What does General Psychology mean? The historical intent was to keep the generality of psychology together; to give a place where psychologists of different orientations can meet and learn from one another; and to provide an opportunity for psychology to remain a unity in which all contributors to the field are recognized and valued. At the recent Division 1 business meeting, it was suggested that General Psychology was where psychology begins and where it ends.

The role of the President of APA is influential in keeping these ideas alive and for increasing the unification of psychology. Thus, in planning for this year’s election, we asked the candidates to indicate how they would support these issues.

Division 1 does not feel that it is appropriate for the division to support any one candidate for the office of President of APA. On the other hand, the Division leadership does feel that it is very important for our members to vote in this election and that they take into consideration the goals of the Division in casting their votes.

It is also necessary to remember the Hare system used by APA and to rank order the candidates. In the Hare system, if your first choice candidate is not elected, your vote goes to your second choice. If both your first and second choice candidates are defeated, then your vote goes to your third choice, and this continues for your fourth and fifth choices, if they are necessary in determining the final winner.

In keeping with our recent practice the five candidates for President of APA were asked if they would contribute a short piece (fewer than 500 words) for The General Psychologist. They were asked “to address the importance of unity within psychology and how you would encourage unity as president of APA.” They could also provide “comments on the importance of a general psychology,” if desired. The responses are presented in the order received.

In addition to their responses below, you can obtain additional information from recent copies of the Monitor, and you can learn more about the candidates from electronic space: The candidates have given you a Web address below. You can also learn about each of them by doing a Web search (Google or other) on their name. Then, in mid-October, when you receive your ballot for the APA presidential election, please open it immediately and cast your vote—before it gets buried under that mountain of paper you have in your office.

The following are the candidates statements submitted to The General Psychologist:
APA Presidential Candidates Respond

James H. Bray

Unity within our field is critical. By electing a president who understands the broad spectrum and diversity of psychology we can realize the potential of our great discipline. As a member of APA governance for over 15 years, I will work tirelessly to enhance psychology through expanding opportunities in science, practice, education and public interest for all psychologists. This broad experience earned strong endorsements by science and practice divisions, APA caucuses, and state psychological associations.

APA is a strong and powerful organization, much better than when I ran for president in 2002. However, in discussions with hundreds of psychologists, scientists, educators, and practitioners, many are deeply concerned about their future in psychology.

Science Issues. Over 50% of health problems are caused by psychosocial factors, yet less than 7% of the NIH budget is spent to research them. Although NIH budgets are at record high levels, many scientists cannot get their research funded. It is time for APA to join other behavioral science groups to increase the percentage of the NIH and NSF budgets for psychological science, which will provide incentives for young scientists to join APA. We also need to stop Congress from undue interference with the peer review process. Furthermore, APA and APS should work together for the mutual benefit of all psychologists.

Practice Issues. Practitioners are besieged with threats to scope of practice from other professions. Over 60% of mental health problems are treated by primary care physicians, without assistance from psychologists. Minority, underserved, and elderly patients suffer even more from these systems of care. Psychologists are often not involved in treatments because we are not an integral part of the healthcare team. Psychologists can provide solutions to effectively treat the major health and mental health problems of our nation because we are the profession that knows the most about human behavior and how to change it. We need to use our psychological science to better enhance our practice and expand our practice opportunities into primary care and gain prescriptive authority.

Education Issues. Educators are also struggling with funding cutbacks. Our young psychologists are leaving graduate school with record levels of debt, making it difficult for them to make a reasonable living. Students considering a career in psychology are re-thinking their decisions because of economic limitations within the profession and this disproportionately impacts students from disadvantaged backgrounds. The president has the power to keep a focus on issues and diversity and problems related to socio-economic status will be priorities.

We need to work together to support all psychologists. Through my extensive experience and established working relationships within APA, we can do this and much more. Please visit my web page: http://www.bcm.tmc.edu/familymed/jbray for more information.

Ronald H. Rozensky

From the first day I decided to seek the APA Presidency my central theme has been “The Family of Psychology.” Psychology’s future will be strong only when that entire “Family” works together and recognizes our cultural, ethnic, educational, philosophical, and work place diversity while at the same time emphasizing that we all are Psychologists —each of us linked to the other by our shared educational and scientific heritage—with a collective professional history—and an intimately entwined future.

As I said to the APA Council of Representatives when asking for their nomination for President, “As I was describing this unity-theme to my friend Doug McDonald from North Dakota, he spontaneously said, in the Lakota Language, “Mitakuye Oyasin”—which translates, “we are all related” — we are all Family.”

I have two overarching Presidential goals that are built upon this tradition: first, “All Psychologists must work together to have a strong, coordinated, articulate approach to advocating for Psychology”—no matter whether that advocacy is for science, practice, education, or for the public good; and, “All Psychologists must work together to strengthen our field in order to build the best future we can build for all Psychology.”

My unity-based initiative as President will be “Celebrating our Past, Enjoying our Present, Building Our Future,” bringing together the many “communities of interest” within Psychology. During my year as president:

• We will all work together to build an online family tree to illustrate how all Psychologists are interrelated – this will help bring us together in an entertaining way to celebrate our collective past.
• To focus on enjoying the present, I will appoint a “Task Force on Ensuring Healthy Psychologists and a Healthy Profession.” That group will be charged with bringing together information to help each of us balance our work and personal lives and to assist us in planning how to make our lives as enjoyable, stress-free, and healthy as we can.
• Third, we must reinforce APA’s commitment to a strong Psychological Science as the foundation of professional practice. I will appoint a Task Force to highlight Psychology’s contribution to the science and the practice of Public Health. This topic is broad in scope and involves basic and applied psychological science underlying many new and emerging professional practice opportunities and the best in public service. It is a theme that will unite us and help build our future.
As a member and Fellow of Division 1, I appreciate the importance of unity across all Psychology. Thus, I am a scientist-practitioner who has integrated the roles of funded researcher, practitioner, teacher, and academic administrator whose service to Psychology includes chair of both APA’s Boards of Educational Affairs & Professional Affairs and serving on APA Board of Directors and receipt of APA’s Heiser Award for Advocacy, Division 35’s International Psychologist of the Year Award, and Division 12, Section 8 – Association of Psychologists in Academic Health Centers – Outstanding Educator Award. My presidential goals and background can be found at http://www.RozenskyforAPAPresident.com.

Carol D. Goodheart

My campaign platform and my lifetime work heartily support the goals of Division 1: “encouraging members to incorporate multiple perspectives from psychology’s subdisciplines into their research, theory, and practice.” We are working for unity within APA in order to further psychology in the public interest.

Background: My focus for 25 years has been practice, scholarship, and service. I am in independent practice in Princeton, NJ, specializing in the treatment of people with physical illnesses and disabilities. I have served over the years at Rutgers University’s Graduate School of Applied and Professional Psychology as a clinical supervisor, contributing faculty, and member of the continuing education committee. I am an author and editor of seven books, including the latest: Evidence-Based Psychotherapy: Where Practice and Research Meet (with Alan Kazdin and Robert Sternberg), as well as many articles and chapters on health, women and the practice of psychology.

Leadership: Currently, I am the APA Treasurer, with expertise in fiscal policy and the use of resources. Having been on the Board of Directors for six years, I represent all constituencies of APA and support the priorities of all Directorates. Further, I have a track record of collaboration and of forging consensus to accomplish common goals. For example, as Chair of the 2005 Presidential Task Force on Evidence-Based Practice, I sought out and worked effectively with diverse perspectives; as a group we were able to achieve consensus on a complex set of concerns. The result was passage of our Task Force-recommended policy by the APA Council of Representatives, which allows APA to speak with one voice on Capitol Hill. It is a meaningful policy that is protective of the public and furthers the discipline. My service also includes such diverse leadership activities as: co-chair of the CEO search committee that culminated in the hiring of Norman Anderson, member of the 2003 Presidential TF on Unity, chair of the Policy and Planning Board, senior advisor to the Advisory Council on Genetics, and President of a Division. I have represented both a Division and a State on the Council of Representatives.

Representative awards and honors are: Fellow of APA, distinguished practitioner in the National Academy of Psychology, APA Presidential citation, the Division of Psychotherapy, Distinguished Psychologist Award for lifetime contributions, the Division of Counseling Psychology Best Practice Award, and Distinguished Psychologist of the Year awards from the Division of Psychologists in Independent Practice and the New Jersey Psychological Association.

Commitment: As President, I will propose the development of a new think tank, an Institute of Psychology, to be on a par with the Institute of Medicine. It will provide a unified structure to advance a strong agenda for psychology and enhance psychology’s influence. It involves a true partnership among psychology constituencies. I am committed to a platform of economic strides, advocacy, partnerships, diversity, technological development, and responsiveness.

I ask for your #1 vote. For more information about my progressive agenda see: http://www.CarolGoodheartForAPAPresident.com.

Frank Y. Wong

I believe that unity within our discipline and within APA can best be advanced by pursuing two seemingly contradictory courses.

First, we must focus on the overarching truth that our work has an almost limitless potential to make a difference to individual well-being and to public health both nationally and internationally. Many of the most urgent public health issues facing the world community can best be addressed by psychologists. Almost without exception, the largest health and human welfare issues facing the developing and the developed world can only be addressed through changes in human behavior. The thing we are trained for. The thing that, in some way, on some level, all of us attempt to understand or effect every day.

The good we can do in the world should be able to trump constructs like the science-practice divide.

Second, I believe APA will be served best by a vision of unity that does not suggest homogeneity. As individuals and as psychologists we have different life experiences, different training, and different aspirations. Honoring our differences is necessary for building a robust and sustainable cohesion.

Within an organization like APA, having a place at the table, knowing that our voices are heard, is an important part of truly honoring psychology’s various constituencies. That ole’ science-practice divide provides an example of two constituencies who feel that their voices are not being heard. But psychologists of color, early career psychologists, psychologists working in public service settings and so many others feel disenfranchised within APA.

Research suggests that people are unlikely to participate in organizations in which they are not made welcome in concrete and visible ways. From 1970 to the present, nine women have served as president of APA. In that same period, three people of color have served as APA President. Authentic unity requires authentic inclusion. If membership in APA cannot be made clearly relevant and responsive to the majority of its members (women) and the majority (non-white by 2030) of the country’s population, than there will be very few of us left to unite.
Margaret Heldring

There were many things I admired about my former boss, the late U.S. Senator Paul Wellstone (D-MN). One was that his life reflected his values. He often advised others “be sure that the things you do match words you use.” Unity, collaboration, partnership, the belief that the team matters and that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts—these have been my words, and I believe, my actions.

As a psychologist I am well versed in practice, teaching, public service and knowledge creation. For most of the last twenty-five years, I have been a teacher in family medicine and a national leader in promoting integrated health care. I am recently returned to private practice after eleven years in Washington DC where I served as health policy advisor to two U.S. Senators, the director of health care policy for a 2000 presidential campaign, and the founder and CEO of a national health policy nonprofit organization. In 1994, I was myself a candidate for the Washington State legislature. Across these settings and roles, I have always aimed to build cohesion and common purpose.

Unity within psychology is logical but elusive. Of course we all say we are parts of a whole whether our primary identity is scientist or professor or practitioner. Yet, challenges persist in fostering an enduring sense of unity. The organizational structure of APA into separate directorates is efficient but regrettable. Competition for resources makes collaboration difficult at times. It is the shared responsibility of senior APA staff as well as an APA president and Board of Directors to model unity and implement strategies that promote it. I believe that psychology education from the high school level through CE’s as a senior psychologist ought to intentionally address unity and set up experiences that create unity.

One compelling opportunity to build greater unity is the global warming crisis upon us. We need all of our perspectives to build an agenda to address this threat. As president of APA I would make a cooperative agenda to save the Earth a top priority. This would bring in many scientific disciplines, teaching and training in the public domain, positive behavior change as we engage people in “living green and the public interest as we monitor equitable distribution of resources and advocate effective public policies.

Thank you for this opportunity to share some of my thoughts about unity. I appreciate your interest and support.
Quasi-Random Samples . . . from San Francisco

Climbing halfway to the stars

Takooshian Presidential Address

Moscone Convention Center

Mark Koltko-Rivera receives 2007 Miller Award from Nancy Russo

Psychologists at Alcatraz

Milton Diamond: “Male or Female?”
2006 Wm James Award winner
Dan McAdams

2006 Hilgard Award winner Travis Thompson

Amy Mezulis delivers address for 2006 Miller Award winner Janet Shibley Hyde

Reformers Cummings, Byrd, DeLeon, Farley & Rosik

Private alternative to BART
This year is the 50th anniversary of Leon Festinger's powerful little book, *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance*. Fifty years! How many of our field's theories have remained as potent as this one, generating so much research, let alone been the source of a question on Jeopardy? To our knowledge, not even intermittent reinforcement and the Müller-Lyer illusion have turned up on Jeopardy!

Festinger (1957) defined cognitive dissonance as a state of tension that occurs whenever a person holds two cognitions (ideas, attitudes, opinions) that are psychologically inconsistent, such as “Smoking is a dumb thing to do because it could kill me” and “I smoke two packs a day.” It was not only a cognitive theory but a motivational one. Dissonance produces mental discomfort, a state that is as unpleasant as hunger, and people don’t rest easy until they find a way to reduce it. The most direct way for a smoker to reduce dissonance is by quitting. But if she has tried to quit and failed, now she must reduce dissonance by convincing herself that smoking isn’t really so harmful, or that smoking is worth the risk because it helps her relax or prevents her from gaining weight (and after all, obesity is a health risk, too), and so on. Most smokers manage to reduce dissonance in many such ingenious, if self-deluding, ways. At the heart of it, Festinger’s theory is about how people strive to make sense out of contradictory ideas and lead lives that are, at least in their own minds, consistent and meaningful. The theory inspired hundreds of experiments that, taken together, have transformed psychologists’ understanding of how the human mind works.

Festinger was a pure scientist. His own research was aimed at testing the theory; he was utterly uninterested in its implications for real-world problems or for people’s everyday relationships. Within a few years, however, Elliot Aronson, his student and eventual lifelong friend, had expanded and transformed the theory into one of self-justification (Aronson, 1968). Aronson’s experiments showed that while dissonance is bothersome under any circumstance, it is most painful to people when an important element of their self-concept is threatened—typically when they do something that is inconsistent with their view of themselves. Because most people have a reasonably positive self-concept, believing themselves to be competent, moral, smart, and kind, their efforts at reducing dissonance will be designed to preserve their positive self-images—even when that perpetuates behavior that is incompetent, unethical, foolish, or cruel. In Festinger, Rieken, and Schachter’s classic field study, “When Prophecy Fails” (1956), for example, when “Mrs. Keech’s predictions of Doomsday failed, the dissonance her followers felt was not simply, “I predicted the world would end on December 21,” and, “It didn’t.” It was between, “I am a smart person,” and, “I just did an incredibly stupid thing: I gave away my house and possessions and quit my job because I believed a crazy woman.” To reduce that dissonance, her followers could either have modified their opinion of their intelligence or justified the “incredibly stupid” thing they did. No contest. Mrs. Keech’s followers decided they hadn’t done anything stupid; in fact, they had been really smart to join this group because their faith saved the world from destruction. In fact, if everyone else were smart, they would join, too.

In Aronson’s formulation, therefore, dissonance is most painful when an important element of the self-concept is threatened, when information disputes how we see ourselves and the stories we have woven to explain our lives. In our book *Mistakes Were Made (But Not by Me)* (Tavris & Aronson, 2007), we argue that the mechanism of self-justification is the major psychological reason that most prosecutors won’t admit they put an innocent person in prison, in spite of incontrovertible evidence; that most scientists whose research is paid for by industry believe...
they are above being tainted by conflicts of interest; that couples can't see why their behavior might be as annoying to their partner as their partner's behavior is to them; that many psychotherapists fail to accept evidence that an empirically unvalidated fad might actually have harmed their clients; and that our side never tortures our enemies, the way those bastards treat us.

(The book's Table of Contents on this page gives you an idea of the diverse domains in which we apply the theory.)

Thus, cognitive dissonance theory has come a long way since Festinger's early conceptualization, spilling far beyond the boundaries of social psychology. It has been bolstered and expanded by research in neuroscience, cognition, motivation, memory, emotion, and culture, and it applies to many topics that are of interest to the general psychologist, including love and close relationships, conflicts and war, autobiographical narratives, health, clinical practice, political psychology, psychology and law, and politics.

Today we know, for example, that reducing cognitive dissonance is built into the way the brain processes information. In a study of people who were being monitored by fMRI while they were trying to process dissonant or consonant information about George Bush or John Kerry, Drew Westen and his colleagues (2006) summarized their results as follows: the reasoning areas of the brain virtually shut down when participants were confronted with dissonant information, and the emotion circuits of the brain lit up when consonance was restored. These mechanisms provide a neurological basis, they said, for the observation that, once our minds are made up, it may be physiologically difficult to change them.

In addition, hundreds if not thousands of experiments have documented how the brain's preference for consonance distorts the way we respond to information (Nickerson, 1998). The brain is designed with blind spots, and one of its cleverest tricks is to confer on us the comforting delusion that we, personally, do not have any. In a sense, dissonance theory is a theory of blind spots—of how and why people unintentionally blind themselves so that they fail to notice vital events and information that might throw them into dissonance, making them question their behavior or their convictions. Our blind spots allow us to justify our own perceptions and beliefs as being accurate and unbiased (Ehringer, Gilovich & Ross, 2005; Pronin, Gilovich, & Ross, 2004). If others disagree with us, we have two ways of reducing dissonance: we can conclude that we are wrong, or that they aren't seeing clearly. You know the preferred alternative.

Many other findings in cognitive psychology have come to support dissonance theory. For example, it has long been known that we distort our memories to conform with—to be consonant with—what we believe now about past events, which is why current beliefs are better predictors of memory than are actual past events; but considerable research shows that memories are often distorted in a self-enhancing, self-justifying direction (Ross & Sicoly, 1979; Ross & Wilson, 2003). Men and women alike remember having had fewer sexual partners than they really did and they remember using condoms more often than they actually did (Garry et al., 2002). People remember voting in elections they didn't vote in and voting for the winning candidate rather than the politician they did vote for (Abelson et al., 1992; Belli et al., 1999), they remember giving more to charity than they really did (Burt & Popple, 1998), they remember doing more housework than they actually did (Thompson & Kelley, 1981), they remember having better grades in high school than they got (Bahrick et al., 1996). . . you get the direction of the bias.

Memories are also shaped to fit the autobiographical narrative we develop of our lives. In 1962, Daniel Offer and his colleagues interviewed 73 14-year-old boys about their home lives, sexuality, religion, parents, parental discipline, and other emotionally charged topics (Offer et al., 2000; Offer, Ofer, & Ostrov, 2004). The researchers were able to re interview almost all these fellows 34 years later, when they were 48 years old, to ask them what they remembered of their adolescence. The researchers concluded that the men's ability to remember how they had described their adolescent selves was no better than chance. (Now that's dissonant information, isn't it?) For example, most of those who remembered themselves as having been bold, outgoing teenagers, had, at age fourteen, described themselves as shy. The men's current self-concepts blurred their memories, bringing their past selves into consonance with their present ones. This is why it is so jarring to discover that a memory is wrong: It throws the story of our past into dissonance. You mean mom wasn't the monster I always thought she was? You mean I had something to do with that family rift that I recall as being entirely your fault?

The need for self-justification is also a major reason that the direct expression of anger or aggression often creates more anger and aggression rather than less. When people harm someone else—they get in trouble, verbally abuse them, or give them electric jolts in an experiment—the need to justify what they did comes into play. Children learn to justify their aggressive actions early: They hit a younger sibling, who starts to cry, and immediately...
ate claim, "But he started it! He deserved it!" When kids do it, it may be charming, but it is sobering to realize that the same mechanism underlies the behavior of gangs who bully weaker children, employers who mistreat workers, divorcing spouses whose animosity escalates into uncompromising acts of cruelty, police officers who continue beating a suspect who has surrendered, tyrants who imprison and torture ethnic minorities, and soldiers who commit atrocities against civilians. They started it! They deserved it! In all these cases, a vicious cycle is created: Aggression begets the need for self-justification, to preserve the actor's feeling of self-worth, which begets more aggression. That's why the catharsis hypothesis is wrong.

Most instructors teach about dissonance as a one-time thing: People make a decision, say, and have post-decision dissonance to resolve—we stop reading ads for the cars we didn't buy (Ehrlich et al., 1957). But the two of us believe that dissonance theory has far more powerful implications for long-term behavior. Imagine two students who are reasonably honest and have the same middling attitude toward, say, cheating: They think it is not a good thing to do, but there are worse crimes. Now they are both taking an important exam, when they draw a blank on a crucial essay question. Failure looms, at which point each one gets an easy opportunity to cheat, by reading another student's answers. After a long moment of indecision, one yields and the other resists. Their decisions are a hair's breadth apart; it could easily have gone the other way for each of them. Each gains something important, but at a cost: One gives up integrity for a good grade, the other gives up a good grade to preserve his integrity.

Now, how do they feel about cheating a week later? Each student has had ample time to justify the action he took. The one who yielded to temptation will decide that cheating is not such a big crime: "Hey, everyone cheats. It's no big deal. And I really needed to do this for my future career." But the one who resisted the temptation will decide that cheating is far more immoral than he originally thought: "In fact, cheating is disgraceful. In fact, people who cheat should be permanently expelled from school. We have to make an example of them." By the time the students are through reducing dissonance, with increasing self-justification, they will have grown far apart from one another, coming to believe they always felt that way. It is as if they had started off at the top of a pyramid, a millimeter apart; but by the time they have finished justifying their individual actions, they have slid to the bottom and now stand at opposite corners of its base.

This cheating experiment, now a classic, was done by Judson Mills (1958) with children, and the metaphor of the pyramid applies to many important decisions involving moral choices or life options. Instead of cheating on an exam, for example, now substitute: sample an illegal drug (or not), stay in a troubled marriage (or not), blow the whistle on your company's unethical practices (or not), accept a new therapeutic idea that has not been empirically validated (or wait for data), decide to indict a suspect in an emotionally charged case before you have all the evidence (or wait), pursue a demanding career (or stay home with the kids), begin a new healthy regimen or keep eating fried catfish-and-ice-cream sandwiches. When the person at the top of the pyramid is uncertain, when there are benefits and costs of both choices, then he will feel a particular urgency to justify the choice made. But by the time the person is at the bottom, ambivalence will have morphed into certainty. Thanks to the need to reduce dissonance and preserve one's self-concept, what feels like a small decision—I'll cheat just this once—may set people on a course that eventually will turn them into someone they never imagined becoming. It can work in a positive way, too: People who blow the whistle on lawbreaking in their companies, say, or who protest a small act of injustice, may end up even more committed to activism and social reform.

For us, the greatest and most nonobvious application of dissonance theory is this: When you combine the human need to justify acts of harm, corruption, and conflicts of interest with the metaphor of the pyramid, you have a recipe for how it is that well-intentioned people end up doing bad, cruel, or foolish things, staying the course because they can't see a way out. In fact, because dissonance reduction usually hums along quietly beneath awareness, they can't see why they should get out, or even that their judgments have been compromised. If they are in any of the healing professions and they learn that some of the beliefs that guide their practice are mistaken, they must either admit they were wrong and change their approach, or reject the new evidence. If the mistakes are not too threatening to their view of their competence and if they have not taken a public stand defending them, they will probably willingly change their approach, pleased to have a better one. (Those of Mrs. Keech's followers who awaited the end of the world by themselves, alone in their homes, just said the equivalent of, "Whew, that was a close call," when it didn't happen.) But if mistaken beliefs have made their client's problems worse, caused the client to sever relations with his or her family, sent innocent people to prison, caused a patient's death, or justified the invasion of another country, it is a different story. Now the need to reduce dissonance in a self-justifying way may, tragically, insure that they will continue using the very methods that caused such harm.

For the many students who enter psychology in order to become psychotherapists of one kind or another, we feel it is crucial that they understand how, in the absence of training in science and skepticism, therapy can become a closed loop, in which the therapists' beliefs determine what they see, and what they see confirms their beliefs—and self-justification blinds them to the possibility of error. The recovered-memory movement, which Richard McNally (2005, p. 815) has called the worst catastrophe to befall the mental-health field since the lobotomy era, is perhaps the most vivid example in our recent history. Many if not most of the therapists who came to believe that "repression" explains how a woman can forget that she was raped daily for 15 years, recalling each episode perfectly once she entered therapy, continue to maintain that belief, perhaps with minor modifications, in the face of massive evidence disconfirming it (McNally, 2003).

To be willing to admit to mistakes, we need to learn to live with the dissonance that results from occasionally being wrong. Disconfirmation is not inherently negative; it can lead to better, lifesaving ideas. Do we want psychological scientists to question their own methodology for possible flaws or not? Do we want
better ways of interviewing children or not? Do we want psychotherapists to abandon methods that are useless or even harmful, or not? For scientists and others who love the quest for discovery and knowledge, being wrong is part of the process; it is just as informative as being right; it's not dissonant. As that quintessential scientist Richard Feynman repeatedly told his students: “If your guess about how things work disagrees with the experiment, it is wrong. In that simple statement is the key to science. It doesn't make any difference how beautiful your guess is, how smart you are, who made the guess, or what his name is. If it disagrees with the experiment, it's wrong. That's all there is to it.” Obviously, Richard Feynman was not a student of dissonance theory! As self-justifying human beings, most of us will never get to the perfection of Feynman's scientific ideal—but we can strive to approach it.

References


Endnote
An appreciation of the power of self-justification helps us understand, therefore, why people who have low self-esteem, or who simply believe that they are incompetent in some domain, are not totally overjoyed when they do something well; why, on the contrary, they often feel like frauds. If the woman who believes she is unlovable meets a terrific guy who starts pursuing her seriously, she will feel momentarily pleased, but that pleasure is likely to be tarnished by a rush of dissonance: “What does he see in me?” Her resolution is unlikely to be “How nice! I must be more appealing than I thought I was.” More likely, it will be “As soon as he discovers the real me, he’ll dump me.” Several experiments find that people who have low self-esteem or a low estimate of their abilities do feel uncomfortable with their dissonant successes and dismiss them as accidents or anomalies (Aronson & Carlsmith, 1962; Swann, 1990; Swann, Hixon, & de la Ronde, 1992).
Study More! Study Harder!
Students’ and Teachers’ Faulty Beliefs about How People Learn
by Stephen L. Chew, Samford University

Stephen L. Chew has been a professor and chair of psychology at Samford University in Birmingham, Alabama since 1993. He received his Ph.D. in experimental psychology from the University of Minnesota. He was selected as a Carnegie Scholar in 1998 as part of the Carnegie Academy for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (CASTL). He received the Buchanan Award for Classroom Teaching Excellence from Samford in 1999, and he was named the Professor of the Year for Alabama by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 2001. In 2005 he received the Robert S. Daniel Teaching Excellence Award from the Society for the Teaching of Psychology. His research interests include the use of examples in teaching, tenacious student misconceptions, and the role of cognitive load in learning. Chew has been a keynote speaker and workshop leader at numerous conferences on teaching in general and on the teaching of psychology in particular. He was co-editor of the book, Best Practices in Teaching General Psychology, published in 2005 by Erlbaum.

In his book, What the Best College Teachers Do, Ken Bain (2004) identified and studied a sample of outstanding college teachers. He made this observation about their approaches to teaching:

‘The people we analyzed have generally cobbled together from their own experiences working with students conceptions of human learning that are remarkably similar to some ideas that have emerged in the research and theoretical literature on cognition, motivation, and human development. (Bain, 2004, pp. 25-26)

What Bain is saying is that the best college teachers learn through experience what most psychologists typically learn as a matter of course in graduate school. If that is the case, then why aren’t psychologists the best teachers of any field? I’m going to argue that the primary reason is that many psychologists fail to apply the psychology of how people learn to their teaching.

Somehow we separate the psychological knowledge, theory and skills relevant to understanding the most effective ways to have people learn from the knowledge, theory and skills we use to teach psychology. At the very least, most of us fail to fully apply what we know about learning to our teaching.

I am certainly not exempting myself from this criticism. When I first started teaching, my attitude was summed up in the following way: “Even at its best, teaching can only be an invitation to learn.” I believed that my role as a teacher was to present current, accurate information to students in as clear and engaging a way as possible, whether the presentation was through lecture, video, problems, demonstrations or activities. Whether students learned anything was really their responsibility. I searched for teaching tips on how to capture and hold students’ interest, such as making the information fun or relevant to their lives. At teaching conferences, I heard about the importance of making learning “active,” avoiding lecture, and acting as a facilitator and guide rather than an expert.

The beliefs and practices I learned about reminded me of psychology’s radical behaviorist past, with its emphasis on stimulus materials and presentation. The learner really plays a minor role, basically receiving information, following directions, and devoting sufficient study time. Despite the minor role, learners bear most of the responsibility for learning. Students who are struggling in class are told to “study more” and “study harder.” Students either need to increase the amount of time or number of repetitions that they study material, or they need to become more engaged and pay closer attention than they currently do. This is certainly good advice for some students, but I often encounter many students who are struggling even though they attend class regularly and devote a great deal of time to study.

As a psychologist, I had nagging doubts about this approach to teaching. Lecture can be engaging and effective under certain circumstances. Discussions can be pointless or worse, serve to reinforce incorrect beliefs. Activities
can be fun and engaging but not lead to learning. Work in levels of processing makes clear that just because a learner is active or expansive effort is no assurance of better learning. In some cases, it is most effective for the teacher to be the expert while in others the teacher should allow the students to come to their own conclusions.

I could not reconcile the assumptions I made about teaching with what I knew to be true about learning. I realized that teaching requires a mental model of how people learn. Most teachers cannot articulate their model of learning, but they have one. That model determines the teaching methods and approaches we use. The better the model, the more effective the teacher. The more inadequate or flawed the model, the less effective the teacher. Students' behavior, of course, also flows from their models of how people learn. They base their decisions on whether or not they need to go to class, how best to tackle assignments, and how much and in what way they study on how they believe they learn best.

The model of learning I used for teaching was different from the model of learning I used as a psychologist. The former was based on untested assumptions and simplistic beliefs. The latter was informed by research and subject to continuous test and refinement. The two were often in conflict. For example, as psychologists we know more about unintentional learning, persuasion, motivation and social influence than any other field, yet as teachers we often let ourselves believe we have no control over our students' learning behavior.

I do not, however, blame teachers for basing their methods on intuition, because a strong empirical foundation for teaching is still lacking. Historically, most research on human learning has been too simple or artificial to be of much use to teachers. For example, research has generally looked at whether or not simple information is recalled, rather than examining sophisticated comprehension and understanding. Furthermore, until recently teachers have often let themselves believe we have no control over our students' learning behavior.

In the last 10 years, there has been a proliferation of research that is directly relevant to teaching (e.g., Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 1999), and much of it challenges commonly held beliefs about teaching and learning.

A common misconception among students is their over-confidence in their mastery of material. In a comprehensive review of student self-assessment, Dunning, Heath, and Suls (2004) reported only a modest correlation between what students believe their level of understanding is and actual exam performance. The correlation is weakest for students in introductory courses but improves for advanced students. Furthermore, the discrepancy is greatest for weaker students who remain grossly overconfident even in the face of repeated contradictory evidence. These are the students who do poorly on an exam and say things like, “But I really thought I knew the material” or “I studied so hard for this test.”

Dweck (2002) has demonstrated how a belief that intelligence is a fixed trait, a view often inadvertently reinforced by parents and teachers, can lead to learning avoidance and self-defeating decisions in students. She has shown that changing beliefs to a view that intelligence is a product of effort can improve student performance.

If we want students to be lifelong learners, then making them aware of their own lack of awareness and faulty beliefs should be a priority. An overconfident student feels no need to study or learn, either in school or after graduation. Poor self-assessment and faulty, malicious beliefs point to the importance of formative assessment and for finding ways to correct these tenacious misconceptions (Chew, 2006a).

A common belief among teachers that has been challenged by research is that the harder students work, the more they will learn. The more they struggle to complete an assignment, the more beneficial it will be. Such a belief is contrary to Cognitive Load Theory (CLT) as described by van Merrienboer and Sweller (2005). CLT states that mental effort or concentration is a limited resource. People possess a limited amount of concentration or mental effort that they can devote to one difficult task or distribute across many simpler tasks. If the combined demand for mental effort, or cognitive load, exceeds available mental effort, however, performance suffers.

Any instructional task includes three kinds of cognitive load: intrinsic cognitive load, germane cognitive load, and extraneous cognitive load. Intrinsic cognitive load refers to the minimum amount of mental effort a learner must exert in order to understand a concept. Some concepts are inherently harder to understand, that is, have higher intrinsic load, than others. The intrinsic load is fixed for a learner to master a particular concept. Germane cognitive load is the load imposed by instruction that is relevant to mastering a concept. Different teaching methods impose different levels of germane load. Teachers must optimize germane load (i.e., minimizing load while maximizing learning). Finally, there is extraneous cognitive load, which is the load imposed by activities that are not relevant to mastering a concept. This category includes tangential or irrelevant information from the teacher and any tasks the learner must do in order to complete an activity that aren’t relevant to learning. Teachers must minimize extraneous load. It is easy to design activities with combined cognitive load that exceeds the mental effort of students, and few teachers make an effort to manage or optimize it.

Not only must the cognitive demands of instruction not exceed the mental effort of the student, but there must be enough spare mental effort available to allow the student to reflect on and learn from the instruction. Sweller, van Merrienboer, and Paas (1998) reviewed how students may successfully complete an activity and learn nothing from it because all available mental effort was used to complete the task and none was available for learning from the task. But don’t students have plenty of men-
tal effort available to them? Not necessarily. Piolat, Thierry, and Kellogg (2005) have shown that note taking, an activity we expect students to do, carries a heavy cognitive load, tantamount to writing an original paper. Therefore, students who are taking notes during instruction have only limited amounts of mental effort available for learning.

We as teachers want our students to think deeply about the material we present. The problem is that deep processing is highly effortful. If students process everything we say deeply, then it is likely that the cognitive load will be too heavy and comprehension of critical information will suffer. Furthermore, not everything we say in class is equally important; some information is central to a concept, some is secondary and some is not intended to be taken seriously at all. Students, however, cannot discriminate among core, tangential and unrelated information. Deep processing of tangential and irrelevant information increases extraneous cognitive load and subtracts from the mental effort available for learning key concepts. When we fail to indicate to students what information they should process deeply and what is tangential, learning of the key concepts suffers (Chew & Baughman, 2006).

We as teachers must realize that sometimes students fail at tasks because of overwhelming cognitive load and not for lack of motivation or effort. Sometimes students can successfully complete a task and learn nothing from it. Because of cognitive load, a more complex activity may be less effective for learning than a simpler one. Finally, we teachers may grossly underestimate the cognitive load of a task because we have so much experience with the task that it has become automatic for us.

We need to think about teaching in psychological terms. I have changed my view from teaching as a matter of engagement and presentation to teaching as a problem in applied psychology (Chew, 2006b). The former is easy, and anyone can do it with minimal training. The latter is so challenging that it takes a whole career to master. We in psychology, more than any other field, should understand how difficult teaching really is.

References


This essay is based on a keynote address presented at the 2006 Southwest Teachers of Psychology Conference held at the University of Houston–Clear Lake; it first appeared as a part of the E-xcellence in Teaching series on the PsychTeacher Listserv sponsored by STP (Division 2). The author thanks Rob Bartsch and Kim Case for their work on the Conference. Comments or questions about this essay may be directed to Dr. Chew at slchew@samford.edu.

Graduate Students Daphne McCampbell and Kelly Zanetich, with their poster and Division 1 President Tom Bouchard
The 2007 Symposium on Eminent Women in Psychology: Historical and Personal Perspectives—a symposium that has reached its distinguished Twenty-Seventh Anniversary.

My ongoing purposes in organizing these symposia are to recognize, preserve, and celebrate the contributions of women to psychology, illuminate notable role models, and underscore a positive psychology of achievement, resilience, strength, and courage.

When I initiated the first Symposium on Eminent Women in Psychology for the American Psychological Association’s (APA) annual meeting, more than a quarter of a century ago, an important tradition and a significant new sub-field were born—that of preserving and celebrating women’s lives and strengths, their heritage in APA and in the field of psychology.

The idea for presenting reflections of eminent women came from a series of workshops at national and regional conventions that I chaired as Head of the Division 35 Task Force on Women Doing Research. These workshops underscored the need to preserve the contributions of women to the field of psychology and the need to provide strong, resilient role models for the acculturation of women into occupational roles.

The first APA Symposium on Eminent Women in Psychology that I organized and chaired featured Mary Ainsworth, Margaret Hubbard Jones, Molly Harrower, and Mary Henle with Dorothy Eichorn and Stephanie Shields as Discussants.

These symposia have inspired various publications, presentations, and exhibits that illuminate and analyze women’s lives, careers, and contributions. Cumulatively, these multiple reflections and assessments provide a major knowledge base for the study of women’s lives and the evolution of psychology. Providing a sense of heritage and achievement, they increase the visibility of distinguished women and their contributions, act as a source of inspiration, and serve as a catalyst for transformations of self, psychology, and society-at-large.

Continuing the tradition, the participants in this 2007 Symposium are women who have been recognized for making “outstanding and unusual contributions” to psychology, achieving Fellow status in APA and other professional organizations, receiving prestigious awards, and holding important positions. The impressive honors they have received and the impact of their various contributions to psychology underscore their distinguished status and facilitate their serving as role models.

It is with great pleasure that I introduce the participants in this Twenty-Seventh Symposium on Eminent Women, women whose leadership and contributions have transformed the discipline of psychology and our perception of women’s roles. Following my introduction of each eminent woman is her selection of her presentation’s highlights.

Alice F. Chang, PhD - Introduction

Alice F. Chang is President and co-founder of the Academy of Cancer Wellness. She is affiliated with the University of Arizona as a research scientist, and has a private practice. She received her doctorate from the University of Southern California.

Dr. Chang has an impressive number of journal publications, invited addresses, paper presentations, symposia, and workshops on a variety of health related professional, and ethnic minority issues as well as the book, A Survivor’s Guide to Breast Cancer, and a play, Trees Don’t Mourn the Autumn, on breast cancer and ethnicity.

Dr. Chang is the first ethnic minority woman to be elected to the APA Board of Directors. She frequently has served APA governance as a member of the Board of Professional Affairs and the Committee on Structure and Function of Council and as liaison to the Committee on the Advancement of Professional Psychology, the Board of Education Affairs, and the Ethics Committee among many others. She founded and served as President of the Kansas Psychological Foundation.

She has served on journal editorial boards including the American Psychologist, Stress/Pain Manager, and the Journal of Cultural Diversity and Mental Health. She is recipient of a great many awards including the prestigious APA Distinguished Professional Contributions to Public Service Award; the Karl F. Heiser APA Presidential Award for Outstanding Contributions; the Harold Hildreth Award for Distinguished Outstanding Service; Division 45’s Distinguished Career Contributions to Service Award; the APA Graduate Student Award for Support, Mentoring, and Advocacy; and the Asian American Psychological Association’s Lifetime Achievement/Contributions
Award among others, and is an APA Fellow in Divisions 12 and 45.

**Alice F. Chang, PhD – Presentation Highlights**

I am not a flashy person. My goal has never been attention or self-aggrandizement. The lesson, such as it is, from my struggle with cancer is also the lesson behind what I have been able to accomplish in my career: Keep on plodding. Get through. Really, it’s amazing what you can get done just by not giving up.

That’s something I have come to realize retrospectively. The guiding principle I carried into my career was both stressed and modeled by my graduate advisor, Steven Berger, that it is important to pay back to our profession and to find ways to help psychology grow and expand for those who come after us. A great deal of my energy and time have been spent working on behalf of organized psychology and on behalf of all of us who aren’t first at the table in organized psychology or much of any place else.

My area of professional emphasis has been addressing the psychological impact of medical conditions. Like so many others, I never expected my professional experience to have direct bearing on my own life. In 1994, just over a year after moving to Tucson and just about three months after resuming my private practice, I was diagnosed with inflammatory Breast Cancer stage 3-B. I will concede that there is no good time to be diagnosed with inflammatory Breast Cancer stage 3-B, but I’m going to argue that while attempting to reestablish one’s career in a city in which one has not yet built a particularly robust support network is really one heck of a time.

I knew immediately that to muddle through I had to be able to use this experience in ways that could be useful to others. In order to help others face aspects of the traumatic crisis that cancer brings, I wrote a book, A Survivor’s Guide to Breast Cancer, and founded the Academy for Cancer Wellness, a nonprofit organization devoted to recognizing the courage of cancer survivors and their support networks, to supporting research into living with cancer, and to raising funds to assist underinsured cancer patients.

My engagement with APA began as a Site Visitor for the Committee on Accreditation. In 1976 it was particularly critical for women, especially women of color, to be seen in such roles. It was an important growth experience for some distinguished white men to realize that the “little Chinese girl” was there to make a report on their programs. What’s sad is the degree to which it’s still a growth experience.

Also very important to me has been my work with the Asian American Psychological Association. In addition to serving on the AAPA Board of Directors, I helped establish AAPA’s Division on Women and am honored that one of AAPA’s annual awards bears my name.

Finally, and with service on numerous boards and committees, the Kansas State Psychological Association, and the APA Council of Representatives along the way, there is my service as an at large member of the APA Board of Directors. I hope that the primary legacy of my having been the first woman of color to serve on the APA Board of Directors will be inspiring many more women of color to serve in APA governance. My time on the APA Board of Directors was important to me personally as I received my breast cancer diagnosis immediately upon returning home from my Board orientation meeting. I don’t even know if there was a thought process involved, but I didn’t seriously consider not continuing my service on the Board. Believing that I couldn’t stop meant that I didn’t stop. That particular opportunity for service, opportunity to give back to psychology as Steve Berger urged so many years before, also saw me through some dark times.

Through my practice, research, mentoring and service in APA governance, I have tried to be an advocate and role model for women and people of color in psychology. Amazingly, this has sometimes thrust me into situations of conflict! The strategies that I have evolved sound simple and are rarely easy. Really listen to what others are saying or listen to what others are really saying. Look for what needs to be done, rather than what is being done or has always been done. Keep an open mind and be somewhat flexible. That “somewhat” is key; I have had to develop a sense of when flexibility is being exploited as weakness. And always, always remember how much you can accomplish by just not giving up.

**Carol S. Dweck, PhD - Introduction**

Carol S. Dweck is the Lewis and Virginia Eaton Professor of Psychology at Stanford University since 2004. Her earlier positions include professor status at the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, a professorship at Harvard University, and then William B. Ransford professorship at Columbia University. She earned her PhD at Yale University.

Dr. Dweck’s areas of expertise encompass social psychology, developmental psychology, and personality. Her research examines self-conceptions, their role in motivation and self-regulation, and their impact on achievement and interpersonal processes. Her numerous prestigious book chapters and journal articles include two citation classics on learned helplessness and the award winning book, Self-Theories: Their Role in Motivation, Personality and Development. Her other books include Personal Politics; The Handbook of Competence and Motivation and the very recent Mindset (published in twelve languages) on the role of self-theories in achievement, sports, business, relationships and personal change.

Dr. Dweck, an internationally sought after speaker, has presented countless keynote addresses including keynote addresses at APA, APS, the World Congress of Sport Psychology in Sydney, Australia, and the Conference on Children’s Learning in Edinburgh, Scotland; and many distinguished lectures including APA’s G. Stanley Hall Lecture, the Distinguished Lecture at the
University of Hamburg, Germany, and an invited lecture at Cambridge University, England.

Among Dr. Dweck’s honors and awards are election to the prestigious American Academy of Arts and Sciences and receiving the World Federation Book Award (an organization of the UN and UNICEF) for Self-Theories.

Carol S. Dweck, PhD – Presentation Highlights

My 6th grade teacher seated us around the room in IQ order. In that class, all the joy of learning flew out the window. The one goal was to get high scores at all costs. This experience had a powerful effect on my ideas, interests, and values—and my research. Another great influence on my life was my older brother. I wanted to do everything he did. From an early age, I had, in addition to my girls’ toys, lots of boys’ toys like a racing car and erector set. My brother went to college and graduate school; so would I. Then there was my mother. Although not one woman in her social circle worked and although my father forbade her to work (it was the 1950’s), she went out and made a wonderful career for herself in the Madison Avenue advertising world.

It was at Yale that I began the line of research I am still doing today. This was the era of the cognitive revolution, an exhilarating time when, emerging from behaviorism, we brought “thoughts” and “beliefs” back into our work. Examining the beliefs that helped or hindered children as they coped with failure, I found that attributing failure to a lack of effort (and not a lack of ability) predicted persistence in the face of failure. In my dissertation research, I went on to show that teaching helpless children to attribute their failures to a lack of effort enhanced their ability to persist. “Attribution retraining” was later shown to be effective in many domains and became part of a number of therapies.

The year I went on the job market, 1972, was one of the first years that women were actively courted by excellent universities. Thus I joined the faculty of the University of Illinois as one of the first women in their psychology department. It was an incredibly supportive environment. In this environment, my work grew in several directions and we began to ask: Why were children of equal ability making such different attributions and reacting to setbacks in such dramatically different ways? Elaine Elliott and I found that students’ goals (the “performance goal” of validating ability vs. the “goal” of improving ability) played a key role in creating helpless and mastery-oriented reactions. “Goal theory” became quite influential in a number of disciplines.

But why do students have different goals? Mary Bandura and I realized that students have different theories about their intelligence. We found the belief in fixed ability was what made students (and people in general) so worried about measuring and validating themselves, whereas a belief in malleable ability was what made students eager to take risks, learn, and grow.

My students and I have followed up on the many implications of these self-theories, showing that they predict grades over challenging school transitions, and that the belief in fixed traits lies at the heart of stereotyping. We took on the self-esteem movement by showing that praising children’s intelligence, far from giving them confidence, gave them a fixed theory of intelligence with its vulnerabilities.

We also began to develop interventions to teach the malleable theory to students. We found that students who learned this theory showed renewed motivation and enhanced achievement. We have now developed and pilot-tested a computer-based version of the intervention (called “Brainology”) that teaches students all about the brain and how to develop it.

In 2004, my husband and I left New York, our hometown, and moved to Stanford, where we are now happily ensconced. In 2006, my book, Mindset was published by Random House and introduced my work to a lay audience. It has influenced the “real” world of education, business, and sports. I get e-mails every day from individuals who feel that the work has helped them in their lives, and I try to answer every one.

Throughout my career I have had many rewards and learned many lessons. First, I have learned the rewards of doing basic research that can translate into practice. Second, I have been blessed to work on topics I love. I tell my students, “If you don’t think about your topic in the tub, it’s not for you.” Finally, I have experienced the great joy of mentoring. There can be no greater satisfaction and no greater legacy.

Gail S. Goodman, PhD - Introduction

Gail S. Goodman is an internationally acclaimed developmental psychologist. Dr. Goodman is Distinguished Professor of Psychology and Director of the Center for Public Policy Research at the University of California, Davis. She received her PhD from UCLA. She has hundreds of scientific chapters, articles, invited addresses, and papers as well as several books on child abuse, child witnesses, and one on the Dynamics of Romantic Love. Her research is supported by numerous large grants from NSF, NIH and others.

Dr. Goodman is the recipient of many prestigious awards including two APA awards in 2005: the Distinguished Contributions Award for Research on Public Policy and the Distinguished Professional Contributions Award for Applied Research. Her other awards include the American Academy of Forensic Psychology Award for Distinguished Contributions; the American Professional Society on the Abuse of Children Research Career Achievement Award; the APA Division 37 Nicholas Hobbs Award; the Division 41 Teaching and Mentoring Award; and the Division 9 Robert Chin Award among others. In 2008 she will receive the Urie Bronfenbrenner Award for Lifetime Contributions to Developmental Psychology in the Service of Science and Society. She is a Fellow in APA Divisions 3, 7, 9, 37, and 41 and in APS.

Dr. Goodman has served as President of two APA Divisions: Division 41 (American Psychology-Law Society) and Division 37 (Child, Youth, and Family Services) and is a founding member of the American Professional Society on the Abuse of Children. She has served, or is serving, on more than a dozen editorial boards.
O'Connell: Eminent Women in Psychology

including Child Development; Applied Cognitive Psychology; Applied Developmental Sciences; Trauma, Victims, and Abuse; and Law and Human Behavior.

Gail S. Goodman, PhD – Presentation Highlights

In 1972, 7-year-old Steven Stayner was kidnapped while walking home from school in Merced, California. His kidnapper, Kenneth Parnell, took him to live in the mountains of Northern California. For 7 years, Steven went to school, never disclosing that he had been kidnapped and was being sexually abused. However, as Steven entered adolescence, Parnell wanted a younger victim, so he kidnapped 5-year-old Timmy White. It was only when Timmy arrived that Steven, with heroic bravery, went to the authorities. I have photos of Steven and Timmy about to testify in court that I sometimes show in my talks. It is cases like these that have inspired my research.

These cases raise important issues for psychological theory as well as application. For example, questions about how accurately the boys could recount their experiences raise important theoretical issues concerning trauma and memory, children's suggestibility, and the malleability of children's memories. The reasons why Steven failed to tell anyone about the kidnapping and sexual abuse, and the reason he finally revealed the secret, can inform models of children's disclosure. What are the emotional effects of the traumas these children endured? Developmental models of trauma, coping, and psychopathology are relevant to answering this question. Theories of procedural justice and multilevel transactional models of development in child interest in answering the question of whether testifying in criminal court would result in further trauma to the boys or would be empowering for them. These are all among the issues we study in my laboratory.

On a more personal note, I grew up relatively carefree near the beach in Los Angeles. I am not a child abuse victim myself. Quite the contrary, I was raised by liberal, enlightened parents, who loved science, psychology, and children. I was trained as a developmental psychologist at UCLA during the ascent of information-processing models and Piagetian theory. Vietnam War protests, free love, and the women's movement. My dissertation dealt with the development of memory for the real world. I completed most of my graduate training under Wendell Jeffery, who thankfully took what must have seemed like a big risk in admitting me to graduate school, given my apparent bashfulness. To make up for it, I studied hard and did well.

After completing my PhD, I obtained an NICHD postdoctoral fellowship to work with Marshall Haith at the University of Denver. Although I loved theory and experimental methodology, as a postdoctoral fellow I had the freedom to explore my emerging interests in children and law. I audited two law school courses, one on children's Constitutional rights. It was there that I discovered the issue of children's testimony.

There was virtually no modern research on the topic, and what work there was dealt with child bystander witnesses, not victims. The psychological issues posed by child victims like Steven Stayner and Timmy White were not addressed. I started to conduct studies on the accuracy of children's eyewitness memory for traumatic events, children's suggestibility, and jurors' reactions to child witnesses. I was then hired onto the faculty of the University of Denver.

I was lucky for a confluence of events. One was that Denver, as it turned out, was a hotbed of research on both developmental psychology and child maltreatment. Second, I approached the Journal of Social Issues about a special issue on child witnesses. Fortunately, they liked the idea.

The third part of the confluence of events was that shortly after the JSI issue came out, children's testimony became a societal issue of tremendous importance. The child abuse movement began with an emphasis on issues of physical abuse, but the women's movement added recognition (and mandatory reporting) of child sexual abuse. The courts then opened their doors to hear child victims' testimony. However, the movement to protect children from sexual victimization nearly came unraveled as high-profile preschool cases, such as the McMartin case in Manhattan Beach, CA, raised the issue of false reports due to children's suggestibility. Today, a better balance has been reached between protecting children from abuse and protecting adults from false reports. Scientific research has played a key role in achieving this balance. Obviously, both false reports and true victimization need to be addressed.

Fourth and perhaps the most significant event within the confluence was meeting Phillip Shaver at the University of Denver in 1979. Phil is a brilliant, generous, and charming psychologist to whom I am now married. Phil, who studies human attachments, gave me the "secure base" I needed to fully concentrate on my research and the remaining mentoring I needed to go full steam ahead in writing and publishing.

My doctoral students and several key colleagues have also been essential to my success. Thanks to them and many others, the study of child witnesses is now a worldwide endeavor. Although working in an emotional and controversial area is not always easy, the rewards are great. My hope is that psychological science, and future children who suffer from traumatic experiences, like those inflicted on Steven Stayner and Timmy White, can all benefit.

Patricia M. Greenfield, PhD – Introduction

Patricia M. Greenfield is a pioneer in the analysis of complex cognitive functions and a founder of developmental pragmatics. Dr. Greenfield is Distinguished Professor of Psychology at UCLA, founding Director of the FPR-UCLA Center for Culture, Brain and Development, and Director of the Children's Digital Media Center. She received her doctorate from Harvard University.

Her cross-cultural studies examine the impact of culture on human development especially cognitive, learning, and socialization. Current US studies examine the developmental impact of electronic media and the cross-cultural value conflict of immigrants.

Her hundreds of publications include books on Studies in...
commitment to the preservation of minority cultures. This inter-

A combination of experiences I learned that it is better to keep

My parents were assimilationist Jews

The language thread. My mother kept an incredibly detailed

I had the same fascination with my own children’s language

When I saw a presentation on the signing chimpanzee Wash-

The culture thread. My parents were assimilationist Jews

social psychology, sociology, and social anthropology. Through

There I fell in love with the natural experiment. In the same vil-

In 1969, I had the opportunity to do cross-cultural research

These same social changes, particularly technology, could

Conclusions. New paradigms always create controversy. What

Agnes N. O’Connell, PhD – Discussant Highlights

These pioneering twenty-first century women are models of

These 88 presenters included the nine women elected APA

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In the years since the beginning of these symposia, women have made major strides in changing the educational and occupational gender composition of the field. Baccalaureate degrees awarded to women in psychology has grown from 46% in the 1970s to 77.5% in 2002. In the 1970s, 47% of the graduate students in psychology were women; in 2000, 73% were (APA, 2003).

The percentage of women earning doctorates in psychology exceeds the percentage across disciplines. In the early 1970s, women earned twice the percentage of doctorates in psychology as women did across disciplines 32.8% v.16% (APA, 2006; AAUP, 2006). In 2004-2005, women earned 72% of the doctorates in psychology while women across disciplines earned 49% (Cynkar, 2007; Stuckey & Mullins, 2007).

According to a recent survey of 2,148 college presidents (American Council of Education, 2007) women's occupational participation has improved in the last decades. Since 1986 the overall percentage of women college presidents has more than doubled from 9.5% to 23% (the percentage of minority presidents increased from 8.1% to 13.6%). At doctoral granting institutions, women currently hold 13.8% of the presidencies up from 3.8% in 1986. In the early 1970s across all disciplines, women comprised 27% of faculty in higher education. By 2005, women comprised 43% of all faculty, 39% of full-time and 48% of part-time faculty (AAUP, 2006).

Although women earn a significant number of doctoral degrees, their representation among tenured faculty remains below expectations. In 2006, AAUP reported that across disciplines women held 26% of tenured positions at doctoral level institutions; in psychology women did a bit better at 30% (Fennell & Kohout, 2002).

Despite the significant presence of women as students on campus for the past 25 years, women at four-year institutions held 9% of full professor positions across disciplines in the early 1970s and 24% in 2003 (AAUP, 2006). In 2005-2006 according to the APA Research Office women held 27% of full professor positions at US graduate departments of psychology.

Controlling for years of experience, full-time salaries of doctoral women in psychology is less than that of men's at the beginning and throughout their careers (30+years of experience) (APA, 2005). AAUP data for 2006 indicates that across ranks and disciplines, women earn on average about 83% of what men earn.

A 2003 international study comparing professionals in industrialized countries reveals that women comprise between 41% and 48% of the professional workforce. Women's representation in the national congress or parliament of these countries ranges from a low of 7% in Japan to a high of 45% in Sweden.

A 2007 report by the Center for American Women and Politics at the Eagleton Institute of Politics, Rutgers University indicates that women hold 16.3%, of the 535 seats in the 110th US Congress, 16 seats in the Senate and 70 in the House of Representatives. In 2007, 23.5% of US state legislators are women. Since the early 1970s the number of women serving in state legislatures has more than quintupled. In 1995 the Task Force on the Changing Gender Composition of Psychology reminded us that participation does not mean equality of access and opportunity.

Turning to specific demographics, the dates of birth for the women in this Symposium span the decade of the 1940s. The dates of earned doctorate span the decade from the mid-1960s to the mid-1970s and provide us with perspectives of women in psychology born and educated in the mid-twentieth century. The years from bachelor's degree to doctorate for these notable women ranged from four to six years. The median number of years of their graduate enrollment was 4.75 years in contrast to the longer 7.4 years for psychologists receiving their PhD in 2000.

In the years since their doctorates, Drs. Chang, Dweck, Good- man, and Greenfield have made significant contributions that have transformed knowledge, theory, research, education, practice, leadership, and advocacy. Each of these pathfinders has contributed to the knowledge base for the study of the history and evolution of psychology and society and the study of women's lives and careers. They have advanced the struggle for the empowerment of women by their outstanding contributions and by illuminating and preserving their achievements for future generations.

Knowledge of eminent women's lives and the lessons contained therein are valuable for all of us: courage, vigilance, consistency, a productive work ethic, goal-directedness, willingness to take risks, flexibility, perseverance, optimism, and the importance of supportive relationships.

Documentation of women's varied paths to eminence, their lives, concerns, and contributions is essential to counteract invisibility, misattribution, and devaluation. Women's perspectives,
heritage, and contributions in shaping intellectual history have had a major impact on psychology and society and its organizations. For example, see Models of Achievement: Reflections of Eminent Women in Psychology, Volume 3 (O’Connell, 2001) containing 19 extraordinary autobiographies, overview chapters on the twentieth century socio-historical context, and detailed integrative analyses that reveal underlying influences and illuminate multifaceted patterns and profiles of creativity, achievement, and leadership for 53 eminent women.

The determination, commitment, collective action, and personal sacrifices of eminent women inspire us to safeguard and build on their hard-fought legacy as we move forward into the future—a future that may bring to fruition a science and a society of human strength, resilience, and health. This is the science and society that these symposia and published works have sought to build for more than a quarter of a century.

The effort continues.

References


The Society for General Psychology, Division One, of the American Psychological Association (APA) encourages students, academicians, and professionals in psychology to be educated and trained across broad areas of the discipline and to promote unity and coherence in psychology. Students and Early Career Psychologists (ECP) play an especially vital role in realizing Division One’s mission, as they represent the field’s future thinkers, scientists, and practitioners.

Unfortunately, however, there is a great paucity of student and ECP members in Division One (as is the case in all of the other 55 Divisions of APA). According to data gathered by Division Affairs for the year 2005-2006, there was only one member of Division One under the age of 30 years (yours truly). Clearly, something needs to change.

In an effort to remedy this situation, and to recruit and engage students and ECPs in general psychology, Division One recently offered complimentary, one-year Division One memberships to APAGS members. Since implementing this offer, the Division has received a total of 360 new requests for membership.

To follow-up with these new members, and to recruit more, Division One sponsored a first-ever student and ECP poster session at the 115th Convention in San Francisco, entitled “Psychology Across Specialties.” Thirty-Eight posters were presented, representing a diverse set of research activities spanning educational science to urban planning; industrial/organizational psychology to neuroscience; behavioral medicine to cognition. All accepted poster abstracts will be published on the Division One Web site. The Division also offered a certificate of honor and $100 cash prize for the best presentation.

After much deliberation, the Division bestowed the award to Karla Vermeulen, a graduate student at Fordham University for her presentation “Disasters and Information: Improving Warning Compliance Decisions to Minimize Harm.” In addition, all presenters with accepted posters were extended complimentary, one-year Division One memberships and invited to the Division One suite for a social hour.

A lively discussion was had at the Social Hour, lead by Division One Program Chair Rivka Mier, Past-President Bonnie Strickland, Historian and President-Elect Donald Dewsbury, and myself. During this conversation, students expressed continuing interest in being involved in the Division, and explored creative ways to recruit and engage more students and ECPs in general psychology. Some of the many good ideas that emerged included involving student members in Division governance, serving on Division committees, surveying APAGS students more generally about the perceived benefits of joining the Division, and continuing to offer ways for students and ECPs to share their scholarly work at annual conventions.

In order for Division One to enact its mission to create unity and coherence among psychology’s diverse specialties, we must encourage and nurture this type of thinking at the earliest stages of professional development. I hope you’ll all agree that engaging students and ECPs, and providing resources deemed valuable by this cohort, is a promising investment not only for Division One and the young members involved, but for the field of psychology as a whole.
In 1945, APA saved itself from spontaneous fission by forming fourteen specialty divisions—wisely designating the very first as the division of General Psychology. In the ensuing sixty-seven years, the role of Division One has been to identify pervasive topics and issues that transcend specialties. In this spirit, Division One formed several new committees in August, 2006, to examine issues that (a) impact psychology across specialties, (b) are relatively overlooked, or (c) may engage our younger colleagues or students. These committees are listed below.

The charge of each committee chair is to define the committee’s mission, appoint a few Division One members to serve on it, including one early career psychologist (ECP), and to provide a report on its activities to *The General Psychologist*. In addition, it is hoped that some of the activities of these committees will turn into sessions at the APA convention. Members who would like to join a committee should contact the chair of the committee. Members who would like to chair or simply suggest a new committee topic should contact the current President of the division Thomas J. Bouchard, Jr. (<bouch001@umn.edu>) or the President-elect, Donald Dewsbury (<dewsbury@ufl.edu>).

1. **Early Career Psychologists** - Chair: Matt Goodwin
   Mission: Work with APAGS and others to recruit and engage students and ECPs in general psychology.

2. **Coping with Technology** - Chair: Richard S. Velayo
   Mission: Examine the negative impacts of email and changing technology on the field of psychology (teaching, science, practice) and practical means of coping with technostress.

3. **Humor** - Chair: Joe Palladino
   Mission: Examine humor in psychology as a topic of research, teaching, and fun. Goals: Sponsor a best-jokes contest, with award at APA.

4. **National Speakers Bureau** - Chair: Harold Takooshian
   Mission: Use CODAPAR funds to identify convenient speakers for local student and community groups, by developing (in cooperation with Divisions 2 & 52, Psi Chi, Psi Beta, TOPSS) a web-based zip code list of willing Division One fellows, with their contact information and preferred topics. The division has applied for a second grant to continue this work.

5. **Human-Animal Relations** - Chair: (open)
   Mission: Take a fresh look at human-animal interaction, as well as the diverse roles of animals across all of psychology (aside from learning and physiology research)—in areas such as therapy, companion animals.

   Mission: Probe the impact of IRBs on science, scientists, and society, as well as academic freedom, junk science, and other trends threatening the integrity of the scientific enterprise.

7. **Advisory Committee** - Co-chairs: Bonnie Strickland, Harold Takooshian
   Mission: Insure continuity within Division One, using a panel of past officers/presidents to help guide Division One procedures.

8. **Publications** - Chair Bruce Overmier. Committee members: Peter Salovey, Nancy Russo, Donald Dewsbury, Matt Goodwin
   Mission: Oversee effective communication within the Society, coordinating TGP, RGP, book series, Website, listserv, and possible member surveys.

9. **Evolutionary Psychology** - Chair: Jason R. Young
   Mission: Develop and give a home to this interdisciplinary specialty. In 2008 at the APA meeting Jason Young and Nancy Segal (Chair of the Program Committee) are planning to feature Evolutionary Psychology and Behavior Genetics.

10. **Photography and Psychology** - Chair: Joel Morgovsky
    Mission: Seek out the many members of APA who are deeply involved with photography; become a networking hub and community of psychologist/photographers. This committee sponsored an excellent program at the 2007 APA convention.

11. **Science and Practice** - Chair: Mark Koltko-Rivera
    Mark is developing an exciting research program that requires cooperation across much of psychology. It will be sponsored by Division. More information will be forthcoming shortly.
IRB/Scientific Integrity Committee Report
by John H. Mueller, University of Calgary & Richard M. O’Brien, Hofstra University

This column is a product of Division One’s new committee on “IRB/Scientific integrity,” chaired by John Mueller. The committee has the following mandate: To probe the impact of IRBs on science, scientists, and society, as well as academic freedom, junk science, and other trends that may threaten the integrity of the scientific enterprise. This column is to follow up our column in the previous issue of TGP (Winter-Spring, 2007), we noted several items relevant to the mandate of our committee. This column will include a follow-up to the recent APA convention as well as other items.

1. Symposium The first item of note with regard to IRBs would be a symposium sponsored by Division One at the APA convention in San Francisco, August 19, 2007, sponsored by the President of Division One, Harold Takooshian, entitled Human Subject Protection, Academic Freedom and the First Amendment: Can’t We Have It All?

For 60 years the role of Division One has been to identify pervasive topics and issues that transcend specialties. Today it is hard to identify an issue that has broader impact than the ever-expanding presence of Institutional Review Boards (IRBs). At their outset some 30 years ago, research ethics committees had the mandate to decide whether the public is at more than everyday risk from your project, and it was understood that this would be a rare event in psychological research. However, the domain of such reviews has expanded greatly, with little evidence of need or effectiveness. Furthermore, forums to meaningfully discuss concerns with this enterprise are very limited, compared to the ubiquitous and increasingly obligatory workshops that focus entirely on how to comply with the progressively more complex regulations.

Our symposium brought together presenters to comment on the damages that have arisen from uncritical compliance with IRBs. We feel that it is time to reject the claim that researchers are to blame for problems with IRBs. Instead it is the ethics enterprise itself that must be the focus of examination, and with the tools appropriate to any research enterprise, specifically empirical evidence as opposed to legal and philosophical creations. Only in this way can we be sure that research subjects are really safer with IRBs than without IRBs.

The presenters and paper titles were as follows, with author contact information to request complete copies of their presentation:

1. Michael H. Birnbaum, California State University-Fullerton: When Is Ethical Review Itself Unethical? <mbirnbaum@fullerton.edu>
2. John J. Furedy, University of Toronto: IRBs as Bioethical Industrial Waste for Both Research and Society. <furedy@psych.utoronto.ca>
3. Richard M. O’Brien and Kurt Salzinger, Hofstra University: IRB Prior Approval: Unnecessary, Counterproductive and Antithetical to Academic Freedom. <psyrmo@hofstra.edu>

The speakers in Division One’s symposium covered a number of topics arranged about six basic issues:

1. The lack of empirical support for the entire prior review process.
2. The drift of IRB evaluations from protecting human subjects to micromanagement of all aspects of the research enterprise.
3. The first amendment/academic freedom challenge of having non-government funded research evaluated according to government directives.
4. The lack of either appeal provisions from the decisions of IRBs and Compliance Officers or any accountability for their capricious actions.
5. The potential for abuse in the entire research ethics program.
6. The deficiencies of the available training materials.

All of the speakers stressed the need for APA support in opposing these IRB actions and suggested various approaches to respond to arbitrary IRB decisions.

The Sunday morning symposium was well attended and well received. Although some people seemed disheartened by the state of the field, others hoped this was another step on the road to correcting what is obviously a troubling situation.

2. The Presidential Program on IRBs at APA Later that day, APA presented an invited symposium entitled: The Presidential Program—Psychologists and Institutional Review Boards: Working Collaboratively to Protect Research Participants, chaired by Thomas Eisenberg of Virginia Commonwealth University. Although the tone of this symposium was very different from our morning session, some of the same issues were raised. Dr. Eisenberg spoke of the problems with expedited reviews that really weren’t expedited and the general unhappiness with the process. Representing OHRP in Washington, Ivor Pritchard noted the necessity of providing some research on the effects of IRBs. He reported that DHHS had issued a call for research proposals to examine the effects of IRBs. Attendance at the Presidential Symposium was somewhat sparse: N=20 (including a rather annoying professional photographer who took many pictures of each speaker).

Earlier in the convention, Dr. Pritchard had presented on IRB issues under the somewhat paternalistic title: What Should Psychologists Think About IRB Decisions? He placed the responsibility for the inconsistency in IRB decisions on personality differences in the members of the different boards. One can only hope that some of the papers in the Division One symposium helped him to see that the problem is systemic, in that the boards have unlimited power which leads to capricious decisions.

3. Torture and interrogation The question of participation by APA members in interrogations of prisoners was the subject of considerable discussion in San Francisco, both informal and formal. As per an APA press release at <http://www.apa.org/releases/councilres0807.html>, the Council of Representatives...
moved to limit the type of interrogations that APA members may participate in:

“The resolution, passed at the APA’s annual convention in San Francisco, unequivocally condemns and strictly prohibits psychologists from direct or indirect participation in a list of 19 unethical interrogation techniques…” This resolution extends the long-standing position opposing torture to include interrogations involving “cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment,” but stops short of prohibiting member participation in interrogation per se.

4. Censorship and IRBs A special issue of the Northwestern University Law Review has just been made available on-line at <http://www.law.northwestern.edu/journals/lawreview/issues/101.2.html>, summarizing contributions at a symposium on Censorship and Institutional Review Boards held at Northwestern, April 7, 2006, sponsored by the Law Schools of Northwestern University and the University of Chicago. The participants included legal scholars and social science researchers, who addressed the constitutionality of IRB prior restraint and, given the varied nature of the participants, the papers contain a wide variety of perspectives.

Richard O’Brien

5. IRB Blog Zach Schrag, a Professor of History at George Mason University, has started a blog to provide analysis and commentary on issues associated with IRBs, which is maintained and regularly updated at <http://institutionalreviewblog.blogspot.com/>. As with the NWU Law Review special issue noted above, this highlights the multi-disciplinary impact that IRB “creep” has had on academic scholarship in the social sciences and humanities beyond psychology and underscores a conclusion that correcting the problems that affect psychology is going to require a broad-based effort. Defending academic freedom against the top-down IRB/ethics industry often seems a daunting task, but it seems that a growing number of scholars across an array of fields in the social sciences and humanities are unwilling to accept continued loss of freedom of inquiry. Broad-based efforts seem critical, given a divide-and-conquer history of regulation.

6. Monitoring the Monitors Occasionally the question is raised as to how to appeal the decision of an IRB. Of course, one can make an appeal back to the IRB, but if this is not successful, then what? The general problem here is that the IRBs are their own adjudicators, and the same is true of the regulators. This has long been recognized as a problem, going back at least to Plato (Republic): “Who will watch the watchmen?” The concern is addressed sometimes by a system of checks and balances, as in the “separation of powers,” but that is lacking here.

One suggestion we have heard is that APA could function somehow as an ombudsman, perhaps by broadening the work of the present Ethics Committee of APA or by adding some new office. Not to reject this out of hand, but the mechanics of how this would work are not clear. Perhaps more importantly, that would not be a general solution because it would not accommodate the multiplicity of disciplines that the accountability concern covers. An alternative solution (noted in an earlier col-

umn) would be to recognize that research is a job requirement for academics, and thus incorporate IRB decisions into the Collective Bargaining Agreement between the campus faculty union and the administration. This would cover the several disciplines on a campus, but would have to be accomplished one campus at a time, and would leave out the many institutions without a faculty union.

It is not clear to us that there exists a general solution to this concern at this time. In Canada, SAFS, the Society for Academic Freedom and Scholarship <http://www.safs.ca>, does occasionally address research ethics issues, but not systematically and does not handle appeals. Another example of this type of organization would be FIRE, the Foundation for Individual Rights in Education <http://www.thefire.org/>, which has worked to deal with campus speech codes for students. The AAUP, the American Association for University Professors <http://www.aaup.org/>, has considered the impact of IRBs generally, but the potential extent of regular appeals may be beyond their capabilities. It also seems unlikely that appeal adjudication would be an acceptable function of a research ethics accreditation agency.

The development of some genuine appeals process seems a commendable objective, and should enough parties agree to that perhaps a solution can be achieved. Anything to introduce accountability into the present scheme would be desirable. We would like to hear of other suggestions in this regard.

8. Legality Jack Katz, a sociologist at UCLA, has an article forthcoming in the Law & Society Review, 2007 <http://www.blackwellpublishing.com/journal.asp?ref=0023-9216>, “Toward a Natural History of Ethical Censorship.” In this article, he examines the prospects of a “legality” based challenge to the IRB process, along the lines of the first amendment questions raised in the NWU special issue above.

9. Tuskegee Richard Shweder, a cultural anthropologist at the U. of Chicago, has published an analysis of the infamous Tuskegee syphilis research project in Alabama <http://www.spiked-online.com/Articles/00000000CA34A.htm>. Although a few years old, the article seems not widely known, and it is interesting as an example of how IRB history can involve elements of caricature and urban myth. That the analysis is not in a mainstream journal perhaps speaks further to the limitations on the opportunity to make critical commentary about the research ethics industry.

The authors welcome communications about research ethics and scientific integrity, reports of particularly outrageous IRB or Administration Compliance Officer conduct, and suggestions for future columns. This Committee will be continuing its work during the coming year, with Richard O’Brien as chair. We would be happy to hear suggestions as to how the committee should proceed, such as a resolution from Division One to the APA Council, and, of course, volunteers are welcome! Please send correspondence to: John Mueller, Applied Psychology Division, University of Calgary, Calgary, Alberta, T2N 1N4, <mueller@ucalgary.ca>.
ne of the more headline grabbing developments in recent American psychology has been the rise of “positive psychology”—the “scientific study of the strengths and virtues that enable individuals to thrive” (Positive Psychology Center, 2007). Blending a faith in science with a characteristically American belief in happiness as an ultimate concern, positive psychology has emerged from humble roots into a position of cultural and intellectual prominence. In the United States, there are now more than 100 courses on positive psychology, and in 2006 the Boston Globe reported that positive psychology was the most popular course at Harvard (Ehrenreich, 2007). A Journal of Happiness Studies was established in 2001 and a “positive psychology center” has been established at the University of Pennsylvania offering a masters degree in applied positive psychology. In psychology, it would appear, the happiness business is booming.

For the historian of psychology, the new “scientific” rush on happiness is reminiscent of another era where lecture halls and newspapers were filled with excited talk of psychological health, fulfillment, and more tantalizing yet, a new type of human being. The time was the late 1950s and 1960s and the topic that was generating so much excitement was humanistic psychology. The movement’s intellectual and spiritual leader was Abraham Maslow, a Brandeis-based personality psychologist. Trained in the primate laboratory of Harry Harlow in the early 1930s, Maslow had become disaffected with scientific psychology before he had even completed his Ph.D. As a graduate student, he complained bitterly about the discipline’s atheoretical, anti-intellectualism, a sentiment that intensified as his career unfolded. The problem, Maslow believed, lay in the discipline’s long standing feelings of professional inferiority vis a vis more established sciences. In order to appear “hard nosed,” psychology placed too much emphasis on scientific technique at the expense of issues vital to human welfare: “Inevitable stress on elegance, polish, technique, and apparatus has a frequent consequence a playing down of meaningfulness, vitality… and of creativeness in general” (Maslow, 1970, p. 11).

Frustrated by discipline’s fetishization of method, Maslow helped fashion a new paradigm or “force” in psychology—humanistic psychology. Philosophically akin to romanticism, humanistic psychology was both an encompassing critique of mainstream psychology and psychoanalysis, and an optimistic vision of a more methodologically diverse and philosophically sophisticated science of human nature. Maslow (1970) criticized behaviorist inattention to human potential and uniqueness; their uncritical reliance on animal models; their deterministic assumption, unbridled faith in positivist methodology and “overstress on technique” (p.11). Equally critical of psychoanalysis, Maslow argued that Freudian theory was a depressing reduction of the human spirit to 19th century biology. Although these attacks on mainstream psychology were widely quoted, Maslow hoped to somehow finesse the rigor and discipline of the natural sciences with the breadth, creativity and openness of the humanities. This new psychology would in turn point the way to a scientifically based system of ethics and ultimately to “Eupsychia” a “psychological utopia in which all men are psychologically healthy” (Maslow, 1970, p.277).

Maslow’s 1962 book Toward a Psychology of Being stands out as the quintessential expression of both humanistic psychology’s frustration with the present and its hope for the future. Most of the book’s central ideas had appeared earlier and in considerably more detail in Maslow’s Motivation and Personality (1954). What made Toward a Psychology of Being special was its enticing title, loose, conversational style, and perhaps most importantly, its timing. Appearing in 1962, it was just the tonic for a generation of Americans disaffected with the grey flannel conventionality of the 1950s, and it became one of the most popular aca-
Nicholson on Maslow

demic books of its time, selling 200,000 copies by 1968 when a trade edition appeared. This remarkable success propelled Maslow to the forefront of psychology and onto a wider cultural stage. He became a guru for counter-culture activists such as Abbie Hoffman (1980) and he was inundated with speaking requests—250 in 1968 alone. Maslow enjoyed the success and he was thrilled when he was elected president of the American Psychological Association in 1968 (Nicholson, 2001).

Despite these many accolades, Maslow grew increasingly uneasy about the “third force” that he had helped unleash, and in his private life he was tormented by the very thing that he had himself critiqued: psychology’s obsessive regard for its scientific status. Like Freud, Maslow was a trained scientist and he envisioned his alternative brand of psychology as an improvement on the scientific tradition rather than a rejection of it. “I certainly wish to be understood as trying to enlarge science, not destroy it” (Maslow, 1966, p.xvi). To his dismay, Maslow saw his work eagerly taken up by an eclectic assortment of intellectually undisciplined free spirits and largely ignored by the people that he most respected and was most anxious to reach: experimental psychologists. “I feel uneasy about the company I’m with,” he remarked in 1961. “Religiousists, philosophers, yearners, utopians, Pollyannas, etc., rather than the tough-minded scientists I admire so much more” (Maslow, 1979, p.113). For all his uneasiness, Maslow believed there was no turning back, and his criticisms of positivist science remained as forceful as ever. He comments on the distinction between “safety science” and “growth science” were especially perceptive, highlighting the way that science can become a “security system, a complicated way of...ordering and stabilizing rather than discovering and renewing” (Maslow, 1966, p.33). Determined to avoid the complacency of “safety science,” Maslow forged ahead with his project to put the human condition at the center of psychology and to diversify the field’s methods, questions, and assumptions.

Fashioning a wider vision for psychology was no small task, and Maslow experienced the challenges on a deeply personal level. Despite his remarkable success, he often complained of feeling unappreciated by his family and students. Moreover, Maslow often felt that he was somehow betraying his inner self. Intriguingly, Maslow’s unease was often experienced in gendered terms. Moving away from experimental psychology was like “giving up maleness” and the indifference from experimental psychologists was akin to being rejected by “the guys.” For contemporary psychologists, Maslow’s experience provides a fascinating illustration of the powerful historical relationship between ideas of masculinity and notions of “hard” science (see Nicholson, 2001).

Maslow’s death in 1970 at age 62 was a great loss for humanistic psychology. His prestige had done much to legitimize the field and his commitment to disciplined thinking helped maintain a delicate balance between scientific rigor and humanistic possibility. In the ensuing years, many of the ideas of humanistic psychology flourished in the wider culture, but within the discipline of psychology its impact has been blunted and its concerns marginalized—which brings us back to positive psychology.

Positive psychology represents a partial revival of the Maslovian vision and a rejection of its epistemological and methodological breadth. According to Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000), Maslow strayed from the “true path” of science and thereby blurred the boundaries between popular and academic psychology. As Taylor (2001) has noted, such criticisms do little justice to the complexity of Maslow’s thought, but perhaps more disconcertingly, they reveal the degree to which psychology is still mired in the same “safety science” insecurities that Maslow identified all those years ago. Psychologists are still fretting over their disciplinary masculinity, still feeling the need to declare themselves “unblushingly scientists first” (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2001, p.89) and still allowing simplistic, dated appeals to salvation through positivistic science to pass as intellectual innovation. In such a context, Maslow’s example of intellectual openness, critical self-reflection, and philosophical curiosity is as relevant as ever.

References


Convention Highlight

More Photography on the Couch
by Joel Morgovsky - Brookdale Community College (NJ)

At the 2007 APA Convention in San Francisco, the turnout for and reaction to the symposium, “Photography on the Couch: Psychologists Analyze Photography,” was very gratifying. Our venue capacity of 115 people was insufficient for the standing room only crowd. The symposium was the only program in the convention index for the key word “photography.” What we can take away from that experience is increased confidence that the points of contact between psychology and photography are of considerable interest to APA members in general and Division 1 members in particular and that investigations into those points of contact are rare.

The symposium identified two means whereby psychology has incorporated photography into its more general modes of inquiry and a third perspective that scrutinized the psychological impact on photographers of adapting the new digital medium. For example, in the School of Graduate Psychology at Northwest University in Kirkland, Washington, Drs. Forrest Inslie and William R. Herkelrath use photography as a tool for sensitizing students to the needs of others less fortunate than themselves, thereby encouraging a mindset toward striving for greater social justice. Dr. Herkelrath’s pictures taken in the favelas of Rio DeJaniero conveyed the message eloquently.

In Photographs as Mirrors, I traced a historical timeline from 1856 to the present on which photographs were applied to psychiatric classification and psychotherapeutic tasks. Modern practices such as the Szondi Test, Photoanalysis, and Photo Therapy all stem from a powerful synergy that emerged between the “new” medium of photography in the second half of the 19th century and the “new” science of psychology that emerged in close temporal proximity.

Dr. Ruth Formanek (Hofstra University) in a paper presented by Dr. Mercedes McCormick of Pace University, rounded out the program with an essay on the heightened anxieties that afflict photographers as they shift from film-based technology and habits to the new demands required by the pervasive use of new digital imaging technologies. Indeed, film and wet-processed printing may indeed be entirely in the dust bin, leaving it to Dr. Formanek to discern nine levels of anxiety (and their requisite defenses) with which contemporary photographers must contend.

As Chairman of the Committee on Photography and Psychology for Division 1, I invite you to join a group of like-minded psychologists who will agree to work toward achieving these five goals: (a) to seek out other members of APA who consider themselves deeply involved with photography and (b) to become a networking hub for those psychologists thereby creating a community of psychologist/photographers. Once populated, the committee will (c) commence a literature search on the subject of points of contact between psychology and photography for the purpose of (d) generating an essential reference list on the psychological dimensions of photography. Finally, members of the committee will (e) prepare new articles for publication and live presentations for conferences that advance the base of knowledge in our area of study. If you are interested in joining in this effort, please contact me:

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Finally, I am pleased to announce a photographic exhibition called Psychologists in Focus to be held at the Soho Photo Gallery in New York City, from January 3rd to February 2nd, 2008. The exhibition is part of the process of in-gathering of psychologists photographers.
The focus of developmental psychology once concentrated mainly on the early years of life, with many researchers believing that the need to study life after adolescence was trivial. Fifty years ago, universities did not have gerontology departments, and the National Institute on Aging did not exist. However, the past 50 years have witnessed a surge in theory and research pertaining to the last half of life, and the field of adult development and aging has been established as a legitimate area of study. Popular culture has also embraced the topic of aging, as is evident by the numerous consumer products designed to stop the aging process, in part due to the aging of the Baby Boomers. In more recent years, the focus has shifted to include how to age successfully and live well into the later years of life. More and more researchers have devoted their careers at early ages to understanding the implications and process of aging, as is evident by the growing number of student affiliates in Division 20. This begs the question, what drives younger adults to study older adults?

The purpose of the symposium “Why Do Young Psychologists Study Aging” presented at the 2006 American Psychological Association meeting in New Orleans was to provide insight into answering the question what motivates young psychologists to study the field of adult development and aging. The four presenters spoke not only about the personal experiences that led to their involvement in research on aging, but also about some of the obstacles encountered. The common theme throughout the presentations focused on the idea of aging as a vital area of research. For example, topics relating to the promotion of education, research, and public understanding of the well-being of present and future older persons were discussed. Below are summaries from each presenter.

My own interest in adult development and aging has clearly run in my family. Both my grandfather and mother worked in the field of gerontology, so naturally, I wanted nothing to do with psychology, and more specifically, nothing to do with the study of older adults. However, after taking a course in psychology in high school and then a gerontology course in college, my attitude shifted. I realized that I had a passion not only for psychology, but for the study of middle and older adulthood as well. As I began my graduate studies in a developmental psychology program at Brandeis University, I realized the importance of the work I was completing. My interests lay in the promotion of health-related behaviors, and how older adults could improve their quality of life. Specifically, my doctoral work examined the relationship between physical activity and memory functioning from a daily perspective. More recently, my post-doctoral work focuses on what degree cognitive and sensory functioning has on the ability to understand health information and maintain a medication regimen. Being a part of research designed to enhance the health and well-being of older adults offers me a wonderful sense of fulfillment.

What always amazes me is how little people outside of the gerontology field understand about the study of aging. When I impart that I am interested in gerontology, the answer is typically, “geriatrics, why would you want to study that?” I try to explain that while a gerontologist studies and researches the aging process from middle age through later life; a geriatrician is a medical doctor. However, this distinction is most commonly lost on people. All they remain focused on is why a young person like myself would want to study older adults. Many people tend to lump together the study of aging with topics like death and dying. Certainly, this is a topic within the study of adult development and aging, but I try to express that despite the losses that occur as a result of aging, there are many positive factors to go along with it. Happiness, for example, is one characteristic that tends to increase with age, even despite the increase in reported health problems. The ability to better regulate one’s emotions also becomes better with age. These are some of the positive issues that the average person may not know about the aging process. Instead, the focus is placed on the negative aspects. Given these types of issues, I feel that as a young psychologist, part of my job is to continue research ways to improve the lives of older adults, in an attempt to eliminate all of the negative stereotypes.

—Stacey Whitbourne

A Time and Place: Fostering Intellectual Interest in Aging Into an Academic Career

Joseph Gaugler
University of Minnesota

My main objective in this talk was to provide my personal perspectives on building an academic career in adult development and aging. In remembering how I first became interested in gerontology as a career, it had little to do with coursework or standard academic experiences, but instead was based in my work in the community. As a psychology major at Gustavus Adolphus College, an excellent liberal arts college in Minnesota, I realized that I had to pursue graduate training, but I had little idea where or how. As part of my psychology major, I had to complete several internship experiences, and one of these was at Catholic Charities in St. Paul, MN with geriatric social workers who spent a great deal of time working with older adults in the community. It was here I first saw the challenges of spouses caring for a loved one with Alzheimer’s disease, issues of mental health and social isolation, and the long-term care system at work. This experience, coupled with an NSF Undergraduate...
Research Opportunities Program summer fellowship at the University of Minnesota, really formed my academic interest in pursuing graduate training in gerontology.

The remainder of my talk summarized some of the key issues I grappled with, first as a graduate student, and later as a junior faculty member, in gerontology. These included the transition to graduate-level learning, adjustments in social life, establishing a strong relationship with my mentor, taking the first steps to understanding the extramural funding process, intellectual independence, and the decision of whether to enter academia or not. A theme running throughout the presentation was the interdisciplinary nature of gerontology, and how training and skills in research methods have helped me to navigate a number of professional transitions, from graduate school at Penn State in the Department of Human Development and Family Studies, to a NIA Post-Doctoral Fellowship in the School of Public Health at the University of Kentucky, to my current position as assistant professor in the School of Nursing at the University of Minnesota. Regardless of academic home, a commitment to research that contributes to the discipline and community has proven valuable in achieving success in gerontology.

Aging has its Ups and Downs, but it's Always Interesting
Shevaun D. Neupert
North Carolina State University

Before I had an interest in research, I had an interest in aging. Spending lots of time with my grandparents when I was growing up contributed to my interest, and volunteering at the neighborhood nursing home and reading mail to a blind elderly woman (volunteer hours which were required by my elementary school) brought my interest of aging outside of my family. My career path was solidified when I was fortunate enough to work with three fantastic mentors (Leslie McDonald-Miszczak (master’s), David Almeida (Ph.D.), and Margie Lachman (postdoc)) who showed me the exciting research that can be conducted in the field of adult development and aging.

Adults often experience changes in cognitive processes, physical health, emotional well-being, and stressful events. My research focuses on both the gains (emotional well-being) as well as the losses (cognitive processes, physical health) that typically accompany aging. I am particularly interested in how these gains and losses are associated with daily stressors.

During 2002-3 the VA Normative Aging Study conducted an 8-day diary survey of stressors and well-being. On days when people experienced stressors, they were more likely to also report memory failures compared to stressor-free days (Neupert, Almeida, Mroczek, & Spiro, 2006). Further, the type of stressor was important for predicting memory failures; interpersonal stressors (arguments and disagreements) were associated with more memory failures on the day that the stressor occurred, but were also associated with an increase in memory failures from one day to the next. All of the participants in this study were older adults, so stressors appear to be detrimental to daily memory functioning within an aging context.

As part of the Midlife in the United States (MIDUS) project, a telephone-based daily diary study (the National Study of Daily Experiences; NSDE) was conducted on a nationally-representative sample of adults aged 25-74 years. In a study of age differences in emotional and physical responses to stressors, older age and greater personal control were each related to buffered emotional and physical responses to interpersonal stressors (Neupert, Almeida, & Charles, submitted). High mastery (an indicator of internal control) buffered the physical effects of work stressors for younger and older adults, and high mastery was important for middle-aged adults’ emotional reactivity to network stressors (stressors that happen to close friends or family members). These findings may reflect differences in life circumstances with age and also highlight the importance of the stressor domain.

In addition to age differences in responses to self-reported stressors, I have also examined the age differences in physiological reactivity (i.e., cortisol secretion over time) to laboratory-based cognitive stressors. Findings based on the Boston Study of the MIDUS sample indicated that older adults with high levels of education exhibited the strongest response (Neupert, Miller, & Lachman, 2006). It is possible that these older adults might greater threat due to a highly valued ability (i.e., cognitive performance) and therefore were the ones who showed the strongest physiological response.

Studying aging is always interesting because there are both gains and losses to be explored. In my own research, I have documented some of the “ups” (better handling of physical and emotional responses to daily stressors) and “downs” (increased physiological response to cognitive stressors and more memory failures when daily stressors occur) of aging. Longitudinal follow-ups are currently being conducted on each of the studies above, so my future work will focus on whether the cross-sectional ups and downs translate to similar longitudinal change patterns.
Young Psychologists Study Aging

over time. Being able to examine short-term fluctuations (e.g., daily diary responses over the course of one week) within the context of long-term change is an exciting area of aging research that I hope will entice new investigators to join the field.

References


The History of a Young(ish) Psychologist Studying Aging

Ann Pearman
Georgia State University

My interests in aging are both personal and academic. Since I was a young child, I have always had a special affinity for older adults. As a child, the older adults in my life (my grandmas, my grandfather, and a slew of great-aunts) cared for me, loved me, and were my friends. My memories of them continue to fuel my passion for helping older adults today.

When I started college, I missed the older adults from my life back home and soon joined an “Adopt-A-Grandparent” group where I became friends with Ada. Every Sunday afternoon, I rode my bike up to her assisted living facility for dinner. Ada helped keep me grounded and provided me a haven away from the chaos of school. In return, I believe I provided her with the emotional, social, and practical support that she didn’t have from any other sources. Ada passed away the day that I graduated from college.

In terms of academics, during my sophomore year, I saw a flier advertising a research assistant position for people interested in working with older adults. I promptly applied to work on this project and, thus, my first research assistant position was in Laura Carstensen’s Life-Span development lab. During this time, I learned about her Socioemotional Selectivity theory and was very excited to learn and be a part of a study with such a positive view of aging. Laura was an excellent mentor and role model and was very helpful in showing me that joy of both psychology and the study of older adults. She has a true passion for this work that continues to be inspiring for me.

Following graduation, I worked in Jerry Yesavage’s Aging Clinical Research Center on a memory training project for almost 4 years. Here I got further experience in testing, statistics, data entry, writing journal articles, and working directly with older adults in a clinical research setting. Here, I saw the possibility between a true interplay of science and clinical work. I saw how the research being done can also be very beneficial to older adults. At this job, I was again surrounded by people who really loved this work. My primary mentor on this job was Leah Friedman who remains a mentor, a friend, a colleague, and someone who I respect deeply. This job sealed my fate and ignited what is still my primary passion in the psychology of aging.

After 3 years at the ARCC, I decided to apply for clinical graduate school. I applied to 2 clinical programs schools that specifically offered Clinical Psychology with a focus on Aging (Washington University and USC). I decided to work with Martha Storandt in Washington University’s Aging and Development program which allowed the integration of the clinical training with studies of aging and human development. This program was the perfect fit for me as it allowed me excellent clinical training, freedom in developing my own program of research, and ample opportunities for work with older adults. Martha was an excellent mentor and resource and has continued to be supportive of my work even post graduation.

Following graduate school, I went to Brandeis Lifespan Lab where I was a postdoctoral fellow with Margie Lachman who has also been a great mentor and friend. The Lifespan Lab was a great place for me to combine my clinical interests with laboratory research and was a great stepping stone to my first faculty position at the University of Colorado at Colorado Springs. I recently moved to the Gerontology Institute at Georgia State University and am hoping to become as wonderful a mentor as I have had in the past.

On a final note, my parents are now older adults. I’m not sure when that happened, but I find myself even more inspired and motivated now to understand aging and trying to find ways to make the aging process as healthy and happy as possible.All of this being said, here is a formula I’ve developed to explain why a young(ish) psychologist like myself is studying aging.

Passion for psychological inquiry + Deep caring and fondness for older adults + Fascination with how and why we age + Years of excellent mentoring = Young(ish) psychologist studying aging
T he 2007 Fall Council meeting was held in conjunc-

tion with the APA convention in San Francisco.

Council met all day on Thursday, August 16, and half

day on Sunday, August 19.

CEO Norman Anderson gave an update on the status

of the Association. Our membership remains strong

with some 148,000 members including student affili-

ates. However, we have fewer numbers joining each year

and will likely face a decline in membership as our

members age. The mean age of membership now is 55

and only 18% of APA members are younger than 40. Our

difficulty in attracting and retraining early career profes-

sionals is a continuing problem for the Association with

serious implications for the future. The Membership

Committee has been restructured into a Membership

Board and various committees and task forces have been

established to examine the problem and identify ways to

recruit and serve younger psychologists.

APA continues to be financially strong. Our two

buildings close to Capital Hill are valued at $240M and

they both generate a steady revenue stream in rental

income. We have $75M in long term investments. The

Association generates approximately $60M per year from

journal subscriptions; however, these revenues are declin-

ing as an increasing number of individual subscribers and

libraries elect to purchase only electronic packages. APA

already derives more money from its electronic products

(e.g., PsycCRITIQUES, PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES) than it de-

rives from paper journals.

Dr. Anderson noted the retirements of Jack McKay, our

long-term Chief Financial Officer, and Russ Newman, long-
term Director of the Practice Directorate. He will be

recruiting replacements for these two positions as well

as for a Chief Diversity Officer to join his management

team.

The Council of Representatives approved a $7.6M initia-
tive to consolidate, integrate, expand and upgrade the

various APA websites into a single site that will be

user friendly and the portal to the world of psychology

for both APA members and the general public (www.apa. 

org).

Regular member’s dues will increase in 2008 from $270

to $279 to reflect an adjustment for inflation (linked to

the consumer price index). Contrary to the belief of many

of our members, only 14% of APA revenues come from

member dues; in contrast, 68% of revenues are der-

ived from our publications.

The 2008 con-

vention will be

held in Boston; the

2009 con-

vention will be

held in Toronto.

Corann

Okorodudu

received a Presidential Citation for her important work

with the United Nations. Florence Denmark was present-

ed the Raymond Fowler Award for lifetime contributions

to APA.

Council conducted its regular business meeting and ap-

proved an operating budget. Below is a listing of some of

the important items that were discussed.

Council approved 4 new seats that will be allocated to representatives from psychological organizations representing the interests of ethnic psychologists (i.e., the Association of Black Psychologists, and groups representing Asian American Psychologists, Hispanic/Latino psychologists and American Indian psychologists).

Council approved a resolution condemning the prac-
tice of academic boycotts in general, and specifically protesting a boycott that originated in Great Britain that attempts to prevent Israeli scholars from consulting or lecturing in other countries.

A model bill for postdoctoral training and licensure in psychopharmacology was passed. There was consider-
able debate over the appropriateness of the term “medi-
cal psychologist”; the debate was resolved by eliminating the term itself from the language of the bill but including a footnote describing the specific language used in the prescriptive authority laws in New Mexico and Louisiana.

A proposal to suspend the rules to allow a vote on pro-
posing the closing of the Guantanamo Bay Detention Center failed. However, there was considerable debate on whether or not there should be any role for psycholo-
gists in interrogations. One side of the debate felt this represented complicity in torture; the other side felt that the presence of psychologists could serve as a safeguard against the types of abuses (e.g., water boarding) that are so abhorrent to all of us. It was also noted that psychologists could help provide scientific evidence documenting the limitations of torture in lie detection. While we have probably not seen the end of this debate, Council did pass a very strong resolution specifically underscoring the ethical obligations of psychologists working in these vexing circumstances. In addition, work on a case book with multiple examples of the limits of ethical behavior in interrogation settings is being prepared.

Respectfully submitted,

Bonnie Strickland
Division 1 Council Representative

A Question about PsycINFO

Ever wonder why PsycINFO doesn’t give references in APA style? We did too—so we asked. Here is the reply:

Although our intention is to deliver citations in true APA style, not all bibliographic records permit doing so at this time. PsycINFO recognizes that there are inconsistencies in capitalization among the article and chapter titles presented in PsycINFO records. These regrettable inconsistencies are a byproduct of automated processes that have made our work more efficient, allowing us to produce more records in a shorter time and at lower costs with greater accuracy.

Currently, article and chapter titles are copied-and-pasted from electronic sources—a process that not only increases our efficiency in entering these titles but also minimizes the risk of errors. Typographical errors in titles can, of course, have a hugely detrimental impact on searching. Automation has greatly reduced the occurrence of these sorts of errors. This same process has, however, resulted in deviation from APA style, because we had been pulling in titles exactly as the journals published them. PsycINFO staff agree this deviation is a great concern.

Consequently, in April 2007, PsycINFO implemented a new policy for capitalization in article, chapter, and book titles in PsycINFO records that will consistently adhere to APA style. It is taking time for us to purge records that were in production with incorrectly entered “title case” titles, but all new PsycINFO records entering production since April have had their titles correctly entered in “sentence case.”

Now that we have started to release records with the correct title capitalization format consistently, soon we will begin the process of correcting incorrect capitalization formats in titles of previously released records. We expect that corrections in previously released records will constitute a long-term project.

In the meantime, we have posted a warning on the APA Style Citation page of the PsycNET platform. This notice warns users that editing may be required after formatting citations to ensure that capitalization in titles conforms to APA style. The notice will not be removed until we are confident that the titles in our records are clean.
The Practitioner Research Initiative: A Call for Practitioner and Researcher Involvement

by Mark E. Koltko-Rivera, PhD - Professional Services Group

The movement for evidence-based practice in psychological intervention has an inherent limitation: evidence-based practice can be no stronger than the research evidence upon which it is based. As it happens, research in psychological intervention has certain widespread weaknesses. In this article, I shall describe a way to overcome these weaknesses, a way to put psychological intervention on so firm a research base as has barely ever been conceived in psychology heretofore. Before I can describe this approach, however, it will be worthwhile to describe some of the frequently encountered weaknesses of research in psychological intervention.

Consider some of the critiques that you have heard of, or perhaps have made yourself, in reviewing literature about intervention in psychology—such as forms of counseling and psychotherapy. Does any of the following sound familiar?

- “The sample sizes were not large enough for the model to possess sufficient statistical power; that is, even if there were a difference between the different groups in the study, there were too few participants to detect the difference.”
- “There was no comparison between the intervention that the study focused on and other forms of intervention.”
- “There was insufficient attention paid to variables of ethnicity and culture.”
- “Participants in the study were not followed for a long enough period of time.”
- “There was no attention paid to the effect of variables involving the treatment professional, that is, ‘therapist variables.’”

In most cases, although these criticisms are valid, the researchers really might not have been able to do much to work around these potential criticisms. In one way or another, most of these threats to external validity come down to the practical issue of obtaining large enough pools of participants, and large enough teams of researchers. The inexorable mathematical logic of statistical power dictates that, to answer many important research questions, we simply must have large numbers of research participants and researchers. Every addition of an interesting input variable into the research model requires additional research participants. Every addition of a moderating variable into the model requires more participants. Perhaps most intimidating of all, consideration of variable interactions requires exponentially larger numbers of research participants. (For a discussion of methods to calculate the numbers required to attain different levels of statistical power, see Cohen, 1988, 1992; the reader is well advised to begin with the latter.)

Why is this a problem? Treatments in physical medicine require large numbers of participants, too; why are researchers of those treatments not hindered by the need for large participant pools? I would point out that treatments in physical medicine are often the proprietary product of large commercial interests that have the financial resources to fund massive clinical trials. This is not the case with forms of psychological intervention: for the most part, no one “owns” these methods of treatment, and so there is no commercial interest in anyone funding clinical trials. Given that this situation is not likely to change, what is to be done?

It is possible to address this issue effectively, definitively, even comprehensively. For this purpose, I propose to apply technology that did not exist 15 years ago, but that is now ubiquitous—it just has not been harnessed yet for these purposes. I propose to introduce a fundamental change in the way that research is done in psychological intervention, with the result that we will know more, and about more questions, than we have ever been able to know before. In addition, I propose that you join with me in accomplishing this achievement. I am describing the Practitioner Research Initiative.

The Practitioner Research Initiative is an effort of the Society for General Psychology, APA Division 1.1 will describe the need for the effort, and some ideas for the design of the effort; finally, I shall recruit support and solicit ideas for this initiative from a number of different directions within APA—including yourselves.

Need for the Effort

Many of the articles in the Fall 2006 issue of The General Psychologist (vol. 41, no. 2, available on-line at http://www.apa.org/divisions/div1/archive.html) addressed the split between clinical science researchers and practitioners. One source of this problem, as noted in the Editorial to that issue, is that there are relatively few rigorously validated treatments for the many disorders with which the practitioner is faced, especially if one takes into consideration the many complicating variables that may well mediate therapy outcomes. These include client and practitioner variables such as culture, age, and personality. For that matter, we may well wish to consider the variable known as worldview, that is, overarching assumptions that clients and practitioners have about physical and social reality and life (Koltko-Rivera, 2000, 2004; note that, in considering worldview in intervention, we may wish to consider worldview both as a client variable and as a practitioner variable, as well as in terms of client-practitioner worldview match). Another often unacknowledged issue is that a treatment may well be effective, yet not have attracted sufficient research funding to be proven effective and valid: we must always remember that “unvalidated” does not mean “invalid.” What we need is a set of large research projects, designed along the line of Paul’s (1967) famous dictum of forty years ago:

The question towards which all outcome research should ultimately be directed is the following: What treatment, by whom,
Practitioner Research Initiative

is most effective for this individual with that specific problem, and under which set of circumstances. (Paul, 1967, p. 111; italics in original)

Government support of massive conventional research projects is unlikely, at least in the current funding climate. However, what one intervention researcher or one laboratory cannot accomplish in isolation, a great mass of researchers united may well be able to accomplish. Every single working day, across the United States, hundreds of thousands of clients are seen in various settings—community clinics, college and university counseling centers, private practice, hospitals; they are treated for every known dysfunction and distress. In aggregate, these individual therapeutic and counseling encounters could provide a large pool of data to validate a variety of treatment modalities, taking into account the many varieties of input and moderating variables mentioned earlier. What would be required is that these practitioners be linked, with a common research vision and record-keeping protocol, to bring these data together. Members of Division 1—the Unifying Division, as I would call it—have taken the lead to advance this effort.

The Practitioner Research Initiative, a project of Division 1, will design and conduct an innovative practitioner research cooperative, pooling data from practitioners in all types of settings to provide research data that otherwise could not be gathered practically.

Components of the Practitioner Research Initiative

There are several components that we will need to develop in order to implement the Practitioner Research Initiative:

• ethical oversight for protection of human research participants;
• an overarching research design;
• a uniform protocol for data collection;
• procedures for recruitment;
• the design for an Internet-based portal for data collection;
• a pool of practitioners willing to participate in the research;
• a pool of clients willing to participate in the research;
• a pool of researchers—including the aforementioned practitioners—to analyze data and write up the many research studies that this project will generate.

Of course, I am recruiting you, and your colleagues, and your colleagues’ colleagues, to participate in this effort in one or more of these components.

Participation of APA Divisions

There are at least 25 divisions of APA that can help in recruiting practitioners and researchers for this effort. These include, as a minimum, Divisions 12 (Clinical), 16 (School), 17 (Counseling), 18 (Public Service), 19 (Military), 27 (Community), 28 (Psychopharmacology and Substance Abuse), 29 (Psychotherapy), 30 (Psychological Hypnosis), 32 (Humanistic), 35 (Psychology of Women), 37 (Child and Family), 38 (Health Psychology), 39 (Psychoanalysis), 42 (Independent Practice), 43 (Family), 44 (Lesbian, Gay, and Bisexual), 45 (Ethnic Minority), 49 (Group), 50 (Addictions), 51 (Men and Masculinity), 53 (Clinical Child and Adolescent), 54 (Pediatric), 55 (Pharmaco therapy), and 56 (Trauma Psychology). I invite each of these divisions of APA to appoint a liaison to the Practitioner Research Initiative, to help recruit practitioners and researchers involved with these divisions to become involved with this effort. In addition:

• I invite the Practice and Science Directorates of APA to lend support to this effort, by encouraging APA Divisions and members to participate in this initiative.
• I invite the APA Executive Committee to lend support to this effort, by petitioning Congress to provide ongoing funding for this effort, parallel to the effort at England's National Institute for Health Research to establish the Clinical Research Network (National Institute for Health Research, 2007).

What You Can do to Help

There are several things that the reader can do to move this effort forward:

• Use this e-mail address to contact the Practitioner Research Initiative: practitioner_research_initiative@yahoo.com
• Spread the word about the Practitioner Research Initiative to your colleagues, APA division officers, and other professional organizations.
• Encourage the APA Executive Committee and the Science and Practice Directorates to lend their support to this effort.
• Volunteer and be involved. Given all the components of the Practitioner Research Initiative described above, there is plenty of room to apply different types of professional and scientific expertise.

Conclusion

We can do this. Some would say, we must do this. The logic is compelling. There are many potential payoffs from the Practitioner Research Initiative:

• We can give research attention to interventions and to variables that have been neglected heretofore.
• We can put psychological intervention on an even stronger scientific foundation than has ever been possible before.
• We can make the so-called scientist—practitioner split a thing of the past.

As the head of the Science and Practice Committee within Division 1, I shall expend much of my professional effort over the next 12 months towards making the Practitioner Research Collective a reality. I plan to announce progress on this initiative at the next APA convention; it is my goal to announce at that time that we shall be ready for data collection. “See you in Boston.” The progress that I will have to report shall largely depend on the willingness of individual psychologists to step forward to advance this effort.

References


An earlier version of this paper was presented at the 115th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, San Francisco, California, August, 2007.
What They’re Reading
or The Curious Reading Habits of Some Notable Psychologists

Edited by Bob Johnson

Now that those lazy days of Fall are upon us, what does a psychologist do to fill the time? Read, of course. And what good books have our colleagues been reading lately? We asked three of them to describe the books stacked on their nightstands.

Brennis Lucero-Wagoner is a professor of psychology at California State University–Northridge, where she specializes in neuroscience and cognition. Brennis is especially interested in the effects of nicotine on cognitive performance, thought suppression, and assessing the use of the World Wide Web in instruction. Here’s what she is reading:

The Art of Changing the Brain: Enriching Teaching by Exploring the Biology of Learning by James E. Zull, (Stylus Publishing, 2002). The Art of Changing the Brain is a provocative title and an intriguing definition of teaching that coincides with what neuroscience has revealed about learning: it is a physical change in the brain. As a neuroscientist I was drawn to this book, although I was fearful that it might be a superficial “brain-based learning” tract. My reservations were quickly dispelled; James Zull has written a book for all educators.

“There are four pillars of human learning: gathering, analyzing, creating, and acting,” according to Zull. That idea isn’t new, but linking those processes to emerging brain science and learning theory is. Writing from his own experience as a professor of biology and director of the Center for Innovation in Teaching and Education at Case Western Reserve University, Zull uses classroom anecdotes to provide clear examples of how teaching both goes well and goes awry. In each instance he connects what has transpired in his classroom to the biology of the brain and its relationship to the processes that occur in teaching and learning.

My copy of Zull’s book is becoming tattered and worn; this is a book to own and to consult often. I’ve read it multiple times and each time I pick it up, I find a transforming idea that challenges me to rethink and restructure what I do in my classrooms. I’ve shared this stimulating book with colleagues, and I’ve used it successfully in a teaching-effectiveness seminar for graduate teaching interns. I encourage you to consider Zull’s ideas a brain-tool guide to the art of teaching.

1491: New Revelations of the Americas Before Columbus, by Charles C. Mann (Knopf, 2006). If you read and enjoyed Jared Diamond’s “Guns, Germs and Steel,” you’ll find this book an absorbing and thought-provoking foray into life in the Americas that challenges the predominant notion that America was a thinly populated wilderness at the time that Columbus arrived. Instead, Mann argues, there were more people living in the Americas than in Europe at that time, with a population perhaps as large as 100 million people. Neither an anthropologist, an archaeologist, nor historian, Mann is yet an accomplished science writer and correspondent for the Atlantic Monthly and Science, who has assembled an impressive, well-documented synthesis of the scholarship on Pre-Columbian America to describe the rise and fall of indigenous peoples from Massachusetts, to the Andes, to the Amazon rain forest. By turns startling and controversial, he reveals how current researchers using innovative scientific techniques have come to quite different conclusions about societies that had developed in the Americas before the first European contact. Mann offers enthralling tales of great Incan cities and beguiling descriptions of established trade centers in the Plains, while discussing the agriculture, political structures, warfare and economics of these early peoples.

In response to scholarly criticism, Mann made revisions to the first edition of his book. These changes and the criticisms that motivated them are described in the “Afterword,” of the second edition. I think I’d have benefited from reading the “Afterword” before the body of the text to better understand some of Mann’s choices in vocabulary and to know in advance which of his conclusions were found to be controversial by practicing academics.

Mann offers such a vivid and compelling view of a time and peoples long past; you’ll have a difficult time putting this book down, once you begin this alternative history of the Americas.

Persepolis: The Story of a Childhood by Marjane Satrapi (Pantheon Books, 2003). This riotously funny book, a coming-of-age autobiography set in a country in political upheaval, was my introduction to the graphic novel as a literary genre. Do not be deterred by the comic-book format; rendered in graceful black and white illustrations, this book is both intellectually stimulating and visually appealing. Part political history, part memoir, rife with irony and gallows humor, this is the chronicle of irrepressible, precocious young Marji in post-Shah Iran from childhood to adolescence. The book begins with six-year-old Marji, the only daughter in an elite, intellectual family, and ends with her as a fourteen-year-old standing face pressed to the dividing glass in a Tehran airport as she takes one last look back at her family before she boards a plane to continue her education in Vienna alone and away from the dangers of post-revolutionary Iran.

Living in post-revolutionary Iranian society, Marji encounters bewildering contradictions, constraints and absurdities. She wonders why she must stop wearing her Nikes and start wearing a veil. Rebellious and irreverent, the young Satrapi seems little different from girls searching for identity in the U.S. In fact, the ironic similarities in aspirations, relationships, and homelife between theocratic Tehran and the West are some of the more interesting aspects of the book, and they are especially intriguing during this time of increasing tension between the U.S. and Iran.

If you enjoy this book, you’ll want to read Satrapi’s sequel: Persepolis 2: The Story of a Return, which describes her life in Tehran to which she returns after a series of unfortunate events in Vienna. You will be heartened by the resilience of the human spirit in both her books.
Reading ...

Ann Ewing is a professor of psychology at Mesa Community College in Arizona. She received her PhD from Arizona State University in developmental psychology. In 2000 she received the Excellence in Teaching Award for 2-year colleges from the Society for the Teaching of Psychology. She was also one of the founders of PT@CC (Psychology Teachers at Community Colleges).

Ann has also served (well, we might add) as the editor of this column, until this issue. We will miss her—in this context. Here is her recommended reading list:

Nobody Left to Hate: Teaching Compassion After Columbine, by Elliot Aronson (Henry Holt, 2000). In this book, Aronson offered a brilliant analysis of the Columbine High School shooting. He described and analyzed the events that happened at Columbine, the reactions of the public, the media, and public policy makers, and then applied extensive social psychological research to examine the possible causes of the event. The book is engagingly written for the lay public, but is loaded with descriptions of decades of research and theories of modern Social Psychology. He concludes by posing possible solutions to prevent future Columbine type episodes by changing the atmosphere of our schools to make them more compassionate and accepting rather than competitive and exclusive. This book can be useful as a supplement to a Social Psychology course as well as an aid for teachers, principals, parents and concerned citizens who want to make the world a better place in which to live.

The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-Time, by Mark Haddon (Vintage Books, 2003). Haddon provides enjoyable reading and astounding insight into the thought process of the autistic mind. This warm and often funny novel describes the exploits of Christopher Boone, a young boy who knows every prime number up to 7,057 and the capital of every country in the world, but doesn't understand human emotion. His love for animals, evidenced by his attachment to a pet rat, leads to his intriguing investigation of the suspicious death of the neighbor's dog. The story is written from Christopher's perspective and dramatically illustrates both his genius and the frustrations caused by his disorder. This book is dramatically entertaining and memorable, engendering great empathy for those living in the world of autism.

Blink, by Malcolm Gladwell (Little Brown & Company, 2005). Blink is a masterpiece that provides insight into the instantaneous decision making process that characterizes daily life and interaction. He argues that great decision makers are those who have developed the art of “thin slicing” -- filtering the important information out from an overwhelming number of variables in a social setting. He illustrates his point with fascinating examples from tennis, doctor-patient relationships, hiring decisions, and the bedroom. He uses vivid examples from all elements of everyday life to illustrate the power of first impressions and how the brain subtly processes information. It is a mesmerizing book that appeals to people in all walks of life because it is both relevant and revealing. He draws from both neuroscience and psychology to explain how we think and make decisions every day. Malcolm Gladwell is also author of the popular book, Tipping Point.

Reading Lolita in Tehran, by Azar Nafisi (Random House, 2004). Nafisi is a professor at John Hopkins University. She came to the United States in 1997 after being forced to leave the University of Tehran for refusing to wear the required veil. This memoir poignantly describes her experiences and those of several of her female students as they boldly shared the works of Henry James, Jane Austen, and F. Scott Fitzgerald in the privacy of her home in Tehran. The struggle of eight Iranian women against the tyranny of radical Islamic law is vividly portrayed through their life stories. Nafisi and her students bravely defied Islamic law by reading and discussing the forbidden literature. The reader is exposed to the terror generated by random raids by the morality squad and the courage of those who chose to study the Western Classics in spite of the censorship. Reading Lolita in Tehran provides great insight into the struggle for liberation of women under strict Islamic rule in modern times as well as a powerful statement about the relationship between life and classic Western literature.

Fred Meeker is a retired professor of behavioral science from California State Polytechnic University in Pomona, where he taught for more than 30 years. He has been an active, contributing member to WPA, CTUP, APA and APS. His article on the joys and tribulations of retirement begins on page 38 of this issue. In the communique below, he follows the beat of a different drummer—as usual. Says Fred:

I was diagnosed as fixated at the article level as a senior undergraduate and all through graduate school. For a number of years after I started teaching I reviewed textbooks for various publishers, but even then it was a chapter at a time. I rarely read books from the New York or Los Angeles Times best seller lists. Some of them sound interesting, but a couple of articles’ length (about 50 pages) into them my attention wanders. I keep expecting a Discussion or References section, some sort of summing up before we go on, that never appears. So I put in a bookmark and promise myself I will come back to it later, thus paving another few inches on the road to hell.

Like many research psychologists, I have no expertise in statistics, only an interest in order to teach classes of undergraduates who seemed just as confused as I. As a result I tried and rejected a number of texts because they seemed just barely different versions of the same Neyman-Pearson hymnal—the same songs sung to the same tunes passed on to the congregation of vocally challenged singers. What got me interested in looking for a different approach was a talk by Geoffrey Loftus at an APA convention, and a WPA workshop by Rex B. Kline. The title of Loftus’ presentation, if I remember correctly, went something like, Why Psychology Will Never Be...
Reading...

Taken Seriously Until We Change the Way We Analyze Data (Loftus changed the title once he published it as a journal article); and Kline's workshop was about effect size. In 2004, APA published Kline's, Beyond Significance Testing: Reforming Data Analysis Methods in Behavioral Research. That book establishes the need for change in nine chapters, in three parts: a review and critique of current state of affairs; a plea for and discussion of the importance of effect size estimation; and consideration of alternatives to standard null hypothesis tests. Not the sort of thing you would want to curl up with on a dark and stormy night. But just the thing if you want to understand the current mess we are in. See, Loftus was right, Psychology, or Psychological Science, if you will, cannot get believable results with methods that answer the wrong questions. Kline presents his thesis in thorough, thoughtful, well-written prose, with bunches of real-data examples and even more on the book's web site. He leaves nothing out, and for me, that's a problem. As it stands, the book is really an upper-level textbook, in disquite, on computation of effect size measures in simple to complex designs. I would like to see it morphed into an introductory text: Keep the first part; compress the second; summarize the third; and lower the tone. Make it like the workshop I took those many years ago. I went home a believer and took it into my classes. But then, alas, who would publish it; who would buy it? Don't fix it, even if it is broken.

Let me contrast two other books as anchor points of differing views of statistical analysis in behavioral science, by asking this question: If the “new” approach to data analysis is so obviously advantageous to finding out what we want to, why don’t we just dump the “old” methods and start using the “new” ones?

None of these books contains an answer, but the argument has gone on for more than fifty years. I think it goes like so: Maybe it ain’t completely broke, let’s just fix it enough to get it running again.

Using Multivariate Statistics, Tabachnick & Fidell, 5e (2007, Pearson): This could be the psychology graduate student’s best friend; any researcher’s best reference; the most complete and useful guide to using multivariate statistics ever invented, conceived, or published; bar none. Covers every type of multivariate analysis traditional and contemporary: multiple regression, logistic regression, factor analysis, sequential equation modeling, time series analysis, and many more. Each chapter discusses purpose and description of the procedure, kinds of applicable research questions, limitations of the procedure, fundamental equations for the procedure, important issues relating to using the procedure, complete examples of an analysis using the procedure, and a comparison of available computer programs using that analysis. And the ultimate plum on top of this 18 chapter torte, a sample Results section, in journal format, is given for each complete example of data analysis. A cookbook? Bite your tongue, and say 10 Hail Fishers. A guide, a good, thoughtful, knowledgeable guide with so many cautions and caveats that whatever statistical pie you bake, the final recipe depends on your decisions.

Except for the later chapters, this book reflects orthodox statistics, i.e., standard null hypothesis testing, but with embellishments of discussion of effect size measures for most analyses and superior advice on interpretation of those measures and confidence intervals for those measures. Not a reformation document, but the best available tweaking of the status quo.

In contrast we have:


For me, Wilcox sums up his point of view in a quote from an APS Observer article (April 2002, Vol 15 No 4): To put it simply, all of the hypothesis testing methods taught in a typical introductory statistics course, and routinely used by applied researchers are obsolete; there are no exceptions …. These standard methods include Student’s T for means, Student’s T for making inferences about Pearson’s correlation, and the ANOVA F, among others.

In both of these books Wilcox files his brief that standard methods apply in such a limited set of cases they ought not to be used to understand psychological phenomena. But if we throw out those tools, don’t we end up with an empty tool box? Wilcox shows how in the last forty years advances in computer technology and mathematics make the modern methods preferable to the classical because of increased power and accuracy. These “modern” or “contemporary” methods have come to be known as the family of robust statistics. In several examples contrasting the two approaches Wilcox shows how the robust methods can detect differences between groups of individuals and relationships among variables when conventional methods fail.

Both books consider robust statistical analysis of simple to complex designs involving regression and ANOVA without assuming the reader has much prior training in statistics—but, believe me, it helps, especially for the 2003 book, which would qualify as non-technical only to someone who knew enough to skip over all the formulas and derivations. But overall Wilcox goes a long way to answer Kline’s plea for change.

Portraits of Pioneers in Psychology, Volume VI

Edited by:
Donald A. Dewsbury
Ludy T. Benjamin, Jr.
Michael Wertheimer

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MEMBER/AFFILIATE PRICE: $49.95
Diane’s Python, Bob’s Pig, and Me
by Frederick B. Meeker, California Polytechnic University Pomona

During her reign as President of APA in 2004, Diane Halpern launched an initiative on retirement—to raise the organization’s consciousness about an impending crisis involving the retirement, in droves, of psychologists from the baby-boomer generation. The colorful metaphor she often used to describe the demographic bulge moving toward retirement was “the pig in the python.” Fred Meeker, who had already emerged from the python, served on her Retiring Psychologists Committee, as did I, so I thought it might be interesting to hear Fred’s description of his attempts at self-actualization in retirement. Having been acquainted with Dr. Meeker for a number of years, the resulting article did not surprise me.

—Ed.

My title reflects the metaphor proposed by Diane Halpern former President of APA: the growing number of aging APA members approaching retirement, i.e., passing through a python; and Bob Johnson’s pig: the large mass of Boomers and others slowly moving toward excretion into an unknown life full of uncertainty and existential dread. But, maybe not. It might work out, so to speak, for all of us. The Me refers to me and my cheap poo-poo jokes because I have no data about you and other retiring psychologists, in short, those who matter. I can only relate my own retirement experience to Newsletter readers to indicate that if you happen to be in the right place at a right time, i.e., my place at my time, the transition would seem easy.

Know Any Good Retirement Jokes?
Me either. But I have some humorless anecdotes which might bear on the predicaments of those entering the python:

Mandatory Retirement
I do not know if many university or college institutions require academics to retire at a certain age; teachers, maybe; researchers, maybe not; administrators, never. However, those of a certain age in other valued professions can never escape the approach of the python. For example:

Anecdote 1. American Airlines requires pilots to retire at 60. The TV program (ain’t got citation, but in the past month, I’m just happy I can remember what I saw) tracks two near-60 pilots in a flight simulator of the aircraft they had flown for many many years. During their approach the simulator presents them with a major emergency. No problem. They land without incident. Interviewer notes they obviously can still fly. Asks them what they intend to do after retirement. They respond: no market for old retired pilots - they are not sure. Why mandatory retirement at 60? Saves money. (See Anec. 1.)

Voluntary but Boring Retirement
Anecdote 2. Same TV program. Doctor retires to play golf with his buddy doctors. In short time says he’s bored to death. Looks for opportunity to open a free clinic for low income and indigent in his former area of practice. Finds the place, but needs more doctors to service large number of potential clients. Enlists doctor golf buddies, who also appear bored. All willing, but have big reservations about malpractice and liability issues. He gets an insurance company to cover those issues. Now all of them practice their specialties, part time, in a clinic of their own. How did he do that? They say, “He had connections.”

Sort-Of Retirement
Anecdote 3. The California State University (CSU) for several years has offered a golden handshake to retirement eligible faculty called FERP. Rather than reflecting distress in the lower tract it stood for Faculty Early Retirement Program. Goes like so: You retire early, you can come back and teach a full load (for me three courses) for one quarter per year, receive your retirement pay plus part-time pay for the teaching quarter. You can do that for 5 years (at the time I retired) and then bye-bye forever, hello golf, or whatever. Maximum flexibility, you could arrange the number of courses, the quarters, etc. as long as it all added up and you didn’t come out ahead. What motivated the CSU to go FERP? Money. (See Anecdote 1.)

PowerPoint Rule 1: Show Graphs
Since the plural of anecdote is data, we should now have data, but, alas, even one real datum, have we not. What we do have relates more to aging of APA’s membership, rather than retirement per se, and those data show them getting older, as you will see in the chart on the following page.

One might gather from these data that: 1) three dimensional graphs are really hard to read; 2) in 15 years the average age of associate and full members of APA increased by about 5 years; 3) as time passes, people get older. However we are psychologists, never cursed with having to mess with deduction, instead we hold that general principles spring forth from specific instances. So I offer you all the information you generally need to know about the pig in the python from an APA Monitor article by Diane Halpern: http://www.apa.org/monitor/nov04/desire.html.
Meeker on Retirement

My inference is that, once the pig gets through the python, APA membership will decline, but more importantly, those passed, may wonder “What now?” and will turn to their professional organization to help find an answer. I profess complete ignorance of snake innards, but I doubt that those passing through are completely in the dark (as might be expected, because they’re inside a snake!). Perhaps time to ditch the metaphor. What I mean is their retirement whether mandatory, voluntary, or sort-of did not surprise them; the retiring anticipate retirement. For some, such as myself, the transition amounted to a piece of cake because the university HR people had all the expertise needed, guided me through the process, and made sure I stayed out of the way. In addition the California State University retirement system (CalPERS) commands more money than any other system in North America, so they could offer me a deal I couldn’t refuse (See Anecdote 3, above). For others, and I specifically think of clinicians in private practice, retiring would seem to require much more planning and attention.

I believe that for retiring psychologists the quality of the experience from working to retirement depends almost entirely on where you are and whom you work for. If you live in California and teach for the Cal State University system—piece of cake. If you live in Montana and teach at East Montana Baptist College—maybe no cake for you, better stir up your own batter early.

So in my case I FERPed, taught one quarter each year for two years and then gave up and retired-retired. Why? Did you ever stand in front of a class in full lecture mode, describing Skinner’s “Baby in a Box” and realized you could not remember the name of Skinnners daughter? Do you pause and say, “It will come to me in a minute,” but that minute turns into an hour later when it comes to you in the middle of Stats class? Was it von Restorff or Zeigarnik whose observations of waiters in the bierstube led her to postulate (under Lewin’s direction, or was it Lewin?) that uncompleted tasks produced psychological tension that increased recall? Is that right? And what’s your name again? Too many seniors and lecture is over. Maybe I should have switched to on-line, but that would take too long to ramp up, so I quit.

Now what? I started to play golf in college but never took it up seriously. Too difficult. My father played into his eighties. We spread his ashes on a course he had never played before, not a PGA challenge, but he would have enjoyed it. What’s left? Travel, volunteering, hobbies, protective activism (joining retired faculty groups that lobby to keep or inCREASE health and other benefits), professional scholarship, doing nothing.

My dream was to volunteer to offer general advice to Cal Poly students. I would get a telephone, a desk, a college phone book, and a couple of social work majors or anyone else who wanted to join in and command space in the student center front of a big sign that said “Help Desk.” We would offer any help we could enlist on any problem presented. The Social Work students would track down resources available, organize them for the students who stopped by the desk. We would not write papers, do homework, and that sort of thing, but we would refer students to university agencies that are supposed to help. The problem with my dream has to do with volunteering. Since volunteers are not university employees, we have big liability issues which make Risk Management types roll their eyes. So I gave up that dream and decided to do nothing. Or I should say, nothing-plus.

The plus consists of professional involvement. I attend professional meetings, APA, and APS if they are on the west coast (D.C. in August, I think not) and every meeting of WPA since 1970. WPA has about the right size that forms a critical mass of students, teachers, and big-name researchers from all over. Probably the best and biggest regional in the US.

I try to organize symposia regarding current issues which might interest teachers and others, e.g., What You Need To Know Before Starting or Converting a Lecture Course into an On-Line, Hybrid, or Virtual Classroom Course; and, Contemporary Challenges For Local IRBs.

I was honored this year to be an invited speaker at the Western Regional Lewis Terman Teaching Conference held every year in conjunction with the WPA convention. However, in the spirit of full disclosure I must confess that both the honor and the invitation were self-initiated. I told the conference coordinator, Beth Renzi, a pal of mine from CSU Bakersfield, that I was prepared to go in as a relief pitcher if one of her starters had to go on the disabled list, and that my presentation would fit into the conference theme of “teaching the hard stuff.” Wouldn’t you know it, that’s what happened.

Before retirement whatever research I did came about as a result of students asking questions that could be best answered by doing a survey or experiment. I never had a program of research, my department, college, or the university did not require a programmatic, NIMH-funded research plan for retention, pro-
motion, or tenure. So the publication list on my CV reads like the comics pages in the LA Times. Some examples:


With a couple of exceptions, all of these and nearly all others on my CV involved students who helped carry out the research, and in most cases presented it at WPA or elsewhere. Early on, I may have wanted to get something to back up good teaching evaluations, but after tenure, my primary motivation was to get students interested in research, and to show them that it was fun: Ask a question, figure out how to get an answer, get the data, make a decision about the quality of your answer, tell others what you think you found out (which, by the way, probably no one else found out before you). Also, put that baby on your application to graduate school or your application for garden products manager at Home Depot. I told my students to look the job interviewer in the eye when she asks, “Sometimes our department managers have to make presentations to meetings of our District Managers. Have you ever done anything like that?” and reply, “I have presented the results of experiments in psychological science to members of the largest regional professional organization in psychology in the United States. Have you ever done anything like that?”

And, oh yes, I try to stay involved professionally so I can hang out with, or hang around, people I have known, or known of, for almost 40 years, and I rediscover former students who have gone on to do important things. I have never consciously “mentored” anyone, and despise the condescension that inheres in that word, but nothing gets me more teary than when a student I knew back then thanks me for helping them along the path. I always have to try and remember, what help?

The python has devoured, the pig is poop, let’s end this. I advise all retiring psychologists, once you retire, do nothing, but stay professionally involved.
The Society of General Psychology (Division One of the American Psychological Association) is pleased to announce its 2007 award recipients. These individuals were recognized at the Society's business meeting at the APA convention in San Francisco and are invited to give an Awards Lecture at the 2008 APA convention in Boston, where they will receive $1000 check to defray travel expenses. They are also invited to submit an essay, based on their lecture, to The General Psychologist.

George A. Miller Award

The winner of the 2007 George A. Miller Award for the outstanding journal article in general psychology across specialty areas is the article “Rediscovering the Later Version of Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs,” published in the Review of General Psychology (2006, pages 302-317); author Mark E. Koltko-Rivera, PhD, of the Professional Services Group, in Winter Park, FL.

This article was the unanimous choice of the awards committee, which included Drs. Anie Kalayjian, Rivka Bertisch Meir, and Robert W. Rieber, and was chaired by President Harold Takooshian. Please address inquiries to takoosh@aol.com.

WINNER: This article by Dr. Mark E. Koltko-Rivera exemplifies the criteria for Division One’s George A. Miller Award. It is elegantly written, with important yet little-known information on the widely-known “hierarchy of needs” model developed during the long career of Abraham Maslow (1908-1970). Maslow’s later and posthumously-published papers made pivotal yet oft-overlooked changes to his five-step hierarchy, including the addition of stage 6, self-transcendence. Like Maslow’s model itself, this article pulls together theory and research to provide valuable new information and persuasive analysis crossing many specialties within and outside of psychology, and pointing to the value of unification within psychology. Bravo Dr. Koltko-Rivera.

While Koltko-Rivera is still what APA defines as an “early-career” psychologist, who earned his doctorate within the past seven years (New York University, 2000), he is also an accomplished psychologist who has received other awards for his scholarly work, including the 2004 Miller Award for his article on “The Psychology of Worldviews” (Review of General Psychology, 2004). He lives with his wife, psychologist Kathleen Schmid Koltko-Rivera, in Winter Park, FL.

Ernest R. Hilgard Award for Career Contributions to General Psychology

The winner is Nancy Eisenberg, PhD, Regents Professor of Psychology at Arizona State University. The Hilgard Award committee was chaired by former President Bonnie Strickland. Please address inquiries to bonnie@psych.umass.edu.

WINNER: Dr. Nancy Eisenberg is a true exemplar of the criteria for the Ernest R. Hilgard Award for Career Contributions to General Psychology. Her major contributions span multiple fields including clinical, developmental, and social psychology. Her ground breaking research on children’s socioemotional development, in particular, has brought diverse perspectives together to focus on development in a unified way. She has been the driving force in the emergence of the study of prosocial behavior and prosocial moral reasoning in children and of their empathy-related responding and emotion-related regulation.

Nancy Eisenberg is a scholar of rare ability and accomplishment. Her record of cutting-edge research and socially significant scholarship has resulted in her being considered among the premier developmental scientists in the world and in the history of the field of human development and family studies. She lives with her husband psychologist Jerry Harris in Tempe, Arizona.
William James Book Award (WJBA)

The winner of the William James Book Award is *The psychology of science and the origins of the scientific mind* by Gregory J. Feist, Ph.D., published by Yale University Press in 2006.

The WJBA awards committee was chaired by incoming President Thomas Bouchard. The additional judges were Prof. Marti Gonzales and Prof. Paul Sackett. Please address inquiries to Thomas Bouchard, PhD. WJBA Award chair, Psychology, N249 Elliott Hall, University of Minnesota, 75 E. River Road, Minneapolis, MN 55455.

**WINNER:** Dr. Gregory Feist is widely published in the domain of creativity and the development of scientific talent. His new book, *The Psychology of Science and the Origins of the Scientific Mind*, builds on his previous work and integrates a large and diverse literature. He argues convincingly for an integrated study of the psychology of science. The first two-thirds of the book consists of an integration of the relevant fundamental findings from research in biological, developmental, cognitive, personality and social psychology. The last third of the book takes an evolutionary perspective, and attempts to track the origins and precursors of scientific thinking through the practice of modern science. The final chapter provides a thoughtful discussion of the relationships between science, pseudoscience, and antiscience, and the need to balance skepticism with belief. The writing is entertaining and compelling. The book should be of interest to every psychologist and a very wide audience of educated laypersons.

For general inquiries about the Society’s awards program, contact Nancy Felipe Russo, Awards Coordinator, Society for General Psychology, Arizona State University; nancy.russo@asu.edu.

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**Observational data from APA…**

Getting the point

Executive Committee in deep deliberation
Call for Nominations for Awards for Year 2008
Deadline: February 15, 2008

The Society for General Psychology, Division One of the American Psychological Association is conducting its Year 2008 awards competition, including the William James Book Award for a recent book that serves to integrate material across psychological subfields or to provide coherence to the diverse subject matter of psychology, the Ernest R. Hilgard Award for a Career Contribution to General Psychology, the George A. Miller Award for an Outstanding Recent Article in General Psychology, and the Arthur W. Staats Lecture for Unifying Psychology, which is an American Psychological Foundation Award managed by the Society.

All nominations and supporting materials for each award must be received on or before February 15, 2008. There are no restrictions on nominees, and self-nominations as well as nominations by others are encouraged for these awards.

The Society for General Psychology encourages the integration of knowledge across the subfields of psychology and the incorporation of contributions from other disciplines. The Society is looking for creative synthesis, the building of novel conceptual approaches, and a reach for new, integrated wholes. A match between the goals of the Society and the nominated work or person will be an important evaluation criterion. Consequently, for all of these awards, the focus is on the quality of the contribution and the linkages made between diverse fields of psychological theory and research.

Winners will be announced at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association the year of submission. They will be expected to give an invited presentation at the subsequent APA convention and also to provide a copy of the award presentation for inclusion in the newsletter of the Society (The General Psychologist). They will receive a certificate and a cash prize of $1000 to help defray travel expenses for that convention.

For the William James Book Award, nominations materials should include three copies of: the book (dated post-2002 and available in print); the vita of the author(s) and a one-page statement that explains the strengths of the submission as an integrative work and how it meets criteria established by the Society. Specific criteria can be found on the Society’s website (http://www.apa.org/about/division/div1.html). Textbooks, analytic reviews, biographies, and examples of applications are generally discouraged. Nomination letters and supporting materials should be sent to: Donald Dewsbury, WJBA Award chair, Department of Psychology, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250.

For the Ernest R. Hilgard Award, nominations packets should include the candidate’s vita along with a detailed statement indicating why the nominee is a worthy candidate for the award and supporting letters from others who endorse the nomination. Nomination letters and supporting materials should be sent to: Harold Takooshian, PhD, Hilgard Award Chair, Psychology-916, Fordham University, New York NY 10023.

For the George A. Miller Award, nominations packets should include four copies of: the article being considered (which can be of any length but must be in print and have a post-2002 publication date); the curriculum vitae of the author(s); and a statement detailing the strength of the candidate article as an outstanding contribution to General Psychology. Nomination letters and supporting materials should be sent to: Thomas Bouchard, PhD., Miller Award chair, Psychology, N249 Elliott Hall, University of Minnesota, 75 E. River Road, Minneapolis, MN 55455.

The 2008 Arthur W. Staats Lecture for Unifying Psychology is to be awarded in 2008 and given at APA’s 2009 Annual convention. Nominations materials should include the nominee’s curriculum vitae along with a detailed statement indicating why the nominee is a worthy candidate for the award including evidence that the nominee would give a good lecture. They should be sent to: Peter Salovey, Department of Psychology, Yale University, 2 Hillhouse Avenue, PO Box 208205, New Haven, CT 06520-8205.

Requests for further information should be directed to: Nancy Felipe Russo, Awards Coordinator, Society for General Psychology, Department of Psychology, Box 871104, Tempe, AZ, 85287-1104; email: nancy.russo@asu.edu.
### The William James Book Award

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<td>George Mandler</td>
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### The George A. Miller Award for the Outstanding Article in General Psychology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Title</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Theodore Dix</td>
<td>The Affective Organization of Parenting: Adaptive and Maladaptive Processes</td>
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<td>1996</td>
<td>David Lubinski &amp; Travis Thompson</td>
<td>Species and Individual Differences in Communication Based on Private States</td>
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<td>1998</td>
<td>Dean Keith Simonton</td>
<td>Creative productivity: a predictive and explanatory model of career trajectories and landmarks</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Judith Rich Harris</td>
<td>Where is the Child’s Environment? A Group Socialization Theory of Development</td>
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<td>1999</td>
<td>C. P. Benbow, Ralph L. Rosnow, &amp; J. C. Stanley</td>
<td>Inequity in Equity: How “Equity” Can Lead to Inequity for High-Potential Students</td>
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<td>2002</td>
<td>Jacob Feldman</td>
<td>Minimization of Boolean complexity in human concept learning</td>
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<td>2003</td>
<td>Nora Newcombe</td>
<td>The Nativist-Empiricist Controversy in the Context of Recent Research on Spatial and Cognitive Development</td>
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<td>2004</td>
<td>Mark Koltko-Rivera</td>
<td>The Psychology of World Views</td>
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<td>2005</td>
<td>Bruce J. Ellis</td>
<td>Timing of Pubertal Maturation in Girls: An Integrated Life History Approach</td>
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<td>2006</td>
<td>Janet Shibley Hyde</td>
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### The Ernest R. Hilgard Award for a Distinguished Contribution to General Psychology

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<th>Year</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Ernest R. Hilgard</td>
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<td>Daniel Kahneman</td>
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<td>Melvin H. Marx</td>
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<td>Jeff Bitterman</td>
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<td>Florence Denmark</td>
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<td>Travis I. Thompson</td>
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### The Arthur W. Staats Award Lecture for Unifying Psychology

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<th>Year</th>
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<tr>
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<td>2000</td>
<td>Martin Seligman</td>
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<td>Paul Costa</td>
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<td>Frans de Waal</td>
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<td>2006</td>
<td>Hazel R. Markus</td>
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<td>2007</td>
<td>Brude E. McEwen</td>
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* The Staats Award is dated for the year in which the lecture is given, but it is announced during the previous year.
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Groden Center
Personality disorders have not been subjected to the same research as Axis I disorders in DSM-IV. This lack of research is both a cause and effect of problems related to reliability and overlap among diagnostic categories. However, a recent advance may change this situation dramatically.

**Diagnostic Features**

This new diagnostic category calls attention to a socially crippling problem that costs the country an estimated $110 billion a year in lowered productivity, boredom, reduced creativity, conflict within the family and at work, and stress induced illnesses. Among those who work or live with the humor impaired, these effects are often the result of the passive humor impairment (PHI) phenomenon. For a long time, the general public has suspected that such a disorder exists. Frequently overheard comments and questions such as “Get a life!”, “What a jerk!” and “Are you alive?” should have been clues seized upon much earlier by astute clinicians and researchers.

The key clinical features of HIPD are an inability to smile or laugh, failure to understand or appreciate many or all forms of humor, rigidity, self-importance, and an insistence that others share similar views.

**Diagnostic Criteria for Humor-Impaired Personality Disorder**

Diagnostic tests that assess the presence of symptoms in a straightforward manner such as self-report questionnaires are of absolutely no use in diagnosing HIPD: These individuals have no insight. Therefore, information for making the diagnosis must be collected from significant others. Unfortunately, few individuals will admit to knowing someone with HIPD, let alone being a significant other. To receive the diagnosis, such reports (when they can be obtained) must provide evidence that the individual meets three of the following criteria during any six-month period:

1. Has tried and failed to tell a joke and resorted to saying “You had to be there.”
2. Has used the words, “Can't you be serious, just once?” at least three times.
3. Can't wait to get home from school or work to watch the weather channel.
4. Has never smiled. (Note: if this symptom is present, the criteria require the presence of just one other symptom to make the diagnosis.)
5. Shows evidence of unusual beliefs (e.g., that smiling and/or laughing are the equivalent of passing gas in public). Bystanders never interpret expressions of these beliefs as feeble attempts at humor.
6. Reads *Psychological Bulletin* just for fun.
7. Is unable to comprehend the concept of a comedy club.
8. a. If a faculty member or student: Attends all business meetings at regional conventions, looks forward to reading the minutes, and enthusiastically offers corrections and suggestions for revision.
   b. If a faculty member: Considers faculty meetings the high point of the week. Becomes visibly upset if a meeting is adjourned without setting a day and time for the next meeting.
   c. If a student: Underlines or highlights more than 55 percent of a textbook for any course.

**Familial Pattern**

There is no doubt that HIPD runs in families. What is still unclear is how much of the family similarity is the result of heredity. Although researchers believe that heredity plays a role, they are puzzled by reports of HIPD that is not shared by identical twins. Compelling evidence that HIPD runs in families is found in reports of unrelated individuals who have accepted invitations to share Thanksgiving or Christmas dinner with a humor-impaired family. (These families refer to such dinners as “functions.”)

These invitees are often so traumatized by their experiences with the HIPD family that they frequently suffer symptoms of posttraumatic stress as a result. For some victims of PHI, the memories are so painful that they no longer eat meals in group settings, lest the experience bring back horrible memories.

**Specific Culture, Age, and Gender Features**

To date, no cross-cultural studies of HIPD have been completed. HIPD seems to occur at any age; in fact, the diagnostic criteria include observations that can be made on very young children. Preliminary evidence suggests that the rate of HIPD
A second diagnosis that is frequently confused with HIPD is catatonic schizophrenia. Although the lack of movement or other evidence of life might suggest a case of HIPD, closer examination reveals that individuals with catatonic schizophrenia are whirlwinds compared to most individuals with HIPD. Two other diagnoses are also frequently confused with HIPD: obsessive-compulsive disorder and obsessive-compulsive personality. Most individuals with obsessive-compulsive symptoms display remarkable insight compared to the HIPD who have no understanding that they may have a serious and debilitating disorder. Indeed, most HIPDs see jocularity as the single most harmful influence in the world today, rivaling even nuclear war and all-text web pages.

Treatment

There is no known cure for HIPD, but there have been several attempts at treatment to delay or mitigate the inevitable progression of the disorder. For example, group homes for the humor impaired have been developed under the guise of professional associations, fundamentalist religious groups, the entire accounting profession, and the Republican National Committee. Another treatment approach is to structure the environment of the HIPD person so that he or she cannot infect others with PHI. As such, many HIPD individuals carry on (although you hardly see a humor-impaired person carrying on) productive careers as college deans, newsletter editors, and past presidents of psychological associations.

Joseph Palladino, PhD, Department of Psychology, University of Southern Indiana, 8600 University Boulevard, Evansville, IN 47712. jipallad@usi.edu

Mitchell Handelsman, PhD, Department of Psychology, University of Colorado at Denver, Campus Box 173, P.O. Box 173364, Denver, CO 80217-3364. mitchell.handelsman@cudenver.edu

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Lighter Side...

If you know someone who is suffering the torment of HIPD: Sorry! If you are tormented by a friend or relative who has HIPD, seek help today. Call 1-800-NO-HUMOR

is equal in men and women; however, more severe forms of the disorder seem to occur in men. Scattered research reports and anecdotal evidence suggest that the prevalence of HIPD varies across geographic regions. The cause of these regional differences is under investigation; the suspected causes include toxins, excessive heat or cold, and lack of access to this column.

Course

Although research on the course of the disorder is progressing rapidly, longitudinal studies have not yet been completed. Thus, our knowledge of the disorder’s course is sketchy and tentative at best. The dearth of research may reflect a lack of interest, funding problems, researchers’ reluctance to spend any time around the humor impaired, or the suspected high prevalence of HIPD among researchers. To date, case studies suggest the existence of three courses:

(a) Unremitting—afflicted individuals do not smile from the date of birth (not even misinterpreted burps during infancy);
(b) Late developing course—occurs in individuals who have learned key elements of the disorder via modeling. This course is common among certain government agencies and in academia (particularly after teaching, or taking courses in research design or experimental psychology); and
(c) Episodic—occurs during registration and finals weeks. The length of these episodes ranges from a few minutes to a week; individuals with good premorbid functioning inevitably make a complete recovery.

Differential Diagnosis

The differential diagnosis of HIPD can be a major hurdle that hinders treatment. Many disorders have elements in common with HIPD. Although high rates of comorbidity have been reported, HIPD can occur without the symptoms of other disorders.

The general public recognizes that HIPD has much in common with depression. However, depressed individuals are willing to suffer alone; they are not driven to share their dysphoria with others. In contrast, the person with HIPD wants to ensure that others derive as little joy and satisfaction from life as they do. Compared to individuals with HIPD, depressed people are often the life of the party.
Membership Application

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