annual Review of Public Health, 38,* 103–118. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-031816-044528

Wellman, B., & Wortley, S. (1990). Different strokes from different folks. *American Journal of Sociology, 96*(3), 558–588. https://doi.org/10.1086/229572

Westmoreland, D. A., Berry, A., Zimba, R., Kulkarni, S., Parcesepe, A., Maroko, A. R., Poehlein, E., You, W., Mirzayi, C., Kochhar, S., Robertson, M., Waldron, L., Grov, C., & Nash, D. (2021). *Spread and sources of information and misinformation about COVID-19 early during the pandemic in a US national cohort study*. medRxiv. https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.03.10.21252851

Yang, J. Z., Dong. X., & Liu. Z. (2022). Systematic processing of COVID-19 information: Relevant channel beliefs and perceived information gathering capacity as moderators. *Science Communication, 44*(1), 60–85. https://doi.org/10.1177/10755470211044781

Zhao, S., & Wu, X. (2021). From information exposure to protective behaviors: Investigating the underlying mechanism in COVID-19 outbreak using social amplification theory and extended parallel process model. *Frontiers in Psychology, 12,* 631116. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.631116

Zhao, Y., Zhu, S., Wan, Q., Li, T., Zou, C., Wang, H., & Deng, S. (2022). Understanding how and by whom COVID-19 misinformation is spread on social media: Coding and network analyses. *Journal of Medical Internet Research, 24*(6), e37623. https://doi.org/10.2196/37623

Kako osobne mreže utječu na pridržavanje epidemioloških mjera, namjeru necijepljenja i procjenu rizika od COVID-19?

Marko LUCIĆ
Ministarstvo rada, mirovinskoga sustava, obitelji i socijalne politike, Zagreb, Hrvatska

Dražen CEPIĆ, Željka TONKOVIĆ
Odjel za sociologiju Sveučilišta u Zadru, Zadar, Hrvatska

Teo MATKOVIĆ
Institut za društvena istraživanja u Zagrebu, Zagreb, Hrvatska

Od početka pandemije COVID-19 dokazana je povezanost pridržavanja epidemioloških mjera s informacijama razmjenjivanim kroz osobne mreže. Unatoč tome, malo je dokaza o efektima pojedinih obilježja osobnih mreža. Koristeći se podacima iz slučajnoga nacionalnog uzorka odraslih u Hrvatskoj (*N* = 765), ispitujemo odnos raznih obilježja osobnih mreža s trima zavisnim varijablama: procjenom općeg rizika od COVID-19, pridržavanjem epidemioloških mjera i namjerom izbjegavanja cijepljenja. Predlažemo "pandemijske diskusijske mreže" kao osobne mreže sačinjene od sugovornica s kojima ispitanice razmjenjuju informacije ili raspravljaju o pandemiji. Obrazovna heterogenost mreža pridonijela je pridržavanju mjera, a dobna heterogenost mreža pridonijela je sklonosti cijepljenju. Ove su povezanosti potvrđene neovisno o ponašajnoj sličnosti prema rizičnom ponašanju, koja je također utvrđena.

Ključne riječi: COVID-19, diskusijske mreže, demografska heterogenost mreža, cijepljenje, socijalni pritisak

https://doi.org/10.5559/di.33.2.06

THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN NATIONAL HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AND MEASURES AND CORRELATES OF NATIONAL HAPPINESS

Nina POLOŠKI VOKIĆ, Maja KLINDŽIĆ
Faculty of Economics & Business, University of Zagreb,
Zagreb, Croatia

UDK: 005.95/.96:17.022.1
Original scientific paper
Received: December 13, 2022

People's happiness has become a first-class political question, which urges both governments and organisations to create policies and practices aimed at improving people's happiness, one of which includes human resource management (HRM) practices. As studies exploring the association between country level HRM practices and national happiness on the academic level are scarce, especially empirical ones, the aim of this paper is exactly to address this gap. HRM data used in the study were collected through the Cranet 2014-2016 survey round and refer to 5,093 organisations operating in 27 countries on five continents. National happiness data, Cantril ladder indicator (CLI) as a measure, and six correlates of national happiness, were obtained from the World Happiness Report database. Findings suggest that HRM practices associated with the highest levels of national happiness include: using information technology (IT) recruitment platforms, recruiting based on potentials and not on present knowledge/skills, customised compensations, various work-life balance initiatives, and training and development primarily for career's and not employer's sake, which corresponds with younger workforce cohorts' preferences.

Keywords: subjective wellbeing, life satisfaction, happiness, national happiness, human resource management (HRM), CRANET

✉ Nina Pološki Vokić, Department of organization and management, Faculty of Economics & Business, University of Zagreb, Trg J. F. Kennedyja 6, 10000 Zagreb, Croatia.
E-mail: npoloski@efzg.hr

INTRODUCTION

Throughout history, happiness has been described as the natural goal of life (Eckhaus, 2017) and the ultimate end of temporal existence (Ng, 2015). The pursuit of happiness is, therefore, inherent to the human condition (Cordero et al., 2017), but the complexity of attaining happiness is bounded by the multitude of individual factors that influence happiness (e.g., Cordero et al., 2017; Diener et al., 2018; Dolan et al., 2008), such as age, religion, health, family, education, (un)employment or income (e.g., Blanchflower, 2021; Eastrlin, 2001). Moreover, happiness permeates both private lives of individuals (e.g., Diener & Chan 2011; Grant et al., 2007), as well as their job and career satisfaction (e.g., Edgar et al., 2015; Erdogan et al., 2012; Hagmaier et al., 2018; Joo & Lee, 2017). What is more, happiness has been promoted lately as a macro-economic concept which is now actively sought after by countries and their governments (Blackmann et al., 2010; Ralasic & Bogdan, 2018). In fact, measuring and keeping track of national happiness makes sense for many reasons, among which according to Diener et al. (2018) are at least three: it may reveal how various societal differences influence the quality of life in those societies, it has beneficial effects on health and behaviour, and citizens highly value it.

In order to create national policies that influence levels of happiness among people and countries, it is crucial to gain knowledge on different factors that could influence happiness (Ralašić & Bogdan, 2018), including work practices. As employment nowadays is central to people's lives, it is postulated that workplaces play a crucial role in attaining people's happiness (Gavin & Mason, 2004; Pluut & Wonders, 2020; Rego & Cunha, 2008). Managerial practices ranging from training and development to remuneration and performance appraisal are often designed with the explicit goal of improving work performance by increasing employee wellbeing (Grant et al., 2007), which then results in their increased overall life happiness (e.g., Erdogan et al., 2012; Newman et al., 2015). Organisations should nurture happiness because happy individuals are more likely to help their colleagues, be friendly, suggest improvements and volunteer for additional tasks (Warr, 2008). Additionally, happy individuals are more likely to be energetic, interested in their work and persistent in the face of difficulties compared to unhappy employees (Joo & Lee, 2017).

Despite the general consensus that the track of national accounts of happiness should be kept and used to improve policies and activities that affect people's lives (e.g., Diener et al., 2018), there is still a gap in understanding how different people management practices relate to happiness at national levels. There is ample research on the relationship between individuals' wellbeing and specific human resource management (HRM) practices, such as job design (e.g., Boekhorst et al., 2017; Song & Gao, 2020), elements of performance management systems (e.g., Edgar et al., 2015; Hagmaier et al., 2018; Pan & Zhou, 2013; Park et al., 2016) and internal communication (e.g., Sinčić Ćorić et al., 2020), or bundles of HRM practices (e.g., Kooij et al., 2013). However, contributions to the knowledge base on how HRM practices prevailing on a national level, such as HR planning, recruitment, selection, compensation, and training and development practices, can distinguish between more and less happy nations are in short supply. To the best of our knowledge, the only attempt to investigate the association between HRM practices and national happiness was the one of Blackman et al. (2010), who discussed the role of strategic HRM (SHRM) in the development of "Gross National Happiness" in Bhutan on the theoretical level. Therefore, our research question is: *Are certain HRM practices more strongly associated with national happiness than others?* As such, our research question is rooted in the comparative HRM theory – the field analysing HRM in the light of national, cultural and regional differences (Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012), and pertains to a less explored area of the association between HRM and national economic performance (Michie, 2019). On the one hand, scholars and practitioners need to develop a solid understanding of the contextual environment that has a critical impact on HRM in order to promote sustainable and mutually beneficial HRM practises (Brewster & Mayrhofer, 2012). On the other hand, HRM outcomes should be measured by their long-term impact not only on organisational effectiveness but also on individual and societal wellbeing (Beer et al., 2015). This argument is particularly strengthened by the fact that many governments are now taking a greater interest in the wellbeing of their nations – often conceptualised as happiness – and by the belief that a country's economic prosperity will continue to depend largely on how successfully HRM and related management practices are adopted and implemented throughout the economy (Allin & Hand, 2017; Michie, 2019).

To provide the answer to our research question, we conducted a secondary data analysis. Data on various HRM practices stems from the latest Cranet survey round (2014–2016), a large-scale, multi-time-point, cross-national survey of HRM (Parry et al., 2021), including 5,093 organisations (both private and public) operating in 27 countries on five continents. The national happiness data for each country in the sample was obtained from the World Happiness Report database for the same period. The associations between country level HRM practices, and one measure and six correlates of national happiness were explored.

HRM PRACTICES AS A SOURCE OF HAPPINESS

Defining happiness

Many authors use the terms subjective wellbeing, life satisfaction and happiness[1] interchangeably (Diener et al., 2018; Eckhaus, 2017; Joo & Lee, 2017; Ng, 2015). *Subjective wellbeing* (SWB) refers to the global evaluation of the quality of a person's life from his or her own perspective (Diener et al., 2018), and consists of three dimensions – the evaluative wellbeing, the positive and negative affect and eudemonic wellbeing (Eurofound, 2017). *Life satisfaction*, as the evaluative dimension of wellbeing (Eurofound, 2017), is the overall cognitive judgement of one's life, and represents the extent to which a person believes that his/her life is worthwhile or, in essence, 'good' (Diener et al., 1985). *Happiness* usually refers to a feeling or subjective state, i.e., serves as an emotional evaluation or assessment of life (Eckhaus, 2017; Eurofound, 2017). When differences in responses to questions about life satisfaction and happiness are analysed, evidence suggests that subjective wellbeing is a two-sided phenomenon – it has an evaluative or cognitive side (life satisfaction), as well as an experiential or emotional side (happiness) (Clark & Senik, 2011; Ludwigs et al., 2019; Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2013; Vinson & Ericson, 2014).

The advent of positive psychology has introduced the concept of happiness to wider audiences (Nemati & Maralani, 2016), not just at the individual level but at the level of organisations and whole nations as well. It has attracted the attention of researchers in psychology, sociology, philosophy, kinesiology and health sciences (Diener et al., 2018), as well as in economics where the new area of inquiry was named 'the economics of happiness' (Cordero et al., 2017; Dolan et al., 2008; Ralašić & Bogdan, 2018).

The operationalisation of national happiness

Compared to an individual's life satisfaction and happiness at work, *happiness at the national level* is explored less, but has started to generate more insights in the last couple of decades, fuelled by the relatively recent interest of economists to study and measure peoples' emotions and behaviour (Ralašić & Bogdan, 2018; Dominko & Verbič, 2019). What is more, as measures of subjective wellbeing are designed to capture subjective assessments of quality of life, those measures could be used to determine whether specific groups, regions or nations are flourishing or floundering (Diener et al., 2018), and consequently, policies could be designed to improve these indicators.

On a national level, so called "global measures" that "tend to encompass individuals' general life happiness … are probably the most represented modality of measuring happiness" (Tadić, 2009, pp. 318). They are usually designed in a form of one question/item and consequently do not demand a lot of the respondents' time, which makes them highly applicable for large-scale national and international research (Tadić, 2009), and because of which they are created, collected and delivered in the form of (annual) reports by supranational organisations/associations such as Eurofond, European Commission, European Social Survey Infrastructure, Eurostat, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), United Nations (UN) and World Values Survey Association.

In Eurofond's (2017) *The European Quality of Life Survey* established for monitoring and analysing quality of life in the European Union (EU), both life satisfaction and happiness are captured by one item. Both measures have remained generally stable over time in the EU overall (Eurofound, 2017). The European Commission addresses the quality of life in The Eurobarometer in two ways: (1) as time series indicators regarding the general judgment of living conditions and (2), intermittently, by including special topical modules on quality of life, particular life domains and related policies (Moschner, 2014). *The European Social Survey*, a methodologically robust cross-national data on wellbeing, includes a question related to wellbeing and a life satisfaction question, which are used for calculating the index as the average of two questions (ESS, 2015, 2021). Eurostat (2018) collects data on life satisfaction as a part of *The European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions* instrument which gathers timely and comparable cross-sectional and longitudinal multidimensional microdata on income, poverty, social exclusion and living conditions in the EU. The question of how to measure people's wellbeing and societies' progress has been addressed by the OECD as well (Durand, 2015), through the report called *How's Life? Measuring Well-Being* which is a part of the Better Life initiative – a statistical report released every two or three years that documents a wide range of wellbeing outcomes (OECD, 2020, p. 3). In The *World Values Survey*, that collected the longest available time series of cross-country happiness estimates that include non-European nations covering 82 societies in the 7th wave, respondents are asked a single question about happiness (Inglehart, 2020).

Finally, one of the most well-known indicators of national happiness, and the one used in the analysis presented in this paper, is the Cantril ladder indicator (CLI), a happiness indicator reported by the UN's Sustainable Development Solutions Network through the *World Happiness Report*, powered by data from Gallup World Poll and Lloyd's Register Foundation (World Happiness Report, n.d.). CLI asks respondents to evaluate their current life as a whole, using the image of a ladder, with the best possible life for them as a 10 and worst possible as a 0 (Helliwell et al., 2021). Although a subjective measure, CLI is an indicator listed and used often in the scientific literature and research (e.g., Choi et al., 2020; Helliwell, & Wang, 2014; Kahneman, 2013).

Considering the national level of analysis, many macroeconomic and social variables have been considered as correlates of happiness. A diversity of correlates gives economic policymakers, sociologists, managers and other decision-makers an insight into the overall picture of a nation's life (Ralašić & Bogdan, 2018). While there is a clear distinction between economic and non-economic correlates on the theoretical level, on the practical level most variables are interrelated. Amongst the most widely used economic correlates of national happiness, GDP per capita stands out (Cuijpers, 2009; Ralašić & Bogdan, 2018), while other social correlates, most notably those used in the World Happiness Report (Helliwell et al., 2019), include social support, healthy life expectancy at birth, freedom to make life choices, generosity, and perceptions of corruption.

The relationship between HRM and happiness

As mentioned, research on the role of prevailing HRM practices in a country in generating feelings of happiness at a national level is missing. However, the need of the human resource function to monitor its employees' subjective wellbeing levels has never been more called for (e.g., Eckhaus, 2017; Kooij et al., 2013), as research suggests that subjective wellbeing may be casually linked to more creativity and self-regulation, higher productivity on the job, as well as better citizenship behaviour (Diener et al., 2018).

At the same time, high-quality HRM practices, practices that integrate the organisations' overall HRM processes with business strategies (Einarsen et al., 2019), were revealed to be related to employee subjective wellbeing (e.g. Michie, 2019). For example, in the context of *job design*, according to Boekhorst et al. (2017), the quantity of work tasks or work intensity is negatively related to life satisfaction via emotional exhaustion. Okulicz-Kozaryn and Golden (2018) found that while "little flexitime does not increase happiness", substantial flexitime has a large effect on happiness, while Song and Gao (2020) found that compared to working in the workplace, bringing work home on weekdays is associated with less happiness.

Concerning *training and development*, a study conducted by Tang et al. (2020) showed that training is directly associated with happiness and indirectly associated with happiness via work-family facilitation. According to Ruggeri et al. (2020), it seems that individuals high in wellbeing exhibit more effective learning.

Regarding the relationship between *performance appraisal system* and life satisfaction, Edgar et al. (2015) showed that life satisfaction shares a significant, positive relationship with objective performance ratings, while attentiveness, a facet of positive affect, shares a significant positive relationship with subjective performance. According to Bakker et al. (2020), a good goal-setting process is recognised as one of the well-known approaches used to raise hedonic happiness.

The results on the relationship between *direct and indirect compensation* and subjective wellbeing are somehow mixed. Pan and Zhou (2013) propound that the effect of *salary* on happiness is significant for people with a middle level income, but not for people with low or high levels of income. Park et al. (2016) found that pay for performance enhances worker happiness in the private sector, but not in the public sector. However, regarding variable individual pay in a manufacturing setting, i.e., classic piece-rate setting, Oswald et al. (2015) provide evidence that happiness makes people more productive. Finally, benefits related to work-life balance have been found to be positively related to life satisfaction (Hirschi et al., 2016), especially because employees often wish to reciprocate which results in superior work outcomes (Haar & Roche, 2010).

Considering *career management* activities, in a study conducted by Mafini and Dlodlo (2014), promotion was found to be related to life satisfaction. A longitudinal study by Hagmaier et al. (2018) confirms the positive relationship between career satisfaction and life satisfaction, both within and across time. Interestingly, in a study conducted by Pan & Zhou (2013), the hypothesis about the relationship between career progress and happiness was not supported. This could be explained by the fact that people with a higher position have more responsibilities and face more stress, more complicated problems, and more difficult assignments, which can harm their chances for increased happiness (Pan & Zhou, 2013).

Finally, the study by Sinčić Ćorić et al. (2020) showed a very high, statistically significant correlation between *internal communication* satisfaction and life satisfaction, with the relationship being the strongest between life satisfaction and two dimensions of internal communication satisfaction – satisfaction with informal communication and satisfaction with communication climate.

Generally speaking, the results, although somewhat mixed, imply that by improving staffing and performance management practices, especially compensation system and development and growth opportunities, organisations contribute not only to employees' work and career happiness, but also to happiness with their lives in general (e.g., Joo & Lee, 2017).

METHOD

Data

For exploring the association between national HRM practices and national happiness, we used the cross-sectional Cranet[2] survey data collected between 2014 and 2016 (see Cranet, 2017) and World Happiness Report online database data for the same period (see Helliwell et al., 2019).

We used the Cranet database as a high quality HRM database (e.g., Berber et al., 2017), which is a result of the Cranet survey that has mapped HRM practices worldwide for more than 25 years (Christensen et al., 2019). The database covers world countries operating on five continents, with the organisation being the unit of analysis. Cranet methodology implies the use of a standardised questionnaire regarding HRM practices, capturing responses from the most senior HR manager in an organisation. The questionnaire consists of 62 closed-ended questions covering all HRM areas that are considered to correlate with firm performance (Gooderham et al., 2008) – general HRM characteristics, resourcing practices, employee development, compensation and benefits, and employee relations and communication, resulting in 338 HRM variables. For the present analysis, we used all questions from the database exhibiting a factual HRM practice in a binary way (0 = not present, 1 = present), precisely 18 questions forming 173 HRM indicators.

From The World Happiness Report online database, as a measure of national happiness, we used the Cantril ladder indicator (CLI). From the same database, as correlates of national happiness, we used six variables – log GDP per capita, social support, healthy life expectancy at birth, freedom to make life choices, generosity, and perceptions of corruption, following Helliwell et al. (2019), who used those correlates as factors associated with variations in happiness across countries (Besley et al., 2023). For all seven national happiness variables used, we calculated 2014-2016 averages, to make them correspond with Cranet data.

Sample

The sample was generated by matching the Cranet 2014–2016 database and the World Happiness Report database on the country level. Both HRM indicators and variables of national happiness were available for 27 out of 35 countries covered by the Cranet database. Table 1 depicts the size of national subsamples, covering 5093 organisations employing more than 200 employees (the organisation size needed for participating in the Cranet survey in some countries).

➲ TABLE 1
Size of national subsamples

Country	n	Country	n	Country	n
Australia	240	Germany	239	Russia	112
Austria	214	Greece	133	Serbia	81
Belgium	122	Hungary	151	Slovakia	119
Brazil	354	Italy	164	Slovenia	114
Croatia	155	Latvia	66	South Africa	100
Cyprus	49	Lithuania	86	Spain	98
Denmark	130	Netherlands	101	Switzerland	212
Estonia	51	Philippines	62	Turkey	143
Finland	176	Romania	204	USA	403

Data analysis

In order to reduce a large number of HRM variables (173) to a smaller set of underlying factors that account for the maximum portion of the variance represented in the original set of variables, we conducted a Principal components analysis (PCA) with varimax rotations. To be more definite when interpreting factors, we set the cutoff point, i.e. the factor loading, above the 0.63 level (see Comrey & Lee, 1992), implying that items belong to a 'very good' to 'excellent' category. We conducted the factor analysis procedure four times since items with factor loadings below the cutoff point were discarded from subsequent analyses. The final factor analysis resulted in 32 HRM factors covering 87 standard individual HRM practices, with Eigen values of at least 1 and explaining 74.18% of the total variance (rotated component matrix of HRM factors based on principal components analysis available upon request). The rotation converged in 8 iterations, with Barlett's test of sphericity being significant (p < 0.001), and the Kaiser--Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy being greater than 0.6 (KMO = 0.757), indicating that PCA was appropriate for the data. As factor scores are estimates of the values that would be produced if the underlying constructs could be measured directly (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014), we saved the resulting factor scores as regression variables and used them as continuous independent variables in the regression analyses, which is consistent with previous Cranet-based factor analyses (e.g., Gooderham et al., 2008; Stavrou et al., 2010). Precisely, as factor scores are considered helpful in further analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014), we used factor scores per unit of analysis (organisation) to calculate national averages per HRM factor.

As all assumptions of linear regression were met, including the sample size – as according to Hair et al. (2009) more than 20 observations are sufficing for multiple regression analysis – we used it for analysing associations between HRM factors (independent variables) and one measure and six correlates of national happiness (dependent variables). As we looked for the method showing a better overall model fit, we used the stepwise method, since because of their numerosity there was a need for reducing the set of predictor variables to those relevant.

Missing values were not included in the analyses, and data were analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics 23.

RESULTS

In line with our research question, our statistical analysis is focused on HRM practices associated with national happiness the most. Table 2 presents seven regression models for the association between country HRM practices operationalised by HRM factors, and national happiness operationalised by CLI and six correlates of national happiness, revealing significant HRM factors for each model.

TABLE 2
HRM factors significantly associated with national happiness measure and correlates, linear regression analysis (stepwise method)

	Measure/correlate of national happiness	Unstandardised coefficients B	SE	β	t
CLI (4 models)	(Constant)	6.142	0.090		68.415***
	Recruiting employees through social media (F11)	1.732	0.321	0.673	5.397***
	Selecting managers using technical and ability tests/work samples (F28)	-1.374	0.367	-0.475	-3.741**
	Selecting clericals/manuals using technical and ability tests/work samples (F29)	-0.692	0.277	-0.294	-2.497*
	Recruiting employees through vacancy page on company website (F14)	0.739	0.312	0.279	2.368*
	F-test value	16.803***			
	R^2	0.753			
	Adjusted R^2	0.709			
Log GDP per capita (2 models)	(Constant)	10.174	0.070		145.407***
	Training evaluation through job performance before and immediately after training used (F31)	-0.946	0.237	-0.571	-3.996**
	Managers' and professionals' self-appraisal (F21)	0.513	0.183	0.401	2.806*
	F-test value	12.515***			
	R^2	0.511			
	Adjusted R^2	0.470			
Social support (4 models)	(Constant)	0.862	0.008		111.638***
	Recruiting employees through vacancy page on company website (F14)	0.095	0.023	0.508	4.127***
	Stock options for clericals/manuals and professionals (F22)	-0.220	0.048	-0.617	-4.587***
	Selecting clericals/manuals using technical and ability tests/work samples (F29)	-0.091	0.022	-0.551	-4.098***
	Bonuses based on team goals for managers and professionals (F25)	0.070	0.023	0.386	3.075**
	F-test value	13.433***			
	R^2	0.709			
	Adjusted R^2	0.657			

(Continues)

(Continued)

	Measure/correlate of national happiness	Unstandardised coefficients B	SE	β	t
Healthy life expectancy at birth (4 models)	(Constant)	68.401	0.475		144.047***
	Training evaluation through job performance before and immediately after training used (F31)	-6.078	1.807	-0.419	-3.363**
	Managers' and employees' self-service of electronic HRM system (F26)	7.165	1.704	0.475	4.206***
	Written HRM strategy and substrategies (F13)	-6.152	2.264	-0.339	-2.718*
	Immediate supervisor appraisal for clericals/manuals and professionals (F2)	3.504	1.375	0.282	2.549*
	F-test value	15.168***			
	R^2	0.734			
	Adjusted R^2	0.686			
Freedom to make life choices (6 models)	(Constant)	0.737	0.015		49.148***
	Recruiting employees through social media (F11)	0.247	0.047	0.556	5.307***
	Selecting employees using references (F17)	0.150	0.041	0.369	3.621**
	Flexible benefits for all employees (F5)	0.127	0.034	0.366	3.688**
	Recruiting employees through vacancies in newspapers (F15)	0.107	0.031	0.352	3.483**
	Selecting employees using psychometric tests (F18)	0.096	0.037	0.258	2.558*
	Profit sharing for all employees (F6)	0.087	0.035	0.255	2.493*
	F-test value	14.467***			
	R^2	0.813			
	Adjusted R^2	0.757			
Generosity (3 models)	(Constant)	-0.034	0.021		-1.630
	Recruiting employees through social media (F11)	0.273	0.068	0.597	4.047**
	Parenting schemes (F8)	0.180	0.056	0.479	3.228**
	Flexible benefits for all employees (F5)	0.134	0.054	0.374	2.475*
	F-test value	8.428**			
	R^2	0.524			
	Adjusted R^2	0.462			
Perceptions of corruption (6 models)	(Constant)	0.763	0.021		36.199***
	Recruiting employees through social media (F11)	-0.232	0.073	-0.314	-3.164**
	Recruiting employees through vacancy page on company website (F14)	-0.375	0.074	-0.494	-5.084***
	Subordinate and peer appraisal for clericals/manuals and professionals (F4)	-0.170	0.073	-0.236	-2.335*
	Parenting schemes (F8)	-0.151	0.053	-0.249	-2.875**
	Selecting employees using psychometric tests (F18)	-0.148	0.061	-0.240	-2.440*
	Selecting clericals/manuals using technical and ability tests/work samples (F29)	0.134	0.061	0.199	2.183*
	F-test value	19.389***			
	R^2	0.853			
	Adjusted R^2	0.809			

Notes: *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$

All models presented in Table 2 are significant (all $p < 0.001$), accounting for 71 percent of the variance in national happiness measured through CLI, and 46 to 81 percent of the variance in national happiness measured through correlates of national happiness. The regression analysis showed that 18 HRM practices are statistically significantly associated with national happiness, with some of HRM practices being detected to be relevant for several variables of national happiness. Table 3 summarises either positive (marked '+') or negative (marked '–') statistically significant associations between HRM factors and variables of national happiness.

TABLE 3 HRM factors being significantly positively/negatively associated with measure and correlates of national happiness

	Measure/correlate of national happines							
Relevant HRM factors	CLI	Log GDP per capita	Social support	Healthy life expectancy at birth	Freedom to make life choices	Generosity	Perceptions of corruption	Times detected significant
Immediate supervisor appraisal for clericals/manuals and professionals (F2)				+				1
Subordinate and peer appraisal for clericals/manuals and professionals (F4)							–	1
Flexible benefits for all employees (F5)					+	+		2
Profit sharing for all employees (F6)					+			1
Parenting schemes (F8)						+	–	2
Recruiting employees through social media (F11)	+				+	+	–	4
Written HRM strategy and substrategies (F13)				–				1
Recruiting employees through vacancy page on company website (F14)	+		+				–	3
Recruiting employees through vacancies in newspapers (F15)					+			1
Selecting employees using references (F17)					+			1
Selecting employees using psychometric tests (F18)					+		–	2
Managers' and professionals' self-appraisal (F21)		+						1
Stock options for clericals/manuals and professionals (F22)			–					1
Bonuses based on team goals for managers and professionals (F25)			+					1
Managers' and employees' self-service of electronic HRM system (F26)				+				1
Selecting managers using technical and ability tests/work samples (F28)	–							1
Selecting clericals/manuals using technical and ability tests/work samples (F29)	–		–				+	3
Training evaluation through job performance before and immediately after training used (F31)		–		–				2
Number of factors significant for the measure/correlate of national happiness	4	2	4	4	6	3	6	

As visible from tables 2 and 3, higher national happiness as measured by the CLI is associated with a higher incidence of recruiting employees through social media and through vacancy pages on company websites, and not selecting managers and clerical/manual workers based on technical and ability test/work samples. Higher log GDP per capita is associated with greater use of self-assessment by managers and professionals, and less frequent evaluation of training based on job performance before and immediately after the training used. Higher social support is associated with a higher incidence of recruiting employees through vacancy pages on company website and the use of bonuses based on team goals for managers and professionals, and a lower presence of selecting clerical/manual workers based on technical and ability tests/work samples and the use of stock options for clerical/manual workers and professionals. Higher healthy life expectancy at birth is associated with greater use of self-service by managers and employees, and immediate supervisors' appraising clerical/manual workers and professionals, but lower presence of written HRM strategies and substrategies, and evaluation of training based on job performance before and immediately after the training used. Higher perception of freedom to make life choices is associated with a higher incidence of recruiting employees through social media and vacancies in newspapers, selecting employees based on references and psychometric tests, and offering flexible benefits and profit sharing. Higher generosity is associated with recruiting employees through social media and offering flexible benefits and parenting schemes. Finally, lower perceptions of corruption are associated with recruiting employees through social media and vacancy pages on company website, selecting employees based on psychometric tests but not technical and ability tests/work samples, using subordinate and peer appraisal for clerical/manual workers and professionals, and offering parenting schemes.

DISCUSSION

Theoretical implications

The quality of the working life initiatives from the second half of the 20th century onwards resulted in a growing and ongoing interest among scholars, practitioners and policy makers in finding ways to increase the wellbeing of not just individuals but of whole nations as well. No matter which of the popular constructs – subjective wellbeing, life satisfaction or life happiness – are in their centre of attention, substantial proof has been generated that the most prominent factors in shaping happiness are social and economic conditions (Vinson & Ericson, 2014). Consequently, as work life is fundamental in individuals' lives, practices employers apply in managing human resources certainly play a significant role in attaining happiness. However, although organisations have a notable role in the national socio-economic development (Michie, 2019) and people's lives, papers exploring factors of national happiness on the organisational level are almost non-existent and are called for. Our paper addresses this gap by examining the association between prevailing HRM practices in a country and the national happiness level. Therefore, our paper that explores this association using quantitative empirical data opens the discussion.

Our findings suggest that prevailing HRM practices in a country are associated with the happiness of citizens of that country. HRM practices found to have the strongest association with national happiness are: recruiting employees through social media and vacancy pages on company websites; selecting employees using psychometric tests but not selecting clerical/manual workers using technical and ability tests/work samples; offering flexible benefits and parenting schemes; and not using training evaluation through job performance before and immediately after the training used. Listed HRM practices considerably align with preferences frequently discussed as preferences of younger workforce generations (Zemke et al., 2000). Namely, they correspond with younger workforce cohorts' preferences for IT platforms as recruitment platforms, for being recruited based on their potentials and not on their present knowledge/skills, for customised compensations, for high levels of work-life balance, and for not being obliged to immediately pay back what was invested in them – as they believe that they are worth receiving training and development and that the training and development is primarily for their careers' sake and not for their employers' sake.

In terms of more specific HRM practices, greater consideration should be given to different employee motivation techniques. The association between flexible benefits and happiness levels might be explained by the fact that employee involvement in designing their own benefits programme can lead to the perception that employees can influence compensation policies and decisions (Armstrong, 2010; Michie, 2019). The importance of parenting schemes, as an integral part of work-life balance programmes stems from the well-established fact that work is not the defining role for all employees – non-work roles, including parental roles, can be at least as important as work-related roles. A philosophy that actively supports efforts to help employees succeed in both their business and personal lives therefore sends the message of organisational support and can lead to many positive outcomes, particularly work and life satisfaction (Newman et al., 2015). Finally, as training is often explained in terms of satisfying growth needs, which occurs when individuals have the opportunity to be fully who they are and realise their potential to become the best version of themselves (Armstrong, 2010), opportunities for personal development through training are therefore not only necessary to nurture talent and the ability to keep pace with the ever-changing and growing demands of the environment, but also an important or the most important motivator for certain categories of employees. However, our research suggests that higher levels of satisfaction can be expected when employees are assessed only after they have had sufficient time to learn new skills and apply them in the workplace. The study therefore contributes to this theme by identifying the more specific HRM practices that may be associated with higher levels of national happiness. All of these practices can be considered high-quality HRM practices, or more specifically – motivational and reward practices that employers can use to try and fulfil the higher-level needs of their employees.

Practical implications

Life happiness is nowadays a frequently explored concept as it is proven to be associated with various positive individual, organisational and country outcomes. Research has revealed that on the individual level it is associated with higher job and career satisfaction, better job performance, fewer health problems and longevity, and on the organisational level with higher levels of employee commitment, lower levels of employee turnover and better customer service (e.g., Diener & Chan 2011; Erdogan et al., 2012; Hagmaier et al., 2018). On the country level, national happiness is associated with higher income levels and higher GDP per capita (e.g., Easterlin, 2001; Ralašić & Bogdan, 2018). Consequently, organisations must bring to consciousness that employee life satisfaction is a mechanism for influencing the bottom line (Erdogan et al., 2012), and governments should be aware that people's happiness is a first-class political question (Ralašić & Bogdan, 2018).

In order to promote a higher level of national happiness, which can occur as a spillover effect of higher levels of individuals' life satisfaction, governments should foster, support and finance, and companies should introduce, maintain and constantly improve various 'happiness-generating' HRM practices (Michie, 2019). Our results suggest that governments should subsidise or co-finance the usage of IT platforms for delivering HRM activities and flexible work arrangements that enable a better work-life balance, as well as decrease tax burdens for companies offering flexible benefits, using merit-

-based pay, and providing financial participation to their employees. At the same time, in order to contribute to happiness of people in countries where they operate, companies should hire based on talents and not on competences, use multiple stakeholders while appraising employee performance in order to be as objective as possible, and treat employee development as a process that benefits their employees directly, themselves indirectly and ultimately their countries.

Research limitations and recommendations for future research

The main constraint of our study is the data limitation. The HRM data comes from a Cranet research, which uses a specific methodology of collecting managerial responses. However, despite the limitations of the Cranet survey, Cranet data enables the description and understanding of the developments in the area of managing people and labour relations across the world (e.g., Karoliny et al., 2009). The happiness data comes from the World Happiness Report database, which, excluding the objective happiness correlates used in our study – log GDP per capita and healthy life expectancy at birth – encompasses an indicator (CLI) collected through surveying citizens' perceptions. Moreover, a major theme has been the shift towards a multidimensional approach over reliance on single measures of wellbeing or economic proxies (e.g., GDP) (Ruggeri et al., 2020). However, the World Happiness Report is a landmark survey of the state of global happiness that ranks countries by how happy their citizens perceive themselves to be (Helliwell et al., 2019). Additionally, it shows how six correlates contribute to explaining national happiness (Helliwell et al., 2019), which enabled us not to rely on a single variable, but to use a multi-angle approach.

The next limitation of our research is that it is designed as a cross-sectional study. Namely, although the nature of Cranet database is longitudinal, data are not collected annually but in survey rounds every four to five years, which does not enable the identification of causal relationships when using this database. Moreover, although the World Happiness Report data are available for 156 countries, because of the scope of the Cranet database, our analysis is limited to 27 countries for which the HRM data was available (among which more than a third pertains to developed western countries and a third to the CEE region).

Consequently, future research, in order to verify our results, should use other national HRM and happiness databases, should use a longitudinal research design to examine the associations over time, as well as include a greater set of world countries that are more evenly distributed over the world.

Moreover, although the quest for happiness is universal (Rego & Cunha, 2008), according to Diener et al. (2018), subjective wellbeing depends on people's culture and values, and the context in which they live, which asks for research revealing cross-cultural differences in HRM practices that are associated with people's happiness.

CONCLUSION

The objective of our paper was to shed light on the association between prevailing HRM practices in a country and national happiness. Namely, individual HRM practices, such as learning opportunities and compensation practices, were found to be relevant for employee subjective wellbeing, while research including a national business systems approach is lacking, although a comparative HRM perspective adopts a 'broader' view of HRM practices by including national differences (Peltonen & Vaara, 2012). Our findings reveal not only that national happiness is associated with overall socially and institutionally embedded HRM practices, but also that tailored HRM practices and HRM practices that enable work-life balance can play a significant role.

NOTES

[1] The term happiness refers to happiness in life, i.e., life happiness, but the academic consensus is to use the term 'happiness' without the 'life' prefix.

[2] Cranet network is a collaboration between over 40 universities and business schools that has carried out a regular international comparative survey of organisational policies and practices in comparative HRM across the world since 1989. More about Cranet network and Cranet research at www.cranet.org.

REFERENCES

Allin, P., & Hand, D. J. (2017). New statistics for old? – Measuring the wellbeing of the UK. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, 180*(1), 3–43. https://doi.org/10.1111/rssa.12188

Armstrong, M. (2010), *Armstrong's handbook of reward management practice: Improving performance through reward*. Kogan Page.

Bakker, A, Burger, M., Oerlemans, W., VanHaren, P., & Veenhoven, R. (2020). Raise of happiness following raised awareness of how happy one feels: A follow-up of repeated users of the happiness indicator website. *International Journal of Applied Positive Psychology, 5*(3),153–187. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41042-020-00032-w

Beer, M., Boselie, P., & Brewster, C. (2015). Back to the future: Implications for the field of HRM of the multistakeholder perspective proposed 30 years ago. *Human Resource Management, 54*(3), 427–438. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21726

Berber, N., Morley, M., Slavić, A., & Poór, J. (2017). Management compensation systems in Central and Eastern Europe: A comparative analysis. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 28*(12), 1661–1768. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1277364

Besley, T., Marshall, J., & Persson, T. (2023). Well-being and state effectiveness. In J. F. Helliwell, R. Layard, J. D. Sachs, J.-E. De Neve, L. B. Aknin, & S. Wang (Eds.), *World happiness report 2023* (pp. 77–102). Sustainable Development Solutions Network.

Blackman, D., O'Flynn, J., & Mishra, D. P. (2010). Can strategic human resource management enable gross national happiness? *International Journal of Commerce and Management, 20*(3), 232–245. https://doi.org/10.1108/10569211011076929

Blanchflower, D. G. (2021). Is happiness U-shaped everywhere? Age and subjective well-being in 145 countries. *Journal of Population Economics, 34*(2), 575–624. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00148-020-00797-z

Boekhorst, J. A., Singh, P., & Burke, R. (2017). Work intensity, emotional exhaustion and life satisfaction: The moderating role of psychological detachment. *Personnel Review, 46*(5), 891–907. https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-05-2015-0130

Brewster, C. & Mayrhofer, W. (2012). Comparative human resource management: An introduction. In C. Brewster, & Mayrhofer, W. (Eds.), *Handbook of research on comparative human resource management* (pp. 1–23). Edward Elgar Publishing. https://doi.org/10.4337/9780857938718.00005

Christensen, J., Bévort, F., & Rasmussen, E. (2019). The Cranet Survey: Improving on a Challenged Research Practice? *International Studies of Management and Organization, 49*(4), 441–464. https://doi.org/10.1080/00208825.2019.1646491

Choi, G., Park, S. G., Won, Y., Ju, H., Jang, S. W., Kim, H. D., Jang, H. S., Kim, H. C., & Leem, J. H. (2020). The relationship between precarious employment and subjective well-being in Korean wage workers through the Cantril ladder scale. *Annals of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 32*(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.35371/aoem.2020.32.e11

Clark, A. E., & Senik, C. (2011). Is happiness different from flourishing? Cross-country evidence from the ESS. *Revue d'économie politique, 121*(1), 17–34. https://doi.org/10.3917/redp.211.0017

Comrey, A. L., & Lee, H. B. (1992). *A first course in factor analysis* (2nd ed.). Psychology Press.

Cordero, J. M., Salinas-Jiménez, J., & Salinas-Jiménez, M. M. (2017). Exploring factors affecting the level of happiness across countries: A conditional robust nonparametric frontier analysis. *European Journal of Operational Research, 256*(2), 663–672. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejor.2016.07.025

Cranet (2017). *Cranet survey on comparative human resource management – International Executive Report 2017.* Cranfield School of Management.

Cuijpers, R. (2009). *GDP and happiness – Gross national happiness, the new GDP?* (Master thesis). Erasmus School of Economics, Rotterdam.

Diener, E., & Chan, M. Y. (2011). Happy people live longer: Subjective well-being contributes to health and longevity. *Applied Psychology:*

Health and Well-Being, 3(1), 1–43. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1758-0854.2010.01045.x

Diener E., Lucas R. E., & Oishi S. (2018). Advances and open questions in the science of subjective well-being. *Collabra Psychology, 4*(1), 1–49. https://doi.org/10.1525/collabra.115

Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The Satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 49*(1), 71–75. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa4901_13

Dolan, P., Peasgood, T., & White, M. (2008). Do we really know what makes us happy? A review of the economic literature on the factors associated with subjective well-being. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 29*(1), 94–122. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joep.2007.09.001

Dominko, M., & Verbič, M. (2019). The economics of subjective well-being: A bibliometric analysis. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 20*, 1973–1994. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-018-0022-z

Durand, M. (2015). The OECD Better Life initiative: How's Life? And the measurement of well-being. *Review of Income and Wealth, 61*(1), 4–17. https://doi.org/10.1111/roiw.12156

Easterlin, R. A. (2001). Income and happiness: Towards a unified theory. *Economic Journal, 111*(473), 465–484. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-0297.00646

Eckhaus, E. (2017). Measurement of organizational happiness. In J. I. Kantola, T. Barath, & S. Nazir (Eds.), *Proceedings of the AHFE 2017 International Conferences on Human Factors in Management and Leadership, and Business Management and Society* (pp. 266–278). Springer International Publishing.

Edgar, F., Geare, A., Halhjem, M., Reese, K., & Thoresen, C. (2015). Well-being and performance: Measurement issues for HRM research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 261*(5), 1983–1994. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2015.1041760

Einarsen, K., Salin, D., Einarsen, S. V., Skogstad, A., & Mykletun, R. J. (2019). Antecedents of ethical infrastructures against workplace bullying: The role of organizational size, perceived financial resources and level of high-quality HRM practices. *Personnel Review, 48*(3), 672–690. https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-10-2017-0303

Erdogan, B., Bauer, T. N., Truxillo, D. M., & Mansfield, L. R. (2012). Whistle while you work: A review of the life satisfaction literature. *Journal of Management, 38*(4), 1038–1083. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311429379

ESS (2015). *Measuring and reporting on Europeans' well-being: Findings from the European social survey*. ESS ERIC.

ESS (2021). *Measuring Wellbeing* [EPub]. http://esswellbeingmatters.org/measures/index.html

Eurofound (2017). *European quality of life survey 2016: Quality of life, quality of public services, and quality of society*. Publications Office of the European Union.

Eurostat (2018, November 7). *How satisfied are people with their lives? Positive trend in subjective well-being*. Eurostat news release. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/2995521/10207020/3-07112019-AP-EN.pdf/f4523b83-f16b-251c-2c44-60bd5c0de76d

Gavin, J. H., & Mason, R. O. (2004). The virtuous organization: The value of happiness in the workplace. *Organizational Dynamics, 33*(4), 379–392. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2004.09.005

Gooderham, P., Parry, E., & Ringdal, K. (2008). The impact of bundles of strategic human resource management practices on the performance of European firms. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 19*(11), 2041–2056. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585190802404296

Grant, A. M., Christianson, M. K., & Price, R. H. (2007). Happiness, health, or relationships? Managerial practices and employee well-being tradeoffs. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 21*(3), 51–63. https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2007.26421238

Haar, J. M., & Roche, M. A. (2010). Family supportive organization perceptions and employee outcomes: The mediating effects of life satisfaction. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 21*(7), 999–1014. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585191003783462

Hagmaier, T., Abele, A. E., & Goebel, K. (2018). How do career satisfaction and life satisfaction associate? *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 33*(2), 142–160. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-09-2017-0326

Hair, J. F. Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2009). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Prentice-Hall International, Inc.

Helliwell, J., Layard, R., & Sachs, J. (2019). *World happiness report 2019.* Sustainable Development Solutions Network.

Helliwell, J., Layard, R., & Sachs, J. (2021). *World happiness report 2021.* Sustainable Development Solutions Network.

Helliwell, J. F., & Wang, S. (2014). Weekends and subjective well-being. *Social Indicators Research, 116*(2), 389–407. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-013-0306-y

Hirschi, A., Herrmann, A., Nagy, N., & Spurk, D. (2016). All in the name of work? Nonwork orientations as predictors of salary, career satisfaction, and life. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 95-96*, 45–47. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2016.07.006

Inglehart, R. (2020). *Subjective well-being rankings of 82 societies*. Retrieved February 21, 2021, from https://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/AJPublications.jsp?CndPUTYPE=2&PUID=59&CndPUTYPE=2&PUID=59

Joo, B.-K., & Lee, I. (2017). Workplace happiness: Work engagement, career satisfaction, and subjective well-being. *Evidence-based HRM, 5*(2), 206–221. https://doi.org/10.1108/EBHRM-04-2015-0011

Kahneman, D. (2013). *Thinking, fast and slow*. Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

Karoliny, Z., Farkas, F., & Poór, J. (2009). In focus: Hungarian and Central Eastern European characteristics of human resource management – an international comparative survey. *Journal for East European Management Studies, 14*(1), 9–47. https://doi.org/10.5771/0949-6181-2009-1-9

Kooij, D. T. A. M., Guest, D. E., Clinton, M., Knight, T., Jansen, P. G. W., & Dikkers, J. S. E. (2013). How the impact of HR practices on employee well-being and performance changes with age. *Human Resource Management Journal, 23*(1), 18–35. https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12000

Ludwigs, K., Henning, L., & Arends, L. R. (2019). Measuring happiness – a practical review. In Y. Kee, S. Lee, & R. Phillips, R. (Eds.), *Perspectives on community well-being* (pp. 1–34). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-15115-7_1

Mafini, C., & Dlodlo, N. (2014). The relationship between extrinsic motivation, job satisfaction and life satisfaction amongst employees in a public organisation. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 40*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v40i1.1166

Michie, J. (2019), HRM and national economic performance. In A. Wilkinson, N. Bacon, S. Snell, & D. Lepak (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of human resource management* (pp. 210–237). Sage. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781529714852.n27

Moschner, M. (2014). Eurobarometer. In A. C. Michalos (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of quality of life and well-being research*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-0753-5_930

Nemati, S., & Maralani, F. M. (2016). The relationship between life satisfaction and happiness: The mediating role of resiliency. *International Journal of Psychological Studies, 8*(3), 194–202. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijps.v8n3p194

Newman, A., Nielsen, I., & Hooke, A. (2015). Examining the relationship between workplace support and life satisfaction: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *Social Indicators Research, 120*(3), 769–781. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-014-0613-y

Ng, Y.-K. (2015). *Happiness, life satisfaction, or subjective well-being? A measurement and moral philosophical perspective*. Nanyang Technological University.

OECD (2020). *How's life? 2020: Measuring well-being*. OECD Publishing.

Okulicz-Kozaryn, A., & Golden, L. (2018). Happiness is flextime. *Applied Research in Quality of Life, 13*(2), 355–369. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-017-9525-8

Ortiz-Ospina, E., & Roser, M. (2013). *Happiness and life satisfaction.* Retrieved February 21, 2021, from https://ourworldindata.org/happiness-and-life-satisfaction

Oswald, A. J., Proto, E., & Sgroi, D. (2015). Happiness and productivity. *Journal of Labor Economics, 33*(4), 789–822. https://doi.org/10.1086/681096

Pan, J., & Zhou, W. (2013). Can success lead to happiness? The moderators between career success and happiness. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 51*(1), 63–80. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-7941.2012.00033.x

Park, S. M., Min, K. R., & Chen, C. (2016). Do monetary rewards bring happiness? Comparing the impacts of pay-for-performance in the public and private sectors. *International Review of Public Administration, 21*(3), 199–215. https://doi.org/10.1080/12294659.2016.1237092

Parry, E., Farndale, E., Brewster, C., & Morley, M. (2021). Balancing rigour and relevance: The case for methodological pragmatism in conducting large-scale, multi-country and comparative management studies. *British Journal of Management, 32*(2), 273–282. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8551.12405

Peltonen, T. & Vaara, E. (2012). Critical approaches to comparative HRM. In C. Brewster, & Mayrhofer, W. (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on*

Comparative Human Resource Management (pp. 69–89). Edward Elgar Publishing. https://doi.org/10.4337/9780857938718.00009

Pluut, H., & Wonders, J. (2020). Not able to lead a healthy life when you need it the most: Dual role of lifestyle behaviors in the association of blurred work-life boundaries with well-being. *Frontiers in Psychology, 11,* Article 607294. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.607294

Ralašić, T., & Bogdan, Ž. (2019). Sreća i ekonomska aktivnost [Happiness and economic activity]. *Ekonomski pregled, 69*(4), 350–395. https://doi.org/10.32910/ep.69.4.2

Rego, A., & Cunha, M. P. E. (2008). Authentizotic climates and employee happiness: Pathways to individual performance? *Journal of Business Research, 61*(7), 739–752. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2007.08.003

Ruggeri, K., Garcia-Garzon, E., Maguire, Á., Matz, S., & Huppert, F. A. (2020). Well-being is more than happiness and life satisfaction: A multidimensional analysis of 21 countries. *Health Qual. Life Outcomes, 18*(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12955-020-01423-y

Sinčić Ćorić, D., Tkalac Verčič, A., & Pološki Vokić, N. (2020). Does good internal communication enhance life satisfaction? *Journal of Communication Management, 24*(4), 363–376. https://doi.org/10.1108/JCOM-11-2019-0146

Song, Y., & Gao, S. (2020). Does telework stress employees out? A study on working at home and subjective well-being for wage/salary workers. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 21*(7), 2649–2668. https://doi.org/10.1007/S10902-019-00196-6

Stavrou, E. T., Brewster, C., & Charalambous, C. (2010). Human resource management and firm performance in Europe through the lens of business systems: Best fit, best practice or both? *The International Journal of Human Resources Management, 21*(7), 933–962. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585191003783371

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2014). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.

Tadić, M. (2009). Što mjerimo kada mjerimo sreću? Metodološki izazovi istraživanja sreće [What do we measure when we measure happiness? Methodological challenges in happiness research]. *Društvena istraživanja, 20*(2), 317–336. https://doi.org/10.5559/di.20.2.02

Tang, A. D., Chang, M. L., Wang, T. H., & Lai, C. H. (2020). How to create genuine happiness for flight attendants: Effects of internal marketing and work-family interface. *Journal of Air Transport Management, 87,* 101860. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jairtraman.2020.101860

Vinson, T., & Ericson, M. (2014). The social dimensions of happiness and life satisfaction of Australians: Evidence from the world values survey. *International Journal of Social Welfare, 23*(3), 240–253. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijsw.12062

Warr, P. (2008). Environmental "vitamins", personal judgments, work values, and happiness. In S. Cartwright, & C. Cooper (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational well-being* (pp. 1–82). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199211913.003.0004

Zemke, R., Raines, C., & Filipczak, B. (2000). *Generations at work: Managing the clash of veterans, boomers, xers, and nexters in your workplace*. AMACOM.

Povezanost između nacionalnih praksi upravljanja ljudskim potencijalima i mjera i korelata nacionalne sreće

Nina POLOŠKI VOKIĆ, Maja KLINDŽIĆ
Ekonomski fakultet, Sveučilište u Zagrebu, Zagreb, Hrvatska

Ljudska sreća postala je prvorazredno političko pitanje, koje potiče i vlade i poduzeća da kreiraju politike i prakse koje ljude čine sretnijima, a jedna od njih jesu prakse upravljanja ljudskim potencijalima (ULJP). Budući da su radovi koji istražuju odnos između praksi ULJP-a na razini zemalja i nacionalne sreće na akademskoj razini rijetki, posebno oni empirijski, cilj je ovoga rada upravo istražiti navedeni odnos. Podaci o ULJP-u upotrijebljeni u studiji prikupljeni su kroz ciklus istraživanja Cranet 2014-2016 i odnose se na 5093 organizacije koje djeluju u 27 zemalja na pet kontinenata. Podaci o nacionalnoj sreći, Cantril ladder indikator (CLI) kao pokazatelj i šest korelata nacionalne sreće preuzeti su iz baze podataka World Happiness Report. Nalazi upućuju na to da su prakse ULJP-a povezane s najvišim razinama nacionalne sreće: upotreba IT platformi za zapošljavanje, zapošljavanje na temelju potencijala, a ne na sadašnjem znanju/vještinama, prilagođene nagrade za rad, razne inicijative za usklađivanje privatnoga i poslovnoga života te obuka i razvoj u prvom redu zbog karijere, a ne poslodavca, što odgovara preferencijama mlađe radne snage.

Ključne riječi: subjektivno blagostanje, zadovoljstvo životom, sreća, nacionalna sreća, upravljanje ljudskim potencijalima (ULJP), CRANET

https://doi.org/10.5559/di.33.2.07

INTERDEPENDENCE OF HOTEL COMPANIES AND SELECTED ECONOMIC POLICY MEASURES

Maja BULJAT
University of Applied Sciences with Public Rights
BALTAZAR ZAPREŠIĆ, Zaprešić, Croatia

Daniel DRAGIČEVIĆ
Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management,
University of Rijeka, Opatija, Croatia

UDK: 338.487:339.13
640.412:336.22
338.23:640.412
Original scientific paper

Received: November 2, 2023

For hotel companies to operate successfully, it is important to react to the changes that are happening in the market. The method and form of valuation of companies in a market economy environment implies a thorough knowledge not only of the financial condition of these companies, but also of the means for their evaluation. The research was conducted on a sample of 208 hotel companies in Croatia from 2002 to 2018. The paper implements five models with different dependent variables that show the success of the company's business: profit, employment, income, assets and investments. The independent variables used in the model were corporate tax, exchange rate, contributions, tax and surtax, VAT rate on accommodation services, and average interest rate on loans, while the control variables were enterprise size and gross domestic product. For the sake of transparency in proving hypotheses, all hypotheses were tested through all five models using the econometric panel analysis method using the STATA software package. The results show that there is an interdependence between selected indicators of hotel companies and selected economic policy measures, but the hypotheses are only partially accepted.

Keywords: hotel companies, profit, exchange rate, tax, interest rate

✉ Maja Buljat, University of Applied Sciences with Public Rights BALTAZAR ZAPREŠIĆ, Vladimira Novaka 23, 10290 Zaprešić, Croatia.
E-mail: mbuljat@bak.hr

INTRODUCTION

The business environment represents a source of opportunities, dangers, and limitations for the company, but the company itself can rarely have some significant impact on the factors that are part of the business environment. In this environment, the state and state institutions play an important role, which affects companies in various ways.

The study of the factors that make up the economic and political-legal business environment is an integral part of the observation of the business environment whose *output* affects the result of the company's business. As a basic research *problem*, the question was raised about what the economic and political-legal business environment of hotel companies is and how they cope with the changes imposed on them through their instruments by economic policy. From this research problem, the *subject of research* is defined, which reads how selected economic policy instruments affect the business of hotel companies in the Republic of Croatia.

Based on the setting up of the scientific problem, subject, and object of research, the basic scientific hypothesis is defined:

H0: Which measures and instruments of economic policy of states affect the results of the business of hotel companies.

Government policies include measures that define the business environment of the company, which affects the performance of the company and competitiveness, but also the possibility of development, i.e., the investment potential of the sector. Government measures have multiplicative effects both on hotel companies and on all other activities related to these companies (retail, wholesale, agriculture, food production...). To prove the underlying hypothesis, auxiliary hypotheses are put forward:

P. H. 1: The increased tax burden of the company negatively affects the business of the company because it increases the price of labour, and the price of the offer of hotel accommodation and reduces the accumulated profit of the company.

Various factors, such as an increase in the VAT rate on accommodation services and an increase in taxes, surtaxes, and wage contributions, can modify the function of the offer, thereby changing the marginal costs. Variable costs of a product or service will rise if a tax is introduced. For this reason, the amount of the fee will be added to the marginal cost function of that product. If the product demand function has remained unchanged, the imposition of tax will result in an increase in price as the supply function will be reduced. The supply and demand of goods or services is affected by price changes. However, the price change does not necessarily affect supply and demand equally.

P. H. 2: The depreciation of the exchange rate has a positive impact on the sale of accommodation services, which results in a decrease in the number of employees and the possibility of investing in fixed assets.

Demand for a foreign currency declines as its price, i.e., the exchange rate, rises. Two impacts occur when the price of a foreign currency changes: the substitution effect and the income effect. The supply of foreign currency increases with the rise in the exchange rate. Exchange rate gains improve the income of each foreign currency owner in domestic currency. Given that the hotel sector is an export function, the depreciation of the HRK would increase the demand for hotel services because tourists would receive more HRK for each euro.

P. H. 3: The rise in interest rates negatively affects the business of the company because it reduces the possibility of investing in assets, reduces employment, and the possibility of better profitability of the business.

Investments are necessary for the growth of enterprises, and to finance them, enterprises most often borrow money, creating additional costs in the form of interest. Rising interest rates increase investment costs, which inevitably drives lower-income investors out of the market and reduces investment demand. On the other hand, lower interest rates result in more affordable investments, which encourages investment.

The application contribution of the paper is based on the conducted empirical research that, by modeling economic policy measures, can significantly affect the competitiveness of hotel companies on the world market.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Using data from Hawaii, Fuji et al. (1985) concluded that not all the burden of residence tax could be transferred to visitors. A study by Bonham and Gangnes (1996), also using data from Hawaii, investigated the ex-post effect of accommodation taxes in a time series study, similarly revealing that such taxes do not significantly reduce hotel revenues. By contrast, Hiemstra and Ismail (1992) concluded that much of the frequency of such taxes is absorbed by the hotel industry. Corthay and Loeprick (2010), based on surveys conducted in enterprises in several economies, show that most tourism participants consider taxes to be significant obstacles to business and investment. Do Valle et al. (2012) present evidence in their paper that tourist taxes could potentially be effective, although the way such fees are distributed can be an important factor in determining the willingness to pay such taxes. Lee (2012) found that residence taxes are essentially unfavourable for hotels in places where taxes are higher compared to other destinations. On the other hand, Hudson et al. (2021), in a survey conducted on eight destinations, found no significant evidence to suggest that increases in tax rates above those in nearby competing destinations may negatively affect business. Mills et al. (2019), using county-level data from the state of Florida, similarly claim that tourists are quite insensitive to prices in demand for hotel rooms. A study conducted by Crouch et al. (2019) suggests that as persons become more experienced in event planning, concern surges about a broader set of attributes, including cost, in the process of choosing a destination. By contrast, pass-by travellers could be expected to be less experienced in buying accommodation and therefore hotels are more likely to transfer the tax burden to them. The results of the Sharma et al. (2022) survey indicate that residence taxes hurt hotel occupancy, while the Hudson et al. survey (2021) concludes that tax increases do not show a major impact on the business of hotel companies. Similarly, Swenson (2022) states that taxes have a negligible impact on hotel sales and employment. On the other hand, hotels/motels operating in cities with higher tax rates had greater financial stress in terms of lower credit ratings. Mazzola (2021) argues that tax policies help create jobs, generate revenue and overall economic growth by providing incentives for business development. Taxation, investment decisions, business development and economic growth are intertwined. Favourable tax policies that encourage investment and business development can help boost economic growth by promoting investment, increasing productivity, creating employment opportunities and supporting innovation. Policymakers must devise tax policies that balance income generation and stimulate investment and business development, ensuring long-term economic growth and prosperity (Raihan et al., 2022). Favourable tax policies can encourage companies to invest in research and development, innovation and expansion, resulting in increased productivity and competitiveness. Furthermore, tax policies can affect consumer behaviour by affecting disposable income, purchasing power and savings rates, affecting consumption patterns and aggregate demand (Atichasari & Marfu, 2023).

The first attempt to measure the impact of exchange rate fluctuations on tourism revenues was made by Gerakis (1965). His results show that Canada experienced a relatively modest growth in tourism earnings after the depreciation of the national currency. Corgel and Gibson (2005) use a time series simulation to compare hotel and industry revenues per available room (RevPAR) to London's interbank bid rate (LIBOR) using data from 1987 to 2004. The study found that LIBOR and RevPAR changes were strongly correlated, suggesting the interrelationship between RevPAR and variable interest rates. According to Dritsakis (2004), there is a two-way causality between revenues from international tourism and economic development. According to Khanalizadeh & Ranjandish (2019), the elasticity of income suggests that tourism is a non-luxury commodity, and prices and the real exchange rate are negatively correlated with tourist arrivals. Seetaram (2012) applied a dynamic cointegration data technique for those arriving in Australia from ten major markets and found that tourism demand is resilient in the long run to changes in revenues, real exchange rates, and prices. In his research on the demand of tourists from Switzerland for overnight stays in western Austrian ski resorts, Falk (2015) found that exchange rates between the currencies of the two countries are an important factor in tourist demand for Austria. Similarly, Karimi et al. (2015), based on research, conclude that inflation and the real exchange rate have negative relations with international tourism demand. The exchange rate affects not only hotel demand but also tourist arrivals, and thus wider tourist consumption (Aalen et al. 2019). Generalised methods of system moments evaluated by both Vítová et al. (2019) have shown that in order to attract tourists to a particular country, it is very important to maintain a relatively stable exchange rate. Doytch and Nguyen (2023) concluded that economic growth, the depreciation of the currency used in the destination country and the openness of trade are positively linked to tourism's foreign direct investment. According to Rookayyah et al. (2024), in the long term, both the exchange rate and its volatility have negative and significant impacts on tourism demand and corporate revenues.

Gu (1995) concludes that the interest rate influences decisions on tourist spending when it comes to activities that require the separation of significant financial resources and leisure time. High-interest rates discourage tourist travel, while low ones encourage them. Modern investment theory suggests that the decision to invest is, ultimately, a decision on spending costs (Levy & Sarnat, 1984). In his research, Dragičević (2013) explores the effects of interest rate change on the position of hotel companies and states that the increase in interest rates affects demand in a way that discourages consumption and stimulates savings. The decline in consumption will reduce the income of the company, worsen its economic position and indirectly jeopardise the position of consumers (employment reduction). The state can assist companies operating in the tourism sector through direct subsidies or reduced VAT on tourism activities, which also has a positive impact on business profitability (Agiomirgianakis et al., 2013). According to Sumidartini (2017), interest rates do not significantly affect tax revenues. This happens because interest rates do not cause an increase or decrease in operating costs so they do not affect profits and tax revenues. According to Sari & Baskara (2018), interest rates can affect foreign investment because the increased interest rate occurs due to a decrease in investment and vice versa. Demertzis and Viegi (2021) believe that low interest rates were linked to a decline in productivity even in the period between the global financial crisis and the pandemic crisis, and even before the global financial crisis. However, the decline in productivity runs counter to the technological progress achieved, and the lack of real economic financing will continue to be an important factor of pressure to cut interest rates.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Variables were analysed by descriptive statistics over collected data on selected variables in the period from 2002 to 2018. The subjects of the research are micro, small, medium, and large hotel companies from the group "Hotels and Similar Accommodation" in the Republic of Croatia. Companies submitted annual financial statements throughout the observed period and were in the tax system. The sample size consisted of 208 enterprises.

After conducting the research part of various scientific studies, for this research work, the most suitable variables were selected to confirm the hypotheses and determine the interdependence of selected economic policy measures and their impact on the business of hotel companies in Croatia. The paper conducted five models of panel analysis with different dependent variables that show the company's performance and the same independent variables.

Dependent variables:
- Total revenue (TR)
- Employees (Emp)
- Profit (Prof)
- Assets (Ass)
- Investments (I)

Independent variables used in panel analysis:
- Corporate income tax (Ln_Inc_tax)
- Exchange rate (Exc)
- Contributions, tax, and surtax (Ln_L_tax)
- VAT rate on accommodation services (VATa)
- Average interest rate on loans (i)

Control variables selected:
- Gross domestic product (Ln_Y)
- Instead of the company size variable, additional dummy variables were introduced – formula (Mic), medium-sized enterprises (Med), and large enterprises (Lar)

Due to the large ranges in amounts in which variables were expressed and the appearance of absolute and relative values among variables, some variables had to be logarithmed. After the logarithms were carried out, the model became more transparent, and the level of statistical significance among the variables was stronger and better.

Furthermore, Table 1 shows descriptive statistics of all the aggregate variables that are covered by the model. This analysis shows the application of statistical indicators to the selected data set with the aim of determining and displaying the movement of values of the observed variables in the model. Within the descriptive statistics for each variable, the maximum, minimum, and mean values of the dataset, standard deviation, and a number of observations are most often analysed.

TABLE 1
Descriptive statistics of variables used in the model

Variable	Observations	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
TR	3,536	17,300,000	50,900,000	0	1,170,000,000
Emp	3,536	44.13	110.07	0	2,017
Prof	3,536	2,006,460	10,800,000	0	308,000,000
Ass	3,536	70,700,000	190,000,000	9,212	3,020,000,000
I	3,536	1,846,706	12,600,000	0	390,000,000
Ln_Inc_tax	3,536	17.43	0.30	0	17.92
Exc	3,536	7.44	0.11	7.22	7.63
VATa	3,536	8.53	4.90	0	13.00
Ln_L_tax	3,536	10.92	4.08	0	17.98
I	3,536	6.36	1.15	3.47	7.71
Mic	3,536	0.09	0.29	0	1
Sm	3,536	0.72	0.45	0	1
Med	3,536	0.15	0.36	0	1
Lar	3,536	0.04	0.19	0	1
Ln_y	3,536	12.64	0.17	12.24	12.86

The value of total revenues in the observed period ranged from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of HRK 1,170,000,000. The number of employees tended to grow steadily and in the last year of observation amounted to a maximum of 2017 employees in hotel companies. The average profit generated from 2002 to 2018 was HRK 2,006,460. Investments averaged HRK 1,846,706, while average interest rates on loans range from 3.465% to 7.705%.

Methodology

Before conducting the panel analysis, multicollinearity among the data was checked. To detect multicollinearity, variance impact factors (VIF) were calculated for all independent variables. Based on the results shown in Table 2, it was concluded that the VIF values for all variables are less than ten and that multicollinearity is not a problem.

➲ TABLE 2
Results of multicollineation testing between selected economic policy measures used in the model

Variable	VIF	1/VIF
Y	8.41	0.118873
VATa	7.65	0.130642
I	1.89	0.529679
Mic	1.66	0.601900
L_tax	1.35	0.740246
Med	1.22	0.819987
Exc	1.12	0.889910
Lar	1.12	0.893929
Inc_tax	1.00	0.995219
Mean VIF	2.83	

The model was then tested for possible irregularities: testing the model for heteroskedasticity was carried out using a modified Wald test; cross-correlation testing of the model was carried out using the Pesaran test.

The heteroskedasticity problem was removed by using the "robust" command to obtain standard errors of robust heteroscedasticity known as Huber/White or *sandwich estimators*. The problem of autocorrelation was eliminated using robust errors.

Based on all the tests conducted, a model of panel analysis with a fixed effect was selected. One of the basic assumptions on which the model of individual fixed effects is based is that individual effects, which are included in free members, are unknown and fixed parameters, i.e., free members of the model are variable, with fixed values in different units of observation, while individual effects are fixed parameters. On the other hand, in a model with fixed individual and weather effects, the free members vary by both units of observation and by periods taking fixed values. One of the advantages of this model over the others is that differences within the observation unit are considered, that is, in this research of differences within the enterprise.

First model: Interdependence of selected economic policy measures and total revenues of hotel companies

The results of the model of interdependence of selected components of economic policy and total revenues are as follows:

• The corporate income tax variable (*Ln_Inc_tax*) has been shown to be statistically significant and has a negative impact on the total revenue of hotel companies. The increase in Ln_Inc_tax by 1% according to the model will reduce total revenues (TR) by -40,627.82 HRK.

➲ TABLE 3
Results of panel analysis of the interdependence of selected economic policy measures and total revenues of hotel companies – fixed effect model

Dependent variable: Total revenue (TR)	Coefficient	Robust standard errors	*p* > t
Ln_Inc_tax	-4,062,782	715,522.1	0.000***
Exc	5,678,669	2,775,710	0.042***
VATa	540,424.90	188296.2	0.005***
Ln_L_tax	710,325.20	161,617	0.000***
I	-3,433,602	1,057,445	0.001***
Mic	12,300,000	3,504,023	0.001***
Med	20,100,000	3,616,696	0.000***
Lar	88,800,000	20,700,000	0.001***
Ln_Y	4,292,148	4,181,823	0.306
_cons	-4,178,716	54,400,000	0.939
Number of observations 3,536			
Number of groups 208			

Notes: $^*p < 0.1$, $^{**}p < 0.05$, $^{***}p < 0.01$; values in parentheses are corrected (robust) standard errors.

- The exchange rate variable *(Exc)* has a positive and statistically significant impact on the total revenue of hotel companies. According to the model, the increase in Exc by HRK 1 will increase the total revenue (TR) by HRK 5,678,669.
- The variable VAT rates on accommodation services (*VATa*) have a positive and statistically significant impact. Increase VATa will increase revenue (TR) by HRK 540,424.90 according to the model.
- The variable tax, surtax, and contributions from salary (*Ln_L_tax*) have a positive and statistically significant impact on income. The increase in the Ln_L_tax variable by 1% will, according to the model, increase revenue (TR) by HRK 7,103.25.
- The variable average interest rate on *loans* (*s*) has a negative and statistically significant impact on income. The increase by 1 percentage point will, according to the model, reduce revenue (TR) by -3,433,602 HRK.
- Dummy variables show that enterprise size has an impact on the overall revenue of hotel enterprises. The larger the enterprise, the higher the company's revenues. The total revenues of micro-enterprises (*Mic*) decreased by HRK 12,300,000 compared to small enterprises. Furthermore, the total revenues of large enterprises (*Lar*) increased by HRK 88,800,000 compared to small enterprises.
- The GDP *variable* (*Ln_y*) has no statistically significant impact.

Second model: Interdependence of selected measures of economic policy and employment in hotel enterprises

The results of the model of interdependence of selected components of economic policy and employment in hotel companies are as follows:

➲ TABLE 4 Results of panel analysis of the interdependence of selected measures of economic policy and employment in hotel companies – fixed effect model

Dependent variable: Employment (Emp)	Coefficient	Robust standard errors	$p > t$
Ln_Inc_tax	-9.96	1.61	0.000***
Exc	-7.86	5.79	0.176
VATa	1.27	0.39	0.001***
Ln_L_tax	2.51	0.44	0.000***
i	-2.40	1.43	0.095*
Mic	-6.52	4.36	0.136
Med	49.56	8.33	0.000***
Lar	212.60	43.89	0.000***
Ln_Y	-30.91	11.59	0.008***
_cons	629.26	162.32	0.000

Number of observations 3,536
Number of groups 208

Notes: *$p < 0.1$, **$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.01$; values in parentheses are corrected (robust) standard errors.

• The corporate income tax *variable (Ln_Inc_tax)* has been shown to be statistically significant and has a negative impact on employment. An increase in Ln_Inc_tax by 1% under the model will reduce employment (Emp) by 0.09964 employees.

• The exchange rate *variable (Exc)* has no statistically significant impact.

• The VAT rate variable on accommodation *services (VATa)* has a positive and statistically significant impact on employment. An increase in VAT by 1 percentage point according to the model will increase employment (Emp) by 1.270739 employees.

• The variable tax, surtax, and contributions from salary (*Ln_L_tax*) have a positive and statistically significant impact on employment. An increase in the variable Ln_L_tax by 1% according to the model will increase employment (Emp) by 0.025127 employees.

• The variable average interest rate on loans (*i*) has a negative and marginally significant impact on employment. An increase of 1 percentage point according to the model will reduce employment (Emp) by 2.402942 employees.

• *Mic* enterprises have not shown statistically significant impact on employment (Emp). Furthermore, *Lar* and *Med* proved to be significant and statistically significant in the model. The larger the enterprise, the higher the employment compared to small enterprises. Medium-sized enterprises have 49.55932 more employees compared to small businesses, while large enterprises have 212,5956 more employees compared to small businesses.

• The GDP *variable (Ln_y)* has a negative and statistically significant impact on employment. Growth y of 1% according to the model will also reduce employment (Emp) by 0.3091341 employees.

Third model: Interdependence of selected measures of economic policy and profit in hotel enterprises

The results of the model of interdependence of selected components of economic policy and profits of hotel companies are as follows:

➲ TABLE 5
The results of the panel analysis of the interdependence of selected economic policy measures and profits of hotel companies – a fixed-effect model

Dependent variable: Profit (Prof)	Coefficient	Robust standard errors	$p > t$
Ln_Inc_tax	-4,280,171	393,645.3	0.000***
Exc	2,235,079	803,332.8	0.006***
VATa	33,625.94	51,934.31	0.518
Ln_L_tax	21,616.86	26,278.27	0.412
I	-1,200,422	365,291.9	0.001***
Mic	-3,685,911	1,053,719	0.001***
Med	2,692,748	644,627.3	0.000***
Lar	4,911,459	5,781,643	0.397
Ln_Y	2,087,467	1,493,407	0.164
_cons	40,500,000	17,900,000	0.025

Number of observations 3,536
Number of groups 208

Notes: $^{*}p < 0.1$, $^{**}p < 0.05$, $^{***}p < 0.01$; values in parentheses are corrected (robust) standard errors.

• The variable corporate income *tax (Ln_Inc_tax)* has been shown to be statistically significant and has a negative impact on the profits of hotel companies. An increase in Ln_Inc_tax by 1% according to the model will reduce profit (Prof) by HRK 42,801.71.

• The variable exchange rate (*Exc*) has a positive and statistically significant impact on profits. Increasing Exc by 1 HRK according to the model will increase profit (Prof) by 2,235,079 HRK.

• The variable VAT rates on accommodation *services (VATa)* have no statistically significant impact.

• The variable tax, surtax, and contributions from salary (*Ln_L_tax*) have no statistically significant impact.

• The variable average interest rate on loans (*s*) has a negative and statistically significant impact on profits. An increase of 1 percentage point according to the model will reduce profit (Prof) by HRK 1,200,422.

• *Lar* enterprises have not proved to be statistically significant for profit (Prof). Furthermore, *Med* proved to be both significant and statistically significant in the model. Micro enterprises generate 3,685,911 fewer profits compared to small businesses, while medium-sized enterprises generate 2,692,748 more profits compared to small businesses.

• The GDP variable (*Ln_y*) has no statistically significant impact.

Fourth model: Interdependence of selected measures of economic policy and assets in hotel enterprises

The results of the model of interdependence of selected components of economic policy and assets are as follows:

➲ TABLE 6
Results of panel analysis of the interdependence of selected measures of economic policy and assets of hotel companies – fixed effect model

Dependent variable: Assets (Ass)	Coefficient	Robust standard errors	*p* > t
Ln_Inc_tax	-15,600,000	1,523,066	0.000***
Exc	6,293,485	10,000,000	0.531
VATa	1,727,133	577,127.7	0.003***
Ln_L_tax	2,076,109	636,779.2	0.001***
i	-7,849,083	3,536,856	0.028**
Mic	-38,200,000	10,200,000	0.000***
Med	52,300,000	13,800,000	0.000***
Lar	166,000,000	68,100,000	0.015**
Ln_Y	45,200,000	15,800,000	0.005***
_cons	-275,000,000	228,000,000	0.230

Number of observations 3,536
Number of groups 208

Notes: *p < 0.1, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01; values in parentheses are corrected (robust) standard errors.

• The variable corporate income *tax (Ln_Inc_tax)* has been shown to be statistically significant and has a negative impact on the assets of hotel companies. An increase in Ln_Inc_tax by 1% according to the model will reduce assets (Ass) by 156,000 HRK.

• The exchange rate variable (*Exc*) has no statistically significant impact.

• The vat rate variable on accommodation services (*VATa*) has a positive and statistically significant impact on assets. An increase in VAT by 1 percentage point according to the model will increase assets (Ass) by HRK 1,727,133.

• The variable tax, surtax, and contributions from salary (*Ln_L_tax*) have a positive statistically significant impact on assets. An increase in the variable Ln_L_tax by 1% according to the model will increase assets (Ass) by HRK 20,701.09.

• The variable average interest rate on loans (*s*) has a negative and statistically significant impact on assets. An increase of 1 percentage point according to the model will reduce assets (Ass) by -7,849,083 HRK.

• Dummy variables show that enterprise size has an impact on the assets of hotel businesses. The larger the enterprise, the larger the assets of the enterprise. The total assets of micro-enterprises (*Mic*) are reduced by HRK 38,200,000 compared to small enterprises. Furthermore, the total assets of large enterprises (*Lar*) increased by HRK 166,000,000 compared to small enterprises.

• The GDP *variable (Ln_y)* has a positive and statistically significant impact on the assets of hotel enterprises. An increase of y by 1% according to the model will increase assets (Ass) by 452,000 HRK.

Fifth model: Interdependence of selected economic policy measures and investments in hotel companies

The results of the model of interdependence of selected components of economic policy and investment are as follows:

➲ TABLE 7
The results of the panel analysis of the interdependence of selected measures of economic policy and investments of hotel companies – a model with a fixed effect

Dependent variable: Investments (I)	Coefficient	Robust standard errors	*p* > t
Ln_Inc_tax	1,482,905	165,685	0.000***
Exc	-7,115,354	2,909,577	0.015**
VATa	285,252.7	165,692.6	0.087*
Ln_L_tax	122,550.6	66,684.4	0.068*
i	-1,221,880	324,204.5	0.000***
Mic	-1,009,038	565,609	0.076*
Med	-3,160,328	1,984,918	0.113
Lar	-1,796,997	4,548,335	0.693
Ln_Y	-17,000,000	5,766,962	0.004***
_cons	248,000,000	5,766,962	0.004

Number of observations 3,536
Number of groups 208

Notes: *$p < 0.1$, **$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.01$; values in parentheses are corrected (robust) standard errors.

• The variable corporate income tax (*Ln_Inc_tax*) has been shown to be statistically significant and has a positive impact on investments. An increase in Ln_Inc_tax by 1% according to the model will increase investments (I) by HRK 14,829.05.

- The exchange rate variable (*Exc*) has a negative and statistically significant impact on investments. The increase of Exc by HRK 1 according to the model will reduce investments (I) by HRK 7,115,354.
- The vat rate variable on accommodation services (*VATa*) has a positive and on the verge of significance statistically significant impact on investments. Vat increases by 1 percentage point according to the model will increase investments (I) by HRK 285,252.7.
- The variable tax, surtax, and contributions from salary (*Ln_L_tax*) have a positive and on the verge of significance statistically significant impact on investments. The increase in the variable Ln_L_tax by 1% according to the model will increase investments (*i*) by HRK 1,225.51.
- The variable average interest rate on loans (i) has a negative and statistically significant impact on investments. An increase of 1 percentage point according to the model will reduce investments (I) by HRK 1,221,880.
- Dummy variables *Med* and *Lar* do not have a statistically significant impact, while the variable *Mic* shows a negative and on the verge of significance statistically significant impact. Micro enterprises have HRK 1,009,038 less investment compared to small enterprises.
- Variable GDP (*Ln_y*) has a negative and statistically significant impact on investments, an increase of y by 1% according to the model will reduce investments (I) by 170,000 HRK.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The obtained results of all five models of conducted static panel analysis accept the basic working hypothesis: *Measures and instruments of economic policy of states affect the results of business operations of hotel companies*. Based on the results obtained, it is concluded that economic policy through its measures affects the business of the enterprise.

The results of the panel analysis showed that the rise in corporate taxes will reduce the income, profit, employment, and assets of hotel companies, which is in line with the economic theories and expectations of the author, according to which demand declines when the price rises. However, the model shows that the increase in corporate tax affects the increase in investment, which is inconsistent with economic theories. According to the results obtained from the model, it is concluded that the elasticity of demand for services offered by the hotel company was less than the elasticity of supply and the consumer bears most of the tax burden. The offer of labour proved inelastic to the change of wages, i.e., to increase taxes, surtaxes, and contributions from salaries. The obtained results partially confirm the auxiliary hypothesis.

Given that the hotel industry is an export function, then the depreciation of the HRK would have a positive impact on the demand for hotel services because a tourist gets more HRK for 1 EUR. The results obtained indicate that depreciation will have a positive effect on the income and profit of the company, while it will be in reverse relationship with investments. The exchange rate change is statistically insignificant when it comes to the dependent variable employment. The obtained results partially confirm the auxiliary hypothesis.

Rising interest rates increase investment costs, inevitably bringing lower-income investors to leave the market, thereby reducing investment demand. However, lower interest rates mean lower investment costs, which encourages investment. The results obtained show that the increase in interest rates on loans will negatively affect all selected indicators of the business of hotel companies. The results are consistent with economic theories and expectations. The auxiliary hypothesis is accepted.

The results obtained using panel analysis show that dependent variables react similarly to changes in independent variables. Corporate income tax has a statistically significant and negative impact on income, employment, profit, and investments, while investments have shown a positive result on the increase in corporate income tax. Furthermore, the VAT rate on accommodation services shows a positive statistical impact on all dependent variables except the profit of hotel companies, on which it has no statistically significant impact. Income tax, surtax, and contributions from wages have a positive impact on most variables, while profits have not shown statistical significance. Selected economic policy measures have the opposite effect on dependent variables. The variable exchange rate has been statistically significant and has a positive impact on the income and profit of hotel companies, while average interest rates have a negative impact. The exchange rate does not have a statistically significant impact on employment and assets. Investments react negatively to an increase in the exchange rate and the average interest rate. The state through taxes and tax policy produces numerous microeconomic effects. The effects of taxation are so intertwined with each other, even though certain tax forms can more effectively affect certain categories such as labour offers, investments, etc. A change in the price of a product or service affects its supply and demand. However, the same price change does not have to affect both supply and demand equally. The coefficient of elasticity shows how much of a relative change in supply or demand will be caused by a one percent change in price. The results of the panel analysis showed that the rise in corporate taxes will reduce the revenues, profits, employment and assets of hotel businesses, which is consistent with economic theories that say demand declines when the price rises. The supply function of a product is an ascending function of price, and the function of demand for the same product or service is a declining price function. So, with the price rising, one rises and the other falls. However, the model shows that the increase in corporate tax affects the increase in investment, which is inconsistent with economic theories. The corporate tax rate in the period under review (2002–2018) decreased from 20% to 12% or 18%, depending on the size of the revenue generated by the hotel company. Given that Croatia ranks among the countries with the lowest corporate tax rate, the goal of such a policy is to attract as much direct investment as possible. Namely, this variable alone is not enough to make an adequate locational decision but is more important for the macroeconomic and social environment. How much corporate taxation affects investments also depends on the very nature of the investment function. The investment function depends on several factors such as the profitability of the project (net rate of return), changes in sales (realisation) changes in existing capacity about sales, and the availability of internal financing funds (including profit after tax and depreciation). A change in the function of the offer can occur for various reasons that lead to changes in marginal costs, such as an increase in the VAT rate on accommodation services and an increase in taxes, surtaxes and contributions from salary. The introduction of a tax on a product or service will affect the increase in its variable costs. That is why the marginal cost function of this product will also be moved up by the amount of this levy. The introduction of a tax per unit of product affects the reduction of production. If the function of demand for a product has remained the same, it means that the introduction of taxes through a reduction in the supply function will affect the price increase. The introduction of sales tax (VAT rate on accommodation services) affects the increase in the price paid by the consumer. However, the entire additional tax burden does not have to be borne entirely by the consumer, but also by the seller of the service (manufacturer). On the elasticity of demand and supply depends the distribution of the tax burden between consumers and producers (tax override). According to the results obtained from the model, it is concluded that the elasticity of demand for services offered by the hotel company was less than the elasticity of the supply and the consumer bears most of the tax burden. The VAT rate on accommodation services is a type of indirect tax, i.e., that form of tax where companies transcend the amount of consumer tax through the price of services, i.e., the tourist pays this tax indirectly. As the VAT rate on accommodation services rises, hotel companies increase the price of their services. In the total cost of the enterprise, gross wages make a large item, so the management of human resources in order to achieve maximum productivity is very important. The size of the labour supply depends on the size of the real net salary, while on the other hand, the size of labour demand depends on the size of the real gross labour cost for the enterprise. In the analysis of the impact of taxes on employment and growth, it is crucial to analyse the override of taxes, i.e., how much of the tax burden will be borne by the employer and how much will be borne by the worker. Tax override depends primarily on the elasticity of supply and demand in the labour market. In markets where labour supply is inelastic to wage change, the tax wedge will roll over to the workers and reduce their net wage, while the gross cost of wages for the employer will remain the same. The same applies the other way around. Workers will change their behaviour due to a decrease in net wage, and how they react specifically depends on whether the income effect or the substitution effect will prevail. Lowering the tax burden on labour and lowering rigidity in the labour market would lead to higher supply and demand for labour, resulting in an increase in employment and in the second phase an increase in production. On the other hand, in practice, it is difficult to find room to reduce the tax burden, especially in the segment of contributions, whose systems suffer from a lack of financial resources anyway. Depreciation of the domestic currency can increase the competitiveness of the net exporting enterprise. Therefore, increased sales can dominate the additional costs of their external debt. However, if the depreciation of the currency is accompanied by a contraction of the economy, an enterprise with revenues and expenses in domestic currency may cause problems with servicing debt denominated in foreign currency. The export of goods and services is a function of price relations at home and abroad. The demand for foreign exchange is a declining function of their price, the exchange rate. When the price of foreign currency changes, two effects occur: the substitution effect and the income effect. The supply of foreign exchange is a growing function of the exchange rate. Namely, the increase in the exchange rate increases the income in the domestic currency of every holder of foreign exchange. Given that the hotel industry is an export function, then the depreciation of the kuna would have a positive impact on the demand for hotel services because a tourist gets more HRK for 1 EUR. In accordance with this economic theory, the results of the translated panel analysis were obtained. If the exchange rate of the euro in Croatia depreciates, then according to the results of the panel analysis, the income and profit of the company will increase, while investments will decrease, which is in line with the economic theories and expectations of the author.

The growth of the enterprise requires investments. Loans from banks (or other financial institutions) are the most common form of financing enterprise investments. Rising interest rates increase investment costs, inevitably bringing lower-income investors to leave the market, thereby reducing investment demand. However, lower interest rates mean lower investment costs, which encourages investment. The interest rate as a connecting force of diverse interests gives price signals to borrowers, savers and investors. So, for example, a high interest rate generally generates a greater volume of savings and stimulates borrowing funds. Low interest rates, on the other hand, weaken savings flows and reduce borrowing activities. At the same time, high interest rates reduce the volume of borrowing and capital investment, and low interest rates stimulate lending and investment spending. The results obtained show that the increase in interest rates on loans will negatively affect all selected indicators of the business of hotel companies.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Analysing the business environment in which hotel companies operate, the importance of the economic business environment is multifaceted both in theory and in practice. Large investments and intense competition require an understanding of the business environment. Because an enterprise must communicate with society and policymakers on a daily basis, it must have a thorough understanding of all policies and practices that affect business. Only then can businesses make better decisions in time and space for sustainable business. The overall business environment consists of many different forces that interact with each other but can affect every functional area of the enterprise. The factors that a company can manage and influence are considered endogenous. They do what is theoretically called the internal or internal environment of the enterprise. The behaviour of the company implies adaptation to changes in the environment, while changes in the environment are conditioned by the constant change of the needs of action and organisation of the companies themselves. In this sense, companies undertake several business activities daily that ensure that they behave in an extremely rational way, i.e., use their material, human, and financial resources rationally to meet the needs of consumers while operating efficiently and effectively.

The achievement of certain objectives is attained by applying the appropriate policy. Conscious changes in certain economic variables carried out by economic policy makers to achieve some final goal are called economic policy. The process of achieving the final goal needs to be managed, i.e., it is necessary to select adequate and purposeful economic policies and the instruments available for their achievement. Modern management of the state and economy imposes the need to harmonise measures of certain types of economic policy. The harmonisation of measures requires coordination between economic policy holders (entities). Achievement of short-term (stabilisation) and long-term (structural) goals is not possible without the cooperation and joint action of the holders of certain types of economic policy. In the context of the present, cooperation and coordination of the activities of the government and the central bank are essential to achieve strategic objectives. Fiscal and monetary policy combinations have an extremely high significance for the effects of overall economic policy, bearing in mind that all the measures taken lead the economy to a balanced state, i.e., to full employment and the utilisation of the factor of production without inflation. Monetary and fiscal policy as a type of economic policy have their areas of activity. But the effects of their measures complement each other.

This paper initiates further research into the interdependence of economic policy measures in other sectors, analysis of the difference in sensitivity of different sectors to economic policy measures, and comparisons with other countries and their fiscal and monetary policy measures that burden the operations of hotel companies.

Acknowledgements

This article is based on the author's doctoral thesis entitled 'Interdependence of Business of Hotel Companies and Appropriate Measures of Economic Policy' from December 2022 at the Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management of the University of Rijeka.

REFERENCES

Aalen, P., Iversen, E. K., & Jakobsen, E. W. (2019). Exchange rate fluctuations and demand for hotel accommodation: Panel data evidence from Norway. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 19*(2), 210–225. https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2018.1482566

Agiomirgianakis, G. M., Magoutas, A. I., & Sfakianakis, G. (2013). Determinants of profitability in the Greek tourism sector revisited: The impact of the economic crisis. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management, 1*(1), 12–17.

Atichasari, A. S., & Marfu, A. (2023). The influence of tax policies on investment decisions and business development of Micro, Small, and Medium-sized Enterprises (MSMEs) and its implications for economic growth in Indonesia. *Journal of Economics, Finance and Management Studies, 6*(7), 3290-3296. https://doi.org/10.47191/jefms/v6-i7-32

Bonham, C. S., & Gangnes, B. (1996). Intervention analysis with cointegrated time series: The case of the Hawaii hotel room tax. *Applied Economics, 28*(10), 1281–1293. https://doi.org/10.1080/000368496327831

Corgel, J. B., & Gibson, S. (2005). The use of fixed-rate and floating-rate debt for hotels. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 46*(4), 413–430. https://doi.org/10.1177/0010880405277072

Corgel, J., Lane, J., & Walls, A. (2013). How currency exchange rates affect the demand for US hotel rooms. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 35*, 78–88. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.04.014

Corthay, L. & Loeprick, J. (2010). Taxing tourism in developing countries: Principles for improving the investment climate through simple, fair, and transparent taxation. *Investment Climate in Practice, 14*, 1–8.

Crouch, G. I., Del Chiappa, G., & Perdue, R. R. (2019). International convention tourism: A choice modelling experiment of host city competition. *Tourism Management, 71*, 530–542. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.10.002

Demertzis, M., & Viegi, N. (2021). *Low interest rates in Europe and the US: One trend, two stories* (No. 07/2021). Bruegel Policy Contribution.

Do Valle, P. O., Pintassilgo, P., Matias, A., & André, F. (2012). Tourist attitudes towards an accommodation tax earmarked for environmental protection: A survey in the Algarve. *Tourism Management, 33*(6), 1408–1416. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.01.003

Doytch, N., & Nguyen, C. P. (2023). The cultural determinants of FDI inflows in tourism: Global evidence. *Tourism Analysis, 28*(3), 421–438. https://doi.org/10.3727/108354222X16692356526020

Dragičević, D. (2013). *Economic position of the Croatian hotel industry and measures of economic policy* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Rijeka, Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management.

Dritsakis, N. (2004). Tourism as a long-run economic growth factor: An empirical investigation for Greece using causality analysis. *Tourism Economics, 10*(3), 305–316. https://doi.org/10.5367/0000000041895094

Falk, M. (2015). The sensitivity of tourism demand to exchange rate changes: An application to Swiss overnight stays in Austrian mountain villages during the winter season. *Current Issues in Tourism, 18*(5), 465–476. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2013.810610

Fujii, E., Khaled, M., & Mak, J. (1985). The exportability of hotel occupancy and other tourist taxes. *National Tax Journal, 38*(2), 169–177. https://doi.org/10.1086/NTJ41792007

Gerakis, A. S. (1965). Efectos de las devaluaciones y revaluaciones de los tipos de cambio sobre los ingresos provenientes del turisme (Effects of devaluations and revaluations of exchange rates on income from tourism). *Staff Papers, 12*, 365–384. https://doi.org/10.2307/3866335

Gu, Z. (1995). The relationship between interest rate and tourism activities. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 14*(3-4), 239–243. https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-4319(95)00012-7

Hiemstra, S. J., & Ismail, J. A. (1992). Analysis of room taxes levied on the lodging industry. *Journal of Travel Research, 31*(1), 42–49. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759203100109

Hudson, S., Meng, F., So, K. K. F., Smith, S., Li, J., & Qi, R. (2021). The effect of lodging tax increases on US destinations. *Tourism Economics, 27*(1), 205–219. https://doi.org/10.1177/1354816619890752

Karimi, A., Faroughi, P., & Rahim, K. A. (2015). Modeling and forecasting of international tourism demand in ASEAN countries. *American Journal of Applied Sciences, 12*(7), 479–486. https://doi.org/10.3844/ajassp.2015.479.486

Khanalizadeh, B., & Ranjandish, N. (2019). Exploring the effects of hotel development, economic growth and exchange rate on tourism industry. *Review of Innovation and Competitiveness, 5*(1), 81–96. https://doi.org/10.32728/ric.2019.51/4

Lee, C. G. (2012). Tourism, trade, and income: Evidence from Singapore. *Anatolia, 23*(3), 348–358. https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2012.701596

Levy, H., & Sarnat, M. (1984). *Portfolio and investment selection: Theory and practice*. Prentice Hall.

Mazzola, S. X. R. (2021). *The role of tax incentives on business location and economic growth*. University of New Hampshire.

Mills, B. M., Rosentraub, M. S., & Jakar, G. (2019). Tourist tax elasticity in Florida: Spatial effects of county-level room tax rate variation. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 31,* 174–183. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.05.003

Raihan, A., Muhtasim, D. A., Khan, M. N. A., Pavel, M. I., & Faruk, O. (2022). Nexus between carbon emissions, economic growth, renewable energy use, and technological innovation towards achieving environmental sustainability in Bangladesh. *Cleaner Energy Systems, 3,* 100032. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cles.2022.100032

Rookayyah, I., Seetanah, B., Nunkoo, R., & Jaffur, Z. K. (2024). The impact of exchange rate and exchange rate volatility on tourism demand using disaggregated data. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 26*(2), e2640. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2640

Sari, G. A. A. R. M., & Baskara, I. G. K. (2018). *Pengaruh pertumbuhan ekonomi, suku bunga, dan nilai tukar terhadap investasi asing langsung di Indonesia (The effect of economic growth, interest rates, and exchange rates on foreign direct investment in Indonesia).* (Doctoral dissertation). Udayana University.

Seetaram, N. (2012). Immigration and international inbound tourism: Empirical evidence from Australia. *Tourism Management, 33*(6), 1535–1543. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.02.010

Sharma, A., Perdue, R. R., & Nicolau, J. L. (2022). The effect of lodging taxes on the performance of US hotels. *Journal of Travel Research, 61*(1), 108–119. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287520971044

Sumidartini, A. N. (2017). Pengaruh Nilai Tukar Rupiah Serta Tingkat Suku Bunga Terhadap Penerimaan Pajak Pada Direktorat Jenderal Pajak (The effect of the rupiah exchange rate and interest rate on tax revenue at the directorate general). *Transparansi: Jurnal Ilmiah Ilmu Administrasi, 9*(1), 53–68. https:// doi.org/10.31334/trans.v9i1.85

Swenson, C. (2022). Empirical evidence on the economic impacts of hotel taxes. *Economic Development Quarterly, 36*(1), 33–42. https://doi.org/10.1177/08912424211046172

Vítová, P., Harmáček, J., & Opršal, Z. (2019). Determinants of tourism flows in small island developing states (SIDS). *Island Studies Journal, 14*(2), 3–22. https://doi.org/10.24043/isj.90

Međuovisnost hotelskih poduzeća i odabranih mjera ekonomske politike

Maja BULJAT
Veleučilište s pravom javnosti BALTAZAR ZAPREŠIĆ,
Zaprešić, Hrvatska

Daniel DRAGIČEVIĆ
Fakultet za menadžment u turizmu i ugostiteljstvu,
Sveučilište u Rijeci, Opatija, Hrvatska

Da bi hotelska poduzeća uspješno poslovala, važno je reagirati na promjene koje se događaju na tržištu. Način i oblik vrednovanja poduzeća u okruženju tržišnoga gospodarstva podrazumijevaju temeljito poznavanje ne samo financijskoga stanja tih poduzeća nego i sredstava za njihovu evaluaciju. Istraživanje je provedeno na uzorku od 208 hotelskih poduzeća u Hrvatskoj od 2002. do 2018. godine. U radu je implementirano pet modela s različitim zavisnim varijablama koje pokazuju uspjeh poslovanja poduzeća: dobit, zaposlenost, prihod, imovina i investicije. Nezavisne varijable koje su se rabile u modelu jesu porez na dobit, tečaj, doprinosi, porez i prirez, stopa PDV-a na usluge smještaja i prosječna kamatna stopa na kredite, dok su kontrolne varijable bile veličina poduzeća i bruto domaći proizvod. Zbog transparentnosti u dokazivanju hipoteza, sve hipoteze testirane su kroz svih pet modela ekonometrijskom metodom panelanalize pomoću STATA programskoga paketa. Rezultati pokazuju da postoji međuovisnost između odabranih pokazatelja poslovanja hotelskih poduzeća i odabranih mjera ekonomske politike, međutim hipoteze su samo djelomično prihvaćene.

Ključne riječi: hotelska poduzeća, dobit, tečaj, porez, kamatna stopa

UPUTE SURADNICIMA

1. Profil časopisa

Časopis *Društvena istraživanja* njeguje tematsku i disciplinarnu otvorenost i stoga se u njemu objavljuju radovi iz različitih društvenih i humanističkih disciplina: sociologije, psihologije, politologije, povijesti, prava, ekonomije, demografije, lingvistike i ostalih disciplina.

Časopis objavljuje teorijske, empirijske i pregledne radove, a s obzirom na široki krug čitatelja, prednost imaju radovi s temama koje su od šireg društvenog i međunarodnog interesa, posebice empirijska istraživanja, te komparativna međunarodna istraživanja koja nisu lokalno specifična i tematski usko specijalizirana.

Samo oni rukopisi koji su zadovoljavajuće znanstvene kvalitete i koji su u skladu s tematskim ciljevima i područjima *Društvenih istraživanja* upućuju se u postupak recenziranja.

2. Slanje rukopisa

Uredništvo prima isključivo neobjavljene rukopise na hrvatskom ili engleskom jeziku. Rukopisi se Uredništvu dostavljaju samo u elektroničkom obliku putem sustava za uređivanje časopisa (Open Journal System) na mrežnim stranicama časopisa: http://www.pilar.hr/drustvena-istrazivanja. Časopis autorima ne naplaćuje troškove zaprimanja, recenziranja ili objavljivanja radova.

Časopis podržava otvoreni pristup, što znači da je cijeli sadržaj slobodno dostupan bez naplaćivanja korisnicima ili njihovim institucijama.

Autori su odgovorni za originalnost i autorstvo svojeg rukopisa i trebaju se ponašati u skladu s etičkim načelima i pravilima znanstvenog poštenja za autore Europske udruge znanstvenih urednika (EASE) http://www.ease.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/EASE-Guidelines-2017-Croatian.pdf.

3. Što objavljujemo?

Časopis *Društvena istraživanja* objavljuje:
- znanstvene članke (izvorne znanstvene radove i pregledne znanstvene radove) ukupne duljine do 7000 riječi bez sažetaka);
- prikaze knjiga i skupova do 2000 riječi.

Iznimno, časopis objavljuje stručne članke i prethodna priopćenja.

Časopis objavljuje povremeno tematske brojeve. Poziv za tematske brojeve kontinuirano je otvoren.

4. Recenzijski postupak

Svi rukopisi prolaze prvu uredničku provjeru u cilju procjene udovoljava li rukopis znanstvenim i uredničkim standardima časopisa, te uklapa li se u ciljeve i teme časopisa. Svi rukopisi koji prođu prvu uredničku kontrolu podliježu dvostrukoj slijepoj recenziji (eng. *double-blind review*).

Nakon zaprimljenih recenzija autori uz novu verziju rukopisa Uredništvu trebaju dostaviti i popratno pismo u kojem navode koje su prijedloge recenzenata uvažili i kako, a koje ne (uz obrazloženje i argumentaciju).

5. Provjera sličnosti i Creative Commons licencom

Svi zaprimljeni rukopisi podvrgavaju se rutinskom otkrivanju sličnosti s postojećom literaturom (plagiranje i samoplagiranje) pomoću iThenticate Similarity Check program: https://www.crossref.org/services/similarity-check/).

Radovi objavljeni u časopisu licencirani su pod CC-BY-NC Creative Commons licencom.

MOLIMO SURADNIKE DA POŠTUJU SLJEDEĆE UPUTE

Radovi

1. Opseg rada (uključujući bilješke, bibliografiju i mjesta za grafičke priloge) ne bi trebao prelaziti 7000 riječi.
2. Tekst treba biti oblikovan dvostrukim proredom, sve stranice trebaju biti numerirane.
3. Na prvoj stranici rada treba pisati ime i prezime autora, naziv i adresa ustanove u kojoj je autor/ica zaposlen, *e-mail* adresa i naslov rada ispisan velikim slovima (Uredništvo će ove podatke izbrisati prije slanja rukopisa na recenzije).
4. Časopis koristi APA stil (Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 7th edition – http://www.apastyle.org/) za oblikovanje referenci u tekstu i u popisu literature.
5. U popisu literature (bibliografiji), treba navesti pune podatke o svim radovima koji se spominju u tekstu, ujedno u popisu literature trebaju biti samo oni izvori koji se spominju i u tekstu. Radovi se navode abecednim redom prema prezimenima autora i kronološkim redom za radove istog autora. Ako se navodi više radova istog autora, koji imaju istu godinu izdanja, treba ih razlikovati slovima (a, b, c itd.) iza godine izdanja. U slučaju zajedničkog rada više autora, u popisu literature ne koristi se oblik "i suradnici", nego se navode svi autori.
   Ako se radi o člancima ili bibliografskim jedinicama koje imaju DOI, u popisu literature na kraju treba navesti i DOI broj za svaku od tih referenci. DOI broj može se provjeriti preko CrossRef servisa na adresi http://www.crossref.org/SimpleTextQuery/. Za ostale mrežno dostupne radove potrebno je, nakon dostupnih osnovnih referenci (naslova, autora itd.), navesti mrežni izvor (http://....).
6. Radovima treba biti priložen sažetak na engleskom jeziku, a autori iz Hrvatske trebaju priložiti i sažetak na hrvatskom jeziku. Sažetak ne bi trebao prelaziti 180 riječi, te treba upućivati na svrhu rada, upotrijebljenu metodologiju, najvažnije rezultate i zaključak. Autori trebaju navesti do pet ključnih riječi.
7. Grafički prilozi (tablice, slike i sl.) trebaju biti crno-bijeli, numerirani po redoslijedu, imati naslov, te spremljeni u izvornom formatu. Njihovu veličinu i složenost valja prilagoditi formatu časopisa kako bi se jasno vidjeli svi elementi. Grafički prilozi dio su rukopisa i trebaju biti priloženi unutar teksta. Iznimno mogu biti na kaju rukopisa, a njihov položaj unutar rukopisa mora biti precizno naznačen.

Oblikovanje referenci u tekstu prema APA stilu

Izvore treba navoditi u tekstu, a ne u bilješkama. Referenca se stavlja u zagrade i sadrži prezime autora, godinu izdanja, te, ako je riječ o citatu, broj stranice; na primjer:

(Mumford, 1968) ili
Mumford (1968) ili
(Mumford, 1968, str. 99).

Ako rad ima dva autora, treba navesti oba, na primjer:

(Berger i Luckmann, 1992).

Ako rad ima tri ili više autora već kod prvog citiranja koristi se oblik "i suradnici", na primjer:

(Prelog i sur., 1979) ili
Prelog i sur. (1979).

Sve reference u tekstu navode se kao i prvi put, odnosno ne koriste se oblici poput "ibid.", "op. cit." i slično. Autorima se sugerira da bilješke rezerviraju isključivo za komentiranje ili dopunu rečenog u tekstu.

Izrada popisa literature prema APA stilu – primjeri

Knjiga – jedan autor:

Mumford, L. (1968). *Grad u historiji*. Naprijed.

Knjiga – više autora:

Portes, A. i DeWind, J. (2008). *Rethinking migration: New theoretical and empirical perspectives*. Berghahn Books.

Rad iz zbornika:

Štambuk, M. (2002). Selo u europskom iskustvu. U M. Štambuk, I. Rogić i A. Mišetić (Ur.), *Prostor iza* (str. 363–390). Institut društvenih znanosti Ivo Pilar.

Članak u časopisu s DOI brojem:

Raboteg-Šarić, Z. i Pećnik, N. (2010). Stavovi prema samohranom roditeljstvu. *Revija za socijalnu politiku, 17*(1), 5–25. https://doi.org/10.3935/rsp.v17i1.889

Članak u časopisu bez DOI broja:

Klempić Bogadi, S. i Podgorelec, S. (2011). Sociogeografske promjene u malim otočnim zajednicama – primjer otoka Zlarina. *Geoadria, 16*(2), 189–209. http://hrcak.srce.hr/index.php?show=clanak&id_clanak_jezik=119558

Neobjavljena doktorska disertacija:

Prezime, X. (Godina). *Naslov disertacije*. (Neobjavljena doktorska disertacija). Naziv institucije.

Objavljeno izlaganje sa skupa:

Šundalić, A. i Pavić, Ž. (2011). Obrazovanje i karijera: nastajanje novog identiteta Slavonije i Baranje. U A. Šundalić, K. Zmaić i T. Sudarić (Ur.), *Gospodarske i kulturne odrednice regionalnog identiteta*. Izlaganje sa skupa Globalizacija i regionalni identitet 2011, Osijek, 16.–17. rujna 2011. (str. 99–113). Osijek: Ekonomski i Poljoprivredni fakultet.

Zakoni:

Zakon o lokalnoj i područnoj samoupravi. *Narodne novine*, 33/2001, 129/2005.

Članak u novinama (autor nije potpisan):

Naslov članka. (Datum izdavanja). *Naziv novina*, str. xx.

Članak u novinama (autor je potpisan), elektronički izvor:

Šakić, T. (2010, 20. svibnja). Filmski život književnih djela. *Vijenac*, 423. Dostupno na http://www.matica.hr/Vijenac/vijenac423.nsf/AllWebDocs/Filmski_zivot_knjizevnih_djela

Ostali primjeri mogu se vidjeti na http://www.apastyle.org/. Detaljnije upute dostupne su na internetskoj stranici časopisa: http://drustvena-istrazivanja.pilar.hr/index.php/drustvena-istrazivanja/index

INSTRUCTIONS FOR CONTRIBUTORS

1. Scope of the journal

Društvena istraživanja publishes works from various social and humanistic disciplines: sociology, psychology, politics, history, law, economics, demography, linguistics and other disciplines. The journal publishes theoretical, empirical and review articles, and priority is given to articles that are of wider social and international interest, in particular empirical research and international comparative research that are not locally specific and thematically narrowly specialized.

Only manuscripts of sufficient quality that meet the aims and scope of *Društvena istraživanja* will be reviewed.

2. Submission of the manuscript

Editorial board receives only unpublished manuscripts in Croatian or English. Manuscripts should be submitted only in electronic form online via the Open Journal System: http://www.pilar.hr/drustvena-istrazivanja/.

There are no fees payable to submit or publish in this journal. The journal supports an open approach, which means that all of its contents are freely available without charging to users and their institutions.

Authors are responsible for the originality and authorship of their manuscripts and should behave in accordance with the ethical principles and rules of scientific honesty for the authors of the European Association of Scientific Editors (EASE): http://www.ease.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/EASE-Guidelines-2017-English.pdf.

3. What do we publish?

Društvena istraživanja publishes:
- Scientific articles (original scientific articles and review articles (up to 7,000 words without abstract);
- Reviews of books and conferences (full-length up to 2,000 words).

Exceptionally, the journal publishes professional articles and short communications. The journal publishes periodically special thematic issues. Call for proposal for thematic issue is continually open.

4. Peer Review Policy

All manuscripts undergo initial editorial check in order to assess whether the manuscript comply with the scientific and editorial standards of the journal, and if it fits in the objectives and themes of the journal.

Those manuscripts that pass this initial scrutiny are sent to a double blind review. After receiving the reviewers' reports, the authors, in addition to the new version of the manuscript, submit to the Editorial board a cover letter stating which reviewers' proposals were accepted and in what way, and which were not (with explanation and argumentation).

5. Similarity check and creative commons license

All received manuscripts are subject to routine disclosure of similarity with exiting literature (plagiarism and self-plagiarism) through iThenticate Similarity Check program: https://www.crossref.org/services/similarity-check/). Papers published in the journal are licensed under the Creative Commons license CC-BY-NC.

CONTRIBUTORS ARE REQUESTED TO CONSIDER THE FOLLOWING

Articles

1. The length of articles (including references, notes, figures and tables) should not exceed 7000 words.
2. Contributions should be double-spaced and all pages should be numbered.
3. The first page should contain the author's name and surname, the name and address of the institution in which the author is employed, and the title of the article written in capital letters (The Editorial board will delete this information before sending the manuscript to be reviewed).
4. The journal uses APA style (Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 7th edition – http://www.apastyle.org/) to format references in the text and bibliography.
5. In the reference list or bibliography, the author should provide full references for all the works mentioned in the text; also, the reference list should contain only those sources mentioned in the text. They should be listed alphabetically according to the surname of the author, and chronologically if a particular author has more than one work. If several works by the same author were published in the same year, they should be differentiated by letters (a, b, c, etc.) following the year of publication. If a work was written by several authors, all authors should be listed instead of using "et al." or "and collaborators".

   When an article or bibliographic record has a DOI, use the DOI number in the reference list (it is possible to look up the DOI number here: http://www.crossref.org/SimpleTextQuery/).

   For works accessible through the internet, the main information (title, author etc.) and the source (http://) should be provided.
6. A summary written in Croatian and English should also be included. The summary should not exceed 180 words and should indicate the aim of the work, the methodology used, and the most important findings and conclusions. Authors should specify up to five key words.
7. Graphical appendices (tables and graphs) need to be in black and white, saved in original format, with their size and complexity adjusted to the format of the Journal so that all elements are clear and visible. They must be numbered consecutively in order of appearance and include title. The graphic appendixes are part of the manuscript and should be enclosed in the text. Exceptionally, they may be placed at the end of the manuscript, while their exact position should be indicated in the text of the manuscript.

Formatting references in the text according to APA style

The sources should be cited in the text, not in the footnotes. The reference should be in brackets, containing the author's surname and year of publication e.g.:

(Mumford, 1962) or

Mumford (1962).

The page number should be included for quotations or references to books e.g.:

(Mumford, 1962, p. 99).

If the reference was written by two authors, both should be mentioned e.g.:

(Berger & Luckmann, 1992).

If the work was written by three or more authors, the form "et al." is used from the first citation on, e.g.:

(Prelog et al., 1979) or

Prelog et al. (1979).

All references in the text should be given as they were given the first time, i.e., forms such as "Ibid.", "Op. cit." and the like, are not used. Authors should use footnotes exclusively for commenting on or expanding on what is referred to in the text.

The reference list should be written in APA style as in the following examples.

Book – one author:

Mumford, L. (1962). *The city in history*. Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.

Book – several authors:

Portes, A., & DeWind, J. (2008). *Rethinking migration: New theoretical and empirical perspectives*. Berghahn Books.

Work from an anthology:

Greenberg, M., & Hughes-Evans, D. (1980). Air pollution. In J. Aldrich (Ed.), *Atmosphere, weather and climate* (Vol. 3, pp. 35–75). Methuen.

Article in a journal with a DOI number:

Leach, S., & Lowndes, V. (2007). Of roles and rules. Analysing the changing relationship between political leaders and chief executives in local government. *Public Policy and Administration, 22*(2), 183–200. https://doi.org/10.1177/0952076707075892

Article in a journal without a DOI number:

Galešić, M., & Stepanić, J. (2003). Toward parameterisation of E-mail mediated communication. *Interdisciplinary Description of Complex Systems – INDECS, 1*(1–2), 54–65. http://indecs.znanost.org

Unpublished doctoral dissertation:

Surname, X. (Year). *Title of dissertation*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Name of institution.

Published conference paper:

Author of Paper, A., & Author of Paper, B. (Year, Month date). Title of paper. In A. Editor, B. Editor, & C. Editor, *Title of published proceedings*. Paper presented at Title of Conference: Subtitle of Conference, Location (inclusive page numbers). Place of publication: Publisher.

Laws and regulations:

Act on vocational rehabilitation and employment of persons with disabilities. *Official Gazette*, 143/2002, 33/2005.

Article in newspaper (unsigned):

Article title. (Date of issue). *Name of newspaper*, p. xx.

Article in newspaper (signed by author), electronic source:

Author, A. A. (Year, Month, Day). Title of article. *Title of newspaper*. Available at URL of specific article.

Other examples can be found at http://www.apastyle.org/. More detailed instructions are available on the journal's website: http://drustvena-istrazivanja.pilar.hr/index.php/drustvena-istrazivanja/index.

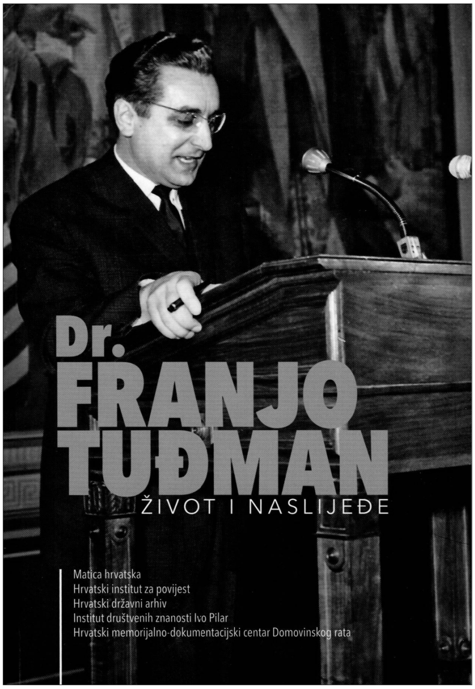
NOVA IZDANJA INSTITUTA PILAR

Izdanja u suradnji s drugim institucijama

Željko Holjevac
NEJEDNAKI PARTNERI
Hrvatsko-mađarski odnosi 1860.–1873.

Plejada
Institut društvenih znanosti Ivo Pilar
Zagreb, 2024., 575 str.

U knjizi se kroz prizmu politike habsburškog vladara Franje Josipa govori o odnosima najrelevantnijih hrvatskih i mađarskih političara u vezi sa svim važnijim događajima u navedenome periodu, počevši s Listopadskom diplomom i Hrvatskim saborom 1861., preko Austro-ugarske i Hrvatsko-ugarske nagodbe pa do revizije Hrvatsko-ugarske nagodbe 1873. godine.



DR. FRANJO TUĐMAN
Život i naslijeđe

Zbornik radova
Uredili: Domagoj Knežević i Ivan Hrstić

Matica hrvatska; Hrvatski institut za povijest; Hrvatski državni arhiv; Institut društvenih znanosti Ivo Pilar; Hrvatski memorijalno-dokumentacijski centar Domovinskog rata
Zagreb, 2024., 341 str.

Zbornik radova sa znanstvenog skupa Dr. Franjo Tuđman – život i naslijeđe, održanog u organizaciji Hrvatskog instituta za povijest, Instituta društvenih znanosti Ivo Pilar, Matice hrvatske, Hrvatskog državnog arhiva i Hrvatskog memorijalno-dokumentacijskog centra Domovinskog rata 5. i 6. svibnja 2022. u Matici hrvatskoj u Zagrebu.

DRUŠTVENA ISTRAŽIVANJA

Časopis za opća društvena pitanja

Journal for General Social Issues

UREĐIVAČKI PLAN ČASOPISA

Demografsko izumiranje i održivi razvoj Republike Hrvatske

Family well-being in European countries – Understanding family dynamics and well-being in European migration and transnational contexts

Teacher wellbeing: In quest of its nature, determinants, and outcomes

Uz navedene glavne teme časopis *Društvena istraživanja* objavljivat će i druge manje temate, pojedinačne tekstove te informativno-kritičke priloge u rubrici "Prikazi".

ADRESA UREDNIŠTVA
ADDRESS

Institut društvenih znanosti IVO PILAR
Institute of Social Sciences IVO PILAR

Marulićev trg 19/I, p.p. 277, 10001 Zagreb, Hrvatska
TEL: (+385 1) 4886-815
FAX: (+385 1) 4828-296
E-mail: di@pilar.hr
www.pilar.hr

Časopis izlazi četiri puta godišnje (prvo godište: dva broja).
Cijena pojedinog primjerka: 5,31 EUR.
Žiro-račun: Institut društvenih znanosti Ivo Pilar,
IBAN: HR2360000-1101455340 (s naznakom "za časopis").

Published quarterly.
Account number:
Bank name: Zagrebačka banka d. d.
Bank address: Trg bana Jelačića 10, 10 000 Zagreb
IBAN number: HR3323600001101455340
BIC/SWIFT code: SWIFT ZABA HR 2X RN 2500-3793028

Rješenjem Ministarstva kulture i prosvjete Republike Hrvatske broj 532-03-1/5-92-02 od 7. prosinca 1992., časopis *Društvena istraživanja* oslobođen je plaćanja osnovnog poreza na promet proizvoda i usluga.

Ovaj broj *Društvenih istraživanja* financijski je potpomognut sredstvima Ministarstva znanosti i obrazovanja Republike Hrvatske.