Narcissism and Resilience: Demographic Approach in Israel

Globalised commerce and unprecedented technological advances have brought a rapid cultural change across the world. Research has documented the extensive impact of social changes on cognition, emotion, creativity, motivation, interpersonal behavior personality traits and the self-concept. (Saxe 1982, Cai et al 2012, Greenfield 2014) Broad cultural shifts emphasizing individualism have apparently resulted enhanced self-evaluations on agentic domains. Self-evaluations on communal attributes, such as understanding others cooperativeness, and spirituality, either decreased or were unchanged (Orensteen 2007, McWilliams 2011, Twenge, Campbell, & Gentile, 2012, Gray 2013) The context of this cultural message has been examined around the world by examining the correlation between demography and personality traits. This paper examines the relationship between demography and the characteristics of narcissism and resilience in Israel.

Israel is a Middle Eastern country, of 8 Million people, which has undergone far-reaching demographic change over the last 100 years. During this period, it has more than six immigration waves from different continents and countries. (Dewaele & Stavans 2014) Israeli culture is heterogeneous, varied and not easy to define. Israeli society is comprised of multiple ethnic subgroups, backgrounds, and heritages. This variety is reﬂected through different customs, manners, religious traditions, and social proﬁles. It is a consequence of the fact that the majority of Israelis today are immigrants or ﬁrst-generation. The variety of sub-cultures holds independent communities. (Shkalim et al 2017) Israeli culture is influenced by Middle East culture, as well as the culture of the Western and European which constitutes a large part of the immigrant population, (Lerman 2016). The culture continues to be molded all the time. (Kolic 2005) It is a particularly interesting context for examining the impact of demographic background on personality in the context of an unstable situation.

The DSM-5 defines narcissistic personality disorder (NPD) as lack of empathy, need for admiration, and a pattern of grandiosity. Non-adaptive narcissism is characterized by interpersonal difficulties caused by exaggeration of the self-worth and specialness and the demand for attention and admiration, which cause, on the one hand, indifference in others, and on the other hand, a sense of lack of self-worth, inferiority, shame, humiliation, and emotional emptiness to be harmed by others but tendency to harm others without regret or attention, when grandiosity is accompanied by aggressiveness (Keller et al, 2014) Today the range of narcissistic personality disorder reaches 6.2% of the population. (American Psychiatric Association, 2013) However, according to the present knowledge, supported by Freud, Kohut and Krenberg (Ostervill 1995, Orensteen 2007, McWilliams 2011) a certain degree of narcissism is adaptive and normal, found in every person, and facilitates the achievements of life objectives and self-realization (Selsova et al, 2013) Thus, despite their negative qualities, narcissists do appear to maintain several positive characteristics, including high self-efficacy (Mathieu & St-Jean 2013) Healthy narcissism entails the stability of the individual’s sense of worth, on the basis of his true worth, with his ability to recover from disappointment or failure and the ability to find comfort and encouragement in the systems of relationships (MacDonald, 2014).

Research has increasingly focused on the impact of protective resilience factors on the potential to influence the individual's adaptation to life stressors. Psychological resilience is defined by Lazarus (1993) as an individual’s ability to effectively adapt to and rebound from negative experience (at Xing & Sun 2013). Bleich's (2006) definition is: " A sense of control over life, self-efficacy, a sense of involvement and purpose. Flexibility in adapting to unexpected changes. In this study, we focused on optimism, self-efficacy, and self-mastery as markers of resilience, as suggested in previous studies (Yi et al, 2010) The cited resilience variables, associated with more positive consequences in general (Bandura, 1994; Pearlin and Schooler, 1978; Scheier et al, 1994)

Optimism is defined as the generalized expectancies that good outcomes will occur when confronting major problems. It is concidered to be a determinent of continued efforts to deal with problems, as opposed to turning away and giving up. (Schier et al 1989 at Ben Zur 2005)

Self-efficacy is the optimistic self-belief in our competence or chances of successfully accomplishing a task and producing a favourable outcome. some psychologists rate self-efficacy above talent in the recipe for success. (Bandura 1997)

Sense of mastery: Successes build a robust belief in one's personal efficacy. Failures undermine it, especially if failures occur before a sense of efficacy is firmly established If people experience only easy successes they come to expect quick results and are easily discouraged by failure. A resilient sense of efficacy requires experience in overcoming obstacles through perseverant effort. (Bandora 1994) A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. Such an efficacious outlook fosters goals challenging and quick recovering after failures. (Lent et all 1987)

This study examined the correlation between both the development of narcissistic traits and of the personal resilience factor to the demographic factors: age group, Place of birth, participants' economic status in childhood and in adulthood and education.

Previous studies reported that world region appears to exert influence on narcissism: with participants from more individualistic societies reporting more narcissism. Narcissism declines in older participants, males report being more narcissistic than females, (Miller et al 2015, Mathieu & St-Jean 2013, Cai et al 2012, Foster et al 2003) The greater the number of children in a family, the less likely they are to be narcissistic, persons from urban areas are more narcissistic than those from rural areas. persons from higher socioeconomic classes are more narcissistic than those from lower socioeconomic classes. (Cai et al 2012)

Various studies have examined the relationship between resilience and different demographic variables and found that Resilience factors are differently expressed, but overall resilience is equally distributed among the sexes, age groups, and different Socio-Economic Status groups (Grønlie 2017, Vibert 2016, Wallace 2012, Hjemdal 2011). Prabhu (2017) found that resilience is based on subjective Socio-Economic Status, rather than on objective one.

In terms of this conceptualization, social accelerated changes that has undergone in the size and composition of Israel's population are relevant to our investigation: The number of residents in Israel increased tenfold during its 70 years, 60% resulted from natural increase, and the rest from a migration balance. The ethnic background has become more diverse due to a change in proportions due to birth (Jews constituted 82% of the population at the time of the establishment of the State and currently constitute only 75%) and due to massive immigration (half are European, half from Africa and Asia). 90% of the country's population lives in cities. (Sikron 1998). Although the percentage of children in Israel is relatively high compared to other Western countries, Israel's population is aging. One reason for this is an increase in life expectancy and a decrease in mortality. Since the 1960s, the life expectancy of the entire population of Israel has increased by about 6 years. Another reason for the aging of the population is the decline in the fertility of the Jewish and Arab population into its strata, so that the fertility practices among the various groups in the population have come closer. The number of persons in the Israeli household decreased. The most important changes occurred in the marriage practices of the population. Less marrying, marrying at an older age, get more divorced: about 20% -25% of married couples get divorced. Israel's population is more educated than in the past at a level similar to that of Canada and Japan. The proportion of those with 13 years of schooling and above rose from 9% in 1961 to 49% now. Parallel to the increase in income and standard of living, inequality in the distribution of income among households in the various deciles has increased. The income of the top decile was about one-fifth of the income in the 1950s, compared with about a third in the 2000s. Israel’s economy continues to perform well both in terms of macroeconomic and fiscal outcomes. Growth has averaged 3.3% since 2000, higher than in many OECD countries, although this was partly driven by strong population growth, which accounted for half of this impressive increase. The external surplus is comfortable, and the public debt-to-GDP ratio, already well below the OECD average, is still falling. However, an OECD report rated Israel as the country with the highest rates of poverty among its members - 21% of the country's population is below the poverty line in 2016. In the mid-1990s, only 14% of Israel's residents Below the poverty line.( the Central Bureau of Statistics and Israel OECD website 2019)

 Early findings from Israel:

Israel is a country under tension, due to immigration, mentioned earlier, and to constant security tension. Positive correlations has been found between a number of negative life events and narcissism, and negative correlation of negative life events with optimism (Horesh & Stav 2015). At a young age, a high level of narcissism was correlated with conflict tendencies (Finzy-Dottan &Cohen, 2011) Participants born in Israel tended to score higher on emotional stability than those born abroad (Dewaele & Stavans 2014).

On this basis, we hypothesized that the demographic background would have an impact on the narcissistic and resilience profile of the participants. We hypothesized that the values ​​of origin, age, and socioeconomic data would influence the extent of narcissism and of resilience: the more western style the participant's environment, and the higher the economic situation, the greater the narcissism. We hypothesized that narcissistic people would describe themselves as having increased resilience, but in those with extreme narcissistic characteristics the level of resilience would decline.

**Methods**

Participants were recruited via web posts and social networking websites such as Facebook. The information was collected in September - October 2014. All participants recruited were asked to participate in an online survey concerning the relationship between demographic characteristics, and child-rearing experiences to personality traits in adalthood. After acquiring informed consent, participants were directed to a secure website that was not publically accessible. Completion time for the online survey was 20 minutes in average. Participants were only included if they had completed the survey.

Four hundred fifty-eight adult women, most of them in their 30's or 40's (54% were born in the 1980s and 25% in the '70s), participated in the study by completing an online survey. Of the women, 80% had 15 years of education and more, 30% had 17 years and more, 15% had up to 12 years, and only 2% had less than 12 years of education. The sample was predominantly Israeli (85% were born in Israel) and urban (74% were born and raised in the city). The majority of participants (58%) described their economic status in childhood as being average, 18% depicted it as below average and 24% as being above average. Regarding their economic status as adults, 52% reported average economic status, 14% below average and 24% above average. In the original sample, there were about forty men, but they were excluded in order to avoid a gender bias.

Online surveys have made it possible to test a diverse population from different geographical regions. Importantly, the validity of online surveys has been established both in USA (Buchanan & Smith, 1999; Nosek et al 2002) and China (Cai et al 2008), and also in conjunction with narcissism (Foster et al 2003) The online survey was conducted in Hebrew. All measures were originally in English and had been effectively translated in previous published and unpublished studies (back-translations by bilinguals) Demographics and background information- Participants completed a demographic questionnaire, which solicited information regarding gender, age, place of birth, economic status, years of education and additional relevant information.

Self-efficacy- was assessed using the Hebrew version and adaptation of the General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE; Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1992). The scale was created to assess internal positive beliefs and a general sense of perceived self-efficacy. It was aimed to predict levels of coping with daily conflicts and levels of adaptation following stressful life events. It contains a 10-item inventory and responses are measured on a 4-point Likert scale. Higher scores indicate higher levels of Self-Efficacy. The Hebrew version by Zeidner (1994) was used in a previous study conducted by Cybulsky (1997) and internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) was .80. The internal consistency for the original version of this questionnaire ranged from α = .75 to α = .90 and in the present study it also falls within this range with α = .88.

Sense of Mastery- was assessed using the Pearlin Mastery Scale (PM; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). The PM measures the inclination to view life events as being under one’s control as opposed to viewing them as governed by external factors. It contains a 7-item inventory and responses are measured on a 7-point scale. Higher scores indicate higher Sense of Mastery. The Hebrew version by Pedut (1990) was used in previous studies by Ben-Zur (2003) and internal consistency ranged from α = .69 to α = .80. In the present study Cronbach's alpha was .83

Optimism and pessimism- were measured with a Hebrew translation of Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R; Scheier et al, 1994), which consists of 10 items. Three items (Items 1, 4, and 10) assess optimism, 3 items (Items 3, 7, and 9) assess pessimism, and there are 4 filler items. Respondents indicated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Items 2, 5, 6, and 8 are fillers. The internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) for dispositional optimism in the original version of this questionnaire was .62 (Scheier et al, 1994) and in the current Hebrew-translated version α = .78. The internal consistency for dispositional pessimism in the original version of this questionnaire was .73 and in the current Hebrew-translated version α = .69. The internal consistency for all six scale-items ranged between .74 and .78 in previous studies (Schou et al, 2004) and in the present study α = .82. The Hebrew-translated version closely matched the English version and had been used in a previous study (Horowitz-Primor, 1999)

Narcissism- was assessed using a Hebrew translation and adaptation of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI-40; Raskin & Terry, 1988). The NPI-40 is constructed by a 40-item forced-choice inventory and for each item participants are asked to choose between a narcissistic and a non-narcissistic statement. The Hebrew translation and adaptation of NPI-40 utilized a 5-point Likert scale (1: Strongly Disagree to 5: Strongly Agree) for all 40 narcissistic statements (Skvirsky, 2015). A Dutch adaptation by Barelds and Dijkstra (2010) also altered the response format and was validated successfully in community and student samples with excellent correlation (r = 0.97; p < 0.01) between the dichotomous forced-choice format and the 5-point Likert version of the scale. Baum and Shnit (2003) used the current Hebrew version and reported internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of .94. In the present sample internal consistency is .90.

All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS (SPSS, Chicago, IL). One-way ANOVA with narcissism scale was carried out for all categorical variables and correlation analysis for all continuous independent variables. Finally, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed to explore significant predictors of narcissism scale. The independent variables for inclusion were those showing statistically significant association with narcissism scale from ANOVA and correlation analyses conducted previously.

**Results**

 **Differences in mean NPI scores according to various characteristics of participants. Table 1:**

|  | Mean | ± | SD | *F* | *p*-Value |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age (*N* = 458) |  |  |  | 6.54 | .011 |
|  Generation X (*N* = 51) | 2.64 | ± | .44 |  |  |
|  Generation Y (*N* = 407) | 2.83 | ± | .51 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Place of birth (*N* = 458) |  |  |  |  .91 | .341 |
|  Israel (*N* = 389) | 2.80 | ± | .52 |  |  |
|  Not Israel (*N* = 69) | 2.86 | ± | .40 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Mother's place of birth (*N* = 455) |  |  |  |  .70 | .404 |
|  Israel (*N* = 242) | 2.79 | ± | .49 |  |  |
|  Not Israel (*N* = 213) | 2.83 | ± | .52 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Type of settlement in childhood (*N* = 424) |  |  |  | 3.64 | .057 |
|  Urban-type settlement (*N* = 313) | 2.83 | ± | .51 |  |  |
|  Rural-type settlement (*N* = 111) | 2.73 | ± | .51 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Economic status in childhood (*N* = 457) |  |  |  | 6.57 | .002 |
|  Below average (*N* = 83) | 2.89 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  Average (*N* = 266) | 2.73 | ± | .49 |  |  |
|  Above average (*N* = 108) | 2.92 | ± | .49 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Infancy and childhood background factors | **Mean** | **±** | **SD** | ***F*** | ***p*-Value** |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Parental Presence in childhood (*N* = 458) |  |  |  | 1.66 | .198 |
|  Parents lived together (*N* = 405) | 2.79 | ± | .50 |  |  |
|  Parents didn't lived together (*N* = 53) | 2.89 | ± | .57 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Birth order (*N* = 458) |  |  |  |  .22 | .880 |
|  Firstborn child (*N* = 174) | 2.80 | ± | .50 |  |  |
|  Middle child (*N* = 138) | 2.78 | ± | .51 |  |  |
|  Younger child (*N* = 127) | 2.83 | ± | .53 |  |  |
|  Only child (*N* = 19) | 2.84 | ± | .42 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Sleeping arrangements in infancy (*N* = 452) |  |  |  |  .12 | .883 |
|  As a baby, I slept with my parents regularly (*N* = 148) | 2.80 | ± | .50 |  |  |
|  As a baby, I slept occasionally with my parents (*N* = 96) | 2.79 | ± | .49 |  |  |
|  As a baby, I slept in a separate room regularly (*N* = 208) | 2.82 | ± | .52 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age of first educational institution (*N* = 447) |  |  |  |  .98 | .376 |
|  Under the age of 6 months (*N* = 108) | 2.75 | ± | .49 |  |  |
|  Between 6 months and up to two years (*N* = 146) | 2.84 | ± | .51 |  |  |
|  Above the age of two years (*N* = 193) | 2.80 | ± | .51 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Characteristics of birth, infancy and childhood nutrition | **Mean** | **±** | **SD** | **F** | **p-Value** |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Birth (*N* = 456) |  |  |  |  .34 | .560 |
|  Natural hospital birth without medical intervention (*N* = 320) | 2.80 | ± | .51 |  |  |
|  Hospital Birth including medical intervention (*N* = 136) | 2.83 | ± | .51 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nutrition in infancy (*N* = 457) |  |  |  |  .70 | .497 |
|  Breast milk substitutes (*N* = 147) | 2.80 | ± | .46 |  |  |
|  Breast milk for one year or less (*N* = 251) | 2.79 | ± | .53 |  |  |
|  Breast milk for more than one year (*N* = 59) | 2.88 | ± | .48 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  Yes (*N* = 63) | 2.88 |  | .50 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Characteristics of participants as adults | **Mean** | **±** | **SD** | ***F*** | ***p*-Value** |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Economic status in adulthood (*N* = 451) |  |  |  | 3.11 | .046 |
|  Below average (*N* = 62) | 2.73 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  Average (*N* = 236) | 2.77 | ± | .50 |  |  |
|  Above average (*N* = 153) | 2.88 | ± | .50 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Total years of education (*N* = 448) |  |  |  |  .99 | .321 |
|  Below 15 years (*N* = 88) | 2.85 | ± | .61 |  |  |
|  15 years of education and above (*N* = 360) | 2.79 | ± | .48 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

**Place of birth**- Results show that **prevalence of top 10% NPI, scores among subjects born in Israel** was 11.3% (OR = 8.7; 95% CI = 1.17–64.02; p < .05) while prevalence of top 10% NPI scores among subjects born in a different country was only 1.4% (OR = 0.1; 95% CI = .02–.85; p < .05). No significant correlations were found between place of birth and adaptive narcissism or resilience, neither no between narcissism or resilience and different ethnic origin groups.

**age group**- participants' age, transformed to a dichotomous covariate (age group), where subjects born in the '60s or '70s were labeled "Generation X" and subjects born in the '80s or '90s were labeled "Generation Y". using ANOVA results show a significant effect of age group (F(1,456) = 6.54, p = .01), which confirms the common claim **that "Generation Y" has more narcissistic traits than "Generation X"** In accordance with previous studies. **No correlation was found between top 10% NPI, the extreme narcissistic index to age group or generation.**

participants' economic status- the factor participants' economic status in childhood (F(2,454) = 6.57, p < .01) and in adulthood (F(2,448) = 3.11, p < .05), coded into three categories: below average, average and above average, when correlated with narcissism and resilience scores . Regarding economic status in adulthood, although main effect was statistically significant, a post hoc comparison using Tukey’s HSD showed no significant effect between groups, but a post hoc comparison regarding economic status in childhood showed that **mean narcissism scores for below and above average status** (M(below) = 2.89, p(below) < .05; M(above) = 2.92, p(above) < .01) were significantly higher than the mean narcissism score for average status in childhood. (M = 2.73) results show **that prevalence of top 10% NPI scores among subjects reporting above average economic status in childhood** is 14.8% (OR = 1.9; 95% CI = .99–3.69; p < .05), while prevalence among average economic status in childhood is only 7.1% (OR = 0.5; 95% CI = .26–.91; p < .05)

**Education**- prevalence among subjects reporting **less than 15 years of education** is 15.9% (OR = 2.1; 95% CI = 1.05–4.12; p < .05), significantly above expected rates for prevalence **for top 10% NPI score.**

**Differences in mean Self-Efficacy scores according to various characteristics of participants. Table 2:**

|  | Mean | ± | SD | *F* | *p*-Value |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age (*N* = 449) |  |  |  | .26 | .610 |
|  Generation X (*N* = 50) | 3.13 | ± | .51 |  |  |
|  Generation Y (*N* = 399) | 3.09 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Place of birth (*N* = 449) |  |  |  | .08 | .779 |
|  Israel (*N* = 380) | 3.09 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  Not Israel (*N* = 69) | 3.11 | ± | .55 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Mother's place of birth (*N* = 446) |  |  |  |  1.54 | .216 |
|  Israel (*N* = 238) | 3.07 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  Not Israel (*N* = 208) | 3.13 | ± | .53 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Type of settlement in childhood (*N* = 415) |  |  |  | .64 | .426 |
|  Urban-type settlement (*N* = 310) | 3.11 | ± | .53 |  |  |
|  Rural-type settlement (*N* = 105) | 3.06 | ± | .56 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Economic status in childhood (*N* = 448) |  |  |  | 6.84 | .001 |
|  Below average (*N* = 83) | 3.21 | ± | .56 |  |  |
|  Average (*N* = 259) | 3.01 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  Above average (*N* = 106) | 3.19 | ± | .48 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Mother's total years of education (*N* = 438) |  |  |  |  .14 | .712 |
|  Below 15 years (*N* = 195) | 3.11 | ± | .55 |  |  |
|  15 years of education and above (*N* = 243) | 3.09 | ± | .52 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Infancy and childhood background factors | **Mean** | **±** | **SD** | ***F*** | ***p*-Value** |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Parental Presence in childhood (*N* = 449) |  |  |  | .65 | .419 |
|  Parents lived together (*N* = 397) | 3.10 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  Parents didn't lived together (*N* = 52) | 3.04 | ± | .53 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Birth order (*N* = 449) |  |  |  | .35 | .787 |
|  Firstborn child (*N* = 172) | 3.11 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  Middle child (*N* = 133) | 3.05 | ± | .52 |  |  |
|  Younger child (*N* = 125) | 3.11 | ± | .55 |  |  |
|  Only child (*N* = 19) | 3.13 | ± | .61 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Sleeping arrangements in infancy (*N* = 443) |  |  |  | .39 | .676 |
|  As a baby, I slept with my parents regularly (*N* = 148) | 3.11 | ± | .58 |  |  |
|  As a baby, I slept occasionally with my parents (*N* = 94) | 3.06 | ± | .49 |  |  |
|  As a baby, I slept in a separate room regularly (*N* = 201) | 3.11 | ± | .52 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age of first educational institution (*N* = 439) |  |  |  | .19 | .827 |
|  Under the age of 6 months (*N* = 106) | 3.12 | ± | .58 |  |  |
|  Between 6 months and up to two years (*N* = 142) | 3.08 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  Above the age of two years (*N* = 191) | 3.09 | ± | .52 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Characteristics of birth, infancy and childhood nutrition | **Mean** | **±** | **SD** | **F** | **p-Value** |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Birth (*N* = 447) |  |  |  |  .46 | .497 |
|  Natural hospital birth without medical intervention (*N* = 316) | 3.10 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  Hospital Birth including medical intervention (*N* = 131) | 3.07 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nutrition in infancy (*N* = 448) |  |  |  |  .39 | .674 |
|  Breast milk substitutes (*N* = 144) | 3.08 | ± | .55 |  |  |
|  Breast milk for one year or less (*N* = 247) | 3.09 | ± | .54 |  |  |
|  Breast milk for more than one year (*N* = 57) | 3.15 | ± | .48 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Characteristics of participants as adults | **Mean** | **±** | **SD** | ***F*** | ***p*-Value** |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Economic status in adulthood (*N* = 442) |  |  |  | 14.77 | .000 |
|  Below average (*N* = 62) | 2.83 | ± | .65 |  |  |
|  Average (*N* = 232) | 3.07 | ± | .51 |  |  |
|  Above average (*N* = 148) | 3.25 | ± | .48 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Total years of education (*N* = 439) |  |  |  |  .02 | .896 |
|  Below 15 years (*N* = 87) | 3.08 | ± | .66 |  |  |
|  15 years of education and above (*N* = 352) | 3.09 | ± | .51 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

Results in [Table 2](#Table10) show the differences in mean self-efficacy scores according to various characteristics of participants using ANOVA. This revealed that mean self-efficacy scores was not signiﬁcantly correlated with most of participants' characteristics. **Exceptions to this rule were participants' economic status in childhood** (*F*(2,445) = 6.84, *p* < .01) **and in adulthood** (*F*(2,439) = 14.77, *p* < .001), coded into three categories, below average, average and above average. Regarding economic status in childhood, a post hoc comparison showed that mean self-efficacy scores for below and above average status (*M(below)* = 3.21, *p(below)* < .01; *M(above)* = 3.19, *p(above)* < .05) were significantly higher than the mean self-efficacy score for average status in childhood (*M* = 3.01). Regarding economic status in adulthood, a post hoc comparison using Tukey’s HSD showed that mean self-efficacy score for above average status (*M(above)* = 3.25, *p(above>average)* < .01) was significantly higher than the mean self-efficacy score for average status (*M(average)* = 3.07, *p(average>below)* < .01) which was significantly higher than the mean self-efficacy score for below average status (*M(below)* = 2.83, *p(below<above)* < .001) which was also significantly lower than the mean self-efficacy score for above average status in adulthood.

**NPI associations with self-efficacy, self-mastery, and LOT's optimism Table 3:**

Table 3: Mean, standard deviation and correlation matrix of total NPI score, indicators and adaptive and maladaptive personality factors (*N* = 447-458)

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | M | SD | TOT | AUT | SEL | SUP | EXH | EXP | VAN | ENT |
| Self-efficacy | 3.09 | .54 | .50(\*\*\*) | .52(\*\*\*) | .54(\*\*\*) | .29(\*\*\*) | .21(\*\*\*) | .41(\*\*\*) | .17(\*\*\*) | .09 |
| Self-mastery | 5.01 | 1.08 | .37(\*\*\*) | .47(\*\*\*) | .53(\*\*\*) | .19(\*\*\*) | .11(\*) | .16(\*\*\*) | .21(\*\*\*) | -.05 |
| Total LOT score | 2.58 | .84 | .24(\*\*\*) | .29(\*\*\*) | .25(\*\*\*) | .20(\*\*\*) | .16(\*\*) | .12(\*) | .24(\*\*\*) | -.13(\*\*) |
| Optimism subscale | 2.61 | .94 | .25(\*\*\*) | .27(\*\*\*) | .24(\*\*\*) | .22(\*\*\*) | .18(\*\*\*) | .12(\*) | .22(\*\*\*) | -.07 |
| Pessimism subscale | 1.44 | .93 | -.18(\*\*\*) | -.25(\*\*\*) | -.20(\*\*\*) | -.15(\*\*) | -.11(\*) | -.09 | -.21(\*\*\*) | .17(\*\*\*) |

(\*\*\*) Correlation is significant at .001 level (2-tailed). (\*\*) Correlation is significant at .01 level. (\*) Correlation is significant at .05 level.

The hypothesis that NPI scores would have significant associations with self-efficacy (r(449) = .50, *p* < .001), self-mastery (r(447) = .37, *p* < .001), LOT total score (r(449) = .24, *p* < .001) and LOT's optimism subscale (r(449) = .25, *p* < .001) was confirmed. All correlations reported below (TOT column in [Table 2](#Table4)) are zero order correlations with NPI mean score. Results also show a weak and negative correlation between NPI score and LOT's pessimism subscale (r(449) = -.18, *p* < .001).

**Discussion**

Narcissism appears to be on the rise around the world due to culture changes (Twenge & Campbell, 2010; Cai et al 2012). In relation to various societal changes taking place in Israel, we obtained empirical evidence consistent with the possibility of an increasing trend in narcissism here as well.

A core feature of narcissism is its high agency but low human relations, manifesting as soaring grandiosity and entitlement. The literature separates between adaptive narcissism and non-adaptive one. Although Sharlog (2011) had found a lack of correlation between demography and narcissistic traits in Israel, Indeed, we found that these are two different groups: while adaptive narcissism increases over the years, and the generation Y can be characterized as the most narcissistic generation, the non-adaptive narcissus, meaning, narcissistic personality disorders are quantitatively stable across generations.

This group of the top ten percentiles in the Narcissistic Questionnaire shows difficulties in adjustment and functioning, by reporting of below-average economic status in adulthood, and an average of less than 15 years of schooling.

As noted in Israel there is a cultural rapprochement between different ethnic groups, in the direction of Western culture, and indeed there was no difference among native Israelis in the indices of adaptive narcissism and resilience between different ethnic groups. A difference was found between those born in Israel and new immigrants with regard to non-adaptive narcissism.

 When comparing those who were born in Israel to new immigrants it is important to keep in mind that this label does not imply any homogeneity within that group due to the countries of origin, the culture from which they came from, and the willingness to mix with Israeli culture: new immigrants from Ethiopia are more integrationaly motivated when embracing Hebrew and Israeli culture. While for new immigrants from former Soviet Union, the motivation is only instrumental (Dewaele & Stavans 2014). Thus, this finding may be linked to an economic situation: finding shows that there is a tendency toward developing a non-adaptive narcissism for those who reported an above- average economic status in childhood: There is a link between low economic status and immigration, and despite the differences between the ethnic groups of first-generation new immigrants, the low economic situation due to immigration status, mediates the fact that we have not found a non-adaptive narcissistic among immigrants.

Similar patterns of results between narcissism and sociodemographic characteristics were found in USA (Foster et al, 2003) and China (Cai et al 2012) suggesting that decreases in family size and increases in ﬁnancial wealth, facilitate a raise of non-adaptive narcissism.

Self efficacy was found to be related to economic status, a more measurable variable that reflected success and efficiency as self-perception. It seems that there is a link between high economic status in adulthood and self-efficacy, which increases when the starting point in childhood was not average.

The study also shows narcissistic self-perception as highly resilient, perhaps as part of the narcissistic narratives of excessive self-esteem of the two types of narcissism we have examined. It seems that even those who experience difficulties in functioning as adults feel that they have high personal abilities. There were no significant differences between the groups in terms of the type of locality in childhood (city or village) with respect to the dependent variables that were *measured in the present study.*

**Limitations and implications:** The present study was made possible by the Internet which provides a gateway to tap into a large population of Internet users. These studies examined a demographically diverse population of participants from Israel.

It is important to note that this study examined only women, and therefore its results correspond to the population of women in Israel. Follow-up research can examine mixed populations and see whether there are gender differences regarding perceptions of narcissism and resilience. the contribution of social demographic characteristic to an increase in the prevalence of narcissistic treats cannot be ignored. This study sheds light on the difference between two different instances of Narcissism: the narcissism that encourages agency that grows over the years and generations, and the narcissistic personality disorder that is not adaptive and remains stable without cultural encouragement. In order to examine the factors that encourage the emergence of narcissistic treats, different childhood experiences should be examined in more detail. In addition, this study does not allow us to examine the extent to which resilience characteristics are associated with adaptive narcissism, or whether it is the narcissistic perception that leads to an overvaluation of the self. For a clear examination of these connections, a research system that does not rely on self-report questionnaires is required.

In summary, it appears that the data in Israel is consistent with recent conceptualizations, as found elsewhere, on the relationship between social and developmental change.

**Bibliography**

American Psychiatric Association. (2013). DSM-5: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, New School Library 669-673Cai, H. VIirginia, Kwan, V. Sedikides, c. (2012) A Sociocultural Approach to Narcissism: The Case of Modern China. European Journal of Personality, Eur. J. Pers. 26: 529–535

Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), Encyclopedia of human behavior (Vol. 4, pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press. (Reprinted in H. Friedman [Ed.], Encyclopedia of mental health. San Diego: Academic Press, 1998)

Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy. The exercise of control. New York W.H.Freeman and Company. Emory University, Division of Educational Studies, Information on Self-Efficacy: A Community of Scholars

Barelds, D. P., and Dijkstra, P. (2010). Narcissistic Personality Inventory: structure of the adapted Dutch version. Scand. J. Psychol. 51, 132–138

Baum, N., & Shnit, D. (2003). Divorced parents' conflict management styles. Journal of Divorce & Remarriage, 39, 37-58

Ben-Zur, H. (2003). Happy adolescents: The link between subjective well-being, internal resources and parental factors. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 32(2), 67-79‏

Ben-Zur, H. (2005). Coping, Distress and Life Events in a Community Sample, International Journal of Stress Management, 12, 188-196

Bleich, A. Gelkopf, M. Melamed, Y. Solomon, Z. (2006) Mental health and resiliency following 44 months of terrorism: a survey of an Israeli national representative sample. BMC Medicine. Vol. 4, p21-11. 11p. 6 Charts. DOI: 10.1186/1741-7015-4-21

Buchanan, T., & Smith, J. L. (1999). Using the internet for psychological research: Personality testing on the world wide web. British Journal of Psychology, 90, 125–144

CAI, H. VIRGINIA S. Y. KWAN, V.S. SEDIKIDES, C. (2012) Sociocultural Approach to Narcissism: The Case of Modern China. Eur. J. Pers. 26: 529–535A

Cai, H., Lin Y., Wu, Q., Yan, L., & Huang, X. (2008). Examining the measurement invariance between paper-and-pencil and internet-administered tests in China. Acta Psychologica Sinica, 40, 228–239

Cybulsky, M. (1997). Influence of hope on anxiety among religious students. Unpublished master’s thesis. University of Haifa, Haifa, Israel

Dewaele, J.M. Stavans- Birkbeck, A. (2014) The effect of immigration, acculturation and multicompetence on personality profiles of Israeli multilinguals International Journal of Bilingualism 2014, Vol. 18(3) 203 –221

Finzy-Dottan, M. Cohen.O. (2011) young adult sibling relations: the effects of perceived parental favoritism and narcissism, JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY 1-22,(1)145 & St-Jean 20

Foster, J. D., Campbell, W. K., & Twenge, J. M. (2003). Individual differences in narcissism: Inﬂated self-views across the lifespan and around the world. Journal of Research in Personality, 37, 469–486

Gray, P. (2013). “Let Children Play”, Translated into Hebrew from Aeon Magazine, retrieved from: http://alaxon.co.il/article

Greenfield, S. (2014). Mind Change: How Digital Technologies Are Leaving Their Mark on Our Brains. Ebury Publishing

Grønlie, A. Dageid, W. Subjective Well-Being Among HIV-Positive South Africans: The Influence of Resilience and Social Capital. Social Indicators Research. 2017, Vol. 131 Issue 3, p1251-1268

Hjemdal, O; Vogel, P A.; Solem, S.; Hagen, K.; Stiles, T. C The relationship between resilience and levels of anxiety, depression, and obsessive-compulsive symptoms in adolescents. . Clinical Psychology & Psychotherapy. 2011, Vol. 18 Issue 4, p314-321.

Horesh. N, Stav D. (2015) The relationship between life events and depression and social anxiety among youth, and his relation to personality traits: extrovertism, narcissism, self-esteem, optimism and self-compassion.MA.thesis, Bar Ilan University

Horowitz-Primor, R. (1999). Adaptation to problems in fertility and its connection to trait optimism. Unpublished master’s thesis. Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv, Israel

Jerusalem, M., & Schwarzer, R. (1992). Self-efficacy as a resource factor in stress appraisal processes. In R. Schwarzer (Ed.), Self-efficacy: Thought control of action (pp. 195-213). Washington, DC: Hemisphere

Keller, P.S., Blincoe, S. Gilbert, L.R., Dewall, C.N., Haak, E.A., & Widiger, T. (2014). Narcissism in Romantic Relationships: A Dyadic Perspective. Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 33 (1), 25-50

- Kulik, L.(2005) Predicting Gender Role Stereotypes among Adolescents in Israel: The Impact of Background Variables, Personality Traits, and Parental Factors Journal of Youth Studies Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 111-129

Lent, R. W., & Hackett, G. (1987). Career self-efficacy: Empirical status and future directions. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 30, 347-382

 Lerman, E. (2016) And in the front - the Mediterranean. Shiloah Israeli journal of philosophy and policy vol 1 pp. 75-93 Israel.

 MacDonald, K., & Feifel, D. (2014) Oxytocin's Role in Anxiety: A Critical Appraisal. Brain Res. 11, 1580, 22-56

Mathieu C. St-Jean E. Entrepreneurial personality: The role of narcissism. Personality and Individual Differences 55 (2013) 527–531

McWilliams, N. (2011). Psychoanalytic Diagnosis: Understanding Personality Structure in the Clinical Process (2nd Edition). New York, NY, USA: Guilford Press

Miller, J. D. Maples, J. L .Buffardi, L. Cai, H. Gentile, B. Yasemin K. LoPilato, A .Kwan, V. S. Y. Pendry, L. F. Lane S.C. S. Campbell, (2015) W. K. Narcissism and United States' Culture: The View From Home and Around the World. Journal of Personality & Social Psychology

Nosek, B. A., Banaji, M., & Greenwald, A. G. (2002). Harvesting implicit group attitude and beliefs from a demonstration web site. Group Dynamics, 6, 101–115

Orenstein, A. (2007). Changing Patterns of Parenting: Lecture in Parenting and Coping Therapy Nowadays. Jerusalem: School of Education, The Hebrew University

Ostervill, Z. (1995). Open Solutions. Tel Aviv: Schocken Publishers

Pearlin, L. I., & Schooler, C. (1978). The Structure of Coping. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 19 (1), 2-21

Pedut, A. (1990). Changes in Self-Concept in Post-Mastectomy Patients due to Group Occupational Therapy Treatment. M.A. Thesis, University of Haifa (in Hebrew).

Prabhu, S. G.; Shekhar, R. The role of socio-economic status in adolescent resilience and self-esteem. Indian Journal of Health & Wellbeing. 2017, Vol. 8 Issue 9, p985-989

Raskin, R., & Terry, H. (1998). A Principal-Components Analysis of the Narcissist Personality Inventory and Further Evidence of Its Construct Validity. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54 (5), 890-902

Saxe, G. B. (1982). Culture and the development of numerical cognition: Studies among the Oksapmin of Papua New Guinea. In C. J. Brainerd (Ed.), Children’s logical and mathematical cognition (pp. 157–176). New York, NY: Springer-Verlag

Scheier, M.F., Carver, C.S. & Bridges, M.W. (1994). Distinguishing Optimism from Neuroticism (and Trait Anxiety, Self-Mastery, and Self-Esteem): A Reevaluation of the Life Orientation Test. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 67(6), 1063-1078

I. Schou Ø. Ekeberg C.M. Ruland L. Sandvik R. Kåresen(2004) Pessimism as a predictor of emotional morbidity one year following breast cancer surgery. Psyco-Oncology vol. 13 No. 5, 309-320

Selsova, P., Bob, P., Kukla, L., & Ptacek, L. (2013). Historie Konceptu Narcismuz Psychodynamické Perspektivy, Československá psychologie/ ročník LVII, 30-41

- Shkalim, E. Almagor, M. Ben-Porath, Y.(2017) Examining Current Conceptualizations of Psychopathology With the MMPI–2/MMPI–2–RF Restructured Clinical Scales: Preliminary Findings From a Cross-Cultural Study. JOURNAL OF PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT , VOL. 99, NO. 4, 375–3831

Saxe, G. B. (1982). Culture and the development of numerical cognition: Studies among the Oksapmin of Papua New Guinea. In C. J. Brainerd (Ed.), Children’s logical and mathematical cognition (pp. 157–176). New York, NY: Springer-Verlag

Sharleg.S.(2011) The relationship between narcissistic personality characteristics, the father's perception of his children's characteristics, his involvement and the degree of warmth and acceptance of the father who raises his children himself as a result of divorce. Tel Aviv: Tel Aviv University, School of Social Work,p. 133

Sikron, M. 1998 Trends and Changes in Israel's Population from Personalities and Practices in Israel Jubilee Book Editors: Aharoni, S. Aharoni, M. Published by Miksam, Israel

Skvirsky, V. (2015). The contribution of personal resources and mother's support to the mental health of younger and older women at the beginning of fertility treatments. Unpublished master’s thesis. Bar-Ilan University, Ramat Gan, Israel

Twenge, J. M., Campbell, W. K., & Gentile B. (2012). Generational increases in agentic self-evaluations among American college students, 1966–2009. Self and Identity 11: 409–427.

Twenge, J. M., & Campbell, W. K. (2010). The Narcissism Epidemic: Living in the Age of Entitlement. New York, NY: Free Press

 Vibert, E. Gender, resilience and resistance: South Africa's Hleketani Community Garden.Journal of Contemporary African Studies. 2016, Vol. 34 Issue 2, p252-267

Wallace, H.M., Ready, C. B., & Weitenhagen, E. (2009). Narcissism and Task Persistence. Self and Identity, 8, 78-93

Xing, C., & Sun, J. (2013). The Role of Psychological Resilience and Positive Affect in Risky Decision-Making, International Journal of Psychology, 48 (5), 935–943

Yi Z. Ke S.(2010) Resilience Significantly Contributes to Exceptional Longevity. Current Gerontology & Geratrics Research. p1-9

Zeidner, M. (1994). Hebrew version of Self-Efficacy Scale. University of Haifa, Haifa, Israel

Data were obtained from the Central Bureau of Statistics: www.cbs.gov.il/he/Statistical/seker-chevrati-h123.pdf, and Israel OECD website: www.data.oecd.org/israel.htm