

International Psychology Bulletin

Volume 21 no. 3 Summer 2017

Division 52 of the American Psychological Association
Celebrating 20 years, 1997 - 2017



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ΣΥΝΕΡΓΑΣΙΑ ΟΙ ΠΟΛΥΜΕΛΕΣ ΕΛΛΗΝΟΨΥΧΟΛΟΓΙΚΕΣ ΕΤΕΡΟΣΕΛΕΣΙΕΣ



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Official Bulletin of the Division of International Psychology (Division 52) of the American Psychological Association

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Celebrating 20 years, 1997 – 2017

Editor: Genomary Krigbaum, PsyD
Associate Editors: Radosveta Dimitrova, PhD,
Dana Basnight-Brown, PhD

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Message from the President

Celebrating Our Past and Engaging Our Future: A Strategic Plan for the Division of International Psychology of the American Psychological Association



Craig N. Shealy, Ph.D.
President, Division 52

Well, we've done it! After countless hours of development and deliberation over the past couple of years – and multiple processes of review by members and leaders alike – I am delighted to report that the Board of Directors of APA's Division of International Psychology unanimously has approved a comprehensive new strategic plan just in time for our upcoming 20th year celebration at APA. This development is a big deal for Division 52, as it blazes a dynamic path ahead for our organization and its members in the years to come. As we look toward the formal unveiling at APA – and please do join us for our celebration on Friday, August 4, starting at 3:00 p.m. with a welcome by APA's President, Dr. Antonio Puente (see invitation below) – it may be helpful to offer a few highlights.

Essentially, based upon a membership survey and other deliberative processes, the new strategic plan resulted in three specific outcomes: 1) mission, vision, and values statements, 2) nine strategic priorities, and 3) a substantially streamlined governance structure. These outcomes are presented in full below, but some key elements are as follows:

- a vibrant declaration of who we are, what we stand for, and where we are headed via new mission, vision, and values statements;

- a strong emphasis on consistent engagement with our members in order to promote multiple opportunities for collaboration and networking;
- the clear recognition that students and early career professionals represent the future of our division, and thus must be included prominently not only in governance processes, but through multiple opportunities to advance their professional goals with the support of more senior members of our division;
- nine specific “strategic priorities,” which provide a wealth of ideas and recommendations for where we should go from here and how we may get there;
- a streamlined and focused governance structure that can help us direct our energies and resources in a much more targeted and synergistic manner, so that the “left hand knows what the right is doing.”

As the below outcomes illustrate, there are many other aspects of this strategic plan, and it behooves us all to reflect upon these components as we move forward from here, mainly because now that the framework has been approved, implementation must begin. For example, we will need to develop and submit bylaws changes for review by our members and leaders. We also will need to specify the particulars under each of our new standing committees – Advancement, Communication, Engagement, Governance,

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and Membership – in order to provide sufficient guidance and support for how our elected and appointed leaders are able to fulfill their responsibilities in ways that are clear and coherent for all involved. This process of implementation will begin with our Executive Committee meeting this August at APA, and continue to unfold in 2017, 2018, and beyond.

As we initiate this implementation process, please join me in offering heartfelt thanks to all of our Strategic Planning Task Force members and chairs, including Drs. Mercedes McCormick, Chair, Task Force 1 (Celebrating Our 20th Anniversary); Senel Poyrazli, Chair, Task Force 2 (Appraising Our Past, Present, and Future); Mark Terjesen, Chair, Task Force 3 (Engaging Our Leaders); Laura Reid Marks, Chair, Task Force 4 (Engaging Our Members); Suzana Adams, Chair, Task Force 5 (Engaging Our Partners); Stuart Carr, Chair, Task Force 6 (Communicating and Publicizing Who We Are and What We Do); and Neal Rubin, Chair, Task Force 7 (Identity).

Speaking personally, I also would like to offer my profound thanks to Drs. Merry Bullock and Jean Lau Chin, who kindly co-chaired Task Force 8 (Completing Our Strategic Plan) with me. We all are the beneficiaries of the wisdom and experience of Merry and Jean who gave freely of their time and talent via innumerable email, phone, and face-to-face conversations together over the past two years. Perhaps the greatest honor of serving as President is the privilege of learning from luminaries in our field and profession, who care so deeply about who we are and how we may fulfill our full profound potential. For my part, I look forward to continued collaboration with Merry and Jean as well as our splendid new President Elect Designate, Dr. Nancy Sidun, as well as other leaders and members in the months to come as we go about the business of implementing all that has been envisioned through our strategic plan.

Please also join me in offering heartfelt thanks to Dr. Mercedes McCormick, who chairs our Celebration Task Force, along with her energetic committee members – Drs. Suzana Adams, Lynette Bikos, Florence Denmark, and Harrold Takooshian – for all of their creative efforts and ideas. Likewise, Drs. Renee Staton and Lee Sternberger – our Program and Suite Co-Chairs – literally have devoted hundreds of hours of thought and time to reviewing and

assembling a truly stellar gestalt of activities and events for our upcoming conference program and celebration.

Finally, in addition to substantive support from the Division of International Psychology, we all owe a debt of gratitude to Dr. Amanda Clinton, Senior Director of APA's Office of International Affairs as well as the Center for Global Engagement at James Madison University, for all of the material and administrative support of our programmatic and celebratory activities in Washington, DC. Along these lines, please see the below invitation to our celebration, and kindly RSVP if you haven't already.

In closing, with deep appreciation to the leaders who have given so much to all of us over the past two decades, I look forward to welcoming all of you to the many exciting forums and sessions we have in store at APA. Come "celebrate our past and engage our future" as we envision together all that the field and profession of international psychology can be and become over the next 20 years and beyond.

See you in DC!

Celebrating Our Past and Engaging Our Future

A Strategic Plan for the Division of International Psychology of the American Psychological Association

Executive Summary

The Division of International Psychology within the American Psychological Association has a unique responsibility and opportunity to 1) engage current and future psychologists who wish to think and act globally in their lives and work, 2) promote ethically responsive and internationally informed education, training, research, practice, leadership, exchange, study, and service, and 3) foster application of the essential knowledge, skills, and values of psychology to the most pressing issues of our day.

As Division 52 prepares to celebrate our past and engage our future in 2017 – our 20th anniversary – we actively have been contemplating how we might fulfill our potential as an organization within APA and in collaboration with the many individual, group, and organizational partners

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in the United States and around the world. As such, Division 52 initiated a strategic planning process to identify where we have been, where we are now, and where we might go from here. Two substantive steps were taken to inform the strategic planning process: 1) a series of task forces were established to examine Division goals, structures, and systems and 2) a broad-based survey was conducted to ascertain member perspectives and priorities regarding a wide range of issues.

These processes and results, as well as consultation with other Division 52 stakeholders over the last several years, are reflected in three documents outlining outcomes of the strategic planning process: 1) Division 52 Strategic Priorities; 2) Mission, Vision, and Values Statements; and 3) Governance Structure. The process for next steps of the strategic planning process include three steps:

- First, the proposed strategic priorities, mission, vision, and values statements, and governance structure were circulated for review by 1) the Division 52 Strategic Planning Task Force Chairs and Board of Directors, 2) Division 52 members, and 3) selected individuals / groups who interact with Division 52 (e.g., APA's Office of International Affairs).
- Second, based upon input from this process, revisions were reviewed by the Division 52 Executive Committee and Board of Directors. The Division 52 Strategic Plan was then reviewed and approved via a unanimous vote of the Division 52 Board of Directors in July of 2017.
- Third, the final version of the Division 52 Strategic Plan will be presented during our 2017 celebration at the APA convention in Washington, DC. Plans and strategies for implementation will be discussed at the August 2017 meeting of the Executive Committee and Board of Directors, so that full implementation of the Strategic Plan may continue in 2017 and 2018.

For questions regarding strategic planning content or processes, please contact one or more members of Strategic Planning Task Force 8 – which was assigned the task of assembling this draft report: the Division 52 Past President, Dr. Jean Chin (ceoservices@yahoo.com), President, Dr. Craig Shealy (craigshealy@gmail.com), and President-Elect, Dr. Merry Bullock (merrybullock@mac.com).

Outcome 1:

Division 52 Strategic Priorities

Strategic Priority 1: Engage the Varied Interests of Our Current and Future Members

Division 52 members represent an extraordinary heterogeneity of interests, talents, perspectives, affiliations, and backgrounds, from the U.S. and around the world. ECPs and students from Division 52, as well as members living outside of the U.S., appear especially to value engagement with Division 52 (i.e., these groups participated at high rates in the survey process, suggesting that these subgroups could be a strong focus for membership recruitment in the future). As such, we need to establish multiple venues for engagement in the activities and future of Division 52.

Strategic Priority 2: Enhance Research, Collaboration, and Networking

The importance of Division 52's facilitating opportunities for our members to engage in research and scholarly activities, and to publicize and disseminate research findings, is a major result from the member survey. Division 52 needs to ensure that opportunities to collaborate and network are central to our organizational structures and priorities, and should provide information and resources to facilitate these goals in the U.S. and internationally. Finally, Division 52 needs to understand better how to engage with and help shape the mission, vision, values, and activities of the American Psychological Association – which is the overarching organizational system in which we are embedded – in order to emphasize international perspectives more prominently in APA policies, initiatives, and priorities.

Strategic Priority 3: Update Mission, Vision, and Values Statements

The mission statement should be reworked so that it is maximally inclusive and forward-looking, avoiding the listing of specific areas of emphasis. To capture both the letter and spirit of this mission statement – and to bring us in line with relevant organizational practices both within and outside of APA – we also should develop “vision” and “values” statements.

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Strategic Priority 4: Align Activities and Priorities with Member Interests

In its activities and priorities, Division 52 should bear in mind the interests and goals of its members, and align organizational structures, processes, and commitments (e.g., through initiatives, foci, engagement) to create venues that are responsive to the deepest professional aspirations and personal values of our members.

Strategic Priority 5: Integrate Communication Processes and Publication Systems

Survey respondents ranked the two Division publications and listserv emails as their top information sources. Other sources included meetings and events, the website, Facebook, the Office of International Affairs, the book series, and webinars. To ensure awareness and coordination of these forums, and consistent marketing and branding of Division 52, we should develop an overarching communications structure to ensure consistency and synergy among communication venues and channels.

Strategic Priority 6: Engage in Selected Advocacy That Is Reviewed and Approved

There is general but substantively qualified support for an active Division 52 response to specific events or issues of relevance, provided that: 1) there are clear criteria for determining when a response is or is not warranted and 2) there are appropriate processes, mechanisms, and structures for developing, approving, and disseminating any such responses. Relevant advocacy might include but is not necessarily limited to 1) the Division and/or its members serving in an advisory, educative, research, or leadership role, 2) communicating information or perspectives (e.g., as an official statement), 3) collaborating with other divisions, organizations, or initiatives, and/or 4) promoting international perspectives on psychology, both within and outside of APA (e.g., via relevant communications, initiatives, policies, procedures, programs, etc.).

Strategic Priority 7: Streamline the Organizational Structures and Processes of Division 52

The standing committee structure of Division 52 should be streamlined to ensure that the most important goals of Division 52 members are translated into activities and initiatives that are efficient, monitored, and mission

congruent. Committees should specify their unique parameters (e.g., roles, responsibilities, activities, timelines) in collaboration and communication with each other so that leaders and members understand clearly who does what, when, and why. Bylaws changes necessitated by this strategic planning process – or that emerge in the future – should be developed and reviewed in a straightforward and timely manner, drawing upon necessary expertise as appropriate, and subject to the approval of the Division 52 Board and members.

Strategic Priority 8: Provide Value-Added Opportunities for Professional Engagement

This strategic planning process resulted in many constructive and actionable suggestions for how Division 52 could encourage and retain members at all levels of professional development. Examples include, but are not limited to: 1) emphasizing membership needs, goals, and resources (e.g., active and ongoing tracking of membership trends; support for activities that are of demonstrable interest; funding assistance to attend meetings; review of revenue systems to include membership / dues exemption processes; student / ECP support; consider revisiting our organizational status as a society or another designation); 2) disseminating mission-congruent information (e.g., through communication systems, publications, and webinars; increasing access to virtual technologies; encouraging real-time engagement across time zones in research, teaching, and other professional interventions and collaborations; talking about Division 52 on campuses; strengthening liaison / ambassador systems to other organizations or systems in the U.S. and internationally); 3) contemplating disciplinary and interdisciplinary synergies (e.g., exploring epistemological and professional implications of encountering different cultures and worldviews; fostering engagement across the sciences and humanities; exploring the role of technology and social media); 4) facilitating professional development opportunities (e.g., research / educational development; facilitation of continuing education opportunities; teaching, study, practice, research, and service abroad; promotion of undergraduate / graduate student and faculty exchanges; support of international practicum / internship placements; job boards, webinars, databanks); 5) active engagement with other movements / initiatives / organizations in the U.S. and

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internationally (e.g., national, regional, and international meetings, and organizations where an international psychological perspective should have a presence; within APA to promote international perspectives on psychology at disciplinary, applied, and professional levels; in cutting edge movements, initiatives, or communities where the findings, perspectives, and applications of psychology are deeply needed, such as the UN Sustainable Development Goals and World Health Organization). Overall, the Division needs to develop mechanisms to review and disseminate dynamic opportunities for member engagement in such movements, initiatives, and organizations – as well as processes for ongoing development, review, and implementation – to ensure they are effectively implemented as well as discontinued as needed (e.g., if and when they no longer advance the mission and goals of Division 52).

Strategic Priority 9: Engage in Ongoing and Multi-Faceted Communication with Members

The thoughtful comments and suggestions from survey respondents reflect a depth of investment in the U.S. and internationally that augurs well for the future of Division 52. Committee structures, organizational guidelines, and implementation processes need to be developed to build upon this foundation and provide mechanisms for timely communication about planned and ongoing activities and opportunities for engagement from our leaders and members over time. Ultimately, we must offer a welcoming, creative, diverse, responsive, and visionary home through which our current and future members may express their deepest goals and highest aspirations as we continue to pursue our full potential as the Division of International Psychology within APA.

Outcome 2:

Mission, Vision, and Values Statements

Division 52 Mission Statement

Both at home and abroad, the Division of International Psychology 1) engages current and future psychologists who wish to think and act globally in their lives and work, 2) promotes ethically responsive and internationally informed education, training, research, practice, leadership, exchange, study, and service, and 3) fosters application of the essential

knowledge, skills, and values of psychology to the most pressing issues of our day.

Division 52 Vision Statement

Division 52 seeks to:

1. become the primary or secondary professional “home” for current and future psychologists to engage in all things international;
2. encourage psychologists and students to direct their education, training, research, practice, leadership, exchange, study, and service activities and aspirations toward international emphases, populations, and needs;
3. openly explore and engage a globally inclusive and epistemologically diverse understanding of psychology as a discipline and profession, while a) respectfully and credibly appraising established and emerging models, methods, and worldviews from the Global North, South, East, and West and b) eschewing the reflexive and superficial embrace or rejection of any particular paradigm or approach, regardless of origin, culture, or context;
4. promote a globally inclusive and epistemologically diverse understanding of psychology within our affiliated organizations and systems as well as the programs, policies, and practices that we develop, implement, and review;
5. provide timely and relevant resources for personal and professional development that are aligned with our mission, vision, values, and strategic priorities;
6. create vibrant opportunities for collaboration and networking within psychology and with interdisciplinary colleagues and students around the world;
7. apply internationally informed psychological science and expertise to the global challenges we collectively face, exemplified by the Sustainable Development Goals of the United Nations;
8. foster a culture of informed citizenry, ethical engagement, and social responsibility by the field and profession of psychology to address the global issues that affect us all.

Division 52 Values Statement

Division 52 envisions a field and profession of psychology where a broad representation of applied, cultural, empirical, epistemological, theoretical, and disciplinary synergies may engage and enliven current and future psychologists in our ongoing pursuit of the greater good.

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Both locally and globally, we value internationally-minded education, training, research, practice, leadership, exchange, study, and service activities that support intellectual rigor, personal and professional integrity, self-awareness, ecological validity, conceptual depth, interdisciplinary collaboration, mutual understanding, cultural responsiveness, and kindness, compassion, and care for all, including marginalized and dispossessed individuals and groups as well as the natural world which sustains us. To facilitate inculcation of and responsiveness to such values, Division 52 promotes processes of self-reflection regarding the many formative variables that shape who we are and may become as students, professionals, citizens, and human beings (e.g., cultural, national, linguistic, economic, educational, environmental, ethnic, gender, political, religious). We likewise value activities that disseminate, translate, evaluate, and infuse globally responsive findings, pedagogies, and applications into credible and impactful actions, policies, and practices. In so doing, we recognize always the needs, contributions, perspectives, and hopes of the many publics we serve, at home and abroad.

Outcome 3:

Division 52 Organizational Structure

In line with the input and suggestions derived throughout the strategic planning process, a number of changes are suggested to the organizational structure of Division 52 as well as how committees are led, populated, structured, and administered (see proposed governance structure below). These proposed changes are informed by the following summary guidelines.

1. Engage with Our Members

A prevalent and overarching theme from respondent feedback and task force / board deliberations is that our members want to engage more deeply with one another and with Division 52 writ large via the pursuit of research and opportunities to network and collaborate. Therefore, we need to create sustainable opportunities and mechanisms through which such engagement may be facilitated over the short-

and long-term. In so doing, we need to respond directly to the goals and needs of current and future psychologists who share our mission, vision, values, and strategic priorities, and would like to engage with us. Ultimately, we exist because our members believe there is value in contributing to and learning from all that we are. We need to respond in kind so that the professional goals and interests of our members may be expressed within and through Division 52, which will only enliven and enrich our offerings, standing, and profile within the U.S. and globally.

2. Engage with the OIA, APA, and Other Psychology Organizations

Division 52* is fortunate to have an office within APA – the Office of International Affairs – that shares a mission which is deeply congruent with our own (only a handful of divisions have such a direct counterpart, which speaks to the importance that APA attaches to the international perspectives in psychology). Although we have complementary emphases (e.g., Division 52 is a membership organization whereas OIA serves to advance the international goals of APA writ large), we share fundamental goals vis-à-vis the promotion of an international perspective at home and abroad. Historically, however, Division 52 has not engaged to the degree it might with the work of OIA when it clearly would be mutually beneficial for us to do so. At a related level, there are many international activities or processes within APA (e.g., at a divisional level, with the Committee on International Relations in Psychology, through other initiatives / relevant activities on which our expertise might come to bear) where it would behoove us to collaborate for both strategic and mission-based reasons. Likewise, we have not utilized the perspective of our APA Council Representative to the degree that we might to ascertain how and where Division 52 might interface more directly with various initiatives within APA. Finally, at a larger level, organizations that have allied structures and/or missions to Division 52 exist within the United States and all over the world, but to date, we have not sufficiently contemplated whether and how we might engage with them when it clearly

* Division 52 seeks to offer a professional home for current and future psychologists in the United States and around the world. As such, we recognize that other countries may differ in the degree requirements that are necessary to be recognized as a psychologist. The APA currently is considering these and related matters. Division 52 will continue to play an active role in this ongoing dialogue, and will update our current and prospective members if and when policy changes emerge vis-à-vis membership status or roles within APA or Division 52.

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would be in the best interest of our members and organization to do so. At these levels, we can and should create structures and systems to consider and pursue these possibilities.

3. Consolidate and Redirect Our Organizational Structures

Until recently, Division 52's website listed over 40 separate committees, subcommittees, task forces, and working groups, many of which were inactive. The current Division handbook lists 11 standing committees and at least 15 ad hoc committees. Undoubtedly, all of these entities had a worthy purpose, but in many cases, the original impetus and/or champion for the initiative has long since left the Division 52 BOD, although the corresponding organizational structure continued to be listed. This practice disperses our focus and creates the impression, and reality at times, that we are heading in multiple different directions at once with no coherent plan or overarching purpose. Thus, a major goal of the strategic plan is to consolidate and redirect our existing organizational structures based upon the input that has been received through multiple forums and venues.

4. Clarify Roles and Responsibilities

At present, individuals assuming committee chair roles may or may not be aware of their responsibilities either to recruit and engage committee members or to "report out" activities at least twice each year in the ongoing pursuit of committee-relevant goals. Likewise, attendance at Division governance meetings (in person or virtually) is uneven at best. Analogously, processes of decision making have been ambiguous, vacillating between a tradition of decision by consensus among all Executive Committee members and/or a vote of elected Board of Director members. Although we want to continue our tradition of inclusion, the overall efficiency of the Division may be impacted by extended processes of gaining input from everyone at the table on every issue, large or small. We need a better balance, more efficient processes, and greater discretion regarding when and how everyone weighs in on various matters, particularly when formal decisions or votes need to be taken for the Division to advance.

5. Link Elected Officers to Divisional Governance

At present, Board Members-at-Large are elected to office, but do not have any specific activities assigned to

them. Instead, they are expected to develop an initiative and pursue it largely on their own. These activities – all good and well intentioned – often have morphed into the subcommittees or task forces that remain "on the books" long after the elected individual has left the Board. Thus, we need to clarify the linkage between elected members of the Division 52 Board to specific aspects of divisional governance.

6. Coordinate and Communicate Activities

As things stand, multiple activities are underway within Division 52 without sufficient understanding regarding the interrelationship among them, how they are designed to contribute to a broader pursuit of Division 52's mission, and/or cross-communication about complementary activities. For example, although we have a Publications and Communications Committee (P&C), there is no mechanism, process, or tradition by which the leaders of our P&C entities – the bulletin, the journal, the website and web-based activities, the book series – are in regular contact or are encouraged to collaborate and share their synergistic activities with one another. Likewise, several otherwise excellent initiatives (e.g., Fast Connect) do not have a proper "home" within an existing organizational structure, which could link them to other related activities. The Curriculum & Training Committee is another example of an entity that was designed to pursue important goals, but does not exist with a sufficiently defined overarching structure that would juxtapose its purpose with related initiatives or functions. Thus, we need to create processes and structures by which specific Division activities are coordinated with and communicated to one another, so that we may learn from and build upon each other's work to help us pursue common goals.

7. Direct Efforts Towards Strategic Priorities That Are Mission Congruent

It is important to remember that service on Division 52 is voluntary, and engaged in by individuals who typically are busy with "day jobs" and a myriad of professional responsibilities. We do not have the luxury of allowing our time and talent to be dispersed in an unfocused manner. Likewise, our specific activities and initiatives should be conceptualized and enacted as parts of a larger whole, so that we are working together toward the same agreed-upon and

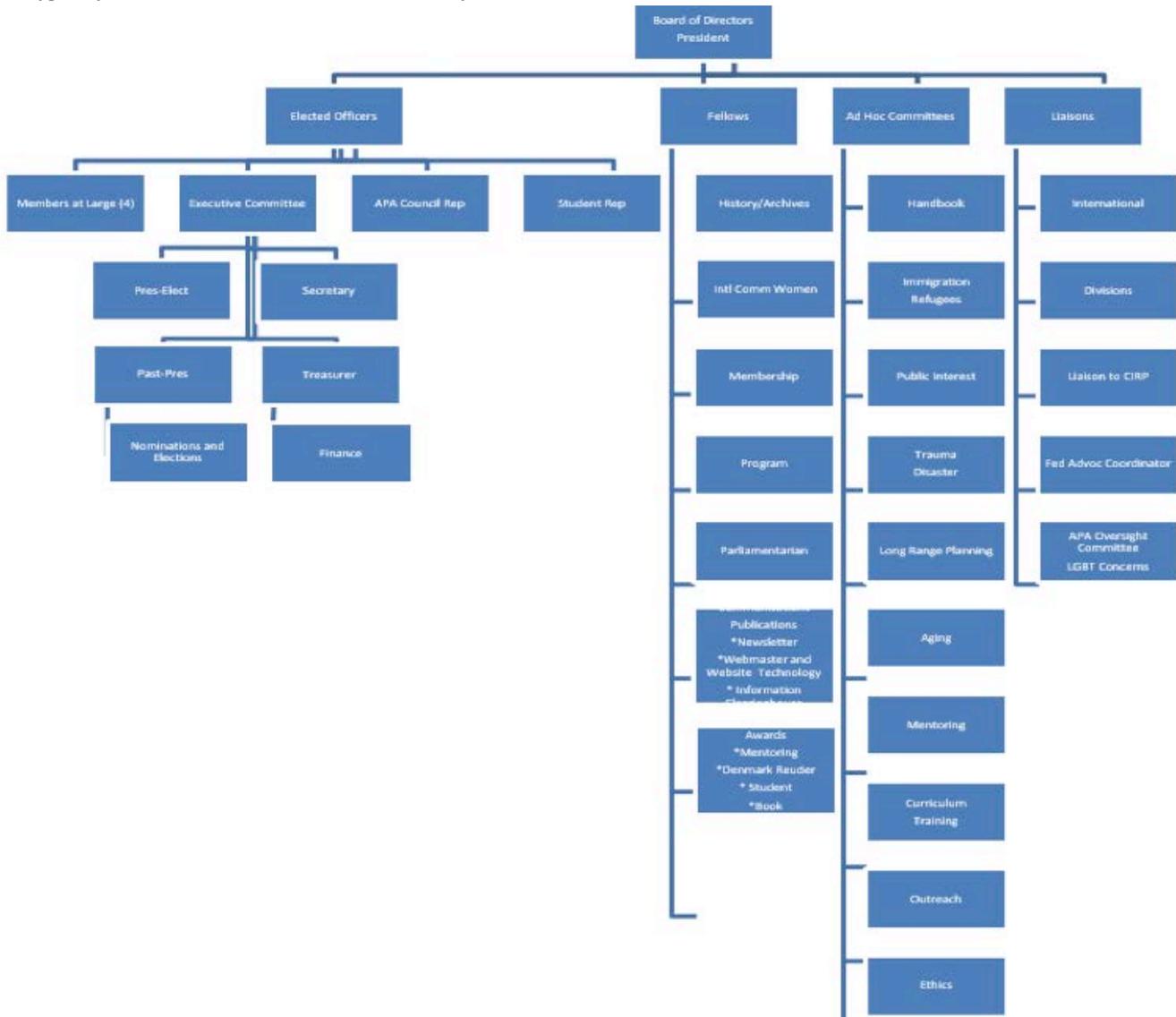
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mission-congruent goals. In short, effective governance is needed so that the “left hand knows what the right is doing.” For example, we need mechanisms by which new activities, initiatives, or support for external issues are encouraged, but also properly and efficiently vetted so that a reasonable determination may be made as to where such activities fit within the broader mission, vision, and values of the Division. Similarly, all members of the Board – elected and non-elected – should know what each other is doing and why, to support each other and ponder how our own activities and that of others may be synergistic.

In the final analysis, we must create a governance and organizational system by which individuals who volunteer to assume specific roles and responsibilities are supported in their enactment, and are actively engaged in their work, typically with others over the course of each year, while

accepting accountability to disseminate their activities both internally and externally vis-à-vis the Division. This good governance standard requires clearly articulated mechanisms for facilitating work and communication in the months between meetings as we seek to realize the mission, vision, and values of Division 52. To accomplish this goal, we need a more streamlined system of governance so that the enormous potential of Division 52 and its leadership may be realized.

Consider, in this regard, our current governance structure below, which in itself was recently and substantially consolidated (in 2016) from its previous and even broader iteration. Note that the elected members of the Board of Directors have no purview over, and little relation with, this very large committee structure.



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In the context of our overarching strategic plan, the proposal below is to consolidate substantially the above governance structure, while linking currently unaffiliated elected representatives (our Members-at-Large) to this new structure. As illustrated below, there now would be five (and only five) standing committees: Advancement, Communications, Engagement, Governance, and Membership. Each of these committees would have a Chair or Vice President as noted below. Through our nominations and elections processes, all nominees would know in advance to what their sought office is associated in terms of roles and responsibilities, and could “run” on that basis (e.g., through their nomination statement). In so doing, the expectations for such roles are that they 1) correspond to the responsibilities described within each respective committee, 2) build upon the larger strategic plan and the activities of individuals who previously held each role in order to promote continuity and coherence over time, 3) are envisioned as occurring over a three-year period of time (i.e., the duration of office for each of the new Vice Presidents), and 4) are consistent with the mission, vision, values, and strategic priorities of the Division†.

Moreover, we would rename our overarching governance structure to include an “Executive Board” (comprised of the five standing committees) and “Executive Council” (comprised of voting and ex officio members).

The overarching goal of this restructuring is to become much more strategic, targeted, organized, integrative, and efficient, so that goals and initiatives may be developed, approved, and pursued in a manner that is aligned both with the specific charge of each committee, and in a way that is consistent with the mission, vision, and values of Division 52. In short, the goals of the proposed governance structure are to:

- create a small number of superordinate committees that place similar functions together and focus on strategic priorities (i.e., cluster various activities / roles of Division 52 – editors, subcommittees, task forces, project chairs,

liaisons, convention / suite chairs / co-chairs, etc. – under each of these five committees);

- link elected Division Board positions to each standing committee;
- specify that the Past-President and President would chair the Advancement and Governance Committees respectively; Standing Committee Member-at-Large positions would be redefined as Vice Presidents for Membership, Engagement, and Communication;
- retain and better integrate elected ECP and student leaders into this overarching structure;
- ensure that minimal procedural guidelines and expectations are understood and followed by each committee, and appropriately reviewed by division leadership, which include at a minimum the need to 1) review and establish committee / subcommittee / task force leaders and members prior to the beginning of each calendar year; 2) identify and pursue attainable short- and long-term goals that are consistent with ongoing strategic planning and implementation process; 3) prepare and present at least two brief reports each year (mid-winter and annual meetings) regarding committee activities; and 4) facilitate reasonable processes of communication and collaboration within and between committees that are necessary for agreed upon goals to be pursued effectively;
- specify that the Division 52 Executive Board is chaired by the President, and includes the five Chairs / Vice Presidents of Division 52: Advancement, Communication, Engagement, Governance, and Membership;
- clarify that the Division 52 Executive Council is chaired by the President, and consists of voting and non-voting members as follows:

Voting Members of the Executive Council

- President, Past President, President Elect
- Secretary (Chair of the Secretariat)
- Treasurer (Chair of the Finance Committee)
- Vice President for Membership
- Vice President for Engagement
- Vice President for Communication
- Council Representative

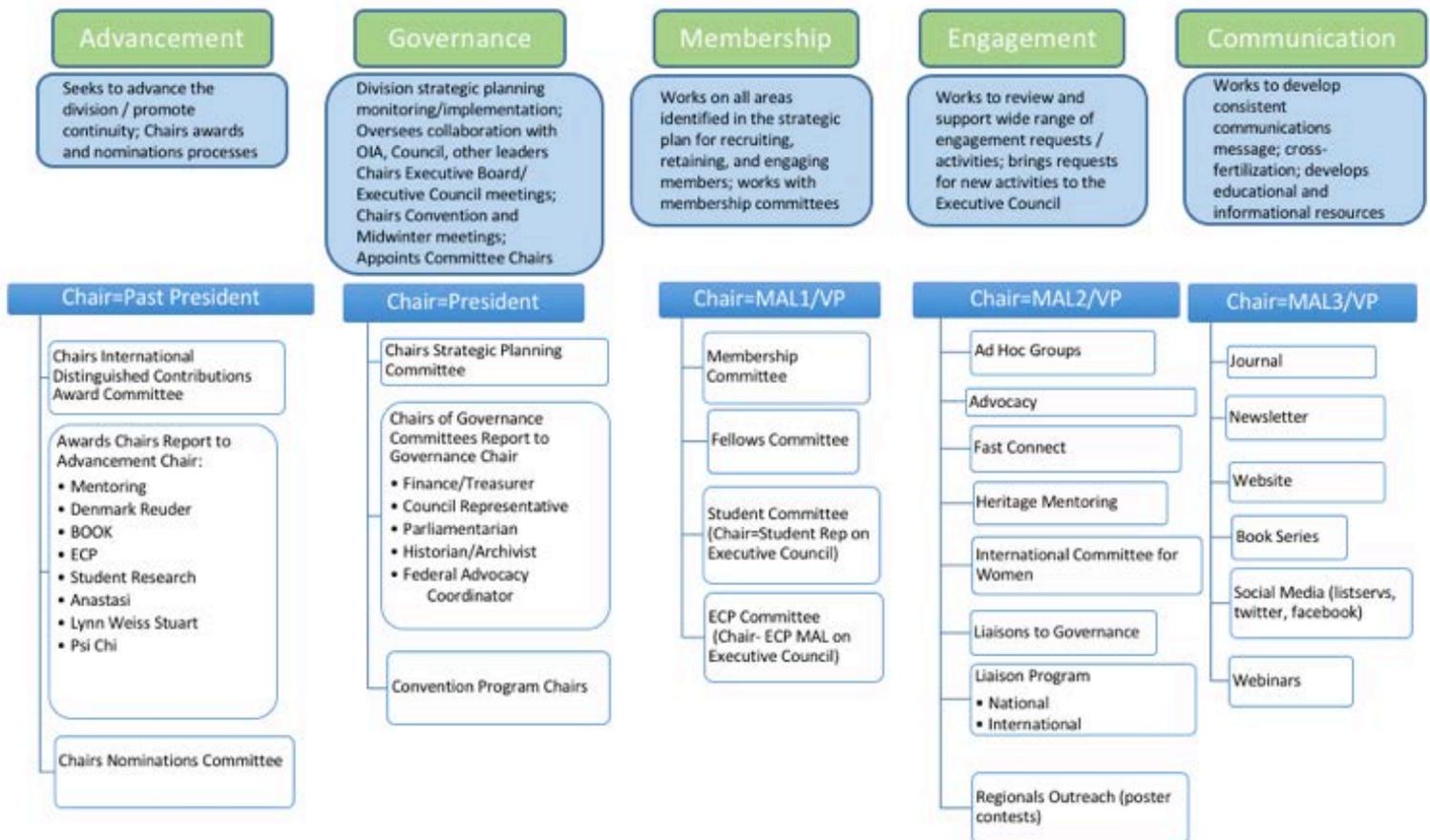
†Various processes of implementation will be considered during and after the 2017 EC meeting at APA. For example, it is expected that the implementation of this structure will begin with the 2018 electoral process. Moreover, during this transition period, current Members-at-Large would be eligible to run for these offices and/or could continue to pursue activities that already are underway as part of their official role(s), with the full and ongoing support of the Division 52 Board.

Message from the President

- ECP Representative
 - Student Representative
- Ex Officio Members of the Executive Council
- Editors
 - Subcommittee / Task Force / Project Chairs
 - Liaisons (e.g., OIA Director; Federal Advocacy Coordinator; governance liaisons)
 - Convention / Suite Program Chairs or Co-Chairs
 - Other Individuals / Representatives as Determined Annually by the President

This restructuring recommendation is codified into the proposed restructuring below, to be reviewed and finalized by divisional leadership in June and July of 2017, in advance of our forthcoming celebration and meetings in August at APA's annual convention in Washington, DC. As envisioned, a Strategic Planning Committee, comprised of the President, Past President, and President-Elect during each calendar

year, and chaired by the President, will report out regularly (e.g., at both the midwinter and annual meetings of the Executive Committee). There are at least three primary charges to this committee: 1) to monitor and report on progress over time regarding strategic planning implementation; 2) to ensure that any bylaws changes necessitated by this strategic planning process – or that emerge in the future – are developed and reviewed in a straightforward and timely manner, drawing upon necessary expertise as appropriate, and are subject review and approval by Division 52 members and the Division 52 Executive Board; and 3) to recommend for review and EC approval any other changes in order to ensure that structures and processes enacted and envisioned by the Strategic Plan are optimally facilitative of the mission, vision, values, and strategic priorities of Division 52.



Message from the President



INTERNATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
DIVISION 52 OF THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION
CELEBRATING 20 YEARS, 1997–2017
Friday August 4, 2017

3 - 4PM

Division 52 Business Meeting
Marriott Marquis Congress Room

- Welcome, Comments from APA President Dr. Puentes, APA President, and Business Meeting
- Recognition of Outstanding International Psychologist Award Recipients
 - Updates on Strategic Planning Deliberations at APA
 - Leadership Reflections on Division 52
 - Engaging Our International Partners
 - Division 52 Membership Engagement Group

4 - 5PM

Celebrating Our Past and Engaging Our Future
Marriott Marquis Congress Room

- *Our Future Is Global: How Psychology and Psychologists Can Meet a World of Need*
 - Unveiling of Strategic Plan
 - Recognition of Division 52 Awardees and Fellows
 - Recognition of Division 52 Leaders: Past, Present, and Future
 - Division 52 Celebration Video
- Toast to Our Past, Present, and Future / Opening of Reception

5 - 7PM

Division 52's 20th Anniversary Celebration Social
Marriott Marquis Capitol Room

RSVP NOW

<https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLScG7ie4Mjxw5WmsML1xJS0nQhIFntNUAIhYBhJbDRbL4jXakA/viewform>

Co-sponsored by APA's Division of International Psychology, APA's Office of International Affairs, and the Center for Global Engagement at James Madison University

New Division 52 Officers

Congratulations to our newly elected officers whose terms begin in January, 2018!

President-Elect: Nancy Sidun

Treasurer: Martha Zlokovitch

Student Representative: Adetutu Adjibose

Visit our website for more information:

<https://div52.org/index.php/about/elections/110-elected-2018>

Division 52 Award Winners

Congratulations! <https://div52.org/index.php/candidate-bios/112-division-52-2017-award-recipients>

Division 52 Ursula Gielen Global

Psychology Book Award (by Uwe P. Gielen)

Division 52's Ursula Gielen Global Psychology Book Award was established in 2007 to recognize the author(s) or editor(s) of a recent book that makes the greatest contribution to psychology as an international discipline and profession. The recipients of the 2017 Award are Frederick T. L. Leong, Dave Bartram, Fanny M. Cheung, Kurt F. Geisinger, and Dragos Iliescu for their edited book, *The ITC International Handbook of Testing and Assessment* (Oxford University Press). Sponsored by the International Testing Commission (ITC), the book reviews relevant theory, research, and practical applications in several disciplines such as psychology, education, counseling, organizational behavior and human resource management. In addition to historical accounts of testing as well as the International Testing Commission, the volume covers domains of testing, and assessment, specific settings for testing, the testing of special populations, methodological advances, and important problems and challenges. The list of chapter authors reads like a "Who Is Who" in the various fields of testing. Many of the chapters adopt a global perspective as is appropriate for a volume that is being honored with APA Division 52's Ursula Gielen Global Psychology Book Award.

The core purpose in establishing the award is to encourage increasing recognition and appreciation of the international nature of psychology. In line with this goal, submissions for the Award included authors, co-authors, and editors who came from several different countries. Expert referees in the field of international psychology were asked

to evaluate each book based on criteria such as how large and significant a contribution the book makes to psychology as a global discipline and profession, and the international or global nature of the book's contents.

Authors intending to compete for the 2018 Award (for internationally oriented books with a 2017 copyright) should ask their publisher to submit three copies of their book by October 1, 2017, together with a 2-page letter in English making a case for the book's potential contributions to global psychology. For more information contact Dr. Renée Goodstein (rgoodstein@sfc.edu) and Uwe P. Gielen (ugielen@sfc.edu). For further information refer to: <https://div52.org/images/PDF/UGBA-2018-announcement.pdf>

Division 52 at the Western Psychological Association - 2017 (by Lynette Bikos)

International Psychology was well represented at the Western Psychological Association (April 27th – 30th) including 4 distinguished speakers, 9 paper presentations, 2 symposia, and 11 posters with international content.

An annual highlight are the contests for student-first-authored posters and paper/symposia presentations with international content. Eligible submissions (i.e., the presentation must be student first-authored and must have an international focus) were e-mailed ahead of the convention and judged online. Award certificates and D52 promotional materials were delivered at the time of the presentation by the Western Outreach Chair, Lynette Bikos, Ph.D.

First Place Recipients

 Unidas por la Vida: Examining Associations between Motivational Systems and Health Outcomes in High-Risk Latinas, Laura Prieto Arias, Mienah Z. Sharif, Camila Aguilar, Jennifer Escareno, Emily Dow, David Kilgore, Margaret Schneider, Karen Rock, Dara Sorken, & Kelly Biegler (University of California, Irvine).

Searching for Purposeful Work as a Function of Participating in Global Service Learning and Exposure to a Campus Shooting: Desta Gebregiorgis, Caitlin Coyer, & Lynette Bikos (Seattle Pacific University).

Global Engagement: Realizing global learning outcomes through local service learning, Kaitlin Patton, Caitlin Coyer,

Division 52 - News & Updates

Desta Gebregiorgis, Daniela Gheleva, Lynette Bikos, Thomas Pankau, and Lauren Hirsch (Seattle Pacific University).



Second Place Recipients

Cultural Brokering Experiences in Latino Young Adults: Flavia Crovetto, Stephanie Nguyen, & Vanja Lazarevic (San Diego State University).

Vietnamese Immigrant and Refugee Mental Health: Stories of Trauma and Resilience, Annie Dao, Briana Williams, Natalie Gonzalez, Kalpa Bhattacharjee, Lizeth Vienegas, & Mark S. Barajas (Saint Mary's College of California).

A Study about Chinese Gay Males: Typical Interactional Patterns and Value Systems, Chichun Lin (Alliant International University at Sacramento).

Many thanks to our judges who included:

Merry Bullock, PhD, President-Elect, Division 52, International Psychology; Jennifer Harris, PhD, University of Washington – Tacoma; Renee Staton, PhD, James Madison University; Harold Takooshian, PhD, Fordham University.

Photos and Credits



Participants in the symposium, “Internationalizing the campus and curriculum: Practical lessons learned from the macro to the micro.” L to R: Lynette Bikos, Desta Gebregiorgis, Caitlin Coyer, Greg Kim-Ju, Lindsay Moore, Bob Levine, Lauren Hirsch, Thomas Pankau, Harold Takooshian.



Bob Levine, PhD, California State University – Fresno, describing how he involves students in international research in the symposium, “Internationalizing the campus and curriculum: Practical lessons learned from the macro to the micro.”



Harold Takooshian in his role as Discussant for the symposium, “Internationalizing the campus and curriculum: Practical lessons learned from the macro to the micro.” Dr. Takooshian was also a Distinguished Speaker, presenting, “125 Years Later: Ten surprising facts about international psychology.”



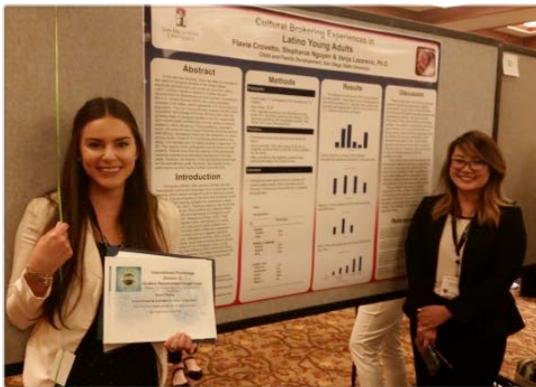
Division 52 - News & Updates



Recipients of a 1st placing in the symposium content. The presentation was titled, “Unidas por la Vida: Examining Associations between Motivational Systems and Health Outcomes in High-Risk Latinas.” Co-authors included Laura Prieto Arias, Mienah Z. Sharif, Camila Aguilar, Jennifer Escareno, Emily Dow, David Kilgore, Margaret Schneider, Karen Rock, Dara Sorken, and Kelly Biegler.



Annie Dao, Briana Williams, Natalie Gonzalez, Kalpa Bhattacharjee, Lizeth Viegas, & Mark S. Barajas receive a second placing for their poster “Vietnamese Immigrant and Refugee Mental Health: Stories of Trauma and Resilience.”



Flavia Crovetto, Stephanie Nguyen, and Vanja Lazarevic receive a second placing for their poster, “Cultural Brokering Experiences in Latino Young Adults.



Caitlin Coyer and Desta Gebregiorgis (Seattle Pacific University) receive a first placing for their poster, “Searching for Purposeful Work as a Function of Participating in Global Service Learning and Exposure to a Campus Shooting.”



Global Religion Research Initiative

(by Olivia Hall)

The Center for the Study of Religion and Society at the University of Notre Dame announces the Global Religion Research Initiative (GRR), directed by Christian Smith, which will fund over 150 research projects to advance the social scientific study of global religion. Proposals for over \$1 million in grants and fellowship funding will be accepted this fall. For more information, grr.nd.edu or contact grr@nd.edu. **The application will not open until late August/early September. The deadline for applications is October 16, 2017.**



HAVE DIVISION 52 - NEWS & UPDATES?

Send them to the IPB editor, Genomary Krigbaum, PsyD at genomary.krighbaum@my.gcu.edu

LEAVING A LEGACY TO DIVISION 52 Call for a Charitable Bequest to APA Division 52

If you are interested in making a charitable bequest or other planned gift to the Division of International Psychology, contact Miriam Isserow (APF's Development Officer) at (202) 336-5622 or at MIsserow@apa.org

20 Years of Division 52, Celebration at APA 2017!

<https://div52.org/index.php/convention>

**The D52 Convention Program is
Online!!**

<https://div52.org/index.php/convention/convention-program>



Division 52 - Twenty Years of International Psychology



International Psychology – Division 52 Of The American Psychological Association Celebrating 20 Years, 1997 – 2017

International Psychology Quiz - Questions

How much do we know about international psychology?

The past decade marked the anniversaries of many international psychology groups, including: 20 years of the APA Division of International Psychology (1997), 50 years of the APA Office of International Affairs (1961), 60 years of the International Union of Psychological Sciences (1951), 70 years of the APA Committee on International Relations in Psychology (1944), 75 years of the International Council of Psychologists (1941) and 125 years of the First World Congress of Psychology (1889).

In the 12-item quiz below, mark each item True or False, before checking the answers and explanations on page 78 of this Bulletin.

Origins: 19th Century

T F 1. In 1879, Wilhelm Wundt's empirical "psychology" was quickly and widely accepted.

T F 2. In 1889, the first international psychology conference was superbly organized.

T F 3. Despite this, the 1889 conference was not well-attended or impactful.

T F 4. Most of the early, seminal pioneers in psychology were physicians.

Past: 20th Century

T F 5. By 1929, at the 9th International Congress, psychology in the USA was widely accepted.

T F 6. As of 1984, just under 50% of all the world's psychologists lived in the USA.

T F 7. As of 1984, American psychology was isolationist to the point of Xenophobic.

T F 8. Psychology groups were quick to become involved in United Nations work after 1945.

Present: 21st Century

T F 9. As of 2000, psychology is growing faster outside than inside North America.

T F 10. As of 2000, psychology has become coordinated across the 3* nations of Europe.

T F 11. Psychology now has an international student group.

T F 12. Since 2000, the number of psychologists around the world now tops 5 million.*

Note: This is adapted from an invited address, by Harold Takooshian, to the Western Psychological Association, at the Grand Sheraton Sacramento on 29 April 2017. "I personally thank WPA Executive Officer Jeffery Mio, and International Program Chair Lynette Bikos for their exceptional work, and their kindness to my dear wife Anne and me. Address any request for the Powerpoint or other inquiries to: takoosh@aol.com."

20 Years of Division 52, Celebration at

APA 2017!

<https://div52.org/index.php/convention>

The D52 Convention Program is Online!!

<https://div52.org/index.php/convention/convention-program>



*Submitted by: Harold Takooshian, PhD, *Fordham University*.

Proximal Social-Wide Impact Evaluation (PSWIE) for Psychosocial Interventions: A Qualitative Approach to Impact Assessment in Trauma Focused Cognitive Behavioral Therapy

Given Hapunda & Tamara Chansa-Kabali
University of Zambia

Abstract

The purpose of several behavioral interventions is to assess impact of the intervention on the target group. Such interventions although targeted at a group, have trickle-through effects on non-beneficiaries. Nowadays, it is a common practice for evaluators to assess the impact of an intervention on non-beneficiaries. This paper discusses a model that assesses proximal psychosocial wide impact transmitted to non-intervention beneficiaries through a four-way process: model, information seeking, practicing skill, and environment reinforcers. In light of this model, we propose the use of qualitative methodologies to assess impact to non-intervention beneficiaries of behavioral interventions such as Trauma Focused Cognitive Behavioral Therapy.*

Keywords: Proximal Social-Wide Impact, trickle-through effect, psychosocial, TF-CBT, impact.

Introduction

Attainment of good health for all is one of the sustainable development goals. Goal number-3 states: “ensure healthy lives and promote wellbeing for all at all ages” (WHO, 2017). However, good health is compromised by the circumstances that people find themselves in. Traumatic circumstances (war, conflict, sexual abuse etc.) threaten good health and require interventions in order for people to lead a healthy and fulfilling life. Among the interventions are psychological interventions that have been reported to improve the wellbeing of users (Cohen, Mannarino & Deblinger, 2008). For example, one of the psychological interventions key to this paper is known as trauma focused-behavioral and cognitive therapy (TF-CBT). The nature of TF-CBT intervention is such that it empowers the dyad (child and significant other) in managing the trauma. The benefits of the intervention include

improvements in the way the dyad reframe their thoughts, regulate emotions and change their defeating behaviors. While the intervention is designed to impact the targeted audience (dyad), we believe that the impact of the intervention is also extended to other members of the family (proximal) and their wider social network in the community (distal). Thus, as the intervention influence whirls around the proximal social community, it creates a trickle-through effect (TTE) to the wider community. The impact of the intervention through TTE extends to what we are calling Proximal Social-Wide Impact (PSWI). We are calling this process PSWI recognizing that knowledge and information on managing similar trauma may advantage firstly those at the proximal (family) level and later distal (community) level where the social-wide is applicable. We envisage that the PSWI model brings to the impact intervention discourse a novel way to think about how to best capture full impact of

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the intervention beyond the targeted households within their proximal social communities. In addition, taking research intervention to scale for the benefit of many is an important feature of the current discourse. PSWI has a number of sectors within the social wide impact including psychosocial (the focus of this paper), socioeconomic (see Taylor, 2013), sociocultural etc.

Understanding the TTE of behavioral interventions is important. The challenge with most behavioral therapies is that they focus on individuals or family members thereby minimizing social-wide impact. We propose that behavioral therapies incorporate models that have a bioecological facet. A bioecological model proposes an interactionist view on the relationship between person and environment (Leseman & van de Boom, 1999). The advantage of applying bioecological driven interventions is that they target large-scale public health interventions unlike health interventions that focus on a single individual (Hapunda, Abubakar, Pouwer & van de Vijver, 2017). Current intervention developers and clinicians are focusing on intervention that affects the beneficiaries and non-intervention beneficiaries within the proximal zone of the beneficiaries before committing resources. Reaching the proximal and distal zones of beneficiaries enhance the scaling up of intervention programs to wide spread traumatic problems caused by war, physical and emotional abuse or other man-made and natural calamities. Both direct and indirect effects of the behavioral interventions can significantly provide proximal members of a community with better opportunities for development thereby becoming productive and socially responsible members of the proximal community. Therefore, the proposed model would be useful in assessing impact of behavioral intervention to non-intervention beneficiaries.

Evaluating interventions' impact using experimental designs such a randomized controlled trails (RCTs) may be difficult if TTE are present because these effects can transmit impact from intervention to control groups [family members] (Taylor, 2013). Effects of interventions on the control group also known as contamination frequently confound experimental designs. If the TTE linkages are strong and positive, and if they extend to control groups, it may be difficult to identify the intervention impact, because mental health improvement indicators will change in both arms of the

experiment because of control group contamination. When an intervention such as TF-CBT is scaled up, TTE are almost certain to create outcomes that would have not been captured in experimental designs. RCTs may capture some of the spillover impact of the intervention (Taylor, 2013). However, they do not tell us why spillovers occurred in the control group or how spillovers influence the proximal zones not directly benefiting from the intervention. Ignoring TTE can give an incomplete and often biased picture to already labeled single, individual focused interventions even when they have a trickle-through effect on non-beneficiaries within the proximal social zone.

This paper discusses a qualitative methodological approach for assessing proximal social wide impact for behavioral interventions such as TF-CBT. The paper contributes to the debate on methods for assessing impact beyond the beneficiaries such as those proposed in economics (Local Economy Wide Impact Evaluation) by Taylor (2013). The paper will first describe TF-CBT, propose the proximal social wide impact model (PSWIM) and discuss how to use a qualitative method to evaluate the PSWIM.

Trauma Focused- Cognitive Behavioral Therapy

The clinical work and research of Judith Cohen, Anthony Mannarino, and Esther Deblinger led to the development of TF-CBT (Cohen, Mannarino & Deblinger, 2006). Although TF-CBT has broad application, the focus here will be on children and adolescents who have experienced traumatic events and have post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Children and adolescents with PTSD experience three distinct symptoms namely re-experiencing (intrusive, upsetting thoughts or dreams about the traumatic event, physical or psychological distress upon exposure to reminder of the trauma), avoidance and emotional numbing (avoiding people, places, or situations that remind the child of the traumatic event, emotional detachment or flatness; sense of a foreshortened future) and hyperarousal and mood (increased startle reaction, hypervigilance, disturbed sleep, irritability or angry outburst). These symptoms are also known as cognitive, affective and behavioral in their order of discussion above. These symptoms are visible to everyone and affect not only the victim of the traumatic event but also the family members and the proximal or distal social zone (friends, community members, school etc.) because these

symptoms affect the child's functionality in a number of domains. Therefore, TF-CBT components are designed to address many of these domains which are summarized as CRAFTS (Cohen, Mannarino & Deblinger, 2006) in Table 1 below.



Table 1: TF-CBT Trauma components

Component	Description
Cognitive problems	Maladaptive patterns of thinking about self, others and situations, including distorted or inaccurate thoughts (e.g. self-blame for traumatic events) and unhelpful thoughts (e.g. dwelling on worst possibilities)
Relationship problems	Difficulties getting along with peers, poor problem solving or social skills, hypersensitivity in interpersonal interactions, maladaptive strategies for making friends, impaired interpersonal trust.
Affective problems	Sadness, anxiety, fear, anger, poor ability to tolerate or regulate negative affective states, inability to self soothe.
Family problems	Parenting skills deficits, poor parent-child communication, disturbances in parent child bonding, disruption in family function/relationships due to familial abuse or violence
Traumatic beh-problems	Avoidance of trauma reminders, trauma-related, sexualized, aggressive, or oppositional behaviors, unsafe behavior.
Somatic problems	Sleep difficulties, physiological hyperarousal and hypervigilance towards possible trauma cues, physical tension, somatic symptoms (headaches, stomachaches etc).

As can be seen from Table 1 above, trauma symptoms like avoidance are counterproductive not only to the victim (e.g., no closure) but to the family and the people (e.g. affects social relations with victim) who interact with the child or adolescent. Therefore, TF-CBT is designed to make such victims become healthy, productive and socially responsible members of the community following a traumatic event, but at the same time indirectly empower the proximal zone in which the child dwells especially from the effects of relational and behavior problems. Consequently, behavioral interventions such as TF-CBT are important because they help reduce these symptoms and repair social relationships of the victim with those around them. TF-CBT is a skills and strength based model which the victim and parent (herein caregiver) practice in order to optimize its efficacy. The model is summarized in Table 2 as an acronym PRACTICE. This acronym represent the core TF-CBT components which need to be practiced for the duration of treatment and after the treatment when presented with situations that need such components.



Table 2: TF-CBT model Components

Model Component	Description
Psychoeducation and parenting skills the only one".	Normalize exposure to trauma: "You're not alone/not "You're not crazy". Explain, normalize PTSD symptoms and avoidance: Establish social norms regarding child responsibility for trauma and trauma coping: "It's not your fault and you did the best you could". Describe TF-CBT (components, structure, and homework expectation): "There's hope, we've got a treatment that works". Explain how treatment works (e.g., learn skills to feel better when scared/worried; learn how thoughts drive feelings and behavior; talking about what happened lowers the emotions when remembering or being reminded; putting the trauma into perspective helps put it into the past). Improve the relationship (e.g., enhance closeness, warmth and support) Teach/reinforce use of skills [Support child use of PRAC skills in the home, Apply positive parenting (e.g., praise, selective attention/ignoring, instructions, rewards and consequences), Prepare for conjoint meeting].
Relaxation	Create awareness of capacity to change from state of tense/distressed state to state of relaxation. Teach specific skills for calming/reducing distress in the moment (e.g., at home, school, in the community).
Affective modulation	Increase capacity to identify range of feelings, have a feelings vocabulary, and link to appropriate expression. Teach the Cognitive Triangle: Relationship between Thoughts, Feelings, and Behavior Learn to rate feelings at different intensities (1-10, small/medium/large, thermometer). Normalize conflicting feelings – normalize multiple simultaneous feelings. Identify/learn strategies to improve/calm affect (modulate affect) Identify feelings associated with the traumatic event (when it happened, thinking about it now).
Cognitive coping and processing	Teach (or revisit) the Cognitive Triangle. Help the client learn to identify automatic unhelpful or inaccurate thoughts that the client may not immediately be aware of, but which are causing distress. Get buy-in to the idea that thoughts drive feelings and thoughts can be changed. Generate coping self-statements

Trauma narrative	Client “face up” to trauma experiences (e.g., think and talk about the trauma), especially hotspots or worst moments. Identify unhelpful or inaccurate trauma-related cognitions (“it was my fault”; “I shouldn’t have...”) and altered core views of self (“I’m not a good person”), others (“people cannot be trusted”), or the world (“nothing is safe”). Identify more helpful or more accurate ways to think about traumatic exposure, self, others, family, the world, and the future. Client develops a helpful understanding of what happened that acknowledges the trauma but does not define the child and contains hope and lessons learned.
In vivo mastery of trauma reminders	Separate harmless conditioned fear responses (e.g., trauma reminders or triggers) from real danger. Reduce avoidance that interferes with daily functioning.
Conjoint child-parent sessions	Provide opportunity for child to: “face up” and share narrative with key trusted adult(s) and receive validation, praise, and support. Allow trusted adult to learn about child’s perspective. Promote opportunity for caregiver and child to practice talking about the trauma (questions, concerns, feedback, etc.). Create opportunity (if appropriate) for parent to make amends/acknowledge (e.g., failure to be resource, disbelieving/blaming initial response, discounting, etc.).
Enhancing future safety and development	Create safety plan to help a child (and caregiver) be safer to on-going dangers (e.g., lives with Domestic violence or physical abuser, in violent neighborhood). Teach safety skills for use in risky situations that may arise in the future (e.g., home alone, kids pressuring, dangerous neighborhoods, dating) Develop specific safety plan for self-injury or suicidal thoughts (e.g., promises). In cases of sexual abuse, provide psycho-education regarding normal sexual development to counter the negative experience of abuse.

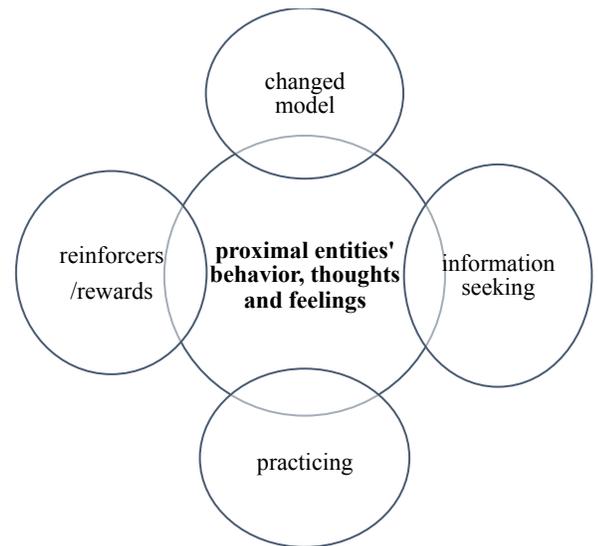
As can be seen from the TF-CBT model Table 2 above, the goal for each component empowers the individual and family members in a number of areas which may have TTE to a community. Our experience is that most sexually abused or traumatized children including their parents have always shown intention to share the skills to friends in their communities, schools and churches. Therefore, impact of the intervention is likely to go beyond the intervention beneficiaries. The problem with seeking to advance a qualitative method to analyze *impact*, is that *impact* is a matter of causation and a non-quantitative approach to design; making it not well suited to the task of establishing causal relations (Mohr, 1999). In this regard, we envisage to explore how impact can go beyond the beneficiary as measured by qualitative methods. Therefore, we have dedicated a section below to describe how qualitative methods can be used to assess impact. In this paper impact is operationalized as any perceivable change that appeals to the observer with prior knowledge of the situation such that the observer is able to articulate while creating mental images of

how the situation has changed from the way it was before the intervention. This impact can be positive or negative. We focus on positive impact. To assess impact, a basis for comparison (baseline or benchmarks) is needed. The nature of proximal social wide impact makes it difficult to conduct baseline because indirect beneficiaries of the intervention may not be known before hand in order to establish a basis for comparison as in quantitative impact assessments. In PSWI, benchmarks are useful basis for comparison through retrospection of how qualitative psychosocial indicator have changed since exposure to the model.

The Proximal Social Wide Impact Model

Once the proximal zone perceives this impact, their inquisition to understand how things happened increases. The proximal social wide impact is best explained by the model we are calling Proximal Social Wide-Impact Model (PSWIM). Figure 1 below illustrates the model.

Figure 1: PSWI Model



The proximal entities’ behavior, thoughts and feelings can be affected by observing and mimicking successful behaviors of victims who have gone through TF-CBT. These victims become models because of the exhibited resilience and disappearance of symptoms. People around the intervention beneficiaries who knew the model may tend to emulate their behaviors consciously and subconsciously. “Why does the girl who was sad, withdrawn and had poor

social skills suddenly exhibit happy and sociable tendencies?” Children who go through behavioral interventions such as TF-CBT develop highly adaptive behavioral and emotional skills that sometimes normal children do not have (Cohen & Mannarino, 2008). Moreover, victims of traumatic experiences such as sexual abuse tend to be advocates for others. Here is what one of the authors’ former clients said after she completed 12 weeks of therapy:

I would like to encourage my fellow girls who have been raped that they should not blame themselves about what happened to them. “They need to be strong, it happened to me and it can happen to any young girl in this world”. So we just have to be careful and I need to tell other girls how to be careful....The teacher I knew and gave respect as my teacher, I did not know that he could do such a thing to me by letting his young brother to rape me. So other girls should be careful and be quick to notice some dangerous signs. 15 year old girl

From our observation as therapists, proximal and distal observers in communities consciously align their own thinking and behavior with those of trauma survivors to learn, to determine what is right, and sometimes just to fit in with a child who has adaptive behavior and emotional skills. In line with this observation, there is evidence from “experience project” (<http://www.experienceproject.com/>) a community social media platform that victims of trauma do share their experiences and how they have built resilience are a source of information to proximal and distal communities. To acquire some of these new adaptive behavior and emotional skills, peers and closer community members seek information that can help them acquire some of the observed behaviors. Moreover, anecdote evidence suggest that most of the children who go through TF-CBT tend to share some skills with friends especially on fun to do components of the TF-CBT model such as relaxation techniques (i.e. controlled breathing, progressive muscle relaxation), improving emotional intelligence using the cognitive triangle etc. Believing in the “why” behind change can therefore inspire people to change their behavior even when they were not targeted by the intervention.

Having acquired certain information to satisfy the observed change, people in the proximal zone start to practice the skills acquired through information sources. For

instance, proximal parents practice parenting skills that successful intervention beneficiaries have used to improve their relationships with their children. Children or parents change behaviors that are maladaptive, risky and practice relaxation skills when faced with tense situations.

Once the proximal zone observer starts to apply some of the indirectly learned skills, sustenance of the new behavior, thinking pattern and emotional management will depend on internal (behaviors that are maintained by consequences of a person) and external (behaviors that are dependent on the surrounding environment and people) reinforcers of such changes. Reinforcers will be the rewards like praise that they receive from other proximal zone members for their new adaptive behavior, improved social and communication skills. External reinforcers would include social skills improvement and performance at school recognized by others that the behavior bearer may associate to the new acquired skills and adaptive behaviors.

Qualitative methods for assessing proximal social wide impact

There is an argument from positivists that unless we look for the causes of outcomes and impacts, we are simply describing a series of coincidences. Thus, demonstrating convincing proof of what has caused change is important in interventions. However, the PSWI model proposes that we should not only look at what happened (simply presenting output and outcomes data), but examine how and why impact outside the intervention group happened. We can only know this by talking to people whose lives have been changed by the trickle-through effect of the intervention. Using non-probability sampling techniques such as snowball were the beneficiaries propose people who have been influenced by their changed lives are identified. The focus of the interview or focus group discussion should cover who modeled their behavior, what information was obtained in order to acquire set of skills needed to practice behavioral change modification and what facilitators sustained their new behaviors. It is important to cognitively challenge the responses of the interviewee in order to increase validity of the reported impact. Particularly, two methods proposed by Tourangeau (1984) are suggested here; retrieval from memory of relevant information and decision process. Retrieval from memory of relevant information involves

recallability of information and recall strategies used by the respondent. Recallability of information involves focusing on “what types of information does the respondent need to recall in order to answer the question?” While recall strategy focuses on questions like “what types of strategies are used to retrieve information? For example, does the respondent tend to count events by recalling each one individually, or does he/she use an estimation strategy? On the other hand, decision processes include motivation to answer questions and assessment of social desirability on the part of the respondent. Motivation focuses on questions like “does the respondent devote sufficient mental effort to answer the question accurately and thoughtfully?” While sensitivity or social desirability focuses on questions like “does the respondent want to tell the truth? Does he/she say something that makes him/her look “better”?”

Evaluators of behavioral intervention who apply cognitive interviewing techniques should keep in mind that they cannot know in an absolute sense what transpires in a respondent’s mind as he or she answers interview questions. Thus, when using cognitive interviews, the goal is to prompt the individual to reveal information that provides clues (Tourangeau, 1984) on how PSWI affected their lives. To achieve this, the evaluator should use two cognitive interview techniques of “thinking aloud” and “Probing”. The term think-aloud is used here to describe a very specific type of activity, in which participants/interviewees are explicitly instructed to “think aloud” as they answer the interview questions. Probing involves asking for other, specific information relevant to the main question asked, or to the specific answer given during the interview.

Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to contribute to the discourse of measuring impact to non-intervention beneficiaries. Using the Proximal Social Wide Impact Model, this paper has demonstrated how proximal social wide impact is transmitted and how qualitative methodologies can assist in assessing impact. Therefore, behavioral intervention evaluators can use the PSWI to assess impact of their interventions beyond the change observed in the targeted beneficiaries by assessing models who were agents of change, type of information the non-beneficiary was obtaining to influence the observed behavior, identify practical situations in which the obtained

information was used and the reinforcers that sustained the observed behavior. Specifically, evaluators should employ the snowball technique to identify the sample to interview using the PSWI model. During interviews it is critical to employ cognitive interview techniques to improve validity of the responses.

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Maternal Aspirations and Expectations of Their Children's Educational Attainment in Japan: Relations to Gender and Mothers' Educational Levels

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Abstract

Gender inequality is prevalent and has a large impact on children's development and educational processes in Japan. As a key element leading to children's gendered aspirations and educational processes, we conducted a study examining the effects of gender and mothers' educational levels on Japanese mothers' aspirations and expectations regarding their children's educational attainment. Participants consisted of 109 mothers with a first grader (age 6 or 7) who attended public school in Osaka, Japan. We analyzed quantitative and qualitative data collected through surveys and interviews for this study. Results revealed significant main effects of gender and mothers' educational levels, as well as a significant interaction between the two factors on mothers' educational aspirations. Gender had a significant effect on mothers' realistic educational expectations, but mothers' educational levels demonstrated a marginal effect. Maternal educational aspirations and expectations were higher for sons than for daughters. Regardless of gender, mothers with college education tended to demonstrate higher educational aspirations than mothers with partial or no college education. We also provided qualitative evidence pertaining to quantitative results found in mothers' aspirations and expectations regarding their children's education.*

Keywords: Parental expectations, parental aspirations, sex, socioeconomic status, gender-role.

Gender inequality is prevalent and has a large impact on children's development and educational processes in Japan. Japan continues to be one of the countries that demonstrates a large gender inequality in employment rate, male-female wage gap, and working conditions for women versus men (OECD, 2016a). Gender inequality has also been salient in children's educational opportunities and attainment. Female high school graduates' university attendance has risen significantly from 23% in 1995 to 48% in 2016, but still is lower than the rate of male students' university attendance (about 56%) in 2016 (Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office, 2017; hereafter called Gender Equality Bureau).

Unlike in many other developed countries, women's attendance at university has never been higher than men's in Japan. Moreover, only 5.9% of female college graduates pursued a graduate degree compared to 14.7% of male college graduates in 2016 (Gender Equality Bureau, 2017).

In addition to occupational and structural barriers, scholars have identified psychological barriers to achievement shared among Japanese female students, such as low educational and occupational aspirations as a reason to explain such a gap (Kimura, 1999; Nakanishi, 1998). However, it is critical to examine family contexts that could shape girls' educational aspirations and trajectories. Previous

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studies have found that parents' aspirations and expectations for their children's education are one of the strongest family-level predictors of children's academic motivations and outcomes in the U.S. (Jeynes, 2007; Seginer, 1983; Yamamoto & Holloway, 2010), but further research is needed to elucidate the nature of this relationship in Japan. Accordingly, we conducted a study focused on both mothers' aspirations and expectations regarding their children's education as key elements leading to their children's gendered aspirations and educational processes in Japan.

Parental Aspirations and Expectations Regarding Their Children's Education

Parents' educational aspirations refer to desires and hopes formed by parents regarding their children's future educational achievement and attainment (Holloway, 2010). While parental aspirations are rather idealistic, parents' educational expectations are usually defined as realistic beliefs that parents form regarding their children's future educational achievement (Seginer, 1983; Yamamoto & Holloway, 2010). Parents' educational expectations tend to be lower than their aspirations, as realistic expectations are constructed based on considerations of various factors such as their children's academic performance and available resources (Seginer, 1983; Yamamoto & Holloway, 2010). Psychological models demonstrate that parents' expectancy beliefs are in general associated with their children's expectations of achievement (Parsons, Adler, & Kaczala, 1982). Parents' educational aspirations and expectations also shape their behaviors related to their children's educational processes; parents with high educational aspirations and expectations tend to be involved in their children's schooling and organize their children's everyday lives and environments to engage their children in various learning activities (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995; Parsons et al., 1982). Parental aspirations and expectations have been found to play a critical role in children's academic success, including their grades, test scores, and college attendance (see Seginer, 1983; Yamamoto & Holloway, 2010).

According to an ecological model of child development, families are nested in larger social and cultural contexts that influence parents' beliefs and interactions with their children (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Thus, parents' educational aspirations and expectations are likely to be susceptible to

cultural influences such as ideologies, values, goals, and strategies that are shared by members of society (LeVine, 1988; Super & Harkness, 1986). In industrialized societies such as Japan where educational success is one of the key factors in future economic attainment, parents may hold high aspirations and expectations regarding their children's educational attainment. Japanese students have consistently demonstrated high academic performance in international examinations (OECD, 2016b; Stevenson & Stigler, 1992). Cross-cultural studies have cited the strong value that Japanese parents place on education, high academic aspirations, and involvement in their children's education as contributing factors to their children's overall educational success (Hess & Holloway, 1984; Stevenson & Stigler, 1992).

However, a previous international study revealed that Japanese parents held the lowest educational aspirations among parents in six surveyed countries, such as France, South Korea, Sweden, Thailand, and the U.S. (National Women's Education Center, 2007). Only 47% of the Japanese parents wanted their children to receive a college education. Moreover, Japan was the only country in which a large gender gap appeared in parents' aspirations for their sons and daughters.

Japanese parents' overall low aspirations for their children's education may be explained by a large gap associated with children's gender in parental aspirations. According to studies conducted over the past two decades, Japanese parents have consistently reported higher aspirations for their sons' academic attainment than for their daughters' (Brinton, 1993; Holloway, 2010). For example, in an international survey conducted in the 1980s, 73% of Japanese parents aspired for college education for sons, but only about 28% did so for their daughters (Brinton, 1993). In other countries, including South Korea, the U.S. and some European countries, gender gaps in educational aspirations were not found. A more recent descriptive report demonstrated that Japanese mothers' aspirations for university education have increased for both sexes (85% for sons and 60% for daughters), but a significant gender gap remains, especially for mothers' realistic expectations for their children's attendance at university (82% for sons and 46% for daughters) (Yamamoto & Watanabe, 2016). Because

these studies have focused on descriptive reports, it is not clear whether the effects of gender on both parents' aspirations and expectations for their children's education continue to be significant. Furthermore, these studies have not examined whether parents' socioeconomic status (SES), such as maternal educational levels, moderates the relation between gender and parents' aspirations and expectations for their children's educational attainment.

Gender and Socioeconomic Status in Japan

Ecological theories elucidate the influence of social and economic forces on micro-level factors such as parenting processes (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Yoshikawa, Way, & Chen, 2012). Japan has experienced economic recessions since the 1990s after the burst of the economic bubble. Prolonged recessions over the last few decades may have impacted Japanese parents' constructions of aspirations and expectations for their children's education, especially in relation to their SES. Despite strong emphasis placed on egalitarianism in the Japanese educational system, SES has been strongly and positively associated with parents' aspirations for their children's education (Okano & Tsuchiya, 1999). While there are various ways to measure SES, research in the U.S. demonstrates that maternal education is a more stable and powerful predictor of parenting and young children's outcomes than parents' occupations or income (Bornstein, Hahn, Suwalsky, & Haynes, 2002). In Japan where women are still expected to take the primary and often sole responsibility in raising their young children, maternal education could be one of the most influential SES-related factors shaping young children's developmental and educational processes (Holloway, 2010; Taga, 2017; Yamamoto, 2015). Kikkawa (2009) argues that education has become a major factor determining SES such as people's status and lifestyles in Japan, as college-educated and non-college educated people have increasingly demonstrated distinctive beliefs and values.

A qualitative study conducted with 16 Japanese mothers from 2000 to 2002 illustrated complex pictures of mothers' educational beliefs related to children's educational and socialization processes depending on children's gender and family SES; college-educated middle-class mothers expected their daughters and sons to attend college, whereas working-class mothers without college education believed that college

education was necessary for their sons but not for their daughters (Yamamoto, 2016). However, the mothers, regardless of their SES, did not hold occupational aspirations for their daughters, while most did for their sons. As Eccles (1986) provided a model to explain a gender gap in women's achievement in the U.S. in the 1980s, scholars demonstrated that college attendance was not considered to be a critical choice for women's occupational success in Japan; rather, for marriage and child-rearing (Brinton, 1993; Yamamoto, 2016). Higher-SES Japanese mothers viewed college education as a way of enriching women's lives and being a good mother, and lower-SES mothers viewed college education as not necessary for women, whose responsibility is to raise their children (Brinton, 1993; Yamamoto, 2016).

To our knowledge, there has not been quantitative research that examined the impact of gender and SES on both mothers' aspirations and expectations for their children's education in Japan. Thus, there remains a gap in our knowledge of the intersection between gender, SES, and parents' aspirations and expectations for their children's education. Social expectations surrounding women have also changed in Japan. Increasing numbers of women have stayed single over the last few decades (Tokuhiko, 2013). Japanese Prime Minister Abe's "womenomics" policy launched in 2013 has attempted to increase women's participation in the labor market (Chanlett-Avery & Nelson, 2014). Changing social expectations for women and increasing needs for women's contribution to the labor market may have impacted current mothers' aspirations and expectations related to their daughters' educational paths.

In the current study, we used a mixed-method approach to examine the effects of gender and SES on current Japanese mothers' aspirations and expectations after their children's transition to formal schooling. Because mothers have the primary responsibility for taking care of children in Japan (Holloway, 2010; Taga, 2017), we focused on mothers in this study. We also used mothers' educational levels as a measure of SES because mothers' education was found to be the strongest predictor of parenting beliefs and behaviors among various SES-related variables (Bornstein et al., 2002; Honda, 2008; Kikkawa, 2009). In summary, our study addresses the following research questions: Do children's gender and mothers' educational levels affect maternal aspirations and

expectations for their children's educational attainment? Are there interactions between gender and mothers' educational levels in mothers' aspirations and expectations for their children's education? We also aimed to provide in-depth qualitative evidence pertaining to quantitative results found in mothers' aspirations and expectations regarding their children's education.

Method

Participants

Data were derived from an ongoing longitudinal study that initially focused on first graders and their parents in Japan. The original sample contained 109 Japanese mothers with a first-grader child who was 6 or 7 years old. All of the children were recruited from public schools in Osaka Prefecture located in the Keihanshin Metropolitan Area, the second largest metropolitan area in Japan. About half of the first graders were male (50.5%) and half were female (49.5%). Mothers' age varied from 25 to 50 with an average age of 38 ($SD = 4.24$). Mothers' education levels varied from junior high school diploma to master's degree (see Table 1).

Table 1

Demographic Data of the Sample (N = 109)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Mother's age	37.95	4.24
Mother education ^a	5.79	1.26
Mother work hours per week	19.96	10.14
Number of siblings	1.17	.77
Maternal educational aspirations (year)	15.19	1.45
Maternal educational expectations (year)	15.03	1.46

Note. ^a1 = less than 9th grade, 2 = middle school (9th grade), 3 = high school dropout, 4 = high school diploma, 5 = vocational school, 6 = junior college (associate degree), 7 = four-year university (B.A., B.S.), 8 = master's degree

Thirty five percent of the women did not receive any college education, and 30% received partial college education with the majority of them having received a degree from junior college. Thirty seven percent of the women

graduated from a four-year university, including two women who had a graduate degree. The average number of siblings was 1.17 ($SD = .77$). Fifty-eight children were the firstborn in the family, and 54 children were girls. At that time, 46% of the mothers were working for pay, with the majority of them employed part-time. The average work hours of the working mothers was about 20 hours per week ($SD = 10.14$). Ninety-eight percent of the mothers were married. Among married women, women's educational levels were significantly correlated with their husband's educational levels, $r(106) = .58, p < .01$.

Procedures and Measures

In 2013 and 2014, individual interviews were conducted with 109 first-graders and their mothers. While their children were interviewed, mothers completed a survey that included questions about their beliefs about and attitudes toward education in addition to demographic information.

Maternal educational aspirations. Mothers indicated how far they want their first-grade child to go in terms of education, from 1 = less than 9th grade to 8 = completion of a graduate school. After computing years required for each aspired educational level, we created a variable, maternal aspirations, that ranged from 12 = complete high school to 18 = complete graduate school.

Maternal educational expectations. Mothers indicated how far they think their first-grade child would go in terms of education, from 1 = less than 9th grade to 8 = completion of graduate school. After computing years required for each expected education level, we created a variable, *maternal expectations*, that ranged from 12 = complete high school to 18 = complete graduate school.

Demographic variables. We divided the mothers into three educational groups: 1 = women without any college education, 2 = women with two-year college education, and 3 = women with four-year college education. We decided to create a group of junior college graduates because more women attended junior college than four-year university until 1995 (Gender Equality Bureau, 2017). Moreover, traditionally junior college was founded to be a "female track" which virtually no men attended (Brinton, 1993). Thus, women who chose to attend junior college may hold more gendered beliefs related to education than women with other educational backgrounds.

Mothers' work status is likely to be associated with their ideas about gender. Further, women with fewer numbers of children may hold higher expectations of their children's education as they are able to allocate more time and resources (Downey, 1995). We estimated possible influence of these demographic variables on maternal aspirations and expectations in this study. We obtained information concerning *mother's work status* (coded 0 = not employed; 1 = employed part or full time) and *number of siblings*. We ran correlations between these variables and dependent variables to determine if there was a covariate that needed to be entered in our analyses.

Qualitative Data. To provide in-depth qualitative evidence pertaining to mothers' expectations regarding their children's education, we used in-depth interviews with a subsample of 16 women conducted over a four-year period. Among the subsample mothers, seven mothers graduated from a four-year university. Seven graduated from a two-year college, vocational training school, or dropped out of college, and two did not have any education after high school. The number of children varied from one to four. Ten mothers had children of both sexes and three mothers had only girl(s). The first author conducted all in-depth interviews for these mothers. Interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed verbatim. For the purpose of the current study, we employed one type of mixed method analysis identified as "complementarity" in which qualitative data is used to "elaborate, enhance, and illustrate the results from" the statistical results obtained from the full sample (Green, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989, p. 266). All mothers in this study are referred to with pseudonyms.

Results

Children's gender is likely to contribute to the degrees of mothers' educational aspirations and expectations, but such effects may differ across SES groups. To examine if there is an interaction between gender and mothers' educational levels, we conducted a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for maternal aspirations and maternal expectations separately. As stated before, we ran correlations with mothers' work status or the number of siblings to identify covariates that needed to be controlled for in our subsequent analyses. These two variables were not correlated

with mothers' educational aspirations or expectations. Therefore, we ran two-way ANOVAs without any covariates.

Maternal aspirations for their children's education. The mean score of aspired years of education was 15.19 ($SD = 1.45$). We found main effects of gender and mothers' educational levels in mothers' educational aspirations of their children. Mothers tended to hold higher educational aspirations for boys than for girls, $F(1, 102) = 6.73, p = .01, \eta^2 = .06, Ms = 15.50$ and 14.84 for boys and girls, respectively. Furthermore, mothers' educational levels affected their aspirations of their children's education, $F(2, 102) = 7.22, p < .01, \eta^2 = .12, Ms = 14.66, 15.06,$ and 15.80 for no college education, 2-year college education, and university education, respectively (see Table 2). A post-hoc Tukey test revealed that college-educated mothers held significantly higher educational aspirations than mothers with junior college education or mothers without any college education at $p < .05$. There was no significant difference between mothers with junior college education and mothers without college education.

Table 2

Mean Frequencies and Standard Deviations (in Parentheses) for Two-Way Analysis of Variance for Maternal Educational Aspirations and Maternal Educational Expectations

Variable	Girl	Boy	$F(1, 102)$	η^2
Maternal educational aspirations	14.84 (.18)	15.50 (.18)	6.73*	.06
Maternal educational expectations	14.57 (.19)	15.50 (.19)	11.98**	.11

Variable	No College	Jr. College	College	$F(2, 101)$	η^2
Maternal educational aspirations	14.66 (.22)	15.06 (.24)	15.80 (.21)	7.22**	.12
Maternal educational expectations	14.65 (.23)	15.06 (.25)	15.38 (.22)	2.67	.05

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

We also found a statistically significant interaction between gender and mothers' educational levels on mothers' educational aspirations of their children, $F(2, 102) = 3.46, p = .035, \eta^2 = .06$. College-educated mothers and mothers without any college education did not demonstrate significantly different aspirations for their children's education as a function of their children's gender. Mothers who graduated from junior college tended to hold significantly higher aspirations for boys than for girls, $t(29) = 3.71, p < .01$.

Maternal expectations for their children's education. The mean score of expected years of education was 15.03 ($SD = 1.46$). We found a main effect of gender on mothers' educational expectations for their children. Mothers tended to hold higher educational expectations for boys than for girls, $F(1, 102) = 11.98, p < .01, \eta^2 = .11, Ms = 15.50$ and 14.57 for boys and girls, respectively. The effect of mother's educational level on maternal expectations was marginal, $F(2, 102) = 2.67, p = .07, \eta^2 = .05, Ms = 14.65, 15.06,$ and 15.38 for no college education, 2-year college education, and university education, respectively (Table 2). A post-hoc Tukey test revealed that mothers with university education held higher educational expectations than mothers without college education, but the effect was marginal, $p = .08$. There was no significant difference between other dyads. The interaction between gender and mothers' educational levels was not significant. Across all educational levels, mothers held higher educational expectations for their sons than for their daughters.

Qualitative Illuminations

The results of quantitative analyses demonstrated that mothers generally held higher aspirations and expectations for their sons' education than their daughters'. Analysis of in-depth interviews supported this finding. In interviews, many mothers expressed different educational goals for their sons and daughters. For example, Rika (pseudonym), who held a bachelor's degree and had two sons, stated, "Because he is a boy, I want him to go to a graduate school. I want him to pursue science-oriented subjects (*rikei*).” When asked about her aspirations if she had a daughter, she stated that she would not aspire to a graduate degree for girls. She wanted her son to find a job he would love to pursue. But she noted that she would want a girl to find a hobby that would enrich

her life after marriage. She believed that pursuing a professional career may hinder girls' marriage opportunities because many of her professional female friends are unmarried. Miki, a partially college-educated mother of one daughter, also described different educational aspirations for girls and boys. Even though she aspired to a vocational education or possibly college education for her daughter, she stated, "The story would be completely different for boys because they have to be a breadwinner after they marry. If she were a boy, I wouldn't be as relaxed as I am now. I would probably send my child to *juku* [extracurricular academic lessons].”

In our statistical analysis, the gender gap in mother's educational aspirations was greatest among mothers with junior college education. In interviews, Hiroko, a mother with an associate degree, expressed her aspiration for college education for her son, but not for her daughter. While Hiroko stated different levels of academic competence between her son and daughter as one reason explaining her different aspirations, she also described distinctive roles for girls and boys. Hiroko stated, "Because she is a girl, when I think about her future such as marrying, quitting a job, then giving birth to children, and going back to work, having a license or certificate would be good.” Hiroko recognized limited employment opportunities facing women, especially women with children in Japan. Based on her work experiences, she also became aware of the benefits of receiving vocational training, especially for girls. While Hiroko, who received an associate degree, earned 800-900 yen (\$8-9) per hour from her part-time job as a housekeeper at a hotel, she mentioned that her friend who acquired a nursing credential without attending any college earned 2,000 yen (about \$20) per hour as a part-time worker. She stated:

My husband and I say that because she is a girl we don't need to push her to go to college. If she wants to work after graduating from high school, that's fine. If she wants to go to a vocational school, that's fine. It would depend on her.....[About my son,] because he is a boy, and when I think about current Japan, there are more things to consider [for men]. If men didn't get a decent job, it doesn't lead to their future such as marriage. There are many young men like that.

Regardless of their educational experiences, many mothers stated that getting a license or vocational skill would open up their daughters' job opportunities. However, in statistical analyses, maternal educational levels had a main effect on mothers' aspirations and expectations. Examinations of interviews supported such results. College-educated mothers tended to aspire to university education for both sons and daughters, but mothers who did not pursue education after high school or middle school did not express strong expectations regarding their children attending university. Instead, they tended to aspire to vocational training for both sons and daughters. For example, Keiko, a mother of two sons and two daughters who did not receive any college education, talked about different responsibilities for men and women as follows:

Because he is a boy and because I am in a situation in which I have to continue to work [because my husband's income is low], I want my son to have a vocational skill (*teni shoku*) or a good job so that he can take care of his family (his wife and children). I want him to have a stable job.

Nevertheless, Keiko stated that she does not expect her children, both boys and girls, to attend college if they did not know what to study:

It's good to go to college if he has a goal. But I tell him that we won't let him go to college if he doesn't have a goal. I tell that to everyone including my daughters....If he says he wants to pursue vocational education (*senmon gakkou*) after high school, I think that's fine. I am not particular about educational credentials (*gakureki*). I want him to find what he wants to do.

Discussion

This study sought to investigate how Japanese mothers' aspirations and expectations regarding their children's education depend on their children's gender and on the mothers' educational levels. Mothers' aspirations for their children's education significantly differed depending on the child's gender and mothers' educational levels. These patterns are consistent with qualitative findings demonstrated over the last few decades (Holloway, 2010; Yamamoto, 2015; Yamamoto, 2016). Quantitative findings from the present study further demonstrate a statistically significant impact of gender and SES on both mothers' aspirations and

expectations for their children's education. Despite increasing numbers of women who pursue higher education, a significant gender gap in mothers' aspirations and expectations for their children's education continues to exist. Because parental beliefs related to education tend to lead to their actions and involvement in their children's education, such different aspirations and expectations at an early stage suggest distinctive academic trajectories for boys and girls in Japan.

Mothers with four-year college education tended to hold higher degrees of aspirations for their children's education than mothers without a college education. As demonstrated in a previous study, mothers may perceive the meaning of education differently depending on their educational experiences and socioeconomic status (Yamamoto, 2015). For college-educated mothers, getting a bachelor's degree is a norm regardless of children's gender. Mothers without college education may perceive that college education is optional for girls. Our results suggest that maternal educational aspirations are likely to be reproduced through their own educational experiences. Unlike mothers' educational aspirations, no significant difference appeared in mothers' realistic expectations between mothers with four-year college education and mothers with junior college education. A statistical difference in maternal expectations between college-educated mothers and mothers without any college education was marginal. It is possible that college-educated mothers lower their realistic expectations of their daughter's education by considering available resources and traditional gender roles (see Table 2).

In this study, mothers with four-year college education and mothers without any college education did not hold significantly different educational aspirations for their sons and daughters. Only mothers with partial or two-year college education did. It is possible that women who themselves pursued education at two-year colleges, most of which were historically founded specifically to educate women, tend to hold more gendered beliefs. Even though women's enrollment in junior college has decreased over the last 20 years (Gender Equality Bureau, 2017), these women may still believe that university education is more critical for boys than for girls. Insights from qualitative analyses also suggest that these women may have downplayed the role of college

education in women's employment and instead may have aspired for vocational training for their daughters. Qualitative findings suggest that mothers are aware of the benefits of receiving vocational training, especially for girls. These narratives suggest that current mothers believe that their daughters would continue to work even after marrying and giving birth to children, unlike mothers from roughly 15 years ago (Yamamoto, 2016). Changing social expectations related to women's employment may have affected mothers' expectations of their daughters' future work status. The mothers' statements also reflect that they are aware of barriers to women's employment, especially limited employment opportunities for women with children in Japan. As a result, many mothers believed that vocational training, rather than a college degree, would bring more practical benefits for their daughters' future employment.

This study has a number of limitations that should be noted. Because the sample size of this study was not large and participants were recruited from one prefecture, an analysis of a larger and more representative data set is necessary. In the present study, we did not examine goals and expectations that mothers held for their sons and daughters regarding their development, skills, or characteristics. More nuanced and complex examinations of maternal expectations and aspirations are needed to understand how other elements, such as beliefs related to developmental goals, influence mothers' formation of expectations regarding their children's education. Lastly, in this study we did not examine fathers' aspirations or expectations regarding their children's education. Because of demanding work schedules and different expectations concerning gender roles in Japan, men have continued to spend minimal time with their children on a daily basis (Cabinet Office, Government of Japan, 2014; Taga, 2017). Future studies that examine fathers' aspirations and expectations for their children's education would provide a more complete picture of parental aspirations and expectations of their children's education.

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Mood and Contextual Effects on Facial Recognition: Cultural Equivalence or Cultural Advantage?

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study of Chinese and American young adults was to test the rival models of cultural equivalence and cultural advantage by studying the effect of mood state and context on recognition of emotions portrayed by in-group and out-group members. Participants were Chinese ($N = 90$) and U.S. ($N = 65$) college students randomly assigned to one of three priming conditions – short video clips designed to make them feel happy, neutral, or sad. After this mood priming, participants were asked to judge the emotion of the central target figures in each of six drawings. All central figures showed the same neutral emotion but each one was surrounded by other figures displaying either the same (neutral) or a different emotion (happy or sad). The results indicated that 1) Video clips could successfully prime both U.S. and Chinese participants' mood to happy, sad, and neutral. 2) Consistent with the cultural equivalence model, the frequency with which participants attributed their own mood to in-group members was not significantly different from the frequency with which they attributed their mood to out-group members nor were there in-group biases in attributing context emotions to target figures embedded in both the happy and the sad contexts for Chinese participants and in the sad context for U.S. participants. 3) Consistent with the cultural advantage model, among U.S. participants in the neutral mood condition, the proportion attributing a happy context emotion to a neutral target was higher for an in-group than for an out-group target.*

Keywords: Mood priming, facial recognition, context, cultural advantage, cultural equivalence.

Perceiving, interpreting, and responding accurately to emotion signals helps individuals predict the behavior of others (Soto & Levenson, 2009). However, several studies have indicated that perceptions of others' emotions can be biased by mood (e.g., Hristova & Grinberg, 2015; Jackson & Arlegui-Prieto, 2016; Pandolfi, Sacripante, & Cardini, 2016; Schmid & Mask, 2010; Yi, Murry, & Gentzler, 2016), cultural background (Masuda et al., 2008; Soto et al., 2009; Stanley, Zhang, & Isaacowitz, 2013), the in-group or out-group membership of the target (e.g., Soto et al., 2009), and

the context in which facial expressions are being judged (e.g., Fazio, 2001; Hess, Blaison, & Kafetsios, 2016; Hietanen, Klemettilä, Kettunen, & Korpela, 2007; Ito, Masuda, & Hioki, 2012; Masuda et al., 2008; Ngo & Isaacowitz, 2015; Righart & de Gelder, 2008; Stanley et al., 2013). However, to our knowledge, no previous study has examined emotion recognition in both U.S. and Chinese samples in relation to participant mood, context, and in-group versus out-group stimuli. In addition, no study has evaluated the extent to which two competing models of

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emotion recognition – *the cultural equivalence model* and the *cultural advantage model* – receive support in those two very different cultures. This study aims to fill that gap.

Cultural Equivalence Model and Cultural Advantage Model

There has been extensive debate concerning whether there is an in-group advantage in emotion recognition whereby facial expressions of emotion are recognized more accurately when both perceiver and expresser are from the same cultural group. The *cultural equivalence* model predicts that everyone should be equally accurate in recognizing the emotions of others regardless of whether those others are from an in group or an out group, because the mechanisms underlying emotional expression and detection are deeply rooted in evolution (e.g., Darwin, Ekman, & Prodger, 1998). Considerable evidence for this model was provided in several early emotion recognition studies (e.g., Ekman & Friesen, 1971; Ekman, Friesen, & Ellsworth, 1982). For instance, Ekman (1972) and others (e.g., Matsumoto, 1993) found that people with different cultural backgrounds (e.g., U.S. versus Japanese) were equally able to identify correctly the facial emotions portrayed in photographs.

However, there is an increasing body of literature supporting the *cultural advantage model*, which posits a cultural advantage in recognizing emotion (Anderson & Keltner, 2002; Gendron, Roberson, van der Vyver, & Barrett, 2014; Prado, Mellor, Byrne, Wilson, Xu, & Liu, 2014; Soto et al., 2009); specifically, the *cultural advantage model* predicts that people are better able to recognize emotions of others when they are in the same race group. According to this model, the associations between facial expressions and emotion labels may vary across cultures (Russell, 1994). Specifically, individuals may be more accurate in understanding facial emotional expressions of cultural in-group members because of their greater familiarity with them (Elfenbein & Ambady, 2002b). For example, O’Toole, Peterson, and Deffenbacher (1996) found that Caucasian and Japanese participants processed the visual traits of same-race faces more precisely than other-race faces. Wolfgang and Cohen (1988) found that Anglo Canadians were better able to judge the facial expressions of Anglo than of non-Anglo Canadians.

Context and Mood Influences on Emotion Recognition

Research shows that context – that is, features of the environment or the emotional setting in which target facial expressions are embedded – can lead to biases in judgments. For example, Righart, and De Gelder (2008b) found that when asked to categorize facial expressions (disgust, fear, and happiness), European participants responded more slowly in identifying the emotions being portrayed when the faces were shown against backgrounds associated with incongruent emotions (e.g., an angry face in the context of beautiful flowers). Finnish participants categorized happy faces faster as the proportion of background landscape images activating a positive mindset increased. Aviezer, Bentin, Dudarev and Hassin (2011) found that participants from Israel, when asked to categorize contextualized facial expressions, were unable to disregard the context in which the faces were embedded (e.g., a surrounding set of faces with discrepant expressions) even though they were instructed to avoid using context or led to believe that the context was irrelevant.

Cross-cultural studies have provided some evidence that context has a stronger influence on the visual processing of people from Asian cultures than from Western cultures. For instance, Masuda et al. (2008) found that, compared to their North American counterparts, Japanese participants were more context-dependent when perceiving a target’s emotion – that is, more likely to attribute to a target figure emotions congruent with the context in which they were presented. Stanley, Zhang, and Isaacowitz (2013) confirmed Masuda’s findings that Chinese participants were more context-dependent when identifying emotions.

Studies have also shown that mood can exert a significant influence on emotion recognition ability in both Western (e.g., Boubuys, Bloem, & Groothuis, 1995; Schmid et al, 2010; Schmid et al., 2011) and Eastern samples (e.g., Lee, Ng, Tang, & Chan, 2008). Most of those studies found that when asked to recognize facial emotions, people showed a negative bias following induction of sad moods and a positive bias following induction of happy moods. For example, Schmid et al. (2010) found that U.S. participants primed with happy moods did better at recognizing happy faces than recognizing sad faces and participants primed with

sad moods did better at recognizing sad faces than happy faces. Lee et al. (2008) found that when Chinese participants were primed with a sad mood, they tended to classify ambiguous targets as belonging to negative emotional categories. These findings are consistent with *mood-congruity theory* (Bower, 1981; Schwarz, 1990), which posits that people in negative moods are more likely to attribute negative moods to others' facial expressions, whereas positive moods are associated with more positive mood attributions regarding others' facial expressions.

Although a number of studies have explored the role of mood and background context on emotion recognition, none of the studies primed moods in both Western and Eastern samples and then examined potential effects on recognition of emotions of target figures in a social context consisting of representations of in-group and out-group members. To address this gap, the current study was designed to investigate the extent to which the *cultural equivalence* as compared to the *cultural advantage model* found support in young adults from China and the United States (U.S.) of America, by examining whether the effects of context and mood were the same for participants judging emotions of an in-group (same race) versus an out-group member (different race).

In this cultural study, several hypotheses were examined in both a U.S. and a Chinese sample:

Hypothesis 1 – Consistent with previous studies and our own pilot data (as mentioned in the Methods section) showing that Chinese young adults showed comparable understanding of and emotional responses to the selected film stimuli, we expected that in both U.S. and Chinese young adults, video clips could be used to successfully prime participants' mood. Specifically, the following hypothesis was tested: there will be a significant effect of mood condition (happy, sad, and neutral mood condition) such that post-manipulation, participants in the positive mood condition will score significantly higher on positive affect than those in the sad and neutral conditions, and that participants in the sad mood condition will score significantly higher on negative affect than those in the happy and neutral conditions.

Next, two rival sets of hypotheses were tested, based on the competing theories under consideration; this was done to

determine whether there was more support for one model and set of hypotheses than for the other.

Hypothesis 2a – *cultural advantage model* hypotheses: According to the *cultural advantage model*, mood effects on emotion recognition would be higher when the target figures were members of an in-group rather than an out-group. Specifically, for participants of both countries, the frequency of attributing their own mood onto target figures would be higher for in-group than for out-group target figures. Similarly, the *cultural advantage model* would predict that for participants in both cultures, the frequency of attributing the emotion portrayed in a social context to a neutral figure embedded in that context would be greater for in-group than for out-group target figures.

Hypothesis 2b – *cultural equivalence model* hypotheses: By contrast, the *cultural equivalence model* would predict that mood and context effects on emotion recognition would not be different when the target figures were members of an in-group versus an out-group. Specifically, it would be expected that for participants from both countries, the frequency of projecting their own mood or context emotion onto in-group target figures would not differ from the frequency of projecting their own mood or contextual emotion onto out-group target figures.

Method

Participants

Participants were college students recruited through advertisements from Boston University and East China Normal University in Shanghai. A total of 155 students participated in this study (90 Chinese and 65 U.S. students). Their mean age was 20.7 ($SD = 2.73$). Among the 65 U.S. students (47 females, 17 males; M age = 18.62, $SD = 1.03$), 51 identified themselves as Caucasian and 14 identified themselves as Asian American. All Chinese students were born and raised in China (67 females, 23 males; M age = 22.15, $SD = 2.62$).

Procedure

Each participant was randomly assigned to one of three experimental conditions--happy, neutral, or sad--and their mood was primed by showing them short movie scenes individually in a quiet room. Participants rated their mood on the International Positive and Negative Affect Schedule Short Form (I-PANAS-SF) (Thompson, 2007) at two time points:

1) Before the mood priming task, and 2) Immediately after the mood priming task. After mood priming, participants were asked to engage in the emotion recognition task. Two trained research assistants conducted this experiment in China by following the same identical protocol and experimental procedure as in the United States.

Materials

Mood priming. In both China and the U.S., participants viewed a clip from the movie “When Harry met Sally” (2.88 minutes) to prime a happy mood, and a clip from the movie “The Champ” (2.75 minutes) to prime a sad mood. Participants assigned to the neutral condition watched a screensaver animation (4 minutes). All three movie clips have been used in previous Western studies (e.g., Knott, Threadgold & Howe, 2014; Schmid et al., 2010; Schmid et al., 2011), recommended by Rottenberg, Ray, and Gross (2007), and were shown to effectively prime mood states. The clips have not previously been used to prime mood states in Chinese samples.

During the emotion recognition task, participants listened to emotionally toned music that was congruent with their mood condition. “Mazurka” was played for the positive mood condition, “Adagio for Strings” for the negative mood condition, and “Neptune” for the neutral mood condition (Gerrards-Hesse, Spies & Hesse 1994; Schmid et al., 2010).

Pilot testing. Because the happy and sad movie clips were both English movie clips (the neutral movie clip contained animation with no dialogue), we conducted a pilot study before undertaking the experiment to test whether Chinese participants had the same comprehension of the movie clips to be used in the experiment as did the U.S. participants. Five undergraduate Chinese international students and 8 U.S. undergraduate students were recruited from Boston University. They were asked to rate, on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = very slightly or not at all to 5 = very much, the extent to which they were experiencing particular affects (positive or negative) after watching the movie clips. Independent-sample t-tests revealed no statistically significant nationality differences in reported affect ratings of the sad movie clip and happy movie clip.

In regard to the pilot participants’ descriptions of the films, two research assistants rated each description on a 5-point scale independently (1 = does not understand the movie

clip at all, 5 = completely understands the movie clip). The inter-rater reliability (Cronbach’s α) for ratings of the participants’ descriptions was .84 for the happy movie clip and .83 for the sad movie clip. Again, t-test analyses indicated that Chinese participants did not differ from U.S. participants in the accuracy of their understanding of the movie clips.

The international positive and negative affect schedule short form (I-PANAS-SF). Participants rated their moods by filling out the I-PANAS-SF before and after the mood priming. The I-PANAS-SF is a well-validated and cross-culturally reliable 10-item scale that assesses participants’ current feelings or basic predispositions (Thompson, 2007; Karim, Weisz, & Rehman, 2011). Five items measure positive affect and the other five items measure negative affect. Each item was rated on a 5-point scale (1 = *very slightly or not at all*, 5 = *very much*). In the current sample, the measure demonstrated good reliabilities (Cronbach’s α) within both the positive affect items ($\alpha = .84$) and negative affect items ($\alpha = .80$).

After the mood priming, participants ran a PsyScope program on a Mac desktop computer for the emotion-recognition task. They were presented with cartoon pictures (see Appendix A), one by one on the computer screen. Masuda et al. (2008) created these six cartoon pictures and administered them to both Western and Japanese participants. Each picture depicted a person displaying a neutral emotion surrounded by four people (two boys and two girls) expressing the same neutral expression or a different emotion (happy or sad) from the target figure. In three pictures the target was a White boy and in three it was an Asian boy. In all six pictures, the target had a neutral face. For the three cartoon pictures with the White boy as target, one had surrounding background figures showing happy faces; one had background figures showing sad faces; and one had background figures showing neutral faces. The same pattern occurred in the three pictures with Asian boys as targets. Participants were asked to “type in what kind of expression the person in the middle of the picture is showing.” They were not offered specific emotion words from which to choose. Participants were also told that “there are no right or wrong answers for this task; we just want to know how various people perceive emotion differently.” Each picture

was displayed for 3 seconds and then disappeared.

Participants' written responses were coded by two trained coders who were bilingual (Chinese-English) native Chinese graduate students. Each response was coded based on Dunn, Bretherton, and Munn's (1987) classification of feeling-states and was categorized into one of four types: positive, neutral, negative, or unclear emotions. Table 1 presents the coding categories and examples of participants' written responses falling into each category. Inter-rater reliability was calculated using the Kappa statistic to assess consistency between two coders, who coded a random sample of 50% participants. Cohen's Kappa was .97 ($p < .001$), 95% CI (.71, .81), showing substantial inter-rater reliability (Landis & Koch, 1977). After reaching good inter-rater reliability, two coders coded the rest of the data separately.

Table 1
Coding Categories of Participant's Written Responses

Emotion Type	English Example	Chinese Example
Positive	Pleased, happy, joyful, friendly, content	喜悦, 高兴, 快乐, 振奋, 兴奋, 开心
Negative	Upset, irritated, angry, nervous, sad, dissatisfied, lonely, impatient	悲哀, 难过, 不开心, 恐惧, 郁闷, 愤怒
Neutral	Calm, peaceful, neutral	平静, 淡定, 中性, 镇定
Unclear		侥幸

Hypothesis 1: mood manipulation results. To test Hypothesis 1 concerning changes in mood in the U.S. and Chinese samples, based on mood-related film clips, a series of analyses of variance were conducted separately by nationality.

U.S. participants. Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations of both American and Chinese participants' self-reported negative and positive affect before and after being primed into one of the three mood conditions, based on their random assignment. Two analyses were conducted, using scores on the I-PANAS-SF. First was a one-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) with mood condition as the independent variable and positive affect as the outcome variable, controlling for the affects participants reported before the mood priming; this analysis was done to

determine whether mood changed in the direction of the mood we attempted to induce. The results showed that in the U.S. sample, there was a significant effect of mood condition on positive affect change after controlling for affects before priming, $F(2, 62) = 8.48, p < .01$. The post hoc test (LSD) showed that participants in the happy condition reported significantly higher positive affect than participants in both the neutral condition, $p = .03$, and the sad condition, $p < .01$.

Second, the same statistical analysis was run to examine U.S. participants' level of negative affect after priming, controlling for pre-priming affect scores. This one-way ANCOVA revealed significant effects of mood condition on self-reported negative affect level, controlling for affects before priming, $F(2, 62) = 26.65, p < .01$. The post hoc test (LSD) showed that participants in the sad condition reported significantly higher negative affect than participants in the neutral, $p < .01$, and happy conditions, $p < .01$.

We also did some exploratory analyses to examine the extent to which the mood manipulation results were similar for females and males in the two samples. In the U.S. sample, the one-way ANCOVA results showed that, for females, there were significant effects of mood condition on both positive $F(2, 46) = 6.71, p < .01$, and negative affect, $F(2, 46) = 19.38, p < .01$, after controlling for affect scores before mood priming. There was also a significant effect of mood condition on U.S. males' negative affect, $F(2, 15) = 5.28, p = .03$. All the mood changes were in the direction of the induced mood.

Chinese participants. Significant mood changes following exposure to film clips were also found in the Chinese sample. For positive affect, the results indicated a significant effect of mood condition on Chinese participants' self-reported positive affect level, controlling for the affect scores before mood priming, $F(2, 89) = 31.91, p < .01$. The post hoc tests (LSD) showed that participants in the happy condition reported significantly higher positive affect than participants in the neutral, $p = .04$, and sad conditions, $p < .01$, and participants in the sad condition reported significantly lower positive affect than participants in the neutral condition, $p < .01$.

Regarding negative affect, the one-way ANCOVA indicated that there were also significant effects of mood condition on Chinese participants' negative affect level,

controlling for the affects before mood priming, $F(2, 89) = 14.29$, $p < .01$. The post hoc tests (LSD) showed that participants in the sad condition reported significantly higher negative affect than participants in the neutral, $p < .01$, and happy conditions, $p < .01$. The ANCOVA analysis by gender indicated a significant effect of mood condition on positive affect in both females, $F(2, 66) = 20.11$, $p < .01$ and males, $F(2, 22) = 14.45$, $p < .01$, after controlling for affect scores before mood priming. There was also a significant effect of mood condition on females' negative affect, $F(2, 66) = 13.09$, $p < .01$. All mood changes were in the direction of the mood induced.

In general, the results supported our first hypothesis regarding mood condition effects on both U.S. and Chinese participants' affect, using the same set of primes. That is, in general, both U.S. and Chinese participants assigned to the happy priming condition reported more positive affect and less negative affect after priming, and both U.S. and Chinese participants assigned to the sad priming condition reported more negative affect and less positive affect after priming. The pilot analysis of gender also suggested that the results applied to both males and females of both countries.

Table 2

Repeated Measures ANOVA Results Comparing Self-Report I-PANAS-SF Responses Before and After Mood Priming

Mood Condition	Female			Male			
		Before Mood Priming		After Mood Priming			
		<i>N</i>	<i>Mean (SD)</i>	<i>Mean (SD)</i>	<i>N</i>		<i>Mean (SD)</i>
USA							
Positive Affect	Happy	17	13.12 (3.16)	13.35 (3.12)	3	13.33 (1.53)	15.33 (3.22)
	Neutral	15	13.27 (3.85)	11.73 (4.23)	8	13.38 (3.25)	12.25 (3.33)
	Sad	15	11.60 (4.07)	9.13 (3.91)	5	13.4 (4.39)	11.00 (5.34)
Negative Affect	Happy	17	6.94 (2.46)	6.12 (2.09)	3	6.67 (1.53)	6.33 (1.53)
	Neutral	15	6.47 (1.85)	5.73 (1.49)	8	6.13 (1.64)	6.38 (1.69)
	Sad	15	7.07 (2.09)	10.13 (3.70)	5	6.60 (2.07)	10.20 (3.56)
China							
Positive Affect	Happy	19	10.26 (2.13)	10.53 (3.39)	11	13.82 (4.05)	13.45 (3.05)
	Neutral	26	11.12 (3.02)	10.38 (2.58)	4	11.50 (3.87)	8.75 (2.63)
	Sad	22	9.64 (2.7)	6.23 (1.74)	8	12.63 (4.93)	7.75 (3.20)
Negative Affect	Happy	19	6.00 (1.45)	5.42 (1.61)	11	7.09 (3.39)	6.55 (2.51)
	Neutral	26	5.88 (1.14)	4.23 (0.51)	4	6.50 (1.73)	4.00 (0.00)
	Sad	22	5.86 (1.78)	6.95 (3.53)	8	5.63 (0.74)	7.38 (3.11)

Competing hypothesis 2a & 2b: Cultural equivalence or cultural advantage model? Mood influences as a function of in-group versus out-group identities of target figures. To examine the impact of mood while minimizing the influence of social context, we examined responses to two neutral targets (an in-group member and an out-group member) in neutral emotional contexts. Emotion judgments of these two stimuli from participants who had been primed for happy, sad, or neutral emotions were coded into dichotomous categories based on whether the valence was consistent with the participants' *induced mood* or not (coded 1 if the valence of the response was consistent with the primed mood, 0 if it was not) and the percentages of participants who attributed their mood to the neutral targets was calculated.

The percentage breakdown from the mood priming analyses was as follows (Figure 1): 35% of U.S. participants and 33.3% of Chinese participants attributed their happy mood to the in-group target figure, 15% of U.S. participants and 27% of Chinese participants attributed their happy mood to the out-group target figure, 47.6% of U.S. participants and 50% of Chinese participants attributed their sad mood to the in-group target figure, and 42.9% of U.S. participants and 30% of Chinese participants attributed their sad mood to the out-group target figure. McNemar's nonparametric test for related samples was used to examine whether the frequency of emotional attributions to in-group versus out-group targets varied significantly among the participants in the different mood conditions. The analyses were run separately within each cultural group and for each mood condition. In the U.S. sample, the results indicated that no matter what mood condition participants were in, there were no significant differences in frequencies of attributions of participants' own induced mood to an in-group target versus an out-group target. Since thirteen of our U.S. participants were Asian Americans, we also conducted the same analysis without them. The results indicated that, without Asian Americans, there were still no significant differences in frequencies of mood attribution to an in-group target versus an out-group target. There were also no significant differences in mood attributions to in-group versus out-group targets in the Chinese sample. These results were consistent with the *cultural equivalence model* specified in Hypothesis 2a.

Figure 1

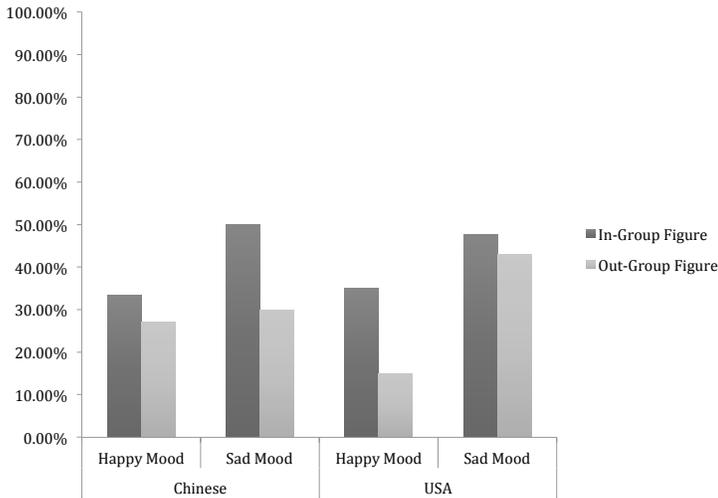


Figure 1. Proportions of participants in happy and sad mood conditions who attributed their mood to neutral in-group and neutral out-group figures.

Context influences as a function of in-group versus out-group identities of target figures.

To examine the impact of context while minimizing the influence of mood, we examined responses of participants in the neutral mood condition to determine whether their emotion judgments were affected by the *context emotion* (happy, sad, or neutral) or not. All emotion judgments of the target figure were coded into dichotomous categories based on whether the valence of the response was consistent with the emotion displayed by the surrounding figures in the picture (coded 1) or not (coded 0); percentages of participants primed with a neutral mood who attributed context emotions to the neutral target figures were calculated. That is, these analyses focused on participants who were primed with a neutral mood and compared their emotion responses to in-group targets versus out-group targets when those targets were in different emotional contexts.

The percentages breakdown from the contextual attributions was as follows (Figure 2): 50% of U.S. participants and 56.7% of Chinese participants attributed the happy context emotion to the neutral in-group figure, 20.8% of U.S. participants and 30% of Chinese participants attributed the happy context emotion to the neutral out-group figure, 50% of U.S. participants and 57% of Chinese participants attributed the sad context emotion to the neutral

in-group target, and 62.5% of U.S. participants and 63.3% of Chinese participants attributed the sad context emotion to the out-group target.

Figure 2

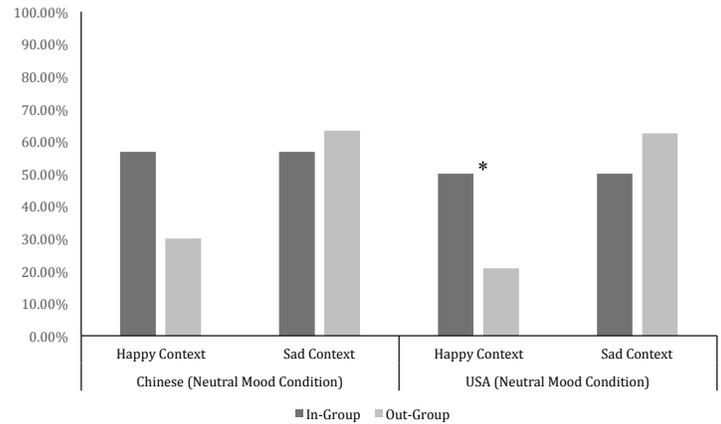


Figure 2. Proportions of participants in neutral mood condition who attributed context affect to neutral in-group and neutral out-group figures.

* $p < .05$

McNemar's nonparametric test for related samples revealed that, for U.S. participants, the proportion of participants attributing a happy context emotion to a neutral target was significantly higher when the target was an in-group member than when the target was an out-group member ($N = 22$, $X^2 = 5.39$, $p = .046$). When we analyzed the U.S. data without the Asian American participants, the results were marginally significant ($N = 18$, $X^2 = 5.14$, $p = .063$), suggesting that attributions in the U.S. sample as a whole were bolstered by the inclusion of the Asian American subsample. No statistically significant in-group/out-group differences in attributions were found in either cultural group when the context faces were sad and these were true for U.S. sample both with and without the Asian American participants. These findings provided partial support for the *cultural advantage model* reflected in Hypothesis 2b – that is, in the U.S. sample, there was evidence of cultural specificity in attributing happy context emotions to a neutral target figure.

Discussion

The main purpose of this cultural study was to test rival hypotheses derived from competing cultural models regarding emotion recognition – the cultural equivalence

model and the cultural advantage model – regarding potential in-group biases in judging facial expressions in different context and mood conditions. Briefly, the findings were generally consistent with the hypothesis derived from the cultural equivalence model, with the exception of some support for the cultural advantage model hypothesis in the U.S. sample.

The first set of analyses examined the effects of mood priming on both the U.S. and Chinese participants. Most of the results were consistent with previous studies both with Western samples (e.g., Gerrards-Hesse, Spies, & Hesse, 1994; Hristova et al., 2015; Schmid et al., 2010; Schmid et al., 2011; Westermann, Stahl, & Hesse, 1996) and with Eastern samples (Lee et al., 2008), and revealing significant mood and context effects on participants' self-reported affect. Exploratory analyses of gender suggested that the mood priming was effective for females and males from both countries, although the male samples were quite small, and replications in larger samples are needed.

Second, the validity of competing *cultural equivalency* and *cultural advantage models* of emotion perception was examined independently in the U.S. and Chinese participants. The first question was the extent to which participants' mood influenced emotion perception and whether the frequencies with which participants attributed their own mood to in-group targets differed significantly from their attributions of their emotions to out-group targets. The results indicated that only about one third of the U.S. and Chinese participants attributed their happy mood to the target figures, although a larger proportion of Chinese participants (58.62%) attributed their sad mood to the target figures. Analyses revealed that although some participants from both countries attributed their own emotions to a neutral target, there were no significant differences in the extent to which they did so to in-group as compared to out-group targets. This finding is consistent with the *cultural equivalence model* (e.g., Boucher & Carlson, 1980; Gitter, Kozel, & Mostofsky, 1972; Kilbride & Yarczower, 1983; Soto et al., 2009), suggesting that, for both U.S. and Chinese participants, there is no in-group bias in attributing their own mood to target figures when identifying facial emotions.

The next question focused on the role of the context effect in emotion recognition – specifically, whether emotion

recognition would be biased by the ethnicity of the target figure. We found that more than half of both U.S. and Chinese participants attributed the sad context emotion to the neutral target. Findings provide partial support for the *cultural equivalence model*; that is, there were no in-group biases in perceiving faces in happy and sad contexts for Chinese participants or in a sad context for U.S. participants. However, some of the findings were consistent with the *cultural advantage model* (e.g., Beaupré & Hess, 2006; Elfenbein et al., 2002b; Elfenbein, 2015; Gendron et al., 2014; Hess et al., 2016; Weathers, Frank, & Spell, 2002); specifically, the U.S. respondents were more likely to attribute a happy context emotion to an in-group than an out-group target figure, providing some evidence that the influence of context on emotion perception may be influenced by the target's own ethnicity. Although the level of significance diminished somewhat when the Asian American subsample was excluded from the analysis, that is likely due to the decrease in statistical power; even without the Asian American sample, the effect size is large (Cramer's V or $\Phi = .54, p = .02$).

Potential limitations to the study include the use of subtitled English movie clips with the Chinese sample; it is possible that the higher cognitive demand necessary to read these subtitles may have affected the performance of the Chinese participants in unknown ways. It would be useful to use Chinese film clips in future research examining the possible effects of in-group versus out-group stimuli. In addition, it is possible that American participants were more familiar with the happy and sad film clips, which might have helped to prime their moods. Finally, as Kendall, Raffaelli, Kingstone, and Todd (2016) pointed out, iconic faces are not real faces; evidence suggests that they are different from real human faces in their ability to communicate specific information. Given that all of our stimuli are cartoon characters, additional research would be useful to determine extent to which our findings can be generalized to emotion recognition of real human faces.

Among the useful findings from this study is evidence that despite major differences in culture between the U.S. sample and the Chinese sample, participants from the two cultures responded quite similarly to the mood priming tasks – despite the fact that the two major experimental conditions

were film clips from the U.S. The similarity in responding of males and females within and across samples is also of interest, although further research with larger samples is important to validate this preliminary finding.

The field of psychology has long shown an interest in the identification of universals; however, in recent decades there has been a strong push to respect “culture” by identifying differences among groups based largely on demographic (but increasingly on psychological) variables. Research evaluating the relative effectiveness of cultural equivalence versus cultural advantage models in predicting emotion recognition is particularly interesting within this context; however, it should be recognized that research testing hypotheses predicting a lack of differences between groups is typically suspect, as shown in research on gender.

The results of this study of the relative validity of the two competing models of emotion recognition in both a Western and Eastern culture did not fully resolve the question. The bulk of the evidence supported the cultural equivalence model – that is, when participants from both countries attributed their mood to a target figure, their responses did not differ significantly based on the in-group versus out-group features of the stimuli. Indeed, in the Chinese sample, the findings consistently supported the cultural equivalence model. On the other hand, in the U.S. sample, there was some support for the cultural advantage model. This leaves some questions unanswered. Is the cultural advantage model itself culture-specific? Does the Western cultural emphasis on independence and individuality – or perhaps a greater preoccupation with issues of race – somehow encourage a stronger focus on features of the stimuli? Future research including measures of collectivism, acculturation, racism, and agreeableness (e.g., Doucet, Shao, Wang, & Oldham, 2016) might help elucidate these possibilities.

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Appendix A



Note: The target figure in the middle is always showing a neutral facial expression.

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**Emerging Adults' Susceptibility to Sexting Influences on Facebook:
Dangerous or Developmental?**

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Abstract

Facebook may represent a new avenue through which emerging adults can demonstrate risky sexual behaviour and explore sexual identities with online peers. Emerging adults are in the prime of their sexual lives and the importance of sexuality increases as sexual curiosity peaks (Herbenick, Reece, Schick, Sanders, Dodge & Fortenberry, 2010; Levine, 2013). Hence, there is concern about the effects of social networking sites (SNS) such as Facebook on the development and sexual behaviours of emerging adults in Barbados and England, primarily because emerging adults in both countries are at a heightened risk for contracting sexually transmitted infections (Natsal, 2014; Yearwood, 2007). The purpose of the current research is to statistically investigate the relationship between susceptibility to online peer influence as it relates to sexual risk-taking on Facebook, engagement in casual sex and sex with multiple partners among samples of emerging adults. A cross-national comparative study was conducted using an explanatory sequential mixed methods research design. Surveys and focus groups were conducted in both countries. Weak significant positive relationships were found between emerging adults' susceptibility to online peer influence and risky sexual behaviour. Seven themes emerged from the qualitative data to explain the quantitative findings in both cultural contexts. The developmental needs of Barbadian and British emerging adults in the study are similar and the findings indicate that though potentially dangerous, sexually risqué online behaviours are in accord with the psychosocial challenges confronting this demographic.*

Keywords: Facebook, Sexting, Online, Peers, Influence, Emerging Adulthood.

With the proliferation of social media many questions have been raised about the effects of social networking sites (SNS) on the development and sexual behaviours of emerging adults; that is, young adults between the ages of 18 and 24 (Arnett, 2000; Tanner & Arnett, 2009) in Barbados (Farley, 2011b; Jules, Maynard, & Coulson, 2015) and in England (Parker, 2014; Whitworth, 2012). Barbados is a former British colony; hence, the two countries are grounded in the same fundamental values and laws. The official

religion of both countries is Christianity, both use the Westminster System of governance and have similar educational systems whereby students usually move from secondary school to sixth form before attending university. Therefore, the student samples investigated in the current study would be comparable developmentally given their shared education trajectory. Emerging adults in both cultural contexts have also been found to be vulnerable to sexually transmitted infections (STIs). In England, young people

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(aged 16 to 24) account for more than half of the diagnoses of STIs (Natsal, 2014). Furthermore, Barbadian emerging adults are also considered to be at a heightened risk for contracting STIs, particularly HIV/AIDS (Yearwood, 2007).

Emerging adults are in the prime of their sexual lives (Herbenick, Reece, Schick, Sanders, Dodge & Fortenberry, 2010; Levine, 2013), and biologically, are at optimal childbearing age. Students within this demographic are usually sexually active and the transition to university life affords many emerging adults greater freedom from parental control as well as an increase in opportunities for sexual experimentation (Newman & Newman, 2007). Hence, they are particularly vulnerable to contracting STIs. Furthermore, the importance of sexuality strongly increases (Buzwell & Rosenthal, 1996) as sexual curiosity peaks (Baumgartner, Valkenburg, & Peter, 2010). Emerging adults are characterised by identity exploration (Newman & Newman, 2015) and a need for intimacy (Subrahmanyam & Smahel, 2010). Hence, heightened levels of sexual experimentation, is likely, through sexting. Sexting involves the exchange of sexual messages, images (Livingstone, Haddon, & Gorzig, 2012), or video through an online electronic medium such as Facebook; an online platform facilitated by Web 2.0 technologies (Ringrose, Gill, Livingstone, & Harvey, 2012). Sexual identity is the self-understanding about the meaning and significance of one's sexual attractions, desires, fantasies, behaviours, values, and relationships (Savin-Williams, 2011). It should also be noted that one of the reasons that gave rise to the categorization of emerging adulthood as a distinct developmental stage was a greater tolerance of premarital sex in many societies, thereby allowing them to begin an active sexual life long before contemplating marriage (Tanner & Arnett, 2009). Such trends have therefore resulted in increased opportunities for sexual and romantic exploration among this demographic (Morgan, 2013).

The current study focuses on Facebook, the world's most popular SNS (The Statistical Portal, 2016). Facebook is particularly popular among the emerging adult demographic in Barbados (Socialbakers, 2014a), and England (Socialbakers, 2014b). Facebook is a SNS that allows users to share information and communicate with others online (Moreno, Brockman, Wasserheit, & Christakis, 2012).

Hence, it is likely to represent a new avenue through which the sexual behaviour of emerging adults in both cultural contexts can be explored and displayed (Jules, Maynard, & Coulson, 2015). In this technological era, sexual risk-taking is no longer limited to offline contexts. Rather, online behaviours associated with sexting (Levine, 2013), can spread like an epidemic because information can be easily and quickly shared between people online (Papagelis, Murdock, & van Zwol, 2011).

It has been established in past studies that there is a relationship between sexting and risky sexual behaviour offline (Ferguson, 2011; Houck et al., 2014; Rice et al., 2012; Temple et al., 2012), however there is a gap in the literature as it pertains to explaining why this relationship exists (Gómez & Ayala, 2014). Past research has primarily focused on the motives associated with sexting. For example, Henderson (2011) examined participants' endorsement of items relating to beliefs about the reasons why people sext and they found that 'to be sexy or initiate sexual activity,' was the most highly endorsed reason, followed by 'gaining attention from a partner,' 'to be fun and flirtatious,' 'pressure from friends or dating partners' and 'as a form of self-expression.'

Given extant literature, we therefore posit that by interacting with peers on social networking sites emerging adults may be exposed to risky sexual media content (Hinduja & Patchin, 2008; Moreno, Briner, Williams, Brockman, Walker & Christakis, 2010; Moreno, Brockman, Rogers and Christakis, 2010; Moreno et al., 2009; Morgan, Snelson, & Ellison-Bowers, 2010). Such media content has the potential to influence the attitudes (Braun-Courville & Rojas, 2009; Omori et al., 2011; Peter & Valkenberg, 2006), normative beliefs (Doornwaard et al., in press; Litt & Stock, 2011; Moreno, Briner, Williams, Walker, & Christakis, 2009; Strasburger & Wilson, 2002;) and subsequent intentions to engage in risky behaviours offline. The resulting cognitions held about sexting within the Facebook environment may then contribute to offline risky sexual behaviours of the emerging adult.

To understand the relationship between sexting and offline risqué behaviour, the developmental characteristics of emerging adulthood must be explored. The basic psychosocial crisis with which emerging adults are faced is

known as identity formation versus role confusion (Erikson, 1959). During this stage, the peer group is a major agent of socialization (Borsari & Carey, 2001) and emerging adults (in an attempt to resolve the prevailing developmental crisis) rely on peer feedback to shape personal self-concepts (Azmitia, Syed, & Radmacher, 2008). Emerging adults at this time lack a cohesive identity and thus, are more susceptible to the influence of the peer group (Arnett, 2000). Peer influence susceptibility or the tendency towards peer conformity (Berndt, 1979; Santor, Messervey, & Kusumakar, 2000), is defined as the degree to which an individual's attitudes and beliefs change as a result of peer associations (Meldrum, Miller, & Flexon, 2013; Yang & Laroche, 2011), and, or, the extent to which one adopts a course of action that is supported by the peer group (Meldrum, Miller, & Flexon, 2013; Monahan, Steinberg, & Cauffman, 2009). Hence, the greater the tendency for cognitive and behavioural conformity, the more likely one will adopt a social identity characteristic of peer norms and values (Baron, Byrne, & Branscombe, 2006). It can be argued that sexual experimentation through sexting is necessary for sexual identity development. However, this phase of finding oneself through online sexual exchanges can also have devastating sexual health consequences if risky peer group practices are internalized and emulated indiscriminately.

Sexual content is part of many SNS profiles (Flood & Hamilton, 2003; Lo, & Wei, 2005; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2005). Research on sexting has found support for the positive relationship between sexting and engaging in risky sexual behaviours offline such as having multiple partners and using alcohol or other drugs before having sex (Temple, Paul, van den Berg, Le, McElhany, & Temple, 2012). Moreover, when compared with non-sexting counterparts, participants who engaged in sexting were more likely to report having unprotected sex (Benotsch, Snipes, Martin, & Bull, 2013). Sexting, having sex casually and sexual relationships with multiple partners are considered risky behaviours because of the high correlation such behaviours have with the contraction of chronic and acute STIs (Yearwood, 2007).

In addition, there is a paucity of scholarship from various cultural contexts to adequately explain why positive relationships exist between sexting on SNS and offline risky sexual behaviours. Therefore, the current study builds on past

research by statistically investigating the relationship between susceptibility to online peer influence as it relates to sexual risk-taking (within the context of Facebook), engagement in casual sex and sex with multiple partners among samples of emerging adults. In addition, the qualitative experiences of emerging adults from Barbados and England will be explored to explain the quantitative findings.

Method

Research Design

A cross-national comparative study was conducted using an explanatory sequential mixed methods research design. A quantitative survey was first conducted among public university students between the ages of 18 and 24 in Barbados and England. After this phase, qualitative data was collected (via focus groups) in order to explain the quantitative findings. Before the commencement of the study approval was obtained from the research ethics committees of the participating universities.

Participants

The quantitative phase of the study involved a survey of 241 and 186 university students from Barbados and England, respectively. In the Barbadian sample, 179 (74%) were female and 62 (26%) were male and the average student age was 21. Of the total number of Barbadian students, 175 (73%) were sexually active. The British sample comprised of 122 (66%) females and 64 (34%) males and the average student age was 20 years. Of the total number of British students, 149 (79%) were sexually active. For the qualitative research phase, a total of eight focus groups (each comprising of approximately four participants) were conducted. A total of 39 male and female university students participated in this phase; that is, 23 students from Barbados (10 females, 13 males) and 16 students from England (14 females, 2 males). Participants were between the ages of 18 and 24, of African-Caribbean descent (in the Barbadian sample) and of European descent (in the English sample).

Instruments

The susceptibility to online peer influence – sexual risk scale (SOPI-SRS; Jules, Maynard, & Coulson, 2015) was used to measure the degree to which emerging adults were influenced by their Facebook peers to engage in sexting. The scale consisted of 11 items with internal reliabilities of 0.76

(Barbados) and 0.87 (England). Each scale item was scored along a 5-point Likert type scale where responses ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Higher scores indicated greater susceptibility to online peer influence. There were two direct questions inquiring about risky sexual behaviour over the past 12 months. Participants were asked to what extent they had sex with multiple partners and if they had casual sex with people they did not know. Ranked data was collected as participants responded to the questions along the following likert scale (0 - Never, 1 - Once or twice, 2 - Monthly, 3 - Weekly, 4 - Daily or Almost Daily). For the qualitative phase, a semi-structured interview schedule was used to guide the focus group sessions. It consisted of two questions to probe the general relationship between, (a) sexting and having casual sex, and (b) sexting and having multiple partners.

Procedures

Convenience sampling was used to select participants for both phases of the study. Students voluntarily responded to an invitation circulated via email that included a link to the electronic self-report questionnaire. Participants had three months to complete the survey and they provided consent electronically before gaining access to the questionnaire. Due to the sequential research design, the results from the questionnaire data informed the development of the questions of the focus group interview schedule. Students voluntarily responded to an email advertisement and provided written informed consent before participating in the qualitative phase of the study. The focus groups were led by one facilitator who adhered to the semi-structured interview questions. After the focus groups were completed there was a grace period of seven days during which participants could withdraw their responses. In both phases of the study, demographic data was collected from all participants. The duration of each focus group was approximately one hour and were held at the universities in private conference rooms. The views of participants were collected using a digital recorder and were then transcribed.

Data Analysis

To analyse the quantitative data, a series of spearman's rank order correlation coefficient analyses were conducted given that the risky sexual behaviour variables were measured at the ordinal level of measurement. Direct questions about the frequency of participants' engagement in

casual sex and having multiple sexual partners over the past 12 months were asked.

Data analysis for the qualitative phase began as soon as the first transcript was completed and focus groups were conducted until data saturation occurred; that is, when the emerging themes became repetitive with respect to data previously categorized (Stinson, Jibb, Greenberg, Barrera, Luca, White, & Gupta, 2015). A three-level categorization system was used for text analysis. The categories included: 1) low, level text based categories; 2) middle level theme and; 3) high level theoretical constructs (Auerbach & Silverstein 2003). Connections between the concerns of the participants and the research objectives of the study were taken into consideration. The three-tiered organizational framework proposed was used to provide the abstract bridge between the project concerns and those of the participants. However, the detailed process of coding required the researcher to move from a lower to a higher, more abstract level of understanding.

Transcripts were sorted through to identify relevant text (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). All instances where similar words or phrases were used in the text to express the same idea were documented. These repeating ideas were obtained by reading the textual data line by line, to derive the underlying meaning or concepts behind the statements made (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Once identified, the idea(s) being conveyed in the transcript were labelled. Next a consensus was reached among the three researchers as to how best to organize the repeating ideas into larger groups that expressed a common theme. When all of the repeating ideas were represented by themes care was taken to select overarching theoretical constructs which best represented the students' subjective experiences, theoretical principles and literature underpinning the current research.

Results

The relationships between susceptibility to online peer influence (SOPI) to engage in sexting (as measured by the Susceptibility to Online Peer Influence - Sexual Risk Scale), having casual sex and multiple partners was investigated using a series of Spearman's rank order correlation coefficients (see Table 1). Significant weak positive correlations were found between SOPI and having casual sex in Barbadian ($r_s = .292$, $n = 241$, $p < 0.01$) and British

samples ($r_s = .218$, $n = 186$, $p < 0.01$). Similar findings were also obtained between SOPI and having multiple partners in samples from Barbados ($r_s = .220$, $n = 241$, $p < 0.01$) and England ($r_s = .211$, $n = 186$, $p < 0.01$) such that higher levels of online peer susceptibility were associated with higher levels of both forms of risky sexual behaviour over the past 12 months. In explaining the quantitative findings, the following shared themes emerged from the qualitative data obtained from university student samples in Barbados and England. The themes demonstrate two broad divisions, (a) the characteristics of the Facebook online environment and (b) the developmental characteristics of emerging adults.

Table 1: Non-Parametric Correlations between Susceptibility to Online Peer Influence and Risky Sexual Behaviours

Correlated Variables	r_s	
	Barbados Data Set (N=241)	UK Data Set (N=186)
SOPI-SRS and having casual sex past 12 months	.292**	.218**
SOPI-SRS and having multiple partners past 12 months	.220**	.211**

Note: ** $p < 0.01$

Themes Related to the Developmental Characteristics of the Emerging Adult

Adherence to individuality versus the adoption of a social identity. For some students, engaging in a behaviour is motivated by one's personal understanding of self. One student said, "if you are strong minded you may just share the picture, not that you may do it one day" (Barbadian male). Another said, "It also depends on the individual whether or not you conform or how strong you are. If you are not a strong-minded person then you would be easily influenced" (Barbadian female). It was found that conforming to the actions of others signified a relinquishment of personal beliefs and values and adopting the mind-sets of the wider group. Some students said, "well for me personally I don't adhere to sheep mentality ...so umm being strong minded is being able to have your own individual mental view on things even when a lot of people are doing it" (Barbadian male) and, "whether or not I do something depends on me and not someone else..." (British Female).

Attention seeking tendencies. In this context, risqué

photos are uploaded onto Facebook in order to generate sexual interest. One student said, "I think there are people that do it [sexting] because they seek attention" (British female). Echoing these sentiments, another said, "what pops out to me is that the person wants attention. They seem to be so persistent about it [sending and sharing nude photos] ... about wanting to give it out... and so they are trying to attract you to actually get it [meaning sex]" (Barbadian male). Another student said, "on my Facebook this girl put up a photo of herself in a ... like ...we call them like thirst poses to generate interest and of course guys will look" (Barbadian female).

The desire to experiment sexually. Communicating about sexual topics on Facebook creates an environment which further encourages young people to explore their sexual interests. One student said, "If you see something online ... like someone having a threesome or something you may consider wanting to experience it for yourself" (British male). Another student concurred by saying, "yeah. . . you are more likely to have sex because you are intrigued by it" (British female). Two other Barbadian male students said, "Desensitization ...that is the word that comes to mind ...the more raunchy ... the more prone you are" and, "if you watch and like the video you may [later] want to experiment."

Assimilation of perceived peer group norms. Facebook posts are taken to represent peer group norms. One student said, "maybe like the type of people that are in the pictures ... show that casual sex is a common thing and so maybe you look at these women as though this is the norm" (British female). As a result of these images they are more likely to engage in similar behaviours. Two other students said, "I just think that it's a thing that people do... they see rude stuff so they have to share it with other people... that's just the way it is" (Barbadian female) and, "I think ummm these things shown on Facebook do serve to encourage these activities a bit more because it serves to make these activities seem more normal... seem more of a past time instead of a vice" (Barbadian male).

Themes Related to the Characteristics of the Facebook Environment

Having impersonal social interactions online. Facebook reduces the personal nature of social interactions which then acts to discourage deeper emotional connections between

users. One student said, *“the medium reduces the whole personal nature of the interaction... it becomes something like... robotic...that’s why it encourages you... like you don’t have to spend time to invest in that person emotionally”* (Barbadian male). The narrow focus on sexual content in conversations can translate into casual sexual relationships offline. Two participants said, *“I don’t need to get to know this person... we just... keep it strictly physical...”* (British male) and, *“you and the person talk over Facebook ...and you start up chatting and then . . . we meet and hook up”* (Barbadian male).

Disinhibition due to Facebook anonymity. The lack of face-to-face interactions on Facebook when sexting appears to embolden users to share personal information more readily in comparison to offline face-to-face interactions. For example, one female Barbadian student said, *“If you are in front the person you might tend not to do it but if you are online you might do it.”* Moreover, the privacy settings of the SNS provide less threatening environments for sexually based interactions in comparison to offline spaces. Two students said, *“social networks offer little risks of other people finding out your business...”* (British female) and *“if you go into the private messages... it’s you and the person and you can say whatever you want and... show your actual intentions without any fear of people finding out”* (Barbadian male).

The engagement in online impression management. Individuals who use Facebook are able to create the image that they want to portray of themselves online and hence students are better able to present themselves in a way to increase one’s chances of attracting a potential sexual partner. One student said, *“you say things on Facebook because no one actually knows that it is you but when you are out there in public people can actually see you and see your behaviour. The language that you use on Facebook may not be the same language that you use in everyday life”* (Barbadian female). Similarly, another said, *“I think most people have two personalities and I think one is the real life and the other is their Facebook, because on their profile they can create a whole new persona of who they are”* (British female).



Discussion

Within the Barbadian and British samples, emerging adults’ susceptibility to the sexting behaviours of Facebook peers was positively associated with having casual sex and sexual relationships with multiple partners offline. A qualitative exploration of this finding among a sample of emerging adults in both contexts revealed common themes among the cohorts which included: adherence to individuality versus the adoption of a social identity, attention seeking tendencies, the desire to experiment sexually, assimilation of perceived peer group norms, having impersonal social interactions online, disinhibition due to Facebook anonymity, and the engagement in online impression management. These themes demonstrate the possible interplay of personal characteristics and online environmental factors which together highlight the psychosocial needs of emerging adults and the avenues through which they can be exposed to potential health-related dangers as they strive to meet those needs.

Given the qualitative findings emerging adults who conform to online peers may likely be intrapersonally conflicted as they struggle between the adherence to their individuality and the adoption of the social identity of the peer group. Therefore, in an attempt to resolve this crisis, emerging adults, coupled with their desire to experiment sexually and their need for intimacy could use SNS such as Facebook to seek out peers. Facebook can provide the emerging adult with a variety of online tools and modes of communication to try-on different personas in order to increase their likeability and sexual allure with the assistance of peers. Moreover, personal sexual desires are more likely to be shared with others online due to the impersonal and potentially anonymous ways by which online communication can take place. Moreover, Facebook may be perceived as a relatively non-threatening environment due to the absence of face-to-face interactions; thereby resulting in greater disinhibition when sharing sexual content.

Closely related to identity formation is the internalization of perceived peer norms. Peers are agents of socialization and hence, the feedback obtained by sexting peers can convey sexually risky normative values and beliefs which can then be cognitively assimilated. These internalized cognitive scripts may subsequently result in the perpetuation

of sexually charged attention seeking behaviours and exploration of one's sexuality through online impression management geared towards attracting potential sexual partners. Because susceptible emerging adults are likely to develop self-concepts in keeping with the expectations of sexting peers, overtime their identities can result in risky sexual activities offline.

Although the findings of the current study make a noteworthy contribution to understanding the potential consequences of and contributing factors towards emerging adults' susceptibility to peer related sexting on Facebook, the research is not without its limitations. Facebook was the only SNS investigated and the responses of emerging adults from two countries were obtained. Variations may exist in the online environments of other SNSs and the developmental characteristics of emerging adults from other cultural contexts.

The data collected from students from the participating universities were obtained via convenience sampling. Moreover, the data from both the quantitative and qualitative research strands were likely to contain some error from self-selection bias, since students who volunteered to complete the survey may have done so due to a range of factors and it is possible that those students who did not participate may have disregarded the email thinking that it was spam or may have had negative feelings towards online research. As a result of this, the findings cannot be generalized to the population of the participating universities, nor is it representative of the emerging adult populace. Another limitation was the cross-sectional nature of the study as data on each participant was collected at a single time point (in each context). Hence, it was difficult to infer temporal associations between the variables of the study. Consequently, causal relationships between variables could not be inferred.

Nevertheless, findings indicate that emerging adults can be susceptible to risky online peer group behaviours on Facebook. Hence, online social networking technologies can be used to instill positive health attitudes and behaviours in emerging adults. The current research also found that attending to and interacting with information on Facebook with peers was significantly related to offline behaviour. Therefore, students could be educated about the importance

of taking protective measures and can be informed about the dangers of risky sexual behaviour from their peers as they are the primary agent of socialization for this demographic. In addition, Facebook is likely to be an effective medium for the distribution of health education media because it is fast, inexpensive and is a popular SNS among individuals between the ages of 18 to 24.

In conclusion, the developmental needs of the Barbadian and British emerging adults in the study seem to be similar and the findings indicate that though potentially dangerous, sexually risqué online behaviours are in accord with the psychosocial challenges confronting this demographic. The identity of emerging adults maybe shaped by their interactions with online peers on Facebook. The formation of a stable sexual identity is likely to reduce the extent to which emerging adults explore their many selves via sexting. Future research should be conducted with emerging adults from a larger range of countries and other SNSs. Not only may cultural differences in behaviours exist but this developmental group may also vary in the type and quality of their interaction with peers as a result of the technological capabilities and virtual environments of newer more advanced interactive social media platforms.

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The Importance of Culture in Emotion Regulation

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As various disorders that are related to emotion (dys)regulation, such as depression and anxiety, are recently observed more in immigrants than in majorities, studies of emotion regulation in these groups become more important. We believe that we are not yet in the stage where we can confidently say to which extent emotion regulation is the same across cultures or whether the differences across cultures are patterned as there is a paucity of interethnic research delineating mechanisms behind emotion regulation in immigrants compared to majorities. Nevertheless, we opt to describe in the current review emotion regulation concept within the specific socio-cultural setting of acculturation, to provide a brief review of recent main research findings on interethnic differences and similarities in emotion regulation including the influence of acculturation on the regulation, and to propose the way forward for research on emotion regulation in immigrants.

Emotion Regulation Processes: How and Why Do We Regulate Our Emotions?

Emotion regulation can be best defined as a mental control strategy in the emotion process that accounts for changing our experienced emotions, or emotions that we did not yet experience (Frijda, 2005). The process model of emotion regulation (Gross & John, 2003) takes a prominent position in the current emotion literature. According to this model, we can distinguish two types of emotion regulation strategies: antecedent-focused (reappraisal) and response-focused (suppression) strategies. Reappraisal refers to a cognitive reevaluation of an emotional antecedent event

resulting in a change of experienced emotion, while suppression refers to a general tendency to suppress the experience and overt expression of emotions. Besides reappraisal and suppression, social sharing is a very interesting regulation mechanism when comparing cultural groups, as the primary goal of this regulation strategy is to regulate interpersonal relations. Social sharing can be best defined as verbal or written communication of experienced emotions to others (Rimé, Finkenauer, Luminet, Zech, & Philippot, 2011).

A distinction can be made between two general reasons why people regulate their negative emotions: hedonic and instrumental (Tamir, Ford, & Giliam, 2012). Negative emotions are suppressed more because they usually make us feel bad and vulnerable, and therefore we want to protect ourselves (i.e., Hedonic View). However, as expressing negative emotions can also make others feel bad, we can suppress negative emotions in order to protect others (i.e., Instrumental View). In other words, people usually suppress their negative emotions and hold specific motives (self- or other-oriented) behind the suppression (Tamir et al., 2012). This view is supported by several studies where participants tend to suppress and reappraise negative emotions more than positive emotions (Gross & John, 2003; Stupar, Van de Vijver, & Fontaine, 2015). Nevertheless, recent research demonstrated that individuals could delay their suppression in order to obtain long-term goals (Parrot, 2001).



Impact of Emotion Regulation on Health

Overuse or underuse of the emotion regulation strategies can lead to the development of psycho-social problems in the long run. For example, lack of cognitive reappraisal and overuse of emotion suppression are regularly perceived as risk factors for many mental and physical diseases such as depression, cancer, and heart disease (Consedine et al., 2002; Ehring et al., 2010). Emotion suppression is also significantly positively related to mood disturbances (Stupar, Van de Vijver, & Fontaine, 2014), as well as to poor health in both immigrants and majorities (Consedine et al., 2002; Consedine, Magai, & Horton, 2005; Stupar et al., 2014).

Dysfunctional emotion regulation is in combination with negative emotions related to low levels of social competence and peer acceptance (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1992). Specific regulation strategies such as reappraisal and suppression also influence interpersonal relationships (Butler et al., 2003; Butler, Lee, & Gross, 2007; Gross, 2002). In particular, emotion suppression is often associated with negative social outcomes, such as lower social support and reduced relationship closeness. Additionally, Gross and John (2003) found that using reappraisal is related to better interpersonal functioning, while use of suppression is related to more interpersonal malfunctioning, suggesting that both regulation processes, reappraisal and suppression, have social consequences.

Impact of Acculturation and Socio-Cultural Norms on Emotion Regulation: Emotion Regulation Strategies in Immigrants

Various research findings suggest that immigrants differ from majorities in emotion regulation strategies. Butler et al. (2007) found that American women holding European values reported lower levels of emotion suppression, as compared to American women holding bicultural Asian-European values. Consedine et al. (2005) suggest that inhibition of emotion expression was not significantly different across immigrant groups. Results from another study partly confirmed these results; ethnicity moderates the influences of repressive regulatory styles on experience and expression of anger (Consedine, Magai, Horton, & Brown, 2011). Gross and John (2003) also confirmed that immigrants use suppression more often when regulating their emotions, but that there were no ethnic differences regarding reappraisal. However, a recent

study showed that the Dutch majority group scored lower on reappraisal and suppression than non-Western immigrants; these findings suggest implicitly that immigrants in general may overregulate their emotions, both positive and negative (Stupar et al., 2015c; Stupar et al., 2014). In summary, research on immigrant populations suggest interethnic differences in emotion regulation and in the relationship between the regulation strategies and regulation predictors/outcomes. At the same time, several contradictory findings suggest that we have to be careful with generalizing interethnic differences in regulation strategies and that additional explanatory variables should be included that are much more related to socio-cultural context, such as acculturation and socio-cultural norms.

Acculturation and Emotion Regulation in Immigrants

Acculturative processes are related to person's well-being in immigrants. For example, Beirens and Fontaine (2011) found that immigrants whose adjustment to the new culture is high, will probably use more often a reappraisal strategy when dealing with events and therefore will experience and express more positive and fewer negative emotions. In line with this, de Maesschalck, Deveugele and Willems (2011) found that the poor mastery of mainstream language was related to low expression of negative emotions.

An interesting question is whether emotions on immigrants change during the time they spend in the host culture. Leersnyder, Mesquita, and Kim (2011) suggested that this is indeed the case. They found evidence for the existence of emotional acculturation where immigrants who spend more time in the host country and who engage themselves more in relationships with majorities, show higher emotional concordance compared to immigrants who were staying shorter in the host country and engaged less in the host culture. Remarkably, these authors suggest that not acculturation attitudes, but length of stay and engagement in the host culture predict emotional acculturation. Opposite to these findings, Liem, Lim, and Liem (2000) demonstrated that among Asian Americans higher assimilation levels are associated with more ego-focused emotions.



Influence of Sociocultural Norms on Emotion Regulation

Emotions can be socially functional or dysfunctional in terms of their contribution to the maintenance of interpersonal relationships. Mesquita and Karasawa (2002) found that positive emotions such as happiness or pride, that are closely related to high self-esteem, were more often reported among American than among Japanese respondents. This difference could be explained by cultural differences in the likelihood of expression of emotions which is in turn related to different cultural norms that prescribe the display of emotions (Mesquita & Walker, 2003). Specifically, emotion expression is related to cross-cultural differences in how two social orientations of independence and interdependence are integrated into the collective definition/construction of the self (Kitayama, Matsumoto, Markus, & Norasakkunkit et al., 1997). For example, people from collectivistic (interdependent) cultures will usually express emotions less that are ego-focused compared to people from individualistic (independent) cultures, because these emotions are perceived to be socially disengaging and therefore dysfunctional within a collectivistic socio-cultural context (Kitayama et al., 1997; Kitayama, Mesquita & Karasawa, 2006; Mesquita & Walker, 2003). Results from another study also revealed that positive emotions were expressed more in individualistic countries than in collectivistic countries (Van Hemert, Poortinga, & Van de Vijver, 2007). Therefore, social orientation (independence versus interdependence) remains an important aspect of cross-cultural investigation of emotion regulation processes.

Additionally, whether the person will express his/her emotions (display rules) depends also on the nature of relationship between the interlocutors. Matsumoto et al. (2008) found differences in expression of emotions in contact with familiar (in-group) and not-familiar (out-group) members: across cultural groups (collectivistic and individualistic) individuals expressed their emotions more toward their in-group members than to out-group members. Based on a framework of human values (Schwartz, 1994) and an internalization-externalization clinical model (Krueger & Markon, 2006), Stupar-Rutenfrans et al. (2016b) confirmed a hypothesized two-dimensional structure with self- and other-oriented motivation underlying emotional

suppression in Dutch majority and (non-) Western immigrants in the Netherlands. However, negative emotions which are disruptive for social relationships, such as contempt, disgust, and fear, were overall less expressed in all cultures regardless of contact with in- or out-group members (Kitayama et al., 1997; Mesquita & Walker, 2003; Stupar-Rutenfrans, Fontaine, & Van de Vijver, 2016a). Previous research is not clear as to whether the nature of social contact is somehow related with suppression-anger-aggression relationship. As non-Western groups prefer to accommodate to others and avoid conflict in order to preserve harmonious relationships, these groups are less likely to express anger that sets them apart from others regardless of the intimacy of their relationships (Matsumoto et al., 2008).

Conclusion

We aimed to capture the cultural context of emotion regulation including findings from immigrant studies and findings on acculturation of emotions. Previous cross-cultural emotion research was mainly focused on interethnic differences and similarities in emotions, emotion expression, and how acculturation was related to experienced emotions while much less research has focused on the mechanisms of emotion regulation within a multiethnic context (Butler et al., 2007; Consedine et al., 2005; Leersnyder et al., 2011; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Matsumoto et al., 2008). Research on emotion regulation that is mainly conducted in Western populations shows that specific emotion regulation strategies, such as reappraisal, suppression, and social sharing, depend on the intensity and valence of experienced emotions (Gross & John, 2003; Rimé et al., 2011; Stupar et al., 2015c). Moreover, emotional suppression is usually related to lower well-being (Consedine et al., 2002; Ehring et al., 2010; Stupar et al., 2014). However, it remains unclear whether these relationships apply in non-Western cultures. The same is true for earlier studies on motivations underlying emotion regulation.

Previous research demonstrated that emotion regulation is a very important aspect of mental health because people who experience (intense) negative emotions for a longer period of time are prone to develop psychopathology, as compared to people who are more able to regulate their negative emotions (Beauchaine, Gatzke-Kopp, & Mead, 2007). Specifically, emotion dysregulation is a key feature of

most DSM-V (axes I and II) syndromes, such as depression and anxiety. However, there is paucity of interethnic research delineating mechanisms behind emotion regulation in immigrant groups that are so often associated with heightened depressive and anxiety symptoms compared to majority groups (De Wit et al., 2008; Schrier et al., 2009; Van der Wurff et al., 2004). Considering that it is still unclear how (non-Western and Western) immigrants differ from majority group members in emotion regulation mechanisms, it is questionable whether it is always necessary to develop culturally tailored psychological interventions for non-Western immigrants groups that are usually overrepresented in mental health care compared to less adjusted immigrants. For example, the Netherlands witnessed the development of so-called diversity-related interventions regarding distinct mental health disorders (mainly depression and anxiety) where the starting point is usually that non-Western immigrants differ per definition from Dutch majority members in their emotion regulation. However, having more depression or anxiety symptoms is not necessarily related to interethnic differences in emotion regulation, but can be triggered by the specific socioeconomic environment of the immigrant. This effect may be even stronger for the less adjusted immigrants that are usually underrepresented in immigrant studies (samples usually consists of well adapted immigrants who speak/write mainstream language that is usually a requirement for participation in the study). To sum up, clinical practice may benefit from developing methods that are more focused on participation of immigrant groups that are not well-adjusted (e.g., who do not master well the Dutch language and do not socially participate) in treatment or prevention programs, as these groups are often underrepresented in the mental health care system. Important questions to be answered thereby are at which point exactly functional emotion regulation becomes dysfunctional and what the interethnic differences and similarities are in that (transition) process.

From a methodological perspective, it is possible that due to a very common use of classical methods (usually retrospective or post-experiment self-report) to measure emotion regulation in (cross-cultural) research, interethnic differences in emotion-regulation may not be always fully captured as it is almost impossible to measure how a research

participant felt at a particular “moment of emotion regulation”. Therefore, (cross-cultural) psychology research may benefit from adopting more innovative emotion (regulation) assessment methods. For example, the implementation of virtual reality in emotion regulation assessment is a rising phenomenon and it can be currently seen in so called “virtual trainings of emotion regulation” (e.g., Bosse, Gerritsen, de Man, & Treur, 2014). Thereby, the most (methodological) benefit for measuring emotions (or regulation) can be derived from adopting physiology based approach that is used to assess affective interactions with lifelike agents (Prendinger & Ishizuka, 2011). This kind of approach to emotion (regulation) assessment may even take implicit (non-conscious) emotion regulation into account that is not possible to assess by using self-reports.

In conclusion, emotion regulation, which contributes to psychological well-being (or a lack of it), is influenced by socio-cultural context. Considering that non-Western immigrants are usually one of the most vulnerable groups in Western societies, and that recent findings suggest that the prevalence of depression and anxiety is higher in immigrants than in majorities (Schrier et al., 2009; De Wit et al., 2008; Wurff et al., 2004), further investigation of emotion regulation processes in immigrants remains an important topic for future research.

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Teaching International Psychology

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Internationalizing the Teaching of Psychology

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Introduction

As we joyfully celebrate the 20th anniversary this year of the founding of the Division of International Psychology of the American Psychological Association (D52), it is appropriate to reflect on the advances and progress made towards internationalizing the teaching of psychology. Though a few scholars innovatively wrote on the topic over a decade ago, notably past APA President Raymond Fowler (2000), and as early as 2005, the APA called a Task Force on Internationalizing the Undergraduate Psychology Curriculum which published a helpful report, the past few years have been especially productive ones in terms of resources on this critical issue. For instance, Sherri McCarthy and her colleagues have produced four volumes of a landmark edited series, *Teaching Psychology Around the World* (2007, 2009, 2012, in press), and 2012 also saw the publication of Leong, Pickren, Leach, and Marsella's book *Internationalizing the Psychology Curriculum*. Moreover, an annotated bibliography on international psychology has recently appeared in the authoritative Oxford University Press series

of bibliographies in addition to the already available bibliographies on cultural psychology, cross-cultural psychology, and intercultural psychology (Takooshian, Gielen, Rich, & Velayo, 2016). In addition, it is worth mentioning that APA Division 52 (International Psychology) has its own book series with IAP (Information Age Publishing); the first volume in this series, *Pathfinders in International Psychology*, was co-edited by the two coauthors of this article, and was published in 2015.

In 2016, APA's well-respected journal *American Psychologist* devoted an entire issue to psychology education and included one article on internationalizing undergraduate psychology education (Takooshian, Gielen, Plous, Rich, & Velayo, 2016). The authors of the present article have coedited a volume entitled *Internationalizing the Teaching of Psychology* which should be available to the public in early autumn 2017 (Rich, Gielen, & Takooshian, in press). This book includes contributions by 73 scholars from 21 nations, and is divided into four parts: International Perspectives on the Teaching of Psychology; Cross-Cultural, Cultural, and

Indigenized Perspectives; Internationalizing Basic Domains of Psychology; and Psychology as a Socioculturally and Internationally Oriented Discipline. The 22 subdisciplines covered in the book were selected to portray both core areas of psychology as well as subdisciplines that represent rapidly expanding and internationally important areas such as cross-cultural psychology and the psychology of women. The chapters cover key topics and areas included in the course offerings of psychology departments both in the United States and in other countries. In addition to a discussion of international perspectives relevant to a given area, all chapters include an annotated bibliography of pertinent books, articles, web-related materials, films, videos, and so on. In the next three sections of this article, drawing from our book, we offer several examples of how specific courses in particular psychology subdisciplines may be internationalized. We then conclude this article with brief reflections on internationalizing the curriculum.

A Global Perspective on Child and Lifespan Psychology

Fewer than 4% of the world's more than 2.2 billion children and adolescents live in the United States yet the information contained in most American developmental psychology textbooks continues to be shaped largely by American and European studies and ideas. Above all the field needs to expand its scope by including more studies conducted in non-Western countries where approximately 86% of the world's children and adolescents reside. Many basic questions in developmental psychology can be most fruitfully addressed by incorporating in the discussion information gleaned from a broad range of societies differing widely in their modes of subsistence, basic social structure, historical evolution, family systems, gender roles, fertility patterns, educational systems, literacy rates, religious belief systems, life cycle rituals, identity conceptions, and prevailing ideas about what constitutes psychopathology and deviance. Moreover, studies of culturally varied immigrant families can contribute to a better understanding of how multilingualistic and multicultural identities and skills influence cognitive, emotional, and behavioral changes evolving over time. In addition, global information systems are increasingly shaping the "glocal" hybrid identities of adolescents across the globe.

In many psychology departments around the world, developmental psychology courses are commonly offered not only to psychology students but also to students studying subjects such as education, social work, sociology, and so on. Fortunately, instructors seeking to internationalize their developmental course can choose among a broad range of articles, books, videos, and materials on the Web that are useful for graduate and undergraduate students. Examples include handbooks (e.g., Bornstein, 2010), overviews of cross-cultural research on children and adolescents (Gielen & Roopnarine, 2016), surveys of anthropological materials (Lancy, 2015), DVDs (Tobin, Hseuh, & Karasawa, 2009), overviews of changing childhoods in developing countries (Saraswathi, Menon & Madan, in press), up-to-date global statistics on children published each year by UNICEF, worldwide perspectives on aging (Sokolovsky, 2009), and so much more.

Many instructors assign research projects in their classes by asking their students to prepare a paper on a specific subject matter. Here are a few suggestions for cross-culturally and internationally oriented topics:

- (1) Students may be asked to interview an adolescent from an immigrant family in order to find out how the interviewee conceives of, and comes to terms with, the two (or more) cultures (s)he is exposed to. What are the most important differences between the cultures? Which cultural differences are easy to bridge, which ones create inner and outer dissonances, and why is this so? What is most and what is least attractive about the potentially competing cultures? Did your ideas about your cultural identities evolve and change over time?
- (2) If a student comes herself from an immigrant background, she may wish to interview family members and/or family friends about where they originally came from, how their lives evolved over time, and how they and their friends have come to terms with diverse and shifting cultural expectations.
- (3) Students may be asked to write a paper and give a class presentation on a specific cross-cultural topic that interests them. Examples of possible topics include child labor in India, arranged and early marriages for girls in countries such as Yemen, child soldiers and "war brides" in situations of civil war, puberty-related initiation ceremonies that both

prepare for and reinforce the assumption of adult roles in many African cultures, funeral customs and their religious meanings in Bali, the protective role of African ancestors in relationship to their descendants, and why and how Central American children are smuggled into the U. S. under very dangerous circumstances.

(4) Most developmental textbooks pay limited attention to the nature of childhood and lifecycles as these existed in former centuries in both Western and non-Western societies. For instance, 30-70% of all newborns did not reach adulthood, women's fertility rates were—and needed to be—far higher than they are now, child labor was considered essential to family survival, and many children did not attend school (Mintz, 2006). In this context, students should be made aware of the dangers of “presentism,” that is the common tendency to interpret and judge past customs such as child labor or gender roles from today's point of view while ignoring the entirely different economic, medical, technological, and scientific conditions shaping people's lives in those days. For additional cross-cultural readings, see the developmental chapter by Gielen and Rich (in press).

Internationalizing the Teaching of Consciousness

The study of consciousness is one of psychology's oldest topics, with William James, Sigmund Freud, and Wilhelm Wundt among the early investigators who wrote about it. However, when behaviorism began to predominate in 20th century American psychology, consciousness studies became relatively neglected, and when studied, the topics were often explored from the perspective of cognitive science (Daniel Dennett, Jean Piaget), neuroscience (Antonio Damasio), and complementary and integrative medicine. It is vital to note though, that the topic has been explored by many thinkers outside of psychology and beyond its mostly Euro-American traditions, especially in cultural regions such as Asia, where such examination has dated back thousands of years. Indeed, given such realities, the relevant scholarship broadens significantly to include related disciplines, especially work in anthropology, philosophy, cognitive science, history of religions, medicine and related healing modalities.

Today, while most introductory psychology textbooks in the USA include one chapter on consciousness, only a very few stand-alone comprehensive course texts are devoted to

the psychology of consciousness (e.g., by Susan Blackmore; G. William Farthing; Benjamin Wallace, Barbara Fisher, & Leslie Oswald). In many ways this represents a missed opportunity, in that so many topics in the psychology of consciousness readily lend themselves to an examination of international implications. In our book, I (G. R.) coauthored a chapter on internationalizing the teaching of the psychology of consciousness course with eminent Indian scholar Ramakrishna Rao in which we aim to help instructors effectively internationalize their courses with up-to-date and culturally rich materials. In our chapter, we selected several major subtopics in the discipline—including drugs, hypnosis, sleep and dreams, and yoga and meditation—and offered insights into how to best achieve this goal.

For each subtopic, we developed a list of annotated resources, including websites, memoirs, interviews, films, research articles, scholarly books, and more that will assist instructors in internationalizing this course. Many of these resources may be unknown or less familiar to psychology faculty as they come from related disciplines, especially anthropology and religious studies, and allied and integrative health, and may be in forms other than the journal articles commonly archived in psychology databases and search engines. For example, a number of helpful websites are available including those of the National Center for Complementary and Integrative Health (NCCIH), The Yoga Resource Center, the American Anthropological Association, The Society for the Anthropology of Consciousness, The Society for Medical Anthropology, and The Society for Psychological Anthropology.

In terms of films, there exists a veritable plethora of films that focus on consciousness topics. These films vary widely in their level of accuracy about historical and scientific matters. When films aim to be historical, students can learn from comparing and contrasting cinematic depictions with academic histories, as in the cases of the descriptions of hypnosis, free association and dream analysis in *A Dangerous Method* (about Freud and Jung) and *Augustine* (about Charcot). With a fictional film such as the 1962 classic *The Manchurian Candidate* students can examine the possibility—or impossibility—of using hypnosis-like brainwashing techniques to alter global events by influencing powerfully political figures.

Other types of resources are also valuable. For instance, some instructors may wish to assign a memoir, autobiography, or biographical materials to further internationalize their courses. For example, in *Sastun*, Rosita Arvigo relates her five year apprenticeship with a then 87-year old traditional healer in Central America. Other examples include ethnobotanist Mark Plotkin's *Tales of a Shaman's Apprentice* about his work in the Amazon rain forests, and Alexandra David-Néel's 1929 classic *Magic and Mystery in Tibet* about trance/altered states and her encounters with various yoga practitioners engaging in *tummo* (inner heat) yoga, *lung gompas* who cover very long distances while in trance, those practicing *chöd* meditation while sitting on a corpse, etc. Students can compare and contrast the approaches and methods utilized by the traditional practitioners and healers with those emphasized in modern psychological research and practice. Instructors may also find published interviews both accessible and engaging for use with students. For instance, the first author of this article has published interviews with leaders in consciousness studies including Antonio Damasio, Lester Grinspoon, Erika Bourguignon, Shelley Taylor, and Ken Wilber (Rich & Rao, in press). Daniel Goleman has published dialogues with leaders at the interface of religion and science, such as his conversations with His Holiness the Dalai Lama in his 2004 book *Destructive Emotions*. As can be seen from this brief account, there are many ways to internationalize the consciousness course and doing so is likely to stimulate and engage student interest, build student understanding of various cultures and beliefs around the globe, and deepen student comprehension and critical thinking, particularly about research methodology. In addition, many of the sources that internationalize the course are also fun for both student and instructor!

Counseling and Clinical Psychology

During recent decades psychologists have increasingly become aware of the central role that sociocultural influences and belief systems play in counseling, psychotherapy, and healing. It is now widely recognized that cultural and social forces influence what humans experience as distressing, how they label their distress, whether or not they believe that invisible beings and forces are crucial to the origins and nature of the distress, and whom (if anyone) they should

approach for the purpose of reducing their distress (Gielen, Fish, & Draguns, 2004, p. xi). In response to this recognition, multicultural psychologists have mostly focused on ethnic and cultural differences existing in their own Western societies and how therapists should deal with them, but they have tended to pay less attention to global differences in healing and counseling practices. In contrast to well-to-do Western societies, in most low-income countries indigenous healers outnumber modern mental health specialists by very large margins. Moreover and professionally speaking, the Global Mental Health Movement has so far been dominated by transcultural psychiatrists rather than by psychologists (e. g., Patel, Minas, Cohen, & Prince, 2013).

However, several volumes have recently appeared that describe and compare the status of psychology, counseling or psychotherapy in numerous countries across the globe. These include the books by Gerstein, Heppner, AEGisdóttir, Leung, and Northworthy (2009), Hohenshil, Amundson, and Niles (2013), and Moodley, Gielen and Wu (2013). The books show that there exist now many countries that offer degrees in professional psychology although the practice of psychology remains unregulated or "under-regulated" in quite a few of them. It is hoped that *The Universal Declaration of Ethical Principles for Psychologists* (Gauthier, 2008) can serve as a general framework for the development of professional codes of ethics in those countries that still need such a code.

Instructors who wish to expose their counseling and clinical psychology students to a global perspective may wish to consider two volumes that present case studies from a considerable number of countries: Moodley, Lengyell, Wu, and Gielen (2015) include 34 concise case studies taken from Africa, Australia, Asia, the Americas, Europe and the Middle East, and Poyrazli and Thompson (2012) offer 12 case studies from both developing and developed nations. In both volumes, most chapter authors have been practicing in their native countries but have been schooled in Western counseling and psychotherapy traditions either abroad or at home. Of course, they may also be familiar with some indigenous traditions. Furthermore, Gielen, Fish, and Draguns (2004) provide a broad overview of both Western and non-Western forms of healing, psychotherapeutic traditions, and various forms of counseling. Their book

reflects a much more multidisciplinary orientation than can be found in many multicultural introductions to clinical psychology while exposing the reader to psychosocial, anthropological, medical, and religious approaches. Those readers eager to learn more about international, cultural, and cross-cultural perspectives in clinical and counseling psychology are advised to consult the chapter by Consoli, Khoury, Whaling, Oromendia, and Daouk in our forthcoming volume.

Conclusion

During the last 50 years globalization has exerted an increasing influence on the field of psychology. Although psychology had already grown into an international “baby science” by the time of the First International Congress of Physiological Psychology in 1889, by the 1970’s the field had come to be dominated by the often monocultural ideas of American psychologists who in those days probably made up 70-80% of the world’s psychologists. Today, however, only about 22-25% of the world’s estimated one million psychologists reside in the United States (Zoma & Gielen, 2015). It is high time that the global teaching of psychology reflect this change. The aim of our forthcoming volume is to support the process of internationalization by providing psychology instructors in the United States and elsewhere with practical suggestions about how best to do so. Reflecting on the international literature presently available suggests a few preliminary conclusions about the current situation.

(1) While the globalization of psychology has made considerable progress in recent years, the discipline still has a long way to go before our conceptions of human nature can be said to fully reflect the behavior of human beings around the world. For instance, far too many studies in the social and cross-cultural areas of the field rely on written questionnaires, a practice which automatically leads to the exclusion of illiterate and semi-illiterate persons who continue to make up major portions of the population in many low-income countries. The practice also makes it difficult for us to understand what might have been the predominant concerns and feelings of most people living prior to World War I when illiteracy was widespread in many of the world’s countries.

(2) A full understanding of human nature requires the cooperation of representatives from several disciplines since they tend to employ different methodologies, ask different types of questions, select different samples of people, and have mastered different kinds of scientific literature. The alternative is professional tunnel vision, a phenomenon at times visible in all three areas discussed above.

(3) In spite of psychology’s present limitations, a rich variety of articles, books, and visual materials are already available to instructors in many areas of psychology who wish to introduce their students to more cross-culturally and globally oriented perspectives and findings.

This article has pointed to a few selected readings in areas such as developmental psychology, the study of consciousness, and the spreading practice of counseling and psychotherapy across the globe. The available literature in these and other areas of psychology as well as in various related social sciences provides testimony to the pervasive impact of culture on human behavior (Wang, 2016). It is up to us as psychology instructors to make use of this rich literature and to introduce our students to a broadened and more culturally oriented version of psychology than that found in some of our textbooks. We should do so for intellectual, ethical, and practical reasons while helping our students to develop a Global Self in the face of dangerous nationalistic and ethnocentric political currents and preoccupations.

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International Organized Psychology and Social Commitment: Rubén Ardila - Colombia

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**International Organized Psychology and Social
Commitment: Rubén Ardila – Colombia ***

This article is in response to the call made by Dr. Neal Rubin, Past President of Division 52: International Psychology of the American Psychological Association, who created and coordinated, together with Dr. Chalmer Thompson, the Heritage Mentoring Project (HMP). HMP seeks to showcase the work of outstanding international psychologists via brief biographies and with the collaboration of senior and junior psychologists in the field of psychology. To this end, we have identified Latin American psychologists who have made significant contributions to the advancement of international engagement while collaborating with colleagues across different countries and at different stages of their professional trajectories. This article presents the

accomplishments of renowned psychologist Dr. Rubén Ardila, from Colombia, following a previous article on Dr. Héctor Fernández Álvarez (Consoli, Corbella, & Morgan Consoli, 2013).

Education

Ardila, experimental psychologist, social scientist, professor, and leader in the field of psychology, was born July 7, 1942, in San Vicente de Chucurí, a small town in Santander, Colombia. Considered the most visible and influential Colombian psychologist in the world, he has made significant contributions to the advancement of international psychology (American Psychological Association, 2007). He began his studies at the Universidad Nacional de Colombia, where he earned a licenciatura degree in psychology in 1964, with a thesis on *La Profesión de Psicología* (The Profession

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Heritage Mentoring Project

of Psychology). In 1970, Ardila earned a doctoral degree in experimental psychology from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in the United States of America (U.S.A.). That same year, he returned to Colombia to begin his career as a professor at the Universidad Nacional de Colombia.

Accomplishments

Ardila founded the *Revista Latinoamericana de Psicología* (Latin American Journal of Psychology) in 1969, initially published by the Foundation for the Advancement of Psychology and currently by the Konrad Lorenz University Foundation. He also founded the journal *Avances en Psicología Clínica Latinoamericana* (Advances in Latin American Clinical Psychology) in 1982, which was retitled in 2004 as *Avances en Psicología Latinoamericana* (Advances in Latin American Psychology), with the intention of increasing the visibility of Latin American psychology throughout the world. He has been a visiting professor in Germany, the U.S.A., Spain, Argentina, and Puerto Rico, among others. He has published 32 books and more than 300 scientific articles in prestigious journals from across the world and in various languages.

Ardila is known not only as an accomplished scientist but also as a deft leader who has advanced organized psychology throughout the world (Urra & Pérez-Acosta, 2015). He has occupied leadership positions in various organizations in his country of origin, such as the Federación Colombiana de Psicología (Colombian Federation of Psychology) and the Sociedad Colombiana de Psicología (Colombian Society of Psychology), and internationally, such as the Sociedad Interamericana de Psicología (SIP) (Interamerican Society of Psychology), the Asociación Latinoamericana de Análisis y Modificación del Comportamiento (ALAMOC) (Latin American Association for Analysis and Behavior Modification), the International Association of Applied Psychology (IAAP), and the International Union of Psychological Science (IUPsyS), to name a few.

Recognitions

Ardila's outstanding contributions to the development of psychology, his trajectory as a scientist and psychologist, and his efforts towards the internationalization of Latin American psychology have been recognized nationally and internationally. He has received numerous prestigious awards

including the *Premio Nacional al Mérito Científico - Vida y Obra* (National Lifetime Scientific Achievement Award) in 2004 from the Asociación Colombiana para el Avance de la Ciencia (Colombian Association for the Advancement of Science), the *Premio Interamericano de Psicología* (Interamerican Psychology Award) in 1983 from the Sociedad Interamericana de Psicología (Interamerican Society of Psychology), and the Award for Distinguished Contributions to the International Advancement of Psychology in 2007 from the American Psychological Association (see Pérez-Acosta, 2007), among many more. Additionally, he has been awarded the Honoris Causa degree from various Latin American universities, the most recent in 2016 from the Universidad Nacional de Rosario, Argentina (Gallegos, 2017).

Life Trajectory

Ardila's wide range of interest in philosophy, social justice, and scientific knowledge, as well as his analytic nature paved his path towards the field of psychology. From an early age, he stood out and was known among his high school teachers as a critical thinker, especially for his interest and curiosity in classical works in the area of literature and science. According to Ardila, he was significantly influenced by the biographies and novels of Stefan Zweig, an Austrian writer and friend of Sigmund Freud. Later, he was influenced by the works of others, in particular Charles Darwin, and his book *On the Origin of Species and the Descent of Man*. Additionally, he was influenced by the works of British philosopher Bertrand Russell, Spanish scientist Santiago Ramón y Cajal, and the American psychologist B. F. Skinner. Ardila acknowledges his father as a crucial influence in his life; although lacking in formal education, Ardila's father was a man of great intelligence and strong work ethic.

After completing high school, Ardila began his studies in 1960 at the Universidad Nacional de Colombia (Bogota) in the Department of Psychology, which largely emphasized a psychoanalytic theoretical orientation. From the beginning, Ardila was critical of this perspective and instead oriented himself towards a "scientific psychology," which he took upon himself to learn. After obtaining his degree in psychology from the Universidad Nacional de Colombia, he traveled through Europe and the Middle East for a year. He visited various nations and familiarized himself with

different cultures, which strengthened his orientation towards humanistic values, as well as offered him a broader perspective on human nature and history. Later, he began his doctoral studies in experimental psychology in the U.S.A. at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (UNL). Ardila was attracted to UNL because of the volumes published following the *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation* that began in 1953. He had access to those volumes at the Universidad Nacional de Colombia and considered them the most important reference at that time given its frequent citations. Ardila earned his doctoral degree in experimental psychology in 1970 and became the first Colombian to receive a Ph.D. in psychology in the U.S.A.

Publications

Ardila's initial publications in Colombian and Spanish psychological journals addressed social issues, behavioral analysis, and the history of psychology, topics which he has continued to cultivate throughout his professional trajectory (Pérez-Acosta, 2017). After completing his doctoral internship, he wrote various books. The first and most influential book was *Psicología del Aprendizaje* (Psychology of Learning), published for the first time in Mexico in 1970 (Ardila, 1970), and subsequently having 27 editions. This book paved the way to scientific psychology for generations of Spanish and Latin American psychologists. He also published *Psicología Experimental: Manual de Laboratorio* (Experimental Psychology: A Laboratory Manual) (Ardila, 1971), and *La Psicología Contemporánea: Panorama Internacional* (Contemporary Psychology: An International Overview) (Ardila, 1972), among others.

During this period, Ardila participated for the first time in the XI Interamerican Congress of Psychology, which took place in Mexico City in 1967 and was hosted by Dr. Rogelio Díaz-Guerrero. According to Ardila, this was a turning point in his career, as Díaz-Guerrero became his mentor. At that moment, Ardila's identity as a Latin American psychologist rapidly developed and is reflected in his many publications in the *American Psychologist* where he aimed to disseminate the contributions of Latin American psychology and to build an organized Interamerican and international psychology (Ardila, 1968, 1982, 2007).

After obtaining his doctorate, Ardila returned to his home country, Colombia. At this time, Ardila was married

and his son David was a few months old. He became a professor at his *Alma Mater*, the Universidad Nacional de Colombia, and eventually directed the Department of Psychology. He also founded and was the first director of the Department of Psychology at the Universidad de los Andes, as well as the founder and first director of the Master's Graduate Program of Psychology at the Universidad de Santo Tomas, in Bogota. During the following decades, Ardila has become a reference point for psychology in Colombia and Latin America. In 1986, he published the book *Psicología en America Latina: Pasado, Presente y Futuro* (Psychology in Latin America: Past, Present, and Future) (Ardila, 1986), which highlights the history of Latin American psychology as a field of study. His contributions to the history of Colombian (Ardila, 1973, 1993, 2000a, 2004b, 2013) and Latin American psychology (Ardila, 1968, 1972, 1980, 1986, 1998a, 2004a) have had a great influence in the international sphere not only because they were pioneering works addressing Colombian and Latin American psychology, but also because of their depth and critical analysis. In 1987, one of the most distinguished scientific philosophers, the Argentine Mario Bunge from McGill University in Canada, proposed to Ardila that they co-author a book about the philosophical foundations of psychology. The resulting product, *Philosophy of Psychology*, has been published in various languages (Bunge & Ardila, 1987).

Ardila has made significant contributions to the field of behavioral analysis (Ardila, 2006; Ardila, López López, Pérez-Acosta, Quiñones, & Reyes, 1998), social and cultural problems (Ardila, 1991, 2010, 2012), sexual orientation (Ardila, 1998b, 2015), violence and peace (Ardila, 2001, 2004c, 2008), the evolution of behavior (Ardila, 1981, 2007), child rearing (Ardila, 1979), and health psychology (Ardila, 1994, 2000b), among other areas. Overall, Ardila has significantly contributed to multiple domains of psychology: experimental, evolutionary, comparative, social, and health (Ardila, 2011). However, in the words of Ardila, his most significant contribution to the world of psychology came in two forms: la *Síntesis Experimental del Comportamiento* (Experimental Synthesis of Behavior) (Ardila, 1988) and the creation of the *Revista Latinoamericana de Psicología* (Journal of Latin American Psychology).

The Experimental Synthesis of Behavior and the Journal of Latin American Psychology

The Experimental Synthesis of Behavior arose through the influence of B.F. Skinner's Experimental Analysis of Behavior and the need for a unified psychology that would transcend traditional perspectives, which according to Ardila tend to become almost dogmatic and ideological for some psychologists (personal communication, July 18, 2013). This theoretical approach proposes an innovative change in psychology, challenging the traditional clash between psychological paradigms such as psychoanalysis, behaviorism, humanism, and historical-cultural psychology. It defines itself as a unified psychological paradigm. Along with Ardila, the distinguished Peruvian psychologists Reynaldo Alarcón has become one of the experts in the experimental synthesis of behavior and has edited a special issue on this topic for the *Revista Latinoamericana de Psicología* (Journal of Latin American Psychology) (1997, Volume 29, Issue 3). However, as Ardila highlights, these ideas and innovative initiatives were not well received in a context and decade marked by ideological disputes in Colombia, as well as in the rest of Latin America, mainly between behaviorism - including B. F. Skinner's contributions - and existing dominant perspectives at that time such as psychoanalysis (personal communication, July 18, 2013).

As previously mentioned, Ardila, convinced of the need to build and promote a Latin American psychology with an international focus, founded the *Revista Latinoamericana de Psicología* (RLP) (Journal of Latin American psychology). RLP was first published in January of 1969. Over time, this journal became one of the most prominent psychological journals in Latin America that disseminated and advanced the works of Spanish speaking researchers across the globe. In 1982, Ardila launched a new project with the publication of a new journal: *Avances en Psicología Clínica Latinoamericana* (APCL) (Advances in Latin American Clinical Psychology). The purpose was to create a forum for high quality psychological research in Spanish. After presiding over the RLP and APCL for 35 years, in 2003 he retired from the leading roles in those two publications.

Leadership in Organized Psychology

At an organizational and professional level, Ardila has actively participated in national and international associations (see Pérez-Acosta, 2003). He was president of the Interamerican Society of Psychology (1974-1976), and the founder the Sociedad Colombiana de Psicología (Colombian Psychological Society) and of the Asociación Latinoamericana de Análisis y Modificación del Comportamiento (ALAMOC) (Latin American Association of Analysis and Behavioral Change). For 12 years, he was a member of the executive committee of the International Union of Psychological Science's (IUPsyS) and served as a member of the board of directors of the International Association of Applied Psychology. Additionally, he has been involved in various international psychological associations, among them the American Psychological Association (APA), the Association for Psychological Science (APS), the International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology (IACCP), the International Council of Psychologists (ICP), the International Society of Clinical Psychology (ISCP), the International Society for Comparative Psychology (ISCP), and the Psychonomic Society. Ardila asserts that in order to involve oneself in such initiatives it is important to be open-minded and tolerant of the different ideological and psychological emphases across the field of psychology. He proposes a three-level approach that would facilitate dialogue among various psychological emphases in order to understand human nature, from universal laws that unite us all, to the traits that provide people a sense of belonging to specific groups and finally, to the unique characteristics that make us individual beings (personal communication, July 18, 2013).

Further Awards and Recognitions

Ardila has received numerous national and international distinctions for his impeccable professional trajectory and his contributions to science and applied psychology. In addition to the aforementioned awards and distinctions, Ardila received an award in psychology in 2006 from the Universidad de Talca, Chile, and the *Premio Nacional de Psicología - A una vida de entrega a la psicología* (National Award in Psychology - Lifetime Dedication to Psychology) in 2008 granted by the Colegio Colombiano de Psicólogos (Board of Colombian Psychologists), among others. He has

become an honorary professor at various universities in the Dominican Republic, Perú, and Argentina. A *Festschrift* titled *El Legado de Rubén Ardila. Psicología: De la Biología a la Cultura* (Ruben Ardila's Legacy. Psychology: From Biology to Culture) (Flórez Alarcón, 2003), was published in his honor. In this book, colleagues from around the world provide an overview of Ardila's professional trajectory, his contributions in different fields of psychology, and his many leadership roles in psychology in Colombia, Latin America, and internationally.

A common denominator across all narratives about Ardila is not only his greatness as a psychologist but as a human being. He never speaks ill of a colleague or berates anybody's work, not even tacitly. In fact, he actively praises and disseminates the work of his colleagues and does so consistently and systematically. Moreover, Ardila's humility about his work is palpable, even during keynotes or an award acceptance speech. People that come into contact with Ardila feel inspired by his passion for research and boundless curiosity. Ardila's own son, David, is an astrophysicist currently working in NASA's Jet Propulsion Lab in Pasadena, California.

Psychology and its Future

Ardila's message to future generations of psychologists is that throughout the world people are more similar than one may believe. There are common interests, but there is still a need for further dialogue and openness to learn from each other in this globalized world. This message is particularly important for individuals involved in academia, which according to Ardila, is a setting that is fascinating, stimulating, and filled with possibilities. At the same time, this space requires an attitude of openness and readiness to learn. Finally, he reminds people to be humble in their approaches to scientific knowledge, and to seek to contribute to it, as well as value and treasure its exchange at an international level.

With regard to the future of psychology, Ardila published a book on the topic titled *La Psicología en el Futuro* (Psychology in the Future) (Ardila, 2002). This book has been translated into Chinese and Portuguese. It is based on interviews conducted with renowned psychologists from various countries and in different areas of study. According to Ardila, a common thread concerning the future of

psychology is the division of psychology into two camps: "scientific" - focused on the brain and evolution and "clinical" - focused on individual and community interventions. At the same time, Ardila argues that it is important to maintain the unity and integration of these two viewpoints, while maintaining scientific rigor and social responsibility. The integration and unity of psychology helps establish our identity as a profession and contributes to our development and its social applications.

Finally, Ardila asks that as a field, psychologists should not become desensitized to the pain and suffering that exist for many in our societies. He believes that our field must find ways to eradicate the poverty, inequality, discrimination, and violence that continue to plague our world (personal communication, July 18, 2013).

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Zuzanna Monika Feher
International Union of Psychological Science (IUPsyS)
Intern

Tenth Psychology Day at the United Nations: Promoting Well-Being in the 21st Century

The Tenth Psychology Day at the United Nations was held at the UN Headquarters in New York on the 20th of April, 2017. Entitled "Promoting Well-Being in the 21st Century: Psychological Contributions for Social, Economic, and Environmental Challenges" it brought together over 400 diplomats, psychologists and students to discuss how psychologists can contribute to the successful implementation of the 2030 UN Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to transform our world.

This annual event is sponsored by psychology NGO organizations accredited by the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), or affiliated with the Department of Public Information (DPI). The 2017 UN Psychology Day was dedicated to "Good Health and Wellbeing, to ensure a healthy life and promote wellbeing at all ages," which is the 3rd SDG out of 17. The event co-sponsors were H.E. Ambassador Rubén Ignacio Zamora, Permanent Representative at the Mission of El Salvador to the United Nations, and H.E. Dr.

Caleb Otto, Former Permanent Representative at the Mission of Palau to the United Nations. Over 500 people registered for Psychology Day at the UN in 2017, similar to 2015 and 2016, when over 400 participated (Marcotte, 2015; Marcotte, 2016). The event is available to watch on the United Nations' WebTV, webtv.un.org, under its title.

Dr. Ayorkor Gaba (APA) and Dr. Sonia Suchday (IUPsyS), clinical health psychologists and co-chairs of the event's organizing committee, welcomed the participants. Dr. Gaba emphasized that when UN world leaders signed the SDGs, it was the first time in history, that they recognized the promotion of mental health and well-being, the prevention and treatment of substance abuse as health priorities within the global agenda. Dr. Suchday described that the Psychology Day at the UN intended to initiate actions for the successful implementation of SDG 3, to help achieve good health, and well-being. And it happened at a good time, as in July 2017, the UN's High-Level Political Forum conducts an

in-depth review of 2030 agenda for SDGs. Dr. Suchday stated the event's focus is on 3 aspects of wellbeing: *the social aspect*, where the focus is on social and psychological strategies to develop and strengthen peace, and social harmony at the local and the international level; *economic ways* to increase and protect the well-being of diverse, underserved groups; and *environmental strategies* for active coping with the consequences of environmental instability.

The Mission of El Salvador, was the first mission to support Psychology Day at the UN and Dr. Ruben I. Zamora, its representative, has been advocating the event ever since. The 10th Psychology Day at the UN, Organizing Committee presented an award to honor Dr. Zamora for his Exceptional Support of Psychology Day at the UN. The award was given by Dr. Florence Denmark (ICP), the founder of Psychology Day and Dr. Judy Kuriansky (IAAP). Ambassador Zamora whole-heartedly expressed his thanks for the award; and expressed his appreciation for the appearance of the UN SDGs, and highlighted that it is His Excellency Dr. Caleb Otto to whom people can thank, that mental health is among the SDG goals.

In honor of his tremendous support for the Psychology Day at the UN, H.E. Dr. Caleb Otto also received an award from the event's organizing committee. As part of the Open Working Group on SDGs, Dr. Otto lead the efforts to include mental health and well-being into the SDGs. Dr. Otto in his opening remarks congratulated the participants at the 10th anniversary of the event and thanked the event organizers, who raised his attention to the importance of all aspects of health involved in the SDG 3, and gave examples of the challenges they faced. Dr. Otto emphasized that SDG 3 now refers to *total health, including physical, mental, social and spiritual health*. Dr. Otto called for everyone to acknowledge the indicators of well-being, for example, *not mental illness*, but rather, *mental health*, and to address the *global health issues* people face all over the world, people who are refugees, migrants, people in conflict countries, and in wealthy nations. Finally Dr. Otto described, that SDG 3, health and well-being, speaks to the 3 pillars of the SDGs the economic, the social and the environment.

Moderator and organizer, Dr. David Marcotte, a clinical psychologist on the faculty at Fordham University mentioned that psychology recently started to focus on how we can be

our best self, and highlighted that well-being is a skill, that can be learned and developed, therefore everyone can cultivate well-being. Dr. Marcotte introduced co-moderator Dr. Neal Rubin, *international psychology professor at Argosy University in Chicago*, and the first speaker, Dr. Minu Hemmati, the Organizational and Environmental Psychologist and Senior Associate at MSP Institute eV, in Germany.

The first session, given by Dr. Minu Hemmati was titled *Psychology & the Environmental Pillar: Impacts of Environmental Challenges on Well-Being and Contributions to Realizing the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda*. Dr Hemmati talked about the impact of environmental challenges on psychological well-being and the psychological contributions to realizing the SDGs. Examples of top environmental challenges are climate change and air pollution, deforestation, biodiversity loss, soil degradation, overpopulation, pollution of oceans, ozone layer depletion. Climate change effects people's well-being and mental health and has social impacts. Referring to the psychological contribution to the SDGs, Dr. Hemmati called for policy and decision makers to learn about important psychological contributions they could use in their activities, for example, in overcoming stereotyping, group participation, meditation and conflict transformation, and leadership, and for psychologists to raise attention of their colleagues to conduct relevant research, participate in policy-making processes and engage in implementation for reaching the SDGs.

As her answer to Dr. Neal Rubin's question on how psychological science has been employed to create policy or in designing an intervention to implement change in Europe, Dr. Hemmati gave an example in Germany, where the National Climate Initiative and psychologists implemented change on the local level, by psychologists designing learning processes, and group learning processes for people who worked in climate change, which they did not know about, and it turned out to be very successful.

The second talk, *Investing in Resilience for the Well-Being of Individuals and Societies*, was related to *Economic Challenges* and given by Dr. Ann Masten, psychology professor at the University of Minnesota. Dr. Masten emphasized, that psychology as a science contributes to resilience and human development, described the challenging

things happening in the world, such as adverse childhood experiences (ACEs), wars, terror, natural and technological disasters, infectious diseases, refugee and international migration on massive scales, financial disasters, poverty, starvation, homelessness, violence, neglect, injustice and oppression. Dr. Masten also stated some of the positive events, like the ambitious SDGs of the UN, or the increasing amount of scientific research on resilience in human development, and that interconnectedness is very important. People need to integrate our sciences and resilience, because people, families, communities are all interdependent on each other. For example, the resilience of a child depends on the resilience of the family, and the community and society the child is a member of. Some research focuses on challenges that facilitate adaptive success, such as protection, and individuals' adaptive successes, their development, health, career, caring, and parenting. In her book, *Ordinary Magic*, Dr. Masten writes about the big drivers in resilience, and protections in place. For example, in a classroom systems adaptive leadership, teaching, expectation and support structure, and positive school climate are necessary, while in a community, relevant health care and emergency services, NGOs and governmental services, good support system for families, and traditions and rituals for overcoming stress. Resilience is common and fundamental, it gives basic protection to human development and if it is promoted, helps people when they need to face challenges.

Dr. Rubin noted that seemingly enhancing the resilience in people can contribute to other SDGs as well, and asked Dr. Masten whether she agrees that resilience might be the point of intersection between SDGs. Dr. Masten expressed her compliance, that she feels very strongly that by building resilience on multiple levels contributes to the other SDGs, as there is interconnectedness.

Dr. Marcotte introduced Dr. Doug Oman, the third speaker of the event, who addressed the *Social Pillar*. Dr. Oman is a Public Health Professor at Berkeley, the University of California, with a research focus on the health implications of spirituality, religion, and related psychosocial factors, like compassion and altruism, and applied social cognitive theory to study how we assimilate spirituality through spiritual modeling.

Dr. Oman titled his presentation *Spirituality & Religion: Contribution and Implication for Well-Being and SDGs*. Dr. Oman showed the history of how psychology has treated spirituality and religion (S/R), some empirical results on their effect on health and their implications for practice. The amount of positive empirical evidence resulted in an exponentially increasing amount of studies on this subject in the last 30 years.



Studies showed overwhelmingly positive results of S/R on people's physical health, (longevity: even +7 or +14 years, less diseases, cancer, cardiovascular, dementia, disability), on mental health (less depression and better mental health) and their social connections, such as better marital relations. Only a few cases showed negative outcomes, such as refusing health care. Most of the research was conducted in Western countries, however many studies were done all around the world, most studying S/R effect on health behaviors, such as alcohol use. In his forthcoming book, *Why Religion And Spirituality Matter For Public Health*, Dr. Oman gave details on the over 100 reviews on this subject. S/R affect people's health via their socio-cultural context, like social support, or positive health behavior. The implication of these studies that now *clinicians can acknowledge spirituality as a coping resource*, for example, there are *spiritually accommodated psychotherapies*, and *evidence-supported spiritual and religious practices*, for example meditation or mantram repetition, which was found very helpful for veterans and people with PTSD. The third implication is the *Common Ground Strategy*, which refers to the strategy that can be built on as a common ground, such as, that spirituality and religions play beneficial roles in local resource management, and in public health, for example, religious health assets in South Africa. Dr. Oman also stated

that spirituality and religion is related to SDG 3 also SDG 16, which is to *promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels*.

Dr. Ann Masten noted that maybe this subject was ignored in the research of psychology but in the study of resilience, researching spirituality and religion were always part of studying in how to cope with diversity. Also that many spiritual and religious practices tap into the same adaptive systems, that are also part of skills that assist in building resilience. For example meditation is a way to help teach self-regulation and it gives hope for the future.

Dr. Marcotte introduced the final speaker, panelist Gustavo Gonzalez-Canali, MD, who is a Senior Adviser at the UN Coordination Division for UN WOMEN in New York.

Dr. Canali's highlighted the difficulties women and girls face worldwide, specifically related to their health, how the laws and their implementations defend them from violence, how research studying their situations could develop to more specifically target these difficulties and what UN Women does to help. As Dr. Canali stated more than half of the world's population are women and girls, who along the issue of inequality, are often more deeply affected than men and boys, by poverty, climate change, food insecurity, lack of healthcare and global economic crises. Health is not just the absence of illness but means *complete wellbeing*, and *women's right to health* refers to *women's rights to the best possible healthcare*. Even in wealthy countries women don't get the health coverage they need, and low quality health services for women in poor countries cause disabilities. It is not only *biology that effects health, but social norms, political choices and levels of economic advancements, all of which contain patterns of gender discrimination*. Women globally face gender based violence, early marriage, or that doing jobs and completing school is harder for them than for men as women are carers for children and sick family members. Despite of that women's rights to have a violence-free life is supported by international agreements, such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and Declaration on the Elimination of Violence

Against Women, violence against women exists in all societies, destroying their health, resulting in having less time to care for themselves, or pursuing career or education opportunities and at times, it takes their lives. Even in countries with laws, which are supposed to *defend women from violence, the implementation of these laws face many challenges*. Institutions helping women must work together. Dr. Canali called for increased resources for research and follow up on women's health concerns and to confirm women's rights to sexual & reproductive health and choices about their sexuality. Until today *women have no rights to speak about sexual rights and reproductive rights separately!* Dr. Canali emphasized the importance of *accurate data collection* to inform policies, such as women's better access to healthcare and education or to push for international attention. When collecting data studies often *ignore issues, such as unpaid domestic work and its impacts on women's rights and choices*, which are crucial to planning and budgeting. The UN Women is involved in the development of *a new set of 9 indicators to measure violence against women in all its aspects* and puts women into the center of implementation through global leadership. Dr. Canali described many of UN Women activities, for example, supporting governments in adopting and in acting legal reforms aligned with international standards and facilitate support access locally to quality multi-sectional responses for survivors, covering safety, shelter, health, justice and other essential services. And last but not least, Dr. Canali announced that the United Interagency Task Force on Non-communicable Diseases just launched *the first UN working group on mental health*.

The Questions & Answers session was lead by Dr. Rubin. A general question from Twitter was: How can we bring psychology to those who are dislocated by war? Dr. Ann Masten replied by talking of the overwhelming situation and what works, is done in UN refugee camps, and emphasized the importance of having a voice and education. Dr Doug Oman stated that although he is no expert in it, people in Division 36 at APA have been doing work related. Dr. Minu Hemmati, said that it would be very good if governments would give less paperwork so people could get their care earlier in refuge camps. Dr. Hemmatti also replied to a specific question related to climate change and that it is

United Nations Activities

important that we educate ourselves and learn more about climate change and especially what we can do, to not make it worse.

In closing remarks, H. E. Ambassador Dr. Caleb Otto thanked participants meeting for the annual Psychology Day at the United Nations and made a call to prioritize the migration crisis, since it is not reflected in the current Sustainable Development Goals. Dr. Otto called for the approach to treat a whole human person, with mind, body and soul. Dr. Suchday in her closed remark thanked all sponsors, participants, organizers and the pioneers who created the event to make Psychology Day at the UN possible, and Dr. Denmark, who had the vision of the event 10 years ago. Dr. Gaba called for people to participate in the March for Science on April 23, 2017.

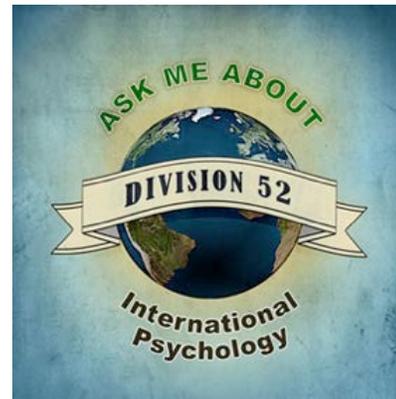


Note:

Zsuzsanna Mónika Fehér, M.A., M.A., is a social anthropologist and psychologist, an IUPsyS Intern, a member of the Globalization and Health Psychology Research Laboratory at The Heart, Mind, Spirit, and the Globe Research Institute at Pace University in New York, an alumni of ELTE, The University of London, Central European University and The New School, and has specific interest in global health and VAW. zf2176@tc.columbia.edu

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International Psychology Quiz - Answers

"How much do we know about international psychology?" This was the question in April of 2017, when the Western Psychological Association (WPA) in California featured an invited address to mark the 20th anniversary of the launch of the APA Division of International Psychology in 1997.

Since 2009, WPA has become the host of what is now the outstanding international program among the seven U.S.

regional associations--a dynamic six-page program bringing together over 50 presenters, under the deft hand of Maestra Lynette Bikos (<http://westernpsych.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/04/WPA2017IntlFlyer.pdf>).

In this address, Harold Takooshian, a past-President of APA Division 52 offered a 12-item quiz, followed by a panoramic 40-minute review of 125 years of psychology. This naturally began with Leipzig in 1879, and included some remarkable and often surprising facts about the origin, growth, and current status of our field.

Answers

...Twelve surprising facts about international psychology...

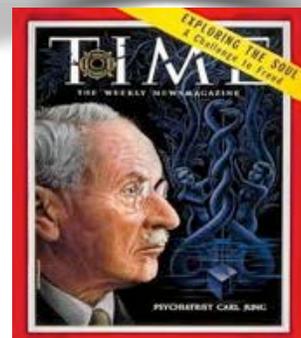
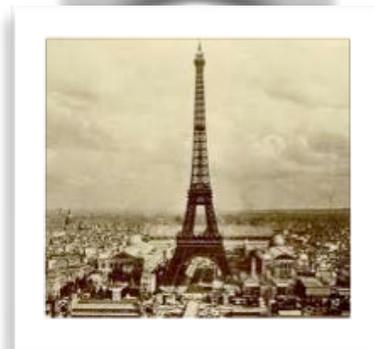
Origins: 19th Century

1. In 1879, Wilhelm Wundt's empirical "psychology" was quickly and widely accepted. **TRUE!** By 1897, Wundt's one-room lab had swelled to 14 rooms, attracting talented students from 20 nations (from Japan to Chile) who soon became missionaries for this new science called psychology.

2. In 1889, the first international psychology conference was superbly organized. **FALSE!** Accounts of William James and others are sketchy, but this first Congress in Paris was chaotic in many ways. (a) Its President Jean-Marie Charcot never attended. (b) Its title was changed mid-way from Physiological to Experimental Psychology. (c) So many hypnosis submissions were rejected, that the hypnotists decided to hold their own conference, which was even larger (Rosenzweig, 1992).

3. Despite this, the 1889 conference was not well-attended or impactful. **FALSE!** This conference may well be the most magnificent one to date, bringing together 204 psychologists from 20 nations mingling in the new Eiffel Tower, including such luminaries as Binet (France), Galton (UK), James (USA), Lombroso (Italy), Secheonov (Russia), and even young Sigmund Freud (Austria).

4. Most of the early, seminal pioneers in psychology were physicians. **TRUE!** As psychology was defining itself, it is striking how many physicians dominated the new science: James, Freud, Janet, Lombroso, Munsterburg, Sechenov, Wundt, then later Pavlov, Luria, Adler, Jung, and Sullivan.



Continuing...Division 52 - Twenty Years of International Psychology

Past: 20th Century

5. By 1929, at the 9th International Congress, psychology in the USA was widely accepted. **TRUE!** This historic first Congress on U.S. soil drew 822 people to Yale University, including 104 international delegates from 21 nations--including a new generation of luminaries: Piaget (Switzerland), Pavlov (Russia), Kohler and Lewin (Germany).

6. As of 1984, just under 50% of all the world's psychologists lived in the USA. **FALSE!** A powerful report by IUPsyS President Mark Rozenzweig noted that over 75% of the world's psychologists were concentrated in one nation, the USA.

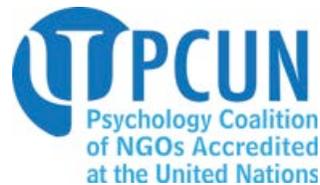
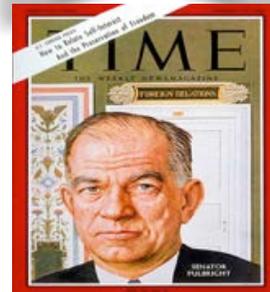
7. As of 1984, American psychology was isolationist to the point of Xenophobic. **FALSE!** Though some U.S. psychologists regretted how much their nation dominated world psychology, there are many clear indicators that U.S. psychology is better termed "Xenophilic." (Just because one of the youngsters on the block is eight feet tall does not make him/her a "bully").

8. Psychology groups were quick to become involved in United Nations work after 1945. **FALSE!** Unlike other fields which quickly joined the UN (Social Work, Law, Economics), the first two psychology groups were the Association of Women in Psychology (1976) and International Council of Psychologists (1981). As of 2017, there are 18 psychology NGOs at the UN, nine of these in its UN Psychology Coalition.

Present: 21st Century

9. As of 2000, psychology is growing faster outside than inside North America. **TRUE!** Starting in the 1990s, the number of psychologists outside North America skyrocketed to over 75% of the world's psychologists, including unlikely nations like Indonesia and Argentina.

10. As of 2000, psychology has become coordinated across the 36 nations of Europe. **TRUE!** With "Europsy," the European Federation of Psychology Associations (EFPA) has become very organized, to promote the "portability" of

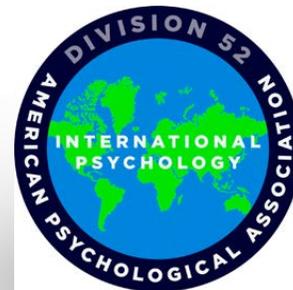


Continuing...Division 52 - Twenty Years of International Psychology

psychology training and credentials across its 300,000 members in 36 nations.

11. Psychology now has an international student group. **TRUE!** Student psychology groups were once rare outside the USA. But in 2009, the 1,100 U.S. chapters of Psi Chi voted to become "the International Honor Society for Psychology," now welcoming qualified students from all nations into the Psi Chi family.

12. Since 2000, the number of psychologists around the world now tops 5 million. **FALSE!** This figure is elusive due largely to variations in the indigenous definition of who is a psychologist. But careful calculations by Merry Bullock and others put the figure in 2017 at 1-million psychologists, and rising rapidly across many of 193 nations (Zoma & Gielen, 2015).



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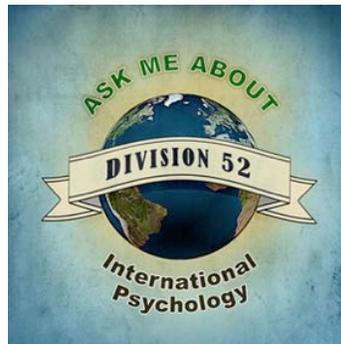
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