

METHODOLOGY OF CROSS CULTURAL RESEARCH

Introduction to Cross Cultural psychology:

Cross-cultural psychology is the critical and comparative study of cultural effects on human psychology. As a comparative field, cross-cultural psychology draws its conclusions from at least two samples that represent at least two cultural groups. The act of comparison requires a particular set of critical thinking skills. Cross-cultural psychology examines psychological diversity and the underlying reasons for such diversity. Using a comparative approach, cross-cultural psychology examines the links between cultural norms and behavior and the ways in which particular human activities are influenced by various cultural forces. Cross-cultural psychology establishes psychological universals, that is, phenomena common for people in several, many, or perhaps all cultures. Cultural psychology seeks to discover meaningful links between culture and psychology of individuals living in this culture. At least four types of knowledge about psychology can be recognized: scientific, popular (folk), ideological (value-based), and legal. It is critical for cross-cultural psychologists to treat all types of knowledge with sensitivity, understanding, and respect. No society is culturally homogeneous. There are no cultures that are either entirely similar or completely different. Within the same cultural cluster there can be significant variations, inconsistencies, and dissimilarities. Cross-cultural psychologists establish and conceptualize the main culture's features in terms of cultural dichotomies. Among such dichotomies are high-versus low-power distance, high- versus low-uncertainly avoidance, masculinity versus femininity, and collectivism versus individualism. Sociobiology is a theoretical model that explores the ways in which biological factors affect human behavior and thus lay a natural foundation for human culture. The sociological approach focuses on broad social structures that influence society as a whole, and subsequently its individuals. There are particular social forces that shape the behavior of large social groups, and human beings develop and adjust their individual responses in accordance to the demands and pressures of larger social groups and institutions. According to an ecocultural approach to cross-cultural psychology, the individual cannot be separated from his or her environmental context. People constantly exchange messages with the environment, thus transforming it and themselves. According to a "culture mixtures" approach, researchers should switch their attention from traditional views on culture to new cultural mixtures, contact zones, interconnected systems, and multiple cultural identities. An "integrative" approach to cross-cultural psychology emphasizes human activity, a process of the individual's goal-directed interaction with the environment. Human motivation, emotion, thought, and reactions cannot be separated from human activity, which is (1) determined by individual, socioeconomic, environmental, political, and cultural conditions, and also (2) changes these conditions. Two factors, presence of and access to resources, largely determine type, scope, and direction of human activities. Indigenous theories are characterized by the use of conceptions and methodologies associated exclusively with the cultural group under investigation. Indigenous psychology is the scientific study of human behavior or the mind, and is designed for a people and native, not transported from other regions. Ethnocentrism is the view that supports judgment about other ethnic, national, and cultural groups and events from the observer's own ethnic, national, or cultural group's outlook. Multiculturalism is a view that encourages recognition of equality for all cultural and national groups and promotes the idea that various cultural groups have the right to follow their own unique paths of development and have their own unique activities, values, and norms.

Methodology of Cross-Cultural Research

There are four basic goals of research in cross-cultural psychology: description, interpretation, prediction, and management. After identifying the goals, the researcher has to choose a methodological approach that is most appropriate for the implementation of these goals. In general, research methodology in cross-cultural psychology can be divided into two categories: quantitative and qualitative.

Quantitative research in cross-cultural psychology involves the measurement of certain aspects of human activity from a comparative perspective. The variables chosen for examination have to be studied empirically, primarily through observation, as opposed to other forms of reflection, such as intuition, beliefs, or superstitions. The most common data are measures of central tendency: the mode, the median, and the mean. There are four types of measurement scales: nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio.

Nominal Scale: A nominal scale is really a list of categories to which objects can be classified. For example, people who receive a mail order offer might be classified as "no response," "purchase and pay," "purchase but return the product," and "purchase and neither pay nor return." The data so classified are termed categorical data.

Ordinal Scale: An ordinal scale is a measurement scale that assigns values to objects based on their ranking with respect to one another. For example, a doctor might use a scale of 0-10 to indicate degree of improvement in some condition, from 0 (no improvement) to 10 (disappearance of the condition). While you know that a 4 is better than a 2, there is no implication that a 4 is twice as good as a 2. Nor is the improvement from 2 to 4 necessarily the same "amount" of improvement as the improvement from 6 to 8. All we know is that there are 11 categories, with 1 being better than 0, 2 being better than 1, etc.

Interval Scale: An interval scale is a measurement scale in which a certain distance along the scale means the same thing no matter where on the scale you are, but where "0" on the scale does not represent the absence of the thing being measured. Fahrenheit and Celsius temperature scales are examples.

Ratio Scale: A ratio scale is a measurement scale in which a certain distance along the scale means the same thing no matter where on the scale you are, and where "0" on the scale represents the absence of the thing being measured. Thus a "4" on such a scale implies twice as much of the thing being measured as a "2." Another important step is sampling.

Definition of sampling:

In research methods and statistics, a number of individuals selected from a population to test hypothesis about the population or to derive estimates of its parameters.

Types of samples

The best sampling is probability sampling, because it increases the likelihood of obtaining samples that are representative of the population.

Probability sampling (Representative samples)

Probability samples are selected in such a way as to be representative of the population. They provide the most valid or credible results because they reflect the characteristics of the population from which they are selected (e.g., residents of a particular community, students at an elementary school, etc.). There are two types of probability samples: random and stratified.

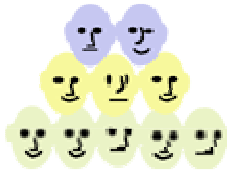
Random sample

The term random has a very precise meaning. Each individual in the population of interest has an equal likelihood of selection. This is a very strict meaning -- you can't just collect responses on the street and have a random sample.

The assumption of an equal chance of selection means that sources such as a telephone book or voter registration lists are not adequate for providing a random sample of a community. In both these cases there will be a number of residents whose names are not listed. Telephone surveys get around this problem by random-digit dialing -- but that assumes that everyone in the population has a telephone. The key to random selection is that there is no bias involved in the selection of the sample. Any variation between the sample characteristics and the population characteristics is only a matter of chance.

Stratified sample

A stratified sample is a mini-reproduction of the population. Before sampling, the population is divided into characteristics of importance for the research. For example, by gender, social class, education level, religion, etc. Then the population is randomly sampled within each category or stratum. If 38% of the population is college-educated, then 38% of the sample is randomly selected from the college-educated population.




Stratified samples are as good as or better than random samples, but they require fairly detailed advance knowledge of the population characteristics, and therefore are more difficult to construct.

Non probability samples (Non-representative samples)


As they are not truly representative, non-probability samples are less desirable than probability samples. However, a researcher may not be able to obtain a random or stratified sample, or it may be too expensive. A researcher may not care about generalizing to a larger population. The validity of non-probability samples can be increased by trying to approximate random selection, and by eliminating as many sources of bias as possible.

Quota sample

The defining characteristic of a quota sample is that the researcher deliberately sets the proportions of levels or strata within the sample. This is generally done to insure the inclusion of a particular segment of the population. The proportions may or may not differ dramatically from the actual proportion in the population. The researcher sets a **quota**, independent of population characteristics.  Two of each species


Example: A researcher is interested in the attitudes of members of different religions towards the death penalty. In Iowa a random sample might miss Muslims (because there are not many in that state). To be sure of their inclusion, a researcher could set a quota of 3% Muslim for the sample. However, the sample will no longer be representative of the actual proportions in the population. This may limit generalizing to the state population. But the quota will guarantee that the views of Muslims are represented in the survey.

Purposive sample

A purposive sample is a non-representative subset of some larger population, and is constructed to serve a very specific need or purpose. A researcher may have a specific group in mind, such as high level business executives. It may not be possible to specify the population -- they would not all be known, and access will be difficult. The researcher will attempt to zero in on the target group, interviewing whoever is available. 

A subset of a purposive sample is a snowball sample -- so named because one picks up the sample along the way, analogous to a snowball accumulating snow. A snowball sample is achieved by asking a participant to suggest someone else who might be willing or appropriate for the study. Snowball samples are particularly useful in hard-to-track populations, such as truants, drug users, etc.

Convenience sample

A convenience sample is a matter of taking what you can get. It is an accidental sample. Although selection may be unguided, it probably is not random, using the correct definition of everyone in the population having an equal chance of being selected. Volunteers would constitute a convenience sample. 

Non-probability samples are limited with regard to generalization. Because they do not truly represent a population, we cannot make valid inferences about the larger group from which they are drawn. Validity can be increased by approximating random selection as much as possible, and making every attempt to avoid introducing bias into sample selection.

One strategy is availability or convenience sampling. Another type of sampling, called systematic, involves the psychologist selecting national or ethnic samples according to a theory or some theoretical assumption. A third sampling strategy is random sampling. In this case, a large sample of countries or groups is randomly chosen, that is, any country or group has an equal chance of being selected in the research sample.

Research methods in psychology

Scientific method in psychology

The scientific method is an approach that practitioners of psychology are interested in for assessing, measuring, and predicting behavior. It is the process of appropriately framing and properly answering questions. It is used by psychologists and those engaged in other scientific disciplines, to come to an understanding about the world.

Scientific Nature of Psychology

Psychology is a science

Science: An approach using the scientific method for the observation, description, understanding, and prediction of any phenomenon.

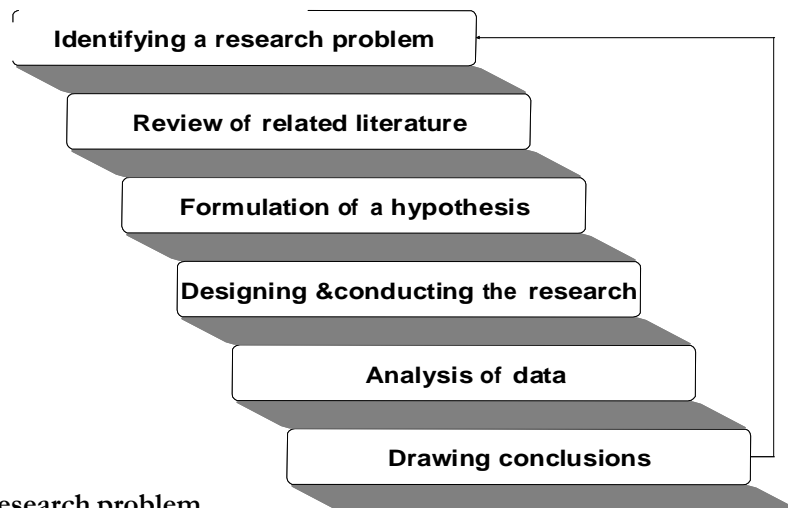
Scientific method: The procedure employing a systematic, pre defined, series of steps for attaining optimal efficiency, accuracy, and objectivity in investigating the problem of interest

Systematic: it follows a specified system, an organized ways of collecting and tabulating information.

Pre defined series of steps: certain steps following a specific sequence that is not to be altered; disruption of the sequence will ruin the essence of the approach

Objectivity: It is unbiased; the researcher's likes and dislikes do not interfere with the study or its findings

Steps of Scientific Method



Identifying the research problem

The most important step while conducting research is identify and specify the area of interest in which one is going to conduct a research. The research problem can be identified in many ways, including personal interest, brainstorming, scientific developments, knowledge etc.

Review of the related literature

Searching the research findings in relation with the research one is going to conduct, in order to see how others approached the same or similar issues. Also, it can give some idea as to what would be the probable outcome of one's research.

Formulation of hypotheses

A hypothesis is a speculative statement about the relationship between two or more variables. By reviewing the related literature, one is able to formulate the hypotheses pertaining to the variables of interest. Reviewing the related research articles helps one formulate various hypotheses.

Designing and conducting the research

After reviewing the related literature and making hypotheses,

The research is conducted by using different strategies such as Questionnaires, mail interviews, telephonic interviews, face to face

Interviews, etc. A variety of research designs is available to the Researchers can choose the one that best suits their study.

Analysis of data

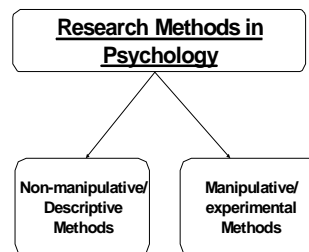
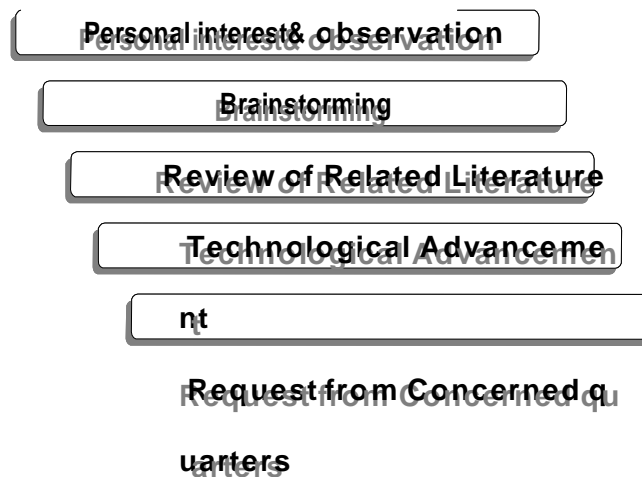
After collecting information, the data will be tabulated with the help of statistical methods and computation in order to see whether the finding prove or disprove the hypotheses.

Drawing conclusions

Conclusions are drawn after the statistical analysis of data. On the basis of this, a decision is made about the rejection or acceptance of the hypothesis.

Identifying a Research Problem

Research problems can be identified in a number of ways:



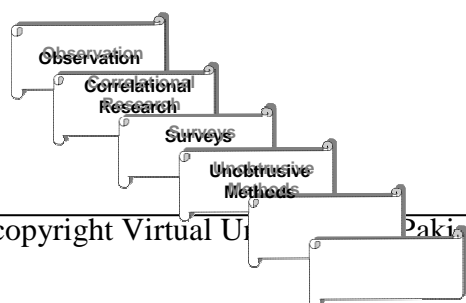
Non manipulative/descriptive Methods

The methods in which the phenomenon of interest is studied the way it exists in nature. The researcher does not interfere with the events, and acts as a passive recorder.

Manipulative/Experimental Methods

The methods that is responsible for the scientific nature of psychology. In these methods the researcher exercises control over the variables and events. He may introduce variables of interest, or may withhold them. These methods are used for determining cause and effect relationships.

Descriptive Research Methods



Case Studies
Focus groups,
Meta
analysis

Observation

Systematic observation is used; one of the methods most frequently employed by anthropologists, sociologists and ethnologists.

Phenomenon of interest is observed, studied, and the observations are recorded.

The recorded observations are analyzed.

Conclusions are drawn on the basis of analysis.

Types of observation

1. Observation without Intervention
2. Observation with Intervention

Observation without Intervention**Naturalistic Observation**

Type of observation in which the phenomenon of interest is studied/observed in the natural setting without any interference by the observer; The observer may make narrative records, take field notes, use audio or video equipment, or may use a combination of some or all strategies.

Observation with Intervention

The observer intervenes, and manipulates the situation, events and/or variables in order to

Create a situation which does not occur frequently

Test the impact of variables on behavior

Gain access to a situation that is otherwise not accessible or open to observation

Types of "Observation with Intervention"

Participant Observation

Structured Observation

Field experiments

Participant Observation

The observer becomes a part of the situation and plays an active and significant role in the situation, event, or context under study. It can be of two types:

Disguised Participant Observation

Undisguised Participant Observation

Structured Observation

Employed when the researcher intends to study a situation, which occurs infrequently or is inaccessible otherwise.

The observer may "create" a situation or initiate it.

The control exercised by the observer is less than that in many other techniques.

Mostly employed by clinical and developmental psychologists.

Field Experiments

Experiments in the natural setting; the degree of control is far less than that in laboratory experiments.

One or more independent variables are manipulated in the natural setting in order to see their impact on behavior.

Confederate: the researcher is assisted by one or more confederates who behave in a pre-planned manner so as to initiate an experimental condition.

Correlation Research

A method used for identifying predictive relationships among naturally occurring variables

Correlation Can be said to exist when two different measures of the same individuals, objects, or events vary together e.g. Relationship between I.Q. score & academic achievement or entry test marks & academic achievement. Correlation is a statistical concept.

Nature of Correlation

Positive Correlation
Negative Correlation
Zero Correlation

Measures in Correlation Research

Questionnaires: can be used in- person, can be mailed, or used via Internet.
Interviews: can be personal and face-to-face, or telephonic.
Official Record: Official statistics, raw data, crime records etc.
Remember!!! Correlation is not causation

Surveys

Most frequently used method for obtaining information quickly and evaluating people's interest, liking, disliking and opinions without indulging in long- term procedures and techniques. It is also easily used because it is a cheap method and information is gathered without much difficulty.

Surveys consist of presenting a series of questions or statements to the participants, and asking them to respond.

Surveys are used when quick information is required in limited time e.g. opinion polls, product preference.

Also useful when information is required from a large number of people e.g. population census

More suitable when the goal of the study is to find out about public opinion, attitudes, preferences, like and dislikes etc

Sources of data/information in Surveys:

Questionnaires: in person, mailed, internet
Interviews: personal, telephonic
Newspaper Surveys

Steps involve in conducting the research: There are mainly five steps, which are essential while conducting surveys i.e.

Conceiving the problem:

The purpose of the study must be carefully thought out and precisely defined. How is the information to be used? From whom it is obtained? What kind of information to be gathered etc.

Designing the instrument:

There are numerous ways by which information can be gathered from the general public such as mailed questionnaires, telephonic interviews, through internet etc. It must be carefully thought that which procedure is most effective in obtaining the needed information.

Sampling the population:

The problem of obtaining a representative sample of the population is one of the most difficult as well as significant in the field of measuring popular reactions. The sample to be studied must be drawn in such a manner the each individual has an equal chance of being selected, and that the drawing of one does not influence the chances of any other being drawn. With this procedure, each age, sex, income, religious and ethnic group in the population will be proportionately represented in the sample. Off course there are a number of ways of properly drawing a sample.

Conducting interviews: Even when the questions are carefully worded and carefully designed, a poor interviewer can bias the results. Experiments have shown that females are the best interviewers: at least 21 years of age, who like people, who are unbiased, who are good listeners, who have some college education, and who are fairly familiar with the section they are working in.

Interpreting the results:

Even when all the findings are carried out properly, there is always a chance of misinterpreting the results. Errors in questionnaires, statistical methods, and investigator's own subjectivity can easily bias the results

Unobtrusive Measures of Behavior

Indirect ways of data collection: The person /s that is the focus of interest may not be present at the time of investigation

It may be used for supplementing information collected through observation. It may be used as a replacement of observation. In situations where direct observation is not possible

Unobtrusive measures of behavior include:

Archival data

Physical Traces

Archival data

Already existing records, documents, different forms of literature, newspaper items, photographs, movies, documentaries, biographies, autobiographies etc are used as evidence/ information e.g. using newspaper records to study the rate of crime during the past 20 years. May be used to supplement data gathered through other sources

Physical Traces

Remains, remnants, fragments, objects and products of past behavior are used as evidence; usually employed to supplement data from other sources.

Physical traces can be of two types

Use traces

Products

Use traces

Cues to the use or nonuse of objects and items provide significant evidence e.g. wall chalking, graffiti on walls of public places, milk cartons or tissue boxes in the garbage bags

Products

Study of products, tools, weapons, sculpture etc used less frequently than physical traces.

Content Analysis

Part of archival research: An approach for systematically categorizing and analyzing the content of the behavior or its related aspects/ variables being studied.

The analysis may cover contents of live human behavior, books, journals, magazines, poetry, drama, movies, folktales, TV programs, school textbooks and curricula, advertisements etc.

Inferences are made and conclusions are drawn after objective identification of specific characteristics of contents. Content analysis is done keeping specific goals, objectives, themes and constructs in mind.

Example: Content analysis of textbooks with reference to gender equity and equality; analysis of TV programs with reference to portrayal of women.

Focus Groups

A variety of interviews conducted in a group setting. The researcher talks to the participants in order to learn about their opinions, attitudes, preferences, and likes/dislikes and tries to find out their reasons/cause. Used as a source of data collection in surveys but also used otherwise as well.

Meta Analysis

A statistics based method. A way of reviewing existing research literature in the same field, about the same phenomena The analysis covers the results of several independent experiments within the same field

Computer aided statistical analysis yields overall conclusions

Experimental Research

Experimental method: the use of experimentation for studying a phenomenon.

Experimental design: the plan/structure/lay out of an experiment.

Experiment: the variable of interest (independent variable) is manipulated/ altered and the effect of this manipulation is studied.

Why experiments are conducted?

For testing hypotheses

To test the impact of a treatment or a program on behavior

The main feature of experimentation is CONTROL; keeping all those variables and conditions under control, that can have an impact on the findings of the study i.e., variables that can interfere with the impact of the independent variable.

Variables

Independent Variable

Dependent Variable

Control Variable

Independent Variable (IV): The variable whose impact is being studied; that is manipulated...in terms of kind or level

Dependent Variable (DV): The measure of behavior on which the impact of independent variable is being studied

Control variable (CV): A potential independent variable that can have an impact upon dependent variable; it has to be controlled

Groups in a Typical Experiment

Experimental Group: This is treated with the independent variable.

Control Group; the no-treatment group that is kept under controlled conditions.

Classical Experiment Design

Standard format:

Ex. group measured on DV	Ex. group treated by IV & then measured on DV
Cont. group measured on DV	Control. group measured on DV

Example of impact of music on stress:

Ex. group measured on Stress level(DV)	Ex. group treated by soft music (IV) & then measured on DV
Cont. group measured on Stress level (DV)	Control. group measured on DV

Experimental Designs:

Within- Subjects Design

Between- Subjects Design

Within Subject Design

The experimental design in which the subjects' performance is compared with their own performance i.e., only one group of subjects is used.

Before-After No Control Group Design:

A: DV	B: IV	A: IV	B: DV
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Varieties of Before-after no control group designs:

ABABA and ABABABBA designs

A: DV	B: IV	A: DV	B: IV	A: DV
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B: IV	B: IV	A: DV
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Between Subjects Experimental Design

The experimental design in which two or more groups of subjects are used and their performance is compared with each other:

Classical Experimental Design

After- Only Experimental Design

Problems associated with experimental research:

Artificiality of behavior is a possibility

Subjects may be under stress or pressure

Time consuming and expensive

Ethical issues: can we tell all about the nature of experiment to the subjects???

BUT...the very element of control gives edge to this approach, as this is what makes psychology a science

Among the most important statistical methods used in cross-cultural psychology are co relational methods that establish relationships between two variables and the t-test for independent samples, which aims to estimate whether the difference between two samples occurred by chance.

Qualitative research is conducted primarily in the natural setting, where the research participants carry out their daily activities in a non research atmosphere. Qualitative studies are also conducted when there are difficulties in measuring variables, in situations when the subjects cannot read or use answer scales, or when there are no standardized measurement instruments available. Qualitative research is also useful in situations in which variables are not completely conceptualized or operationally defined. The qualitative method can be useful when the experiences and priorities of the research participants heavily influence the research.

Choosing an application-oriented strategy, researchers attempt to establish the applicability of research findings obtained in one country or culture to other countries or cultures. The comparativist strategy, on the contrary, focuses primarily on similarities and differences in certain statistical measures in a sample of cultures.

Analysis of data:

There are at least two approaches to the analysis of cross-cultural data. Psychologists supporting the absolutist approach argue that psychological phenomena are basically the same across cultures. However, the occurrences of certain processes and behaviors may vary from culture to culture. The relativist approach implies that human behavior in its full complexity can be understood only within the context of the culture in which it occurs.

Cross-cultural psychologists should see similarities in different phenomena; likewise, similarities should not overshadow potential differences between samples. The specialist should be aware that to contrast a phenomenon with its polar opposite is to give definition to both terms. All polar opposites are dependent on each other for their very conceptual existence.

Cross-cultural psychologists should avoid biases of generalization. At the same time, it should be understood that cross-cultural psychology requires a great deal of imagination and abstraction. Concrete human activities take place in diverse and unique contexts with a huge variety of underlying factors. To understand and compare psychological phenomena the researcher should assume that the number of such factors is relatively limited.

The Contributions of Cross-Cultural Research to Psychology

According to Matsumoto, culture is very important in understanding human behavior. Matsumoto realize that culture played a basic and important role in understanding and contributing to human behavior as did any other influence on our lives, and to gradually understand its pervasive and profound influence on psychological processes in all areas of functioning.

There are at least three major areas of contributions that cross-cultural research has made to psychology:

1. Contributions to knowledge
2. Contributions to the critical thinking process,
3. The identification of the psychological factors underlying inter- and intercultural adjustment.
- 4.

Knowledge

Findings from cross-cultural research have clearly impacted all areas of psychology. It has informed us of cultural similarities and differences in attachment, child rearing, and development; in self-concepts and personality; in thinking, perceiving, reasoning, and problem solving; in emotion, motivation, and morality; in social and organizational behavior. Indeed, cross-cultural research has contributed to knowledge in just about every other major area of psychological inquiry (Matsumoto, 2001).

These contributions are extremely important because they help create a universal psychology that is inclusive of many people of diverse backgrounds, not just people from a single culture or two who traditionally comprised the subject pools from which research participants were recruited. As cross-cultural research has flourished and new findings have gained recognition, more theories are increasingly incorporating culture. While many classic findings still remain classics to this day, such as findings on the universality of facial expressions, the relationship between language and thought, and some developmental processes, many other traditional notions of psychological processes have been modified to include culture. Thus, we know that conceptions of self are culturally bound as are the concrete manifestations of many psychopathological states. These developments are incredibly vital to psychology, and cross-cultural research has played an immensely important role in facilitating them.

Critical Thinking/Scientific Philosophy

A second contribution that cross-cultural research has made to psychology is in the area of critical thinking and scientific philosophy. To me, cross-cultural research itself is an example of critical thinking because it asks the all-important question "is what I know to be true for one cultural group also true for another?" By asking this question and conducting studies to test it, cross-cultural research in and of itself naturally facilitates the constant challenging of and skepticism toward one's truths and knowledge. By engaging in cross-cultural research one is always engaging in critical thinking about the state of the field.

The implication of cross-cultural research to critical thinking is related to the concept of scientific philosophy, that is, the logic underlying our science. Cross-cultural research involves a simple method change in one parameter of a study - the cultural composition of one's samples. By changing it, cross-cultural researchers recognize that knowledge, which is based on research findings, is limited to the methodologies of the studies that created them in the first place. Therefore changes to those parameters, such as in the cultural composition of the participants in the research, have the potential to change the findings and thus knowledge. Every finding that serves as the backbone to greater knowledge in psychology is bound in a strict sense to the methodological parameters of the studies that produced it. Because methodologies themselves are bound by culture every finding is culture-bound until it is formally tested in as wide and diverse an arena as possible. In fact, conducting research is itself a culture-bound enterprise, and not every culture in the world subscribes to this particular method of knowledge creation. Engaging with these issues every day is one of the ultimate examples of critical thinking.

Identification of the "Psychological Engine" of Adjustment

The third major contribution of the cross-cultural approach is in elucidating the process of adjustment both between and within cultures. Cross-cultural psychologists have studied this topic for years and many important findings have emerged (Berry, Kim, & Boski, 1988; Ward, 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 1993, 1996; Ward & Kennedy, 1999; Ward & Rana-Deuba, 2000). Over the last six years Matsumoto and his colleagues study the factors that can predict intercultural adjustment success and the potential for that success. Using a scale called the ICAPS (Intercultural Adjustment Potential Scale) .We have been able to predict the intercultural adjustment of Japanese students, businesspersons, and housewives; Americans; Swedes; Central and South Americans; and Indians using a variety of outcome measures including self-reports of subjective adjustment, peer ratings, interviewer ratings, and behavioral assessments (Matsumoto, LeRoux, Iwamoto et al., 2001; Matsumoto, LeRoux, Ratzlaff et al., 2001). The ICAPS can predict adjustment and adjustment-related behaviors above and

beyond that already predicted by personality and by emotion recognition, one of the most stable components of emotional intelligence (Matsumoto, LeRoux, Bernhard, & Gray, 2001).

Most importantly, his research has allowed us to identify the "psychological engine" of adjustment. These are the psychological skills necessary to live and succeed in a diverse, multicultural environment. Factor analyses of normative data on the ICAPS involving over 2,500 individuals have given us insight concerning what those skills are:

1. Emotion regulation
2. Openness
3. Flexibility
4. Creativity
5. Critical thinking
6. Autonomy

The most important is emotion regulation (ER). Empirically, ER is always the most consistent and strongest predictor of all adjustment indices measured in all of our studies. Theoretically, individuals need to be able to regulate their emotions, especially negative ones that arise because of inevitable intercultural conflict, so as to allow them to engage in creative and critical thinking about alternative ways of understanding the world. ER also allows for the incorporation of new cognitive schemas that are produced based on one's ability to accommodate to cultural differences. And most importantly, the fact that ER has been empirically shown to be the best predictor of adjustment in a wide variety of cultural samples suggests that its importance is universal.

Research Questions:

According to Robin Goodwin and his colleagues deal with issues of translating questions and ensuring the appropriateness of questions asked. They found social representations theory useful as it permits us to combine "standard" questionnaire procedures with more open-ended questionnaires, media analyses and focus group methods; but of course a range of other broad theoretical perspectives are available, offering additional methods (Fielding and Fielding, 1986

One particular dilemma arises when dealing with highly sensitive questions that might appear to threaten existing religious, cultural or political beliefs or interests. Unfortunately, such questions are frequently the very questions of greatest interest to the applied cross-cultural research. Questions concerning ethnic identity can be seen to threaten landowners and powerful corporate groups; items about the prevalence of sexual disease can upset religious authorities and tourist agencies; questions investigating democratic beliefs can affront significant politicians and interior ministries, and so on. For any cross-cultural research, on any topic, the greatest resource the researcher owns is their research contacts in the country (ies) they are exploring. The researcher asking delicate questions is likely to need a great deal of guile and sensitivity, several "strategic alliances" within a society, and a certain honesty and humility in appreciating that the answers obtained may at best be "filtered" by interested individuals and agencies.

If one questionnaire is used in another culture then the translated version should be same as the original ones.

ETHICAL ISSUES

Ethical Principles for conducting Research with Human Participants

Introduction to the revised principles

The Standing Committee on Ethics in Research with Human Participants has now completed its revision of the Ethical Principles for Research with Human Subjects (British Psychological Society, 1978). The new 'Ethical Principles for Conducting Research with Human Participants' (q.v.) have been approved by the Council.

The Standing Committee wishes to highlight some of the issues that concerned it during the drawing up of the Principles published below. In the forefront of its considerations was the recognition that psychologists owe a debt to those who agree to take part in their studies and that people who are willing to give up their time, even for remuneration, should be able to expect to be treated with the highest standards of consideration and respect. This is reflected in the change from the term 'subjects' to 'participants'. To psychologists brought up on the jargon of their profession the term 'subject' is not derogatory. However, to someone who has not had that experience of psychological research it is a term which can seem impersonal.

Deception

The issue of deception caused the Committee considerable problems. To many outside the psychology profession, and to some within it, the idea of deceiving the participants in one's research is seen as quite inappropriate. At best, the experience of deception in psychological research can make the recipients cynical about the activities and attitudes of psychologists. However, since there are very many psychological processes that are modifiable by individuals if they are aware that they are being studied, the statement of the research hypothesis in advance of the collection of data would make much psychological research impossible. The Committee noted that there is a distinction between withholding some of the details of the hypothesis under test and deliberately falsely informing the participants of the purpose of the research, especially if the information given implied a more benign topic of study than was in fact the case. While the Committee wishes to urge all psychologists to seek to supply as full information as possible to those taking part in their research, it concluded that the central principle was the reaction of participants when deception was revealed. If this led to discomfort, anger or objections from the participants then the deception was inappropriate. The Committee hopes that such a principle protects the dignity of the participants while allowing valuable psychological research to be conducted.

Debriefing

Following the research, especially where any deception or withholding of information had taken place, the Committee wished to emphasize the importance of appropriate debriefing. In some circumstances, the verbal description of the nature of the investigation would not be sufficient to eliminate all possibility of harmful after-effects. For example, an experiment in which negative mood was induced requires the induction of a happy mood state before the participant leaves the experimental setting.

Risk

Another area of concern for the Committee was the protection of participants from undue risk in psychological research. Since this was an area in which the Principles might be looked to during an investigation following a complaint against a researcher, the Committee was concerned to seek a definition that protected the participants in the research without making important research impossible. Risks attend us every moment in life, and to say that research should involve no risks would be inappropriate. However, the important principle seemed to be that when participants entered upon a psychological investigation they should not, in so doing, be increasing the probability that they would come to any form of harm. Thus, the definition of undue risk was based upon the risks that individuals run in their normal lifestyle. This definition makes possible research upon individuals who lead a risk-taking or risk-seeking life (e.g. mountaineers, cave divers), so long as the individuals are not induced to take risks that are greater than those that they would normally encounter in their life outside the research.

Implementation

The Council of the Society approved the Principles at its meeting in February 1990. There followed a two-year period during which the new Principles were provisionally in operation. In spring 1992 the Council reviewed the Principles, in the light of experience of their operation. During this period researchers were unable to identify problems in the working of the Principles. Following minor amendment the Principles were formally adopted in October 1992.

The Council urges all research psychologists to ensure that they abide by these Principles, which supplement the Society's Code of Conduct (q.v.) and thus violation of them could form the basis of disciplinary action. It is essential that all members of the psychological profession abide by the Principles if psychologists are to continue to retain the privilege of testing human participants in their research. Psychologists have legal as well as moral responsibilities for those who help them in their study, and the long-term reputation of the discipline depends largely upon the experience of those who encounter it first-hand during psychological investigations.

The Principles**1. Introduction**

The principles given below are intended to apply to research with human participants. Principles of conduct in professional practice are to be found in the Society's Code of Conduct and in the advisory documents prepared by the Divisions, Sections and Special Groups of the Society.

Participants in psychological research should have confidence in the investigators. Good psychological research is possible only if there is mutual respect and confidence between investigators and participants. Psychological investigators are potentially interested in all aspects of human behaviour and conscious experience. However, for ethical reasons, some areas of human experience and behaviour may be beyond the reach of experiment, observation or other form of psychological investigation. Ethical guidelines are necessary to clarify the conditions under which psychological research is acceptable.

The principles given below supplement for researchers with human participants the general ethical principles of members of the Society as stated in The British Psychological Society's Code of Conduct (q.v.). Members of The British Psychological Society are expected to abide by both the Code of Conduct and the fuller principles expressed here. Members should also draw the principles to the attention of research colleagues who are not members of the Society. Members should encourage colleagues to adopt them and ensure that they are followed by all researchers whom they supervise (e.g. research assistants, postgraduate, undergraduate, A-Level and GCSE students).

In recent years, there has been an increase in legal actions by members of the general public against professionals for alleged misconduct. Researchers must recognise the possibility of such legal action if they infringe the rights and dignity of participants in their research.

2. General

In all circumstances, investigators must consider the ethical implications and psychological consequences for the participants in their research. The essential principle is that the investigation should be considered from the standpoint of all participants; foreseeable threats to their psychological well-being, health, values or dignity should be eliminated. Investigators should recognise that, in our multi-cultural and multi-ethnic society and where investigations involve individuals of different ages, gender and social background, the investigators may not have sufficient knowledge of the implications of any investigation for the participants. It should be borne in mind that the best judge of whether an investigation will cause offence may be members of the population from which the participants in the research are to be drawn.

3. Consent

Whenever possible, the investigator should inform all participants of the objectives of the investigation. The investigator should inform the participants of all aspects of the research or intervention that might reasonably be expected to influence willingness to participate. The investigator should, normally, explain all other aspects of the research or intervention about which the participants enquire. Failure to make full disclosure prior to obtaining informed consent requires additional safeguards to protect the welfare and dignity of the participants. Research with children or with participants who have impairments that will limit understanding and/or communication such that they are unable to give their real consent requires special safe-guarding procedures.

Where possible, the real consent of children and of adults with impairments in understanding or communication should be obtained. In addition, where research involves any persons less than 16 years of age, consent should be obtained from parents or from those in loco parentis. If the nature of the research precludes consent being obtained from parents or permission being obtained from teachers, before proceeding with the research, the investigator must obtain approval from an Ethics Committee.

Where real consent cannot be obtained from adults with impairments in understanding or communication, wherever possible the investigator should consult a person well-placed to appreciate the participant's reaction, such as a member of the person's family, and must obtain the disinterested approval of the research from independent advisors.

When research is being conducted with detained persons, particular care should be taken over informed consent, paying attention to the special circumstances which may affect the person's ability to give free informed consent.

Investigators should realize that they are often in a position of authority or influence over participants who may be their students, employees or clients. This relationship must not be allowed to pressurize the participants to take part in, or remain in, an investigation.

The payment of participants must not be used to induce them to risk harm beyond that which they risk without payment in their normal lifestyle.

If harm, unusual discomfort, or other negative consequences for the individual's future life might occur, the investigator must obtain the disinterested approval of independent advisors, inform the participants, and obtain informed, real consent from each of them.

In longitudinal research, consent may need to be obtained on more than one occasion.

4. Deception

The withholding of information or the misleading of participants is unacceptable if the participants are typically likely to object or show unease once debriefed. Where this is in any doubt, appropriate consultation must precede the investigation. Consultation is best carried out with individuals who share the social and cultural background of the participants in the research, but the advice of ethics committees or experienced and disinterested colleagues may be sufficient.

Intentional deception of the participants over the purpose and general nature of the investigation should be avoided whenever possible. Participants should never be deliberately misled without extremely strong scientific or medical justification. Even then there should be strict controls and the disinterested approval of independent advisors.

It may be impossible to study some psychological processes without withholding information about the true object of the study or deliberately misleading the participants. Before conducting such a study, the investigator has a special responsibility to

- (a) Determine that alternative procedures avoiding concealment or deception are not available;
- (b) Ensure that the participants are provided with sufficient information at the earliest stage; and
- (c) Consult appropriately upon the way that the withholding of information or deliberate deception will be received.

5. Debriefing

In studies where the participants are aware that they have taken part in an investigation, when the data have been collected, the investigator should provide the participants with any necessary information to complete their understanding of the nature of the research. The investigator should discuss with the participants their experience of the research in order to monitor any unforeseen negative effects or misconceptions.

Debriefing does not provide a justification for unethical aspects of any investigation.

Some effects which may be produced by an experiment will not be negated by a verbal description following the research. Investigators have a responsibility to ensure that participants receive any necessary debriefing in the form of active intervention before they leave the research setting.

6. Withdrawal from the investigation

At the onset of the investigation investigators should make plain to participants their right to withdraw from the research at any time, irrespective of whether or not payment or other inducement has been offered. It is recognized that this may be difficult in certain observational or organizational settings, but nevertheless the investigator must attempt to ensure that participants (including children) know of their right to withdraw. When testing children, avoidance of the testing situation may be taken as evidence of failure to consent to the procedure and should be acknowledged.

In the light of experience of the investigation, or as a result of debriefing, the participant has the right to withdraw retrospectively any consent given, and to require that their own data, including recordings, be destroyed.

7. Confidentiality

Subject to the requirements of legislation, including the Data Protection Act, information obtained about a participant during an investigation is confidential unless otherwise agreed in advance. Investigators who are put under pressure to disclose confidential information should draw this point to the attention of those exerting such pressure. Participants in psychological research have a right to expect that information they provide will be treated confidentially and, if published, will not be identifiable as theirs. In the event that confidentiality

and/or anonymity cannot be guaranteed, the participant must be warned of this in advance of agreeing to participate.

8. Protection of participants

Investigators have a primary responsibility to protect participants from physical and mental harm during the investigation. Normally, the risk of harm must be no greater than in ordinary life, i.e. participants should not be exposed to risks greater than or additional to those encountered in their normal lifestyles. Participants should be informed of procedures for contacting the investigator within a reasonable time period following participation should stress, potential harm, or related questions or concern arise despite the precautions required by the Principles. Where research procedures might result in undesirable consequences for participants, the investigator has the responsibility to detect and remove or correct these consequences.

Where research may involve behavior or experiences that participants may regard as personal and private the participants must be protected from stress by all appropriate measures, including the assurance that answers to personal questions need not be given. There should be no concealment or deception when seeking information that might encroach on privacy.

In research involving children, great caution should be exercised when discussing the results with parents, teachers or others acting in loco parentis, since evaluative statements may carry unintended weight.

9. Observational research

Studies based upon observation must respect the privacy and psychological well-being of the individuals studied. Unless those observed give their consent to being observed, observational research is only acceptable in situations where those observed would expect to be observed by strangers. Additionally, particular account should be taken of local cultural values and of the possibility of intruding upon the privacy of individuals who, even while in a normally public space, may believe they are unobserved.

10. Giving advice

During research, an investigator may obtain evidence of psychological or physical problems of which a participant is, apparently, unaware. In such a case, the investigator has a responsibility to inform the participant if the investigator believes that by not doing so the participant's future well-being may be endangered.

If, in the normal course of psychological research, or as a result of problems detected as In some kinds of investigation the giving of advice is appropriate if this forms an intrinsic part of the research and has been agreed in advance.

11. Colleagues

Investigators share responsibility for the ethical treatment of research participants with their collaborators, assistants, students and employees. A psychologist who believes that another psychologist or investigator may be conducting research that is not in accordance with the principles above should encourage that investigator to re-evaluate the research.

RESEARCHES BASED ON CROSS CULTURAL PSYCHOLOGY

Culture of Gender

In modern societies men and women live in the same physical and cultural environment and therefore, it is only metaphorically possible to say that they represent two different cultures. For this very reason men and women are seldom considered as a source of variation in inter-cultural studies. On the contrary, many idols of the mass media have succeeded in exploiting the metaphor of "male and female culture." Quite recently, for example, Deborah Tannen (1999) has tried to persuade not only lay-readers but also scholars that men and women communicate in very different ways. In her book, *The Argument Culture*, which rapidly topped best-seller lists, she claims that the differences in communication between men and women can be explained by "different cultures hypothesis:" men are nurtured in a world in which a conversation is often a contest, best described by a metaphor of war. For instance, the best way to begin an essay is to attack someone or the best sign of you being a thinking person is to criticize somebody in a crude manner. Women, on the other hand, are socialized into a more peaceful world where understanding and tolerance are norms rather than exceptions. Another

example of the success of this metaphor is the John Gray's book *Men Are from Mars, Women Are from Venus* (1992) which has had a phenomenal success all over the world. It has been sold more than 15 million copies in the United States only to say nothing about translations into more than 40 different languages throughout the world! It is interesting that in its extreme the "different culture hypothesis" is hardly separable from a "different nature hypothesis:" men are different from women not only by their physiology but also by their psychological make-up. Are men and women of the same culture really different? Are these differences caused by two subcultures, one for men and another for women?

Male-Female Differences in Selecting Mates: Of course, men and women are different. In many traditional cultures it is not a mere metaphor that they represent two different cultures. Women cannot visit houses where men live, they do not participate in rituals in which only men are actors, and they do not know songs that are passed from fathers to their sons. In these cases indeed we can talk about separate cultures of men and women. Nevertheless, even in modern societies there are many values, attitudes and norms in which men and women differ from each other. One interesting example is the preference for mates. What are the qualities we rely on when we are looking for a mate? Are these qualities same for men and women? With a help of international collaborators, Buss and colleagues (1990) conducted a study of 37 cultures for mate preferences. They found that in all studied cultures female preferences for mates are governed by the need for protection and economic stability whereas male preferences for mates are dominated by health (beauty) and age issues. Across all preferable mate characteristics, culture accounted at least 14% of the total variance. At the same time, the sex of respondents accounted only for 2.4% of the total variance in mate preference. For example, the average Spearman Rank correlation (Rho) between the male and female ratings was .87, indicating that both men and women ordered the preferable mate characteristics in a rather similar way. Sexual dimorphism, however, varies considerably across cultures. In general, Asian and African cultures showed the most and the Western European samples showed the least of sexual dimorphism with North and South American cultures being intermediate in terms of male-female differences. It is instructive to notice that the study of Buss and his collaborators is usually presented as a convincing example of the transcultural universality of sexual selection patterns. Indeed, in general women look for status and men for beauty in almost every known culture, but this regularity, as mentioned above, is observed on the background of intercultural variation that exceeds many times the variation caused by sex.

Gender Differences in Personality: There is no doubt that men and women are guided by different values, attitudes and habits when important choices need to be made, including the choice of a romantic partner. This discrepancy, however, cannot mask the truth that in many cases the differences between men and women are only small variations of the same general rule or pattern. Up to date, there are no credible scientific evidence demonstrating very deep differences in the psychological make-up of men and women. Personality psychologists have reached a common understanding that the Big Five personality traits-Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness-appear to be the best summary of broad personality traits. Although many instruments have been developed to measure the five traits, the most comprehensive and popular among the researchers is the Revised NEO Personality Inventory, developed by Costa and McCrae (1992). This popular personality instrument has been translated into more than 30 languages and as a consequence, personality profiles for many cultures are today available. This intensive multicultural research provides an interesting challenge. As we all know, the position of women as regards to men and their role in society is rather different in the different parts of the world. In that sense, Dutch women in the egalitarian and modern Netherlands obviously differ, for example, from Telugu-speaking women living in India. One way to test the influence of these differences on personality is to compare personality profiles of men and women in different cultures. McCrae (2001) studied personality profiles of men and women collected in 26 different cultures and found them very similar. Men and women of the same age and culture have clearly similar profiles. However, even small differences between personality profiles demonstrate a regular pattern with sex differences being the smallest in Asia and black Africa and the largest among European cultures (Costa, Terracciano & McCrae, 2001). This is a rather surprising result as one would expect that personality of women differs from men more in traditional societies where sex roles are more segregated and differences between them emphasized. On the contrary, the largest differences in personality (if any at all) can be observed in modern Western societies.