

Mind Pad

Canada's student written, edited,
and published psychology newsletter.



Notes d'idées

Le bulletin rédigé, édité et publié par les étudiants
de la Société canadienne de la psychologie.

SUMMER/ÉTÉ 2015





Mind Pad

Canada's student written, edited,
and published psychology newsletter.

Notes d'idées

Le bulletin rédigé, édité et publié par les étudiants
de la Société canadienne de la psychologie.

Mind Pad has two mandated goals:

1. It aims to provide a professional newsletter that is written and reviewed by students of psychology who are affiliates of the Canadian Psychological Association. The content of the newsletter should be of interest to all who are practicing and studying psychology, but the primary audience of the newsletter is students of psychology.
2. It aims to offer studying psychology researchers and writers an opportunity to experience a formal submission process, including submission, review, and resubmission from the points of view of both submitter and reviewer/editor.

Mind Pad is a student journal of the Canadian Psychological Association (CPA) over which the CPA holds copyright. The opinions expressed are strictly those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the opinions of the Canadian Psychological Association, its officers, directors, or employees. *Mind Pad* is published semi-annually, only in electronic form and made available to members of the CPA and the general public.

Le mandat de *Notes d'idées* a deux objectifs :

1. Fournir un bulletin professionnel rédigé et évalué par les étudiants en psychologie qui sont membres affiliés de la Société canadienne de psychologie. Le contenu devrait être d'intérêt à tous les praticiens et étudiants en psychologie, mais les étudiants en psychologie sont les lecteurs cibles.
2. Fournir aux étudiants en psychologie l'opportunité de connaître le processus formel de soumission y compris la soumission, la révision, et la resoumission du point de vue d'auteur et d'évaluateur/redacteur.

Notes d'idées est une revue étudiante de la Société canadienne de psychologie (SCP). La SCP réserve les droits d'auteur. Les opinions exprimées sont strictement celles des auteurs et ne reflètent pas nécessairement les opinions de la Société canadienne de psychologie, ses représentants, directeurs, ou employés. *Notes d'idées* paraît deux fois par année et n'est publié qu'en format électronique. Le bulletin est disponible aux membres de la SCP et au public.

Table of contents

3 Developmental psychopathology: A hopeful model for conceptualizing psychopathology

Erin Romanchych, University of Windsor, M.A.
Felicia M. Chang, University of Windsor, M.A.

7 The epidemic of shame-focused coping in LGBTQ youth: Could self-compassion be the answer?

Brittany N. Budzan, University of Alberta, B.A. (Hons)

10 The relationship between violent media, pornography, and sexual cyber dating abuse among adolescents

Jessica Sciaraffa, J.S., University of Western Ontario, MA
Peter George Jaffe, P.G.J., University of Western Ontario, PhD
Claire Crooks, C.C., University of Western Ontario, PhD

15 Le partage des connaissances en contexte interdisciplinaire : Effets de l'engagement, des conflits et de la collaboration

Frédérique-Emmanuelle Lessard, Université de Montréal, BSc, PhD Student
Isabelle Tremblay, Université de Montréal, BSc, PhD candidate
François Chiocchio, Telfer Business School, PhD

Editor:

Missy L. Teatero, Lakehead University
meatero@lakeheadu.ca

Graduate Reviewers:

Sara de la Salle, University of Ottawa
sdela084@uottawa.ca

Andrew Brankley, Ryerson University
andrew.brankley@psych.ryerson.ca

Colin Capaldi, Carleton University
colin_capaldi@carleton.ca

Shakira Mohammed, Laurentian University
smohammed1@laurentian.ca

Undergraduate Reviewers:

Ratanak Ly, University of Guelph
rly@mail.uoguelph.ca

Scott Emerson, University of British Columbia
semerson@alumni.ubc.ca

Julia Carvalho, Concordia University
julia.pinheiro.carvalho@gmail.com

Kaitlyn M. Werner, University of Victoria
kwerner@uvic.ca

Senior Advisor: Dorothy Cotton, dcotton@nintu.net

CPA Liaison:

Lisa Votta-Bleeker, executiveoffice@cpa.ca
Tyler Stacey-Holmes, styler@cpa.ca

Design: Raymond Leveille, memoproductions.ca

CANADIAN
PSYCHOLOGICAL
ASSOCIATION



SOCIÉTÉ
CANADIENNE
DE PSYCHOLOGIE

Developmental psychopathology: A hopeful model for conceptualizing psychopathology

Erin Romanchych, University of Windsor, M.A.

Felicia M. Chang, University of Windsor, M.A.

Abstract

Well-known models of psychopathology, including the diathesis-stress model and the biopsychosocial model, are commonly taught to students studying in the mental health field. As graduate students studying clinical psychology, we were exposed to a different model, the developmental psychopathology model. In this paper, we briefly outline the principles of developmental psychopathology, compare and contrast the previous models to developmental psychopathology, and describe our experiences learning this alternative model for conceptualizing lifespan development and psychopathology. Through specific examples we illustrate the guiding principles of developmental psychopathology and describe our approach to case conceptualization using a developmental psychopathology framework. Furthermore, we share how learning the developmental psychopathology model has influenced our clinical training, which has led us to consider developmental psychopathology a meaningful model for obtaining a broad, yet thorough, understanding of development and psychopathology across the lifespan, within the context of individual differences, experiences, and the environment.

Résumé

Des modèles de psychopathologie bien connus, comme le modèle diathèse-stress et le modèle biopsychosocial, sont généralement enseignés aux étudiants du domaine de la santé mentale. En tant qu'étudiants diplômés dans le domaine de la psychologie clinique, nous avons été exposés à un modèle différent, soit le modèle de la psychopathologie du développement. Dans le présent article, nous décrivons brièvement les principes de la psychopathologie du développement, comparons les modèles antérieurs de la psychopathologie du développement et en exposons les différences, et décrivons nos expériences relatives à l'apprentissage de cet autre modèle de conceptualisation du

développement et de la psychopathologie au cours de la vie. Au moyen d'exemples précis, nous illustrons les principes directeurs de la psychopathologie du développement et décrivons l'approche que nous utilisons pour la conceptualisation de cas à l'aide d'un cadre psychopathologique du développement. En outre, nous expliquons comment l'apprentissage du modèle de la psychopathologie du développement a influencé notre formation clinique, qui nous a amenés à considérer celui-ci comme un modèle pertinent pour avoir une compréhension approfondie et complète du développement et de la psychopathologie au cours de la vie, dans le contexte des différences, des expériences et de l'environnement individuels.



The developmental psychopathology (DP) model provides a comprehensive, lifespan approach to understanding psychopathology. It combines a variety of domains, including abnormal psychology, clinical psychology, psychiatry, and developmental psychology. Using this model in clinical practice allows the clinician to conceptualize individuals' pathways of development based on the interactions between risk and protective processes. As graduate students in the Child Clinical Psychology program at the University of Windsor, we find this model to be intuitive; it allows us to gain a deeper understanding of the trajectory of individuals' challenges and provides information about future functioning that can be used for prevention of further psychopathology. We had previous exposure to the other commonly known models of psychopathology, including the diathesis-stress model and the biopsychosocial model; however, this was the first time many students in our program had learned about the developmental psychopathology model in such depth. Furthermore, we were surprised to find that many clinical psychology programs at universities across Canada do not include a course on developmental psychopathology. Therefore, the pur-

poses of this paper are to: a) illustrate some of the differences between various models of psychopathology; b) provide a brief introduction to the developmental psychopathology model; and, c) share our experiences learning this model with the hope of encouraging more individuals in helping professions to become aware of the clinical utility of developmental psychopathology.

Before we discuss the developmental psychopathology model, we will review other, commonly known models of psychopathology. For example, the diathesis-stress model was introduced by Meehl in 1962, as it pertained to schizophrenia. The diathesis-stress model suggests that individuals are biologically predisposed to certain disorders, which can manifest as a result of environmental stressors (Ingram & Price, 2010). Since its introduction, the diathesis-stress model has been applied to numerous forms of psychopathology (e.g., depression, anxiety, conduct disorder). Other models of psychopathology include biological models and psychosocial models (Paris, 2010). Biological models suggest that psychopathology can be explained in terms of genetics and underlying brain dysfunction, and are often used in medicine, whereas psychosocial models consider specific environmental and social factors, but ignore any biological vulnerabilities (Paris, 2010). Both of these models have been criticized for their reductionist approach (Paris, 2010). Thus, Engel introduced the biopsychosocial (BPS) model in 1977, to address issues with the medical model and conceptualize illness based on multiple factors, including social, psychological, and biological factors.

The BPS model differs from the diathesis-stress model, in that, in the diathesis-stress model, regardless of the amount of stress, a predisposition is necessary in order for the individual to develop psychopathology (Paris, 2010). That is, the diathesis-stress model emphasizes vulnerability factors (i.e., causal factors), whereas other models such as the BPS and DP models focus on risk factors (i.e., factors that increase one's likelihood of developing a psychopathology but are not necessarily causal in nature; Ingram & Price, 2010). Furthermore, the diathesis-stress model emphasizes biological influences, whereas the BPS model gives consideration to multiple risk factors (Paris, 2010). The BPS model suggests that multiple levels within the individual interact together to contribute to psychopathology (Engles, 1977). This is similar to the developmental psychopathology model, in which interactions between multiple risk and protective processes influ-

ence developmental trajectories (Cummings, Davies, & Campbell, 2000).). Lastly, the BPS and diathesis-stress models both conceptualize illness as being within the individual whereas, in the developmental psychopathology model, psychopathology is considered to be a product of the individual within the environment. Moreover, within the DP model, psychopathology is not black or white, but rather it is a continuum from typical to atypical behaviours (Cummings et al., 2000). Although all of these various models of psychopathology have benefits for different fields (e.g., the biopsychosocial model was created for use in psychiatry; Engles, 1977), the developmental psychopathology approach appears to be useful across health care professions.

As clinical psychologists in training, we were fortunate to have the opportunity to discuss and apply the developmental psychology model in a course designed by Dr. Rosanne Menna at the University of Windsor. Through this course we were able to recognize the significance and utility of this model. For many students this was a new approach to understanding lifespan development and case conceptualization, as they had only been exposed to the aforementioned models of psychopathology during their undergraduate studies.

Developmental psychopathology is used to understand development through multiple causal factors, which interact in a dynamic manner to guide development across the lifespan (Cicchetti & Toth, 2009; Cummings et al., 2000). There are several guiding principles of developmental psychopathology. Firstly, within the DP model, dynamic processes based on interactions between multiple factors underlie developmental pathways, which can change throughout the lifespan. Different pathways can lead to the same outcome (i.e., equifinality), while at the same time, not all risks will result in the same outcome (i.e., multifinality; e.g., Cicchetti, 1990; Cicchetti & Toth, 2009; Cummings et al., 2000; Sroufe, 2007). The interactions among factors, both within the individual (e.g., developmental history, genetic factors, temperament) and in the environment (e.g., socioeconomic status, peers, parenting), are essential to understanding patterns of maladaptation or adaptation (Cummings et al., 2000; Sroufe, 2007). Some factors are considered to be risk factors, which increase the likelihood of developing patterns of maladaptive behaviours, whereas, protective factors abate the impact of risks and stressors. Thus, maladaptation occurs based on the interplay between risk, protective, and environmental factors, and is considered an outcome of de-

velopment, rather than a disease within the individual (Sroufe, 1997). For example, although an individual may engage in maladaptive behaviours at one point in his or her life, the DP model emphasizes that behaviour can change with adjustments to the individual and/or the environment. Therefore, development is conceptualized along a continuum ranging from typical development, to at-risk for psychopathology, to atypical development, and intervention can be implemented anywhere along this continuum, such as in the form of a prevention program targeted for those at-risk for psychopathology.

Furthermore, developmental cascades, a key concept in developmental psychopathology, help to explain why some difficulties experienced in childhood may result in a variety of problems in adulthood, whereas other difficulties do not have such outcomes (Masten & Cicchetti, 2010; van Lier & Koot, 2010). Cascade effects occur because of accumulating consequences of negative interactions and processes that occur during development, which can result in challenges across all levels of development and can have effects across generations. Developmental cascades can include bidirectional or indirect effects that can change the course of development (Masten & Cicchetti, 2010). For example, children who lack consistent parenting may show behaviour problems in their preschool years and then may continue demonstrating these problematic behaviours in the school environment. If children experience challenges with academic and social skills they may develop along a pathway towards psychopathology (e.g., depression, anxiety, delinquency). This can have implications in multiple aspects of functioning, including peer relationships, academic performance, and self-esteem (e.g., van Lier & Koot, 2010). This example demonstrates how difficulties in one developmental level can influence further development in different levels and domains of functioning (e.g., academic and social competence in school).

The guiding principles discussed above formed the foundation of our understanding of developmental psychopathology. Within this course, we learned these principles through readings, case presentations, class discussion, and assignments requiring us to apply the DP model to a disorder of interest. With an interactive approach we were able to immerse ourselves in this novel way of thinking about psychopathology. In discussing developmental psychopathology, Dr. Menna commonly referred to it as a “hopeful model” because it emphasizes that developmental pathways can change to allow for posi-

tive growth and psychologists can help to initiate these changes. As well, as students we often found it helpful to think of the model in terms of a popular metaphor, a tree, that Sroufe (1990, 1997) used to conceptualize pathways of development. Imagine a tree made up of branches that have different shapes. All of the branches stem from the body of the tree, which is considered normal or typical development. One branch may grow only slightly away from the tree trunk, reflecting a typical developmental pathway. Maladaptive development is represented with branches that significantly diverge from the tree trunk. However, some of these branches may change direction moving back towards the middle of the tree, demonstrating resiliency to early maladaptation. Other branches may start off growing close to the middle of the tree, and then through subsequent negative influences, diverge away from the body of the tree, showing possible development of psychopathology (Cummings et al., 2000). We found that the tree metaphor helped to integrate many of the principles of developmental psychopathology and contribute to our understanding of the concept of dynamic developmental pathways.

By understanding the principles of developmental psychopathology, we found ourselves conceptualizing individuals within their unique contexts and became curious about understanding possible interactions between risk and protective factors. Within the DP model, the purpose of assessment is to hypothesize the developmental pathways of maladaptive behaviours, identify risk and protective factors, and determine specific treatment recommendations for the individual within his or her environment. A multi-method approach is used to examine a variety of factors, including family relationships, parenting practices, family functioning, individual characteristics, and social influences that are influencing the individual’s current presentation (Cummings et al., 2000). When we approach case conceptualization we consider the interactions among these factors in shaping the individual’s developmental pathway. Questions that guide our conceptualization include: Why are these challenges occurring at present and why did they not appear earlier in the individual’s life? What factors are interacting at the current moment to influence the individual’s behaviours and experiences? How has this pathway been shaped throughout the individual’s lifespan? How might these factors interact and predict future functioning? In terms of prevention and treatment using a DP approach, the purpose is to enhance resilience with the goal of redi-



recting developmental pathways to be more adaptive by increasing protective factors. Attempts are made to implement interventions in multiple domains of an individual's life, as positive effects gained from treatment can be maintained with environmental supports (Cummings et al., 2000).

While there are many benefits and clinical applications of developmental psychopathology, there are also some limitations to this model. First, involvement from a variety of professionals (e.g., physicians, geneticists, social workers, nurses, psychologists, psychiatrists) and persons involved in the individual's life would be favourable to take full advantage of this model. This multidisciplinary team approach for intervening can seem costly and time-consuming, despite potential long-term savings, as it might require multiple services. Moreover, services may not be limited to the client, as intervening in multiple areas of an individual's life can be beneficial in helping the individual maintain positive gains (Cummings et al., 2000). For example, if a child participates in therapy for improving emotion regulation strategies, it may also be helpful for his or her parents to participate in therapeutic intervention targeted at parent strategies for improving children's emotion regulation, so that treatment gains can be maintained after termination. Therefore, to fully implement the developmental psychopathology model in clinical settings would require significant commitment from multiple health care agencies, providers, and family members.

In closing, the developmental psychopathology framework has allowed us, as clinicians in training, to understand an individual in his or her environment and to consider the potential influences on future development. It allows for a comprehensive conceptualization of the individual with the goal of understanding the underlying mechanisms and processes that may be influencing the individual's current presentation. Most importantly, it is a holistic, lifespan approach that provides hope that developmental pathways can change by increasing protective factors and decreasing the influence of risk factors. It emphasizes that with effective supports, an individual on a maladaptive pathway can shift and develop adaptive behaviours for coping with his or her environment. We feel very fortunate to have had the opportunity to learn this model in such depth, as it has influenced our approach to understanding psychopathology and we hope that others may also benefit from the clinical utility of this model.

References

- Cicchetti, D. (1990). A historical perspective on the discipline of developmental psychopathology. In J. Rolf, A. Masten, D. Cicchetti, K. Nuechterlein, & S. Weintraub (Eds.), *Risk and protective factors in the development of psychopathology* (pp. 2-28). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Cicchetti, D., & Cohen, D. J. (1995). Perspectives on developmental psychology. In D. Cicchetti & D. J. Cohen (Eds.), *Developmental psychopathology: Vol. 1. Theory and methods* (pp. 3-20). New York: Wiley.
- Cicchetti, D., & Toth, S. L. (2009). The past achievements and future promises of developmental psychopathology: the coming of age of a discipline. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 50, 16-25. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-7610.2008.01979.x
- Cummings, E. M., Davies, P. T., & Campbell, S. B. (2000). *Developmental psychopathology and family process: Theory, research, and clinical implications*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Ingram, R. E., & Price, J. M. (Eds.). (2010). *Vulnerability to psychopathology: Risk across the lifespan*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Masten, A. S., & Cicchetti, D. (2010). Developmental cascades. *Development and Psychopathology*, 22, 491-495. doi: 10.1017/S0954579410000222
- Paris, J. (2010). Biopsychosocial models and psychiatric diagnosis. In T. Millon, R.F. Krueger, & E. Simonsen (Eds.), *Contemporary Directions in Psychopathology* (473-482). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Sroufe, L. A. (1990). Considering normal and abnormal together: The essence of developmental psychopathology. *Development and Psychopathology*, 2, 335-347. doi: 10.1017/S0954579400005769
- Sroufe, L. A. (1997). Psychopathology as an outcome of development. *Development and Psychopathology*, 9, 251-268. doi: 10.1017/S0954579497002046
- Sroufe, L. A. (2007). The place of development in developmental psychopathology. In A. S. Masten (Ed.), *Multilevel dynamics in developmental psychopathology: The Minnesota Symposia on Child Psychology (vol. 34)*, pp. 285-299. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- van Lier, P. A. C., & Koot, H. M. (2010). Developmental cascades of peer relations and symptoms of externalizing and internalizing problems from kindergarten to fourth-grade elementary school. *Development and Psychopathology*, 22, 569-582. doi: 10.1017/S0954579410000283

The epidemic of shame-focused coping in LGBTQ youth: Could self-compassion be the answer?

Brittany N. Budzan, University of Alberta, B.A. (Hons)

Abstract

While lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) youth report higher levels of shame-focused coping strategies than their heterosexual peers, adequate support for these students is not always available. Gay-straight alliances (GSAs) are able to provide some assistance, but a targeted approach for increasing and promoting positive coping skills would provide this population with both short and long-term benefits. Self-compassion is discussed as an option for therapists and counselors. This approach may help to buffer LGBTQ youth against the effects of victimization, and provide them with the skills and resources to effectively cope with minority stress.

Résumé

Bien que les jeunes lesbiennes, gais, bisexuels, transgenres et allosexuels (LGBTQ) semblent utiliser un degré plus élevé de stratégies d'adaptation à la honte que les jeunes hétérosexuels, ces étudiants ne disposent pas toujours de soutien adéquat. Les alliances homosexuelles-hétérosexuelles peuvent fournir une certaine aide, mais des approches ciblées, visant à développer et à encourager des stratégies d'adaptation positives chez ces jeunes, apporteraient à cette population des avantages à court et à long terme. La compassion envers soi-même est présentée comme une option pour les thérapeutes et les conseillers. Cette approche est susceptible d'aider à protéger les jeunes lesbiennes, gais, bisexuels, transgenres et allosexuels contre les effets de la victimisation et leur fournir les habiletés et les ressources nécessaires pour composer efficacement avec le stress lié au fait d'appartenir à une minorité.

of physical violence (Holmes & Cahill, 2004). Victimization of LGBTQ youth is correlated with higher school absenteeism, lower grades, lower graduation rates, and lower rates of entering post-secondary institutions (Aragon, Poteat, Espelage, & Koenig, 2014). These experiences can also have long term effects on LGBTQ individuals, such as a greater risk of post-traumatic stress symptoms, depression, high-risk sexual behaviours, and suicidal ideation (Burton, Marshal, Chisolm, Sucato, & Friedman, 2012; Rivers, 2004; Russel, Ryan, Toomey, Diaz, & Sanchez, 2011). While the presence of gay-straight alliances and support groups are increasing, LGBTQ youth may face barriers to reaching additional support due to their youth (Holmes & Cahill, 2004). Teaching LGBTQ adolescents how to cope with discrimination in a constructive manner will not only help youth deal with minority stress, but will have long-term effects for their physical and mental health.

Shame-Focused Coping Strategies

Belonging to a stigmatized group in society increases exposure to status-related stressors from prejudice and discrimination, a concept known as minority stress (Meyer, 2003). LGBTQ youth exposure to harassment and heterosexism can develop into minority stress, as well as internalized homophobia, resulting in shame-based coping strategies (Greene, Britton, & Fitts, 2014). For example, smoking, which may be used as a coping strategy, is disproportionately high in the LGBTQ community and often begins in adolescence (Greene & Britton, 2012). LGBTQ youth also report alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, and ecstasy use at a significantly higher rate than heterosexual adolescents (Goldbach, Tanner-Smith, Bagwell, & Dunlap, 2014; Marshal et al., 2008). Other shame-based coping strategies include self-criticism, withdrawal, avoidance, and being aggressive towards others (Greene et al., 2014).

These coping strategies can also have long term effects beyond adolescence. Greene and colleagues (2014) found that shame-based coping strategies developed during school years were highly correlated

Introduction

For lesbian, gay, transgender, bisexual, and queer (LGBTQ) youth, school experiences can frequently include feeling unsafe, verbal harassment, and threat



with difficulties faced by LGBTQ individuals in adulthood. Internalized coping such as self-criticism and withdrawal was correlated with fears of being negatively evaluated, while coping with aggression was related to being the victim of bullying in the present (Greene et al., 2014). Adolescence is clearly a critical period in LGBTQ adolescent development, and there is a distinct need to teach LGBTQ youth healthy coping behaviours.

Current Supports

While there is some research exploring group work with LGBTQ adults, (Chojnacki & Gelberg, 1995; Ross, Doctor, Dimito, Kuehl, & Armstrong, 2007), the primary form of support for LGBTQ youth are gay-straight alliance (GSA) groups in schools. The presence of a GSA is associated with many positive outcomes. LGBTQ youth who attend schools with GSAs are less likely to use cocaine, hallucinogens, marijuana, and are less likely to abuse ADHD and prescription pain medication (Heck, Livingston, Flentje, Oost, Steward, & Cochran, 2014). These students also report lower levels of victimization and suicide attempts (Goodenow, Szalacha, & Westheimer, 2006). It has been suggested that the presence of a GSA within a school reduces suicide attempts, while GSA membership lowers the rates of substance abuse (Walls, Wisneski, & Kane, 2013).

However, support for GSAs and policies promoting inclusivity in schools vary widely between school districts, cities, and provinces (Rayside, 2014). Since GSA support is not available in all institutions, it is important to develop other sources of assistance that are accessible to all LGBTQ youth. Another concern with GSAs is that membership may not be a safe option for students that are not yet “out”. It is also unclear if the supportive benefits extend into the summer months and beyond graduation. Skill development, on the other hand, would equip LGBTQ youth with effective and healthy coping strategies for present and future stressors.

Self-Compassion

Self-compassion is a way of relating to oneself with kindness and understanding (Neff, 2003). It consists of three core components: Self-kindness (vs. self-judgement), mindfulness (vs. over-identification with distress), and embracing interconnectedness with humanity (vs. isolation) (Neff & Germer, 2013). Self-compassion research has revealed a multitude of benefits, such as lower levels of personal distress and greater forgiveness (Neff & Pommier, 2013), less

emotional distress during conflict (Yarnell & Neff, 2013), increased psychological well-being, (Neff, Kirkpatrick & Rude, 2007), and lower levels of anxiety and depression (Gilbert & Procter, 2006).

Self-compassion approaches and interventions may be particularly useful for working with LGBTQ youth, given that they have been shown to reduce the effects of victimization (Jativa & Cerezo, 2014) and increase emotional well-being in adolescents (Bluth & Blanton, 2014). It has been shown that individuals high in self-compassion are less prone to shame (Woods & Proeve, 2014), and targeted self-compassion interventions have also been found to significantly decrease feelings of shame, self-criticism, and inferiority (Gilbert & Procter, 2006). Self-compassion approaches have also been developed for group settings, (Gilbert & Procter, 2006; Neff & Germer, 2013), which is appropriate for support groups and offers an effective and economic means of providing LGBTQ youth with information about positive coping strategies.

Conclusion

Given the maladaptive psychological functioning and negative consequences associated with shame-based coping strategies, there is a definitive need to provide support and coping skills to LGBTQ youth. Self-compassion research has already demonstrated promising results with adolescents, making it an ideal capacity to develop with the LGBTQ adolescent population, in both individual and group settings. Future research in this area can provide important information about the effectiveness of this approach, and if found to be significant, how therapists and counselors can maximize these benefits.



References

- Aragon, S. R., Poteat, V. P., Espelage, D. L., & Koenig, B. W. (2014). The influence of peer victimization on educational outcomes for LGBTQ and non-LGBTQ high school students. *Journal of LGBT Youth, 11*, 1-19. Doi: 10.1080/19361653.2014.840761
- Bluth, K., & Blanton, P. (2014). Mindfulness and self-compassion: Exploring pathways to adolescent emotional well-being. *Journal of Child & Family Services, 23*, 1298-1309. doi: 10.1007/s10826-013-9830-2
- Burton, C. M., Marshal, M. P., Chisolm, D. J., Sucato, G. S., & Friedman, M. S. (2013). Sexual minority-related victimization as a mediator of mental health disparities in sexual minority youth: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 42*, 394-402.
- Chojnacki, J. T., & Gelberg, S. (1995). The facilitation of a

- gay/lesbian/bisexual support therapy group by heterosexual counselors. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 73, 352-354.
- Gilbert, P., & Proctor, S. (2006). Compassionate mind training for people with high shame and self-criticism: Overview and pilot study of a group therapy approach. *Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy*, 13, 353-379. doi: 10.1002/ccp.507
- Greene, D. C., & Britton, P. J. (2012). Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender smokers: Correlations with external health control, health expectations, and shame-focused coping strategies. *Journal of LGBT Issues in Counselling*, 6, 202-228. doi: 10.1080/15538605.2012.710522
- Greene, D. C., Britton, P. J., & Fitts, B. (2014). Long-term outcomes of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender recalled school victimization. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 92, 406-417. doi: 10.1002/j.1556-6676.2014.00167.x
- Goldbach, J., Tanner-Smith, E., Bagwell, M., Dunlap, S. (2014). Minority stress and substance use in sexual minority adolescents: A meta-analysis. *Prevention Science*, 15, 350-363. doi: 10.1007/s11121-013-0393-7
- Goodenow, C., Szalacha, L., & Westheimer, K. (2006). School support groups, other school factors, and the safety of sexual minority adolescents. *Psychology in the Schools*, 43, 573-589. doi: 10.1002/pits.20173
- Heck, N. C., Livingston, N. A., Flentje, A., Oost, K., Stewart, B. T., & Cochran, B. N. (2014). Reducing risk for illicit drug use and prescription drug misuse: High school gay-straight alliances and lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender youth. *Addictive Behaviours*, 39, 824-828.
- Holmes, S. E., & Cahill, S. (2004). School experiences of gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender youth. *Journal of Gay & Lesbian Issues in Education*, 1, 53-66.
- Jativa, R., & Cerezo, M. A. (2014). The mediating role of self-compassion in the relationship between victimization and psychological maladjustment in a sample of adolescents. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 38, 1180-1191. doi: 10.1016/j.chiabu.2014.04.005
- Marshal, M. P., Friedman, M. S., Stall, R., King, K. M., Miles, J., Gold, M. A., Bukstein, O. G., & Morse, J. Q. (2008). Sexual orientation and adolescent substance use: a meta-analysis and methodological review. *Addiction*, 103, 546-557.
- Meyer, I. H. (2003). Prejudice, social stress, and mental health in lesbian, gay, and bisexual populations: Conceptual issues and research evidence. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129, 674-679. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.129.5.674
- Neff, K. D. (2003). Self-compassion: An alternative conceptualization of a healthy attitude toward oneself. *Self and Identity*, 2, 85-101. doi: 10.1080/15298860309032
- Neff, K. D., & Germer, C. K. (2013). A pilot study and randomized controlled trial of the mindful self-compassion program. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 69, 856-867. doi: 10.1002/jclp.22021
- Neff, K. D., Kirkpatrick, K. L., & Rude, S. S. (2007). Self-compassion and adaptive psychological functioning. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 41, 139-154. doi: 10.1016/j.jrp.2006.03.004
- Neff, K. D., & Pommier, E. (2013). The relationship between self-compassion and other-focused concern among college undergraduates, community adults, and practicing meditators. *Self and Identity*, 12, 160-176. doi: 10.1080/15298868.2011.649546
- Rayside, D. (2014). The inadequate recognition of sexual diversity by Canadian schools: LGBT advocacy and its impact. *Journal of Canadian Studies*, 48, 190-225.
- Rivers, I. (2004). Recollections of bullying at school and their long-term implications for lesbians, gay men, and bisexuals. *Crisis*, 25, 169-175.
- Ross, L. E., Doctor, F., Dimito, A., Kuehl, D., & Armstrong, M. S. (2007). Can talking about oppression reduce depression? Modified CBT group treatment for LGBT people with depression. *Journal of Gay and Lesbian Social Services*, 19, 1-15.
- Russell, S. T., Ryan, C., Toomey, R. B., Diaz, R. M., & Sanchez, J. (2011). Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender adolescent school victimization: implications for young adult health and adjustment. *Journal of School Health*, 81, 223-230.
- Walls, N. E., Wisneski, H., & Kane, S. (2013). School climate, individual support, or both? Gay-straight Alliances and the mental health of sexual minority youth. *School Social Work Journal*, 37, 88-111.
- Woods, H., & Proeve, M. (2014). Relationships of mindfulness, self-compassion, and meditation experience with shame-proneness. *Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy*, 28, 20-33. doi: 10.1891/0889-8391.28.1.20
- Yarnell, L. M., & Neff, K. D. (2013). Self-compassion, interpersonal conflict resolutions, and well-being. *Self and Identity*, 12, 146-159. doi: 10.1080/15298868.2011.649545

The relationship between violent media, pornography, and sexual cyber dating abuse among adolescents

Jessica Sciaraffa, J.S., University of Western Ontario, MA

Peter George Jaffe, P.G.J., University of Western Ontario, PhD

Claire Crooks, C.C., University of Western Ontario, PhD

Abstract

Despite the integral role that technology plays in the day-to-day experience of adolescents, and the high prevalence of cyber dating abuse, there is a paucity of research in this area, including those risk factors associated with its perpetration and experience. Even with adolescents' high consumption of popular media, limited research has explored the role of media violence consumption as a risk factor for dating abuse. Although studies are beginning to find associations between media use and dating violence, the relationship between violent media and cyber dating abuse has yet to be examined. Additionally, no research has explored the impact of pornography on teen dating abuse. This review outlines the literature examining violent media and pornography as potential risk factors for teen dating aggression, calling special attention to the paucity of research in this area and the need to investigate the relationship between violent media, pornography, and sexual cyber dating abuse.

Résumé

Malgré le rôle fondamental que joue la technologie dans la vie quotidienne des adolescents, et la forte prévalence des agressions à la suite d'une rencontre sur Internet, il y a très peu de recherche sur le sujet ni sur les facteurs de risque associés à la perpétration de ces agressions et à l'expérience des victimes. Même si les adolescents utilisent énormément les médias populaires, peu de chercheurs se penchent sur le rôle de la violence présentée dans les médias comme facteur de risque de la violence dans les fréquentations. Bien que des études commencent à trouver des liens entre l'usage des médias et la violence dans les fréquentations, la relation entre la violence dans les médias et la violence dans les fréquentations n'a pas encore été étudiée. En outre, aucune recherche n'a étudié l'effet de la pornographie sur la violence dans les fréquentations chez les adolescents. La présente

analyse passe en revue la documentation consacrée à la violence dans les médias et la pornographie, en tant que facteurs de risque potentiels de la violence dans les fréquentations chez les adolescents, et attire l'attention sur la rareté des recherches dans ce domaine et sur la nécessité d'étudier la relation entre la violence présentée dans les médias, la pornographie et les agressions sexuelles à la suite d'une rencontre sur Internet.



Adolescence is an important developmental period for establishing healthy romantic relationships. Studies show that patterns of dating violence often emerge during adolescence (Silverman, Raj, Mucci, & Hathaway, 2001). The term "dating violence" has been used to describe physical, sexual, psychological, or emotional violence with a current or former romantic partner (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2010). Between 30% and 60% of Canadian youth report having experienced physical, sexual or psychological dating violence (SIECCAN, 2011). Thus, adolescence represents a critical period to study dating violence.

Recent advancements in technology (e.g., social networking, texting) have created new tools for adolescents to abuse their dating partners. "Cyber dating abuse", is the use of technology and new media to harass or control a dating partner (Zweig, Dank, Yahner, & Lachman, 2013). Cyber dating abuse is highly prevalent and more than one out of four youth reported being a victim of such abuse in the past year (Zweig et al., 2013). Cyber dating abuse remains a new area of research, and limited research has examined those risk factors associated with its perpetration and experience. Further, limited research has investigated the role of violent media and pornography consumption in teen dating violence. This review outlines the literature examining violent media and pornogra-

phy as potential risk factors for teen dating aggression, calling attention to the need to investigate the relationship between violent media, pornography, and sexual cyber dating abuse.

Cyber Dating Abuse

Research suggests that although adolescent dating violence is often bidirectional with both partners perpetrating and sustaining abuse, boys and girls are abusive in different ways (Williams et al., 2008). The literature agrees that while girls report perpetrating more physical dating violence compared to boys, boys report engaging in more sexual forms of dating violence and girls report higher sexual victimization (O'Leary, Slep, Cascardi, & Avery-Leaf, 2008; Young, Grey, & Boyd, 2009). Youths' daily activities and social worlds revolve around new media practices such as using cell phones, watching and creating online videos, and connecting to social networking websites (Rideout, Roberts, & Foehr, 2005). Given the high frequency at which youth use technology, it is not surprising that technology use plays an important role in how youth interact with dating partners. Of particular interest, however, is sexual cyber dating abuse (e.g., pressuring a partner to send a sexual photo, posting sexual photos of one's partner online without the partner's consent), with research showing that males are more likely to engage in this behaviour, and that females are twice as likely to be victims.

Media Violence as a Risk Factor for Dating Aggression

In an effort to prevent adolescent dating violence and to better understand its development, a burgeoning body of research has examined risk factors for victimization and perpetration. Exposure to violence, attitudes towards violence, peer influence, personality factors, problem behaviour, and relationship variables are the major risks identified in previous research (Carpaldi, Knoble, Shortt, & Kim, 2012). Research has found that victimization experiences of cyber dating abuse were significantly correlated with being female, committing a greater variety of delinquent behaviours, and having higher levels of depressive symptoms, anger and hostility (Zweig, Lachman, Yahner, & Dank, 2013).

One risk factor in the teen dating violence literature that is beginning to receive attention is exposure to media violence, used to refer primarily to acts of physical aggression that are intended to harm (e.g., physical fights, murder, assault, rape). Reinforcing the importance of studying media effects is the fact that

teenagers are avid consumers of popular media. A recent study found that the average teenager is exposed to multiple media types each day, totaling more than 7.5 hours (Rideout, Foehr, & Roberts, 2010). Furthermore, adolescents also report the importance of the media as a source of information about dating relationships (Wood, Senn, Desmarais, Park, & Verberg, 2002).

Recently, this interest in the relationship between violent media and dating aggression was sparked by Manganello (2008) who argued that mass media images that portray aggressive behaviour towards others in ways that adolescents can realistically identify increase the risk for aggression in their own relationships. This occurs because the media images serve as models for romantic behaviour and increase adolescents' beliefs that violence is an acceptable way to resolve conflict. Despite the paucity of research that has examined the influence of aggressive media on dating violence, some studies are beginning to provide initial support. Specifically, two longitudinal studies found that adolescents' consumption of aggressive media across multiple media types was associated with an increased likelihood of perpetrating and experiencing physical dating violence in the long-term (Connolly, Friedlander, Pepler, Craig, & Laporte, 2010; Friedlander, Connolly, Pepler and Craig, 2013). Despite this research support, these studies indicate that some adolescents are exposed to aggressive media but do not transfer this to their romantic relationships. Multiple risk factors can contribute to experiences of dating violence (e.g., personality factors, family violence), and protective factors may also play a role in buffering the negative impact of exposure to aggressive media (Friedlander et al., 2013).

Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1989) has been commonly used in the media and dating violence literature and argues that background variables (e.g., violent media), in addition to proximal variables (e.g., relationship conflict), can increase the likelihood that an individual becomes involved in dating violence (DeWall, Anderson, & Bushman, 2011). According to this theory, adolescents learn to behave aggressively by imitating the aggressive behaviours they have observed and seen rewarded in others. This modelling process fosters a positive attitude toward the use of violence through the development of a positive outcome expectancy regarding aggression (Brendgen et al., 2002). These violence-tolerant attitudes increase the likelihood that individuals engage in aggressive be-

haviours (Friedlander et al., 2013). It is also suggested that, by observing media portrayals of victims ignoring threat cues of potential violence from the aggressor, adolescents also learn to disregard these cues in their own relationships and then do not prioritize their own safety over the need to maintain the relationship (Noll & Grych, 2011). Victims similarly develop more tolerant attitudes about aggression, which then increase their vulnerability of experiencing aggression (Friedlander et al., 2013).

Mediating Role of Attitudes Toward Dating Violence

In line with social cognitive theory, aggressive media may exert its effect on dating violence through adolescents' attitudes. Research suggests that aggression-tolerant attitudes in adolescents are predictive of the likelihood of using aggression in both new and current dating relationships (Williams, Connolly, Peller, Craig, & Laporte, 2008). Several studies support the role of violence-tolerant attitudes as a mediator in the relationship between media violence and the perpetration and experience of dating aggression (Connolly et al., 2010; Friedlander et al., 2013).

Exposure to Pornography a Risk Factor for Dating Aggression

No research known to date has examined the influence of pornography as an aggressive media type on teen dating violence. Reinforcing the importance of studying the effects of pornography is the alarming research finding that teenagers between 12 and 17 years of age make up the largest group of internet pornography consumers ("Facts and Figures", 2013). Thus, pornography can play an important role in the sexual education of adolescents and can skew their understanding of what constitutes normal and healthy sexual relationship.

Several studies have documented the impact of pornography on individuals' sexual attitudes, beliefs, sexual behaviour, and sexual aggression. Bonino, Ciairano, Rabaglietti, and Cattellino (2006) found that boys' exposure to pornography was associated with an increased risk of sexual violence and harassment. Meanwhile, in adolescent girls, pornography use increased the likelihood of being a victim of sexual violence. Similarly, Brown and L'Engle (2009) found that exposure to sexually explicit media in early adolescent boys predicted more permissive sexual norms and greater involvement in sexual harassment by mid-adolescence. For both early adolescent boys and girls, exposure to sexually explicit media predicted less progressive gender role attitudes and having sexual in-

tercourse by mid-adolescence. Research suggests that pornography reinforces traditional gender roles around male dominance and female submission, beliefs of women as sex objects, and attitudes tolerant of sexual aggression that can contribute to an increased risk of engaging in sexually aggressive behaviours (Owens et al., 2012).

Despite this research support, it is notable that much of the research to date examining the relationship between pornography and sexual aggression has either been cross-sectional, correlational, or both, and is not indicative of causation. It has been suggested that pornography can also have positive effects on youth in terms of providing them with enhanced sexual knowledge and a means of exploring their sexuality (Hald & Malamuth, 2008), and that it may only be problematic if it is their only sexual educator. Research further suggests that pornography may only be related to the perpetration of sexual aggression in adolescents who also possess a combination of predisposing risk factors (e.g., antisocial tendencies, hostility, childhood history of sexual abuse; exposure to domestic violence; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2005). In addition, studies also indicate that although mutually consensual, non-violent pornography has neither positive nor negative effects, violent porn may have different and more negative effects (Owens et al., 2012).

Gaps in the Research Literature

Several gaps exist in the adolescent dating violence literature. First, there is a paucity of research in the area of cyber bullying more broadly, and more specifically, in the domain of cyber dating abuse, including those risk factors associated with its experience and perpetration. Cyber dating abuse is a relatively new phenomenon, and despite recent research that supports its high prevalence among youth (Zweig et al., 2013), and the integral role that technology plays in the day-to-day experience of adolescents (e.g., Lenhart, 2012), limited research has been conducted in this field. Second, despite growing research that points to adolescents' increasingly high consumption of popular media (e.g., Lenhart, 2012), as well as budding support for the impact of aggressive media usage on dating violence outcomes (e.g., Connolly et al., 2010; Friedlander et al., 2013), limited research has focused on aggressive media as a risk factor for dating violence perpetration and victimization. Third, despite the high consumption of pornography among adolescents and research showing that adolescents' use of pornography is associated with the perpetration and experience of sexual violence, no known re-

search to date has examined the influence of pornography as an aggressive media type on teen dating violence. And fourth, the majority of research examining the impact of media aggression on adolescent dating violence has focused mainly on physical dating violence outcomes, and limited research has investigated the influence of the media on sexual forms of dating aggression. No research to date has examined the relationship between exposure to media violence and cyber dating abuse. Research examining the relationship between exposure to violent media and pornography, and the perpetration and experience of sexual cyber dating abuse is needed. In addition, the limited research that has examined the relationship between media consumption and dating violence has focused exclusively on heterosexual dating relationships; as such, more research is needed to determine whether this relationship holds for adolescents in same-sex relationships.

Conclusion

It is critical to identify those risk factors associated with dating aggression early in adolescence, an important developmental period for learning patterns of interaction, in order to effectively prevent future abuse in adult intimate relationships. Research investigating the relationship between media violence, pornography and cyber dating abuse can be used to inform the development of dating violence prevention and intervention programs for youth that emphasize media literacy. Media literacy programs can be used to challenge youths' attitudes about dating violence and also help young people develop critical viewing skills to make them less vulnerable to the harmful effects of the media. By providing adolescents with direct instruction on how to examine, analyze, and evaluate messages encountered in the media, these programs can allow youth to become active participants in the communication process. Research in this area will also have implications for the importance of involving and educating parents on how to communicate with their children about media violence, as well as policy implications for the development of pro-social media content.



References

- Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist*, 44, 1175-1184. doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.44.9.1175
- Bonino, S., Ciairano, S., Rabaglietti, E., & Cattellino, E. (2006). Use of pornography and self-reported engagement in sexual violence among adolescents. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 3(3), 265-288. doi: 10.1080/17405620600562359
- Brendgen, M., Vitaro, F., Tremblay, R. E., & Wanner, B. (2002). Parent and peer effects on delinquency-related violence and dating violence: A test of mediational models. *Social Development*, 11(2), 225-243. doi: 10.1111/1467-9507.00196
- Brown, J.D., & L'Engle, K.L. (2009). X-rated sexual attitudes and behaviours associated with U.S. early adolescents' exposure to sexually explicit media. *Journal of Communications Research*, 36(1), 129-151. doi: 10.1177/0093650208326465
- Capaldi, D. M., Knoble, N. B., Shortt, J. W., & Kim, H. K. (2012). A systematic review of risk factors for intimate partner violence. *Partner Abuse*, 3, 231-280. doi: 10.1891/1946-6560.3.2.231
- Centers for Disease and Control and Prevention. (2010). *Intimate partner violence: Overview*. Retrieved November 27, 2013, from <http://www.cdc.gov/ViolencePrevention/intimatepartnerviolence/index.html>
- Connolly, J., Friedlander, L., Pepler, D., Craig, W., & Laporte, L. (2010). The ecology of adolescent dating aggression: Attitudes, relationships, media use, and socio-demographic risk factors. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment and Trauma*, 19, 469-491. doi: 10.1080/10926771.2010.495028
- DeWall, C. N., Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (2011). The general aggression model: Theoretical extensions to violence. *Psychology of Violence*, 1, 1-14. doi: 10.1037/a0023842
- Facts and Figures, Our Culture is Porn Culture (U.S. and International Figures). (2013). In Stop Porn Culture. Retrieved November 29, 2013, from <http://stopporn-culture.org/resources/facts-and-figures-2/>
- Friedlander, L., Connolly, J., Pepler, D., & Craig, W. (2013). Extensiveness and persistence of aggressive media exposure as longitudinal risk factors for teen dating violence. *Psychology of Violence*, 3(4), 310-322. doi: 10.1037/a0032983
- Hald, M., & Malamuth, N. (2008). Self-perceived effects of pornography in a representative sample of the Danish population. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 37, 614-625. doi: 10.1007/s10508-007-9212-1
- Lenhart, A. (2012). *Teens, smartphones, and texting*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center's Internet and American Life Project.
- Manganello, J. A. (2008). Teens, dating violence, and media use. *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse*, 9(1), 3-18. doi: 10.1177/1524838007309804
- Noll, J., & Grych, J. (2011). Read-react-respond: An integrative model for understanding sexual revictimization. *Psychology of Violence*, 1, 202-215. doi: 10.1037/a0023962
- O'Leary, K. D., Slep, A. M. S., Cascardi, M., & Avery-Leaf, S. (2008). Gender differences in dating aggression among multiethnic high school students. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 42(5), 473-479. doi: 10.1016/j.jadohealth.2007.09.012

- Owens, E. W., Behun, R. J., Manning, J. C., & Reid, R. C. (2012). The impact of Internet pornography on adolescents: A review of the research. *Sexual Addiction and Compulsivity, 19*, 9-122. doi: 10.1080/10720162.2012.660431
- Rideout, V. J., Foehr, U. G., & Roberts, D. F. (2010). *Generation M: Media in the lives of 8-18 year-olds*. Kaiser Family Foundation.
- Rideout, V., Roberts, D., & Foehr, U. (2005). *Generation M: Media in the lives of 8–18 year-olds*. Menlo Park, CA: The Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation.
- Silverman, J.G., Raj, A., Mucci, L.A., Hathaway, J.E. (2001). Dating violence against adolescent girls and associated substance use, unhealthy weight control, sexual risk behavior, pregnancy, and suicidality. *The Journal of the American Medical Association, 2(5)*, 572-579. doi: 10.1001/jama.286.5.572
- The Sex Information and Education Council of Canada (SIECCAN). 2011. *Sexualityandu.ca*. Retrieved March 7, 2015, from http://sexualityandu.ca/uploads/files/CTR_DatingViolence-MAY2011.pdf
- Williams, T. S., Connolly, J., Pepler, D., Craig, W., & LaPorte, L. (2008). Risk models of dating aggression across different adolescent relationships: A developmental psychopathology approach. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 76(4)*, 622–632. doi: 10.1037/0022-006X.76.4.622
- Wood, E., Senn, C., Desmarais, S., Park, L., & Verberg, N. (2002). Sources of information about dating and their perceived influence on adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 17(4)*, 401-417. doi: 10.1177/07458402017004005
- Ybarra, M. L., & Mitchell, K. J. (2005). Exposure to Internet pornography among children and adolescents: A national survey. *CyberPsychology and Behavior, 8*, 473-486. doi: 10.1089/cpb.2005.8.473
- Young, A. M., Grey, M., & Boyd, C. J. (2009). Adolescents' experiences of sexual assault by peers: Prevalence and nature of victimization occurring within and outside of school. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 38*, 1072-1083. doi:10.1007/s10964-008-9363-y
- Zweig, J.M., Dank, M., Yahner, J., & Lachman, P. (2013). The rate of cyber dating abuse among teens and how it relates to other forms of teen dating violence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 42*, 1063-1077. doi: 10.1007/s10964-013-9922-8
- Zweig J.M., Lachman, P., Yahner, J., & Dank, M. (2013). Correlates of cyber dating abuse among teens. *Journal of youth and Adolescence, 2(5)*, 182-201. doi: 10.1007/s10964-013-0047-x

Le partage des connaissances en contexte interdisciplinaire : Effets de l'engagement, des conflits et de la collaboration

Frédérique-Emmanuelle Lessard, Université de Montréal, BSc, PhD Student
Isabelle Tremblay, Université de Montréal, BSc, PhD Candidate
François Chiochio, Telfer Business School, PhD

Résumé

Le partage des connaissances au sein des équipes de travail est un important vecteur pour la performance des organisations (Stasser & Titus, 1985). La présente recherche vise à étudier les relations entre l'engagement à son équipe de travail interdisciplinaire, la collaboration, les conflits, et le partage des connaissances dans l'équipe. Les données ont été recueillies de façon autorapportée auprès de 43 personnes œuvrant au sein d'équipes interdisciplinaires. Les analyses de médiation multivariées (Hayes & Preacher, 2011) indiquent que la collaboration médie, et de façon positive, complètement la relation entre l'engagement envers l'équipe et le partage de connaissance ; alors que les conflits médient négativement et complètement cette relation. La discussion met en évidence les implications pratiques et théoriques de cette étude, les limites à la généralisation des résultats et propose des pistes de recherche futures.

Abstract

Knowledge sharing in work teams is an important vehicle for organizational performance (Stasser & Titus, 1985). This research aims to study relationships between team commitment in an interdisciplinary team, collaboration conflicts, and knowledge sharing in the team. Self-reported data were collected from 43 workers involved in interdisciplinary teams. Multivariate mediation analyses (Hayes & Preacher, 2011) show that collaboration completely and positively mediates the relationship between commitment and knowledge sharing, while conflicts completely mediate the relationship in a negative way. The discussion brings out practical and theoretical implications, limitations and suggestion for future researches.

Problématique

L'activité intellectuelle et les connaissances sont des ressources essentielles pour assurer la compétence au travail (Grant, 1996 ; Sveiby, 2001 ; Wernerfelt, 1984). Les connaissances des employés sont un atout pour la compétitivité de l'organisation (Reid, 2003), sa performance (Teece, 2000) et sa croissance (Grant, 1996). Ainsi, il est pertinent d'étudier les conditions favorables au partage des connaissances entre employés, car ce partage est reconnu pour augmenter leur productivité (Reychav & Weisberg, 2009) et la performance de l'organisation (Stasser & Titus, 1985).

De plus, la présence des équipes interdisciplinaires dans les organisations d'aujourd'hui est grandissante (D'amour & Oandasan, 2005); et bien que Kessel, Kratzer & Schultz (2012) ont montré que ces équipes manifestaient une meilleure créativité pour résoudre des problèmes liés au travail lorsque les membres de ces équipes partageaient leurs connaissances entre eux, aucune étude n'a examiné l'incidence de processus comme la collaboration et les conflits sur le partage des connaissances.

Cette recherche vise donc l'étude de facteurs contribuant au partage des connaissances entre employés œuvrant au sein d'équipes interdisciplinaires. Par la présente, le rôle de l'engagement à son équipe, de la collaboration et des conflits sera évalué.

Fondements théoriques

Le partage des connaissances

Le partage des connaissances se définit comme étant l'action de fournir ou de transférer des connaissances à autrui. Les connaissances sont définies comme un savoir-faire, ou tout savoir susceptible d'aider autrui dans la résolution de problème au sein de l'organisation (Bock, Zmud, Kim & Lee, 2005).

Le partage des connaissances part du désir des individus de partager à leurs collègues les connaissances qu'ils ont acquises ou développées au travail



(Gibbert & Krause, 2002). Cependant, comme ce partage engendre des coûts sans nécessairement permettre d'en récolter des bénéfices équivalents, il peut facilement être annihilé. Par exemple, le monopole d'une connaissance permet d'avoir un statut unique parmi ses collègues et le partage ce savoir implique la perte de ce statut privilégié, sans aucune assurance de retour d'ascenseur (Dawes, 1980). De plus, les connaissances partagées sont soumises à un jugement en regard de leur pertinence et de leur exactitude; ce qui comporte un risque pour la réputation de l'individu (Constant, Kiesler & Sproull, 1994).

Le modèle de Bock et al., (2005) révèle que l'intention de partager ses connaissances est précédée de l'attitude qu'a l'employé envers le fait de partager ses connaissances, la norme sociale qu'il ressent par rapport à ce partage, ainsi que le climat de l'organisation.

Telle que le définissent les auteurs, l'attitude envers le partage des connaissances est influencée principalement par l'anticipation de relations réciproques avec les autres membres de l'équipe. De plus, la norme sociale perçue est, pour sa part, influencée par la perception qu'un ancien partage de connaissances a effectivement été utile à ses collègues (Bock & al., 2005). Au niveau du climat organisationnel, la communication et la confiance entre les employés, l'engagement envers son organisation et l'existence de buts communs contribue à la perception d'un climat encourageant le partage des connaissances (Witherspoon, Bergner, Cockrell & Stone, 2013).

À la lumière de ce modèle, la présente recherche tente d'élucider l'influence de l'engagement à l'équipe de travail et de deux processus d'équipe, la collaboration et les conflits, sur le partage des connaissances. En effet, il est probable que les membres engagés à leur équipe de travail se sentent plus affiliés à celle-ci et soient plus enclins à partager leur savoir avec leurs collègues (Chang, Yen, Chiang, & Parolia, 2013; Perce & Herbig, 2010). De plus, il est probable que les membres des équipes de travail où il y a plus de collaboration soient plus susceptibles de s'attendre à des comportements de réciprocité de la part de leurs collègues et d'observer les bienfaits des connaissances qu'ils ont partagées antérieurement (Cabrera, & Cabrera, 2005); alors que les membres des équipes de travail dominées par les conflits ont moins de chance d'avoir de telles attentes ou observations (deWit, Greer & Jehn, 2011). La prochaine section documente les connaissances qui pourraient expliquer l'influence de ces trois phénomènes sur le partage des connaissances.

Conditions favorisant le partage des connaissances

L'engagement envers son équipe de travail se définit par l'attachement psychologique ressenti par les employés envers leur équipe (Pearce & Herbig, 2010). Elle se compose de trois dimensions : affective, normative (de loyauté) et de continuation (perception des coûts engendrés par le fait de quitter l'équipe) (Stinglhamber, Bentein & Vandenberghe, 2004).

L'engagement à l'équipe de travail favoriserait le partage des connaissances, car les individus engagés émettent plus de comportements de citoyenneté organisationnelle, dont le partage de connaissance, et sont plus enclins à faire l'effort d'être aidant pour le bien de l'équipe (Perce & Herbig, 2010). Les individus qui perçoivent davantage de bénéfices individuels, et de groupes, reliés au partage des connaissances seront plus enclins à le faire (Constant & al., 1994). Chang et al., (2013) ont pour leur part trouvé que l'engagement affectif à l'équipe de travail et le partage d'un but commun prédisaient la contribution des individus aux connaissances de cette équipe.

Processus d'équipe et hypothèses

En concordance avec les antécédents de l'intention de partager ses connaissances du modèle de Bock et al., (2005), la collaboration entre les membres de l'équipe pourrait expliquer une partie du partage des connaissances au sein des équipes interdisciplinaires. La collaboration est définie par Chiochio, Grenier, O'Neil, Savaria & Willms (2012) comme l'interaction de quatre processus, soit la communication d'équipe, la synchronie, la coordination explicite et la coordination implicite.

L'engagement envers son équipe de travail augmente la confiance entre les membres de l'équipe (Costa, 2003), condition essentielle à la collaboration (Sabel, 1993). Plusieurs chercheurs avancent que la collaboration est un antécédent important du partage des connaissances, car elle permet la création d'un capital social et encourage le développement de relations interpersonnelles étroites, ce qui a un effet positif sur l'intention de partager (Cabrera, & Cabrera, 2005). En effet, Witherspoon et al., (2013) ont montré que la communication et la confiance entre les employés favorisent le partage des connaissances entre eux. Ainsi nous proposons comme première hypothèse que la relation entre l'engagement et le partage des connaissances soit médiée positivement et complètement par la collaboration au sein de l'équipe.

À l'inverse, les conflits pourraient nuire au partage des connaissances à l'intérieur des équipes interdisciplinaires. Ils sont généralement étudiés dans leurs

trois dimensions (Jehn & Chatman, 2000) : affectifs qui relatent aux désaccords concernant des questions personnelles, sur la tâche qui réfèrent aux désaccords sur le travail à effectuer et de processus qui concernent les désaccords sur la manière d'accomplir le travail. Cependant, Jehn & Mannix (2001) proposent d'étudier les effets du conflit global lorsqu'on travaille avec des équipes de travail. De ce fait, la définition de Jehn & Mannix (2001) est reprise dans cette étude et comprend l'ensemble des désaccords concernant les questions personnelles, reliées à la tâche et au processus.

La méta-analyse de deWit et al., (2011) indique que les conflits relationnels et de processus sont négativement reliés aux comportements de citoyenneté organisationnel. De plus, les conflits auraient pour effet d'éroder les effets positifs de l'engagement et du partage de connaissances au sein des équipes (Amason & Sapienza, 1997). Ceci porte à croire que la présence de conflits influencerait négativement la relation entre l'engagement envers l'équipe de travail et le partage des connaissances au sein de cette équipe. Ainsi nous proposons en seconde hypothèse que la relation entre l'engagement et le partage des connaissances soit médiée négativement et complètement par les conflits au sein de l'équipe.

Méthodologie

Les échelles de mesure

Le partage des connaissances a été mesuré avec un instrument à 5 items, élaboré à partir des travaux de Bock et al., (2005). L'engagement envers l'équipe de travail a été mesuré avec 54 items développés par Allen & Meyer (1990) traduits, adaptés et validés par Stinglhamber et al., (2004) où chacune des trois formes d'engagement (affectif, normatif, de continuation) est évaluée par une échelle de 18 items. La collaboration a été mesurée à l'aide de l'instrument de 14 items de Chiochio et al., (2012) disponible et validé en français, instrument mesurant les quatre dimensions de la collaboration (communication d'équipe, synchronisation temporelle, coordinations explicite et implicite). Le conflit global a été mesuré par l'instrument de 9 items de Jehn & Mannix (2001), qui mesure les trois dimensions du conflit (relationnel, sur la tâche et sur le processus). Le partage des connaissances et l'engagement ont été mesurés à l'aide d'une échelle d'accord à cinq ancrés, tandis que la collaboration et le conflit global ont été mesurés à l'aide d'une échelle de fréquence de cinq ancrés.

Répondants

L'échantillon est composé de 43 personnes (56.8% de femmes) travaillant au sein d'équipes interdisciplinaires dans diverses organisations et possédant divers niveaux d'éducation. Tous ont rempli le formulaire de consentement approuvé par le Comité d'éthique de la recherche des arts et des sciences de l'Université de Montréal. Ces personnes proviennent majoritairement du Québec et un petit pourcentage provient de la France. L'âge moyen des répondants est de 35.89 ans (écart-type de 11.73 ans), le plus jeune répondant ayant 23 ans et le plus âgé, 62 ans. Les répondants passaient, en moyenne 54% de leur temps en emploi à travailler en équipe, qui était composée, en moyenne, de 13 personnes. Il est à noter que les répondants ne travaillaient pas nécessairement dans les mêmes équipes de travail.

Méthode de collecte des données

Le questionnaire a été distribué par la technique « Boule de neige » qui consiste à distribuer le questionnaire par le biais de réseaux sociaux. La passation du questionnaire se faisait en ligne.

Résultats

Un examen de la normalité des distributions, de l'homogénéité de la variance, des moyennes et des écarts types, des valeurs extrêmes et des données manquantes a été réalisé avant d'effectuer les analyses principales. Comme cette étude est exploratoire, l'intervalle de confiance qui sera utilisé est de 10% ($p < 0.01$). Des analyses de médiation, basées sur les procédures de Hayes & Preacher (2011), ont été effectuées. Les résultats, présentés dans le tableau 1, révèlent une médiation de la collaboration sur la relation entre l'engagement à l'équipe de travail et le partage des connaissances (0.14; IC 90% [0.03 – 0.28]), ainsi qu'une médiation des conflits sur la relation entre l'engagement à l'équipe de travail et le partage des connaissances (-0.11; IC 90% [-0.23 – -0.01]). Ces médiations sont complètes étant donné que le coefficient de régression entre l'engagement à l'équipe de travail et le partage des connaissances ne se distingue pas de zéro une fois les effets de la collaboration et des conflits contrôlés ($\beta = -0.14$, *ns*). Finalement, ce modèle explique 20% de l'influence de la collaboration et des conflits sur la relation entre l'engagement et le partage de connaissance ($F[3, 38] = 3.24$, $p < 0.05$).

Tableau 1

Corrélations avec le partage des connaissances auprès de travailleurs au sein d'équipes interdisciplinaires (N = 43)

Variables		M_1	M_2	γ	
		Coefficient (erreur-type)	Coefficient (erreur-type)		Coefficient (erreur-type)
C	i_2	2.89** (0.42)	3.30* (0.46)	i_1	2.77* (0.77)
E	a_1	0.37* (0.14)	-0.45* (0.15)	c'_1	-0.14 (0.13)
M_1				b_1	0.14* (0.08)
M_2				b_2	-0.11* (0.07)

Note. C : constante; E : Engagement à l'équipe; M_1 : Collaboration; M_2 Conflits; γ : Partage des connaissances. * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$.

Discussion

Afin d'être le plus performante possible, l'équipe interdisciplinaire nécessite que ses membres partagent leur expertise (Van Der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005). Ainsi, il est important de connaître les facteurs facilitant et obstruant le partage de connaissances. À cet égard, cette étude préliminaire s'est attardée aux relations entre l'engagement à l'équipe de travail, la collaboration, les conflits et le partage des connaissances.

Toutes les hypothèses présentées ci-dessus ont été confirmées. En effet, l'engagement à l'équipe n'est lié au partage des connaissances que lorsqu'on tient compte des deux processus d'équipe agissant ainsi à titre de médiateurs complets. La collaboration encourage le partage des connaissances, car elle facilite la création d'un capital social et encourage le développement de relations interpersonnelles, ce qui a un effet positif sur l'intention de partager (Cabrera, & Cabrera, 2005) et médie ici entièrement et positivement la relation entre l'engagement à l'équipe de travail et le partage des connaissances. Les conflits diminuent les comportements de citoyenneté organisationnels (de Wit & al., 2011), nuisent aux effets positifs de l'engagement et de réduisent le partage de connaissances au sein des équipes de travail (Amason & Sapienza, 1997). Ceci corrobore avec les résultats de cette étude, puisque l'engagement à l'équipe de travail n'est lié négativement au partage des connaissances que lorsqu'on tient compte des conflits.

Cette recherche comporte certaines limites à la généralisation des résultats. D'abord, il s'agit d'une étude préliminaire, avec l'utilisation d'un seuil de signification statistique à 90%, ayant été menée à partir d'un petit échantillon de 43 participants majoritaire-

ment québécois. De plus, cet échantillon n'a pas pu être choisi de manière aléatoire, l'instrument utilisé pour cette étude ayant été distribué par la technique « boule de neige ». Les personnes répondant volontairement et sans récompense pécuniaire peuvent présenter certaines caractéristiques de manière plus homogène que la population générale, notamment un niveau de collaboration. La taille réduite de l'échantillon et la potentielle diminution de la variance quant au niveau de collaboration des participants pourraient amoindrir l'effet médiateur mesuré de la collaboration sur la relation entre l'engagement et le partage des connaissances. Finalement, les répondants ne travaillaient pas au sein des mêmes équipes et rapportaient leurs perceptions individuelles des phénomènes d'équipe, ce qui a empêché l'agrégation des données au niveau de l'équipe. En guise de piste de recherches futures, il serait pertinent d'évaluer les processus d'équipe en récoltant des données auprès de l'entièreté des membres des équipes de travail et du superviseur direct de l'équipe. Les réponses fournies par le superviseur permettraient de réduire l'effet du biais de variance commune. D'autres pistes théoriques seraient intéressantes à étudier; comme la vérification du modèle selon les différentes cibles de l'engagement, par exemple organisationnel ou à la profession, car il semblerait que les processus d'équipe soient influencés différemment selon les cibles de l'engagement (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Tremblay, Lee, Meyer, & Chiochio, sous presse).

Cette étude présente également des apports théoriques importants. Peu d'études sont faites sur l'effet de ces processus d'équipes sur le partage des connaissances dans les équipes interdisciplinaires. De plus, elle permet d'augmenter la compréhension du rôle des conflits globaux sur un processus d'équipe; ce que peu d'études tendent à faire (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Sur un plan pratique, elle met en lumière l'importance des processus psychologiques positifs au sein des équipes de travail, car ceux-ci favorisent le partage des connaissances. Par exemple, il existe des stratégies pour gérer les conflits au sein des équipes afin d'éviter que les débats d'idées se transforment en conflits relationnels. Par exemple, Eisenhardt, Kahwajy & Bourgeois (1997) proposent de diriger l'attention des membres de l'équipe sur les enjeux de l'équipe plutôt que sur la personnalité des membres, de mettre l'emphase sur les buts communs aux membres de l'équipe et de se soucier d'un sens d'équité et de justice au sein de l'équipe. Ainsi, les effets négatifs des conflits globaux sont amoindris sur les relations au sein de l'équipe.



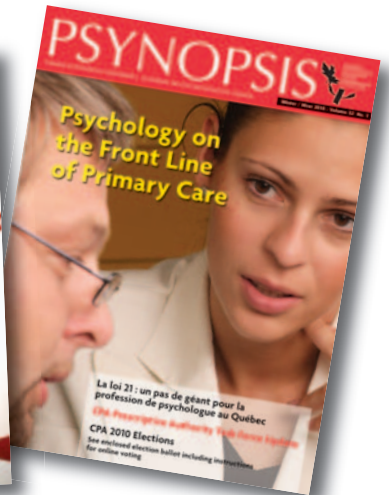
Références

- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of occupational psychology*, 63(1), 1-18.
- Amason, A. C., & Sapienza, H. J. (1997). The effects of top management team size and interaction norms on cognitive and affective conflict. *Journal of management*, 23(4), 495-516.
- Bock, G. W., Zmud, R. W., Kim, Y. G., & Lee, J. N. (2005). Behavioral intention formation in knowledge sharing: Examining the roles of extrinsic motivators, social-psychological forces, and organizational climate. *MIS quarterly*, 87-111.
- Cabrera, E. F., & Cabrera, A. (2005). Fostering knowledge sharing through people management practices. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(5), 720-735.
- Chang, K. C., Yen, H. W., Chiang, C. C., & Parolia, N. (2013). Knowledge contribution in information system development teams: An empirical research from a social cognitive perspective. *International Journal of Project Management*, 31(2), 252-263.
- Chiocchio, F., Grenier, S., O'Neill, T. A., Savaria, K., & Willms, J. D. (2012). The effects of collaboration on performance: A multilevel validation in project teams. *International Journal of Project Organisation and Management*, 4(1), 1-37.
- Constant, D., Kiesler, S., & Sproull, L. (1994). What's mine is ours, or is it? A study of attitudes about information sharing. *Information systems research*, 5(4), 400-421.
- Costa, A. C. (2003). Work team trust and effectiveness. *Personnel Review*, 32(5), 605-622.
- D'amour, D., & Oandasan, I. (2005). Interprofessionalism as the field of interprofessional practice and interprofessional education: An emerging concept. *Journal of interprofessional care*, 19(1), 8-20.
- Dawes, R. M. (1980). Social dilemmas. *Annual review of psychology*, 31(1), 169-193.
- De Wit, F. R., Greer, L. L., & Jehn, K. A. (2011). The paradox of intragroup conflict: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(2), 360.
- Eisenhardt, K. M., Kahwajy, J. L., & Bourgeois, L. J. (1997). How management teams can have a good fight. *Harvard business review*, 75, 77-86.
- Gibbert, M., & Krause, H. (2002). Practice Exchange in a Best Practice marketplace. Dans T. H. Davenport & G. J. B. Probst (dir.), *Knowledge Management Case Book: Siemens Best Practices* (p. 89-105). Erlangen, Germany: Publicis Corporate Publishing.
- Grant, R. M. (1996). Toward a knowledge-based theory of the firm. *Strategic management journal*, 17, 109-122.
- Jehn, K. A., & Chatman, J. A. (2000). The influence of proportional and perceptual conflict composition on team performance. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 11(1), 56-73.
- Jehn, K. A., & Mannix, E. A. (2001). The dynamic nature of conflict: A longitudinal study of intragroup conflict and group performance. *Academy of management journal*, 44(2), 238-251.
- Hayes, A. F., & Preacher, K. J. (2011). Statistical mediation analysis with a multicategorical independent variable. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, 1-20.
- Kessel, M., Kratzer, J., & Schultz, C. (2012). Psychological safety, knowledge sharing, and creative performance in healthcare teams. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 21(2), 147-157.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. Thousand Oaks, California : Publications Sage.
- Pearce, C. L., & Herbik, P. A. (2010). Citizenship behavior at the team level of analysis: The effects of team leadership, team commitment, perceived team support, and team size. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 144(3), 293-310.
- Reid, F. (2003). Creating a knowledge sharing culture among diverse business units. *Employment Relations Today*, 30(3), 43-49.
- Reychav, I., & Weisberg, J. (2009). Good for workers, good for companies: How knowledge sharing benefits individual employees. *Knowledge and process Management*, 16(4), 186-197.
- Sabel, C.F. (1993). Studied trust: building new forms of cooperation in a volatile economy, *American Psychologist*, 35, 1-7.
- Stasser, G., & Titus, W. (1985). Pooling of unshared information in group decision making: Biased information sampling during discussion. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 48(6), 1467.
- Sveiby, K. E. (2001). A knowledge-based theory of the firm to guide in strategy formulation. *Journal of intellectual capital*, 2(4), 344-358.
- Stinglhamber, F., Bentein, K., & Vandenberghe, C. (2004). Congruence de valeurs et engagement envers l'organisation et le groupe de travail. *Psychologie du Travail et des Organisations*, 10(2), 165-187.
- Teece, D. J. (2000). *Managing Intellectual Capital*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Tremblay, I., Lee, H., Meyer, J., & Chiocchio, F. (sous presse). Identification and commitment in project teams. F. Chiocchio, E.K., Kelloway, & B., Hobbs. (Dir.) *The Psychology and Management of Project Teams: An Interdisciplinary View*. Oxford, Angleterre : Oxford University Press.
- Wernerfelt, B. (1984). A resource based view of the firm. *Strategic management journal*, 5(2), 171-180.
- Witherspoon, C., Bergner, J., Cockrell, C. R., & Stone, D. N. (2013). Antecedents of organizational knowledge sharing: a meta-analysis and critique. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 17(2), 7-7.

ADVERTISE IN

PSYNOOPSIS

CANADA'S PSYCHOLOGY MAGAZINE



Published quarterly, Psynopsis, Canada's Psychology Magazine, presents articles on a wide range of topics of interest to scientists, educators, and practitioners in psychology.

Help increase the awareness of your products and services, including job opportunities, by advertising in Psynopsis, the formal vehicle by which CPA, CPA members, psychologists and those outside of psychology communicate with the diverse psychology community in Canada.

With a circulation of more than 6,000 members, Psynopsis offers the widest and most effective penetration of the Canadian psychology marketplace.

Did You Know?

Psynopsis is also posted on the Canadian Psychological Association's website, one of the most powerful marketing tools available.

In 2010, the design, look and feel of the on-line edition of Psynopsis changed in leaps and bounds! See for yourself, visit <http://www.cpa.ca/membership/membershipbenefitsandservices/psynopsis/>

With flexible layout options and with the opportunity to display your advertisement in black and white or in colour, take advantage of our discounts by purchasing repeat advertising placements that can span over a couple of issues. To view our rates visit <http://www.cpa.ca/membership/membershipbenefitsandservices/psynopsis/advertisinginpsynopsis/>

To submit your advertisement for publication consideration contact the CPA Head office at publicrelations@cpa.ca.

ANNONCEZ DANS LE MAGAZINE DE PSYCHOLOGIE DU CANADA

Publié à tous les trimestres, Psynopsis, Le magazine de psychologie du Canada, présente des articles sur une vaste gamme de sujets d'intérêt pour les scientifiques, les enseignants et les praticiens en psychologie.

Vous pouvez aider à faire connaître davantage vos produits et services, y compris vos offres d'emploi, en annonçant dans Psynopsis, l'organe officiel par lequel la SCP, les membres de la SCP, les psychologues et tous ceux à l'extérieur de la psychologie communiquent avec la communauté de la psychologie canadienne dans toute sa diversité.

Avec un tirage de plus de 6 000 numéros, Psynopsis offre la pénétration la plus large et la plus efficace dans le marché de la psychologie au pays.

Saviez-vous que?

Psynopsis est également publié sur le site Web de la Société canadienne de psychologie, l'un des outils de commercialisation le plus puissant disponible.

En 2010, la conception, l'aspect et la convivialité de l'édition en ligne de Psynopsis ont changé à pas de géant! Rendez-vous compte par vous-même, visitez <http://www.cpa.ca/adhesion/avantagesdemembresdelascp/psynopsis/>

Grâce à des options de mise en page flexibles et la possibilité d'afficher vos annonces en noir et blanc ou en couleur, tirez avantage de nos rabais en achetant des placements publicitaires répétés qui peuvent s'étaler sur quelques parutions. Pour voir nos tarifs rendez-vous à <http://www.cpa.ca/adhesion/avantagesdemembresdelascp/psynopsis/publicite/>

Pour proposer votre annonce pour fins de publication, communiquez avec le siège social de la SCP à l'adresse publicrelations@cpa.ca.

**The Canadian Psychological Association (CPA)
was organized in 1939 and incorporated under the
Canada Corporations Act, Part II, in May 1950.**

CANADIAN
PSYCHOLOGICAL
ASSOCIATION



SOCIÉTÉ
CANADIENNE
DE PSYCHOLOGIE

CPA's objectives are:

- To improve the health and welfare of all Canadians;
- To promote excellence and innovation in psychological research, education, and practice;
- To promote the advancement, development, dissemination, and application of psychological knowledge; and
- To provide high-quality services to members.

**Benefits and services of CPA membership include,
but are not limited to:**

- CPA Journals
- Psynopsis (Canada's psychology magazine)
- CPA News (CPA's electronic newsletter)
- Reduced fees for access to APA's PsycNET® GOLD package
- Publications
- CPA's Annual Convention
- Awards
- Advocacy
- Sections and Special Interest Groups
- Continuing Education
- Accreditation
- Liability Insurance
- Personal Home and Auto Insurance
- Student Members (living in Canada)
receive a complimentary CPA Student Price Card
- Pro Bono Legal Advice
- Laptop Theft Recovery
- Practice and Personal Banking Products

Visit www.cpa.ca/membership/becomeamemberofcpa to join today!