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ETHNICITY, RACE, AND MINORITY ISSUES / CONVENTION ABSTRACTS

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NEWSLETTER NEWS:

PEPB is an unrefereed forum for the sharing of news, ideas, and opinions in population and environmental psychology. Opinions are those of the authors, and do not reflect the official policy of Division 34 unless explicitly stated.

Call for Submissions

☆☆ **Autumn, 1999** ☆☆

Division 34 Silver Anniversary

Submission deadline: October 1, 1999

Winter, 2000: *Health in Population & Environmental Psych.*
deadline: January 15, 2000.

Spring, 2000: *Imagine the Future: Utopia, Entopia, or
Dystopia?* deadline: May 1, 2000.

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- news announcements -- e.g., Calls for Papers, Upcoming Events, etc.
- teaching tips, laboratory assignments, etc. (max 750 words)

Send submissions to Jennifer A. Veitch, Ph.D., Editor, at

ARTICLES

**Paradoxes of Rationality, Freedom,
Equality, and Diversity:
Lessons from Environmental Psychology**

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As ethnic tensions flare in the Balkans, Indonesia, India, Africa and other parts of the world, an intellectual debate seems to be heating up as to whether cultural diversity is advantageous or disadvantageous to society. Ecologists tell us that biological diversity is valuable because (1) species within an ecosystem are interdependent on other species for their mutual survival; and (2) diversity maximizes adaptive potential in times of environmental change. Ecologists also fear that human encroachment on a natural ecosystem too often leads to a destructive decrease in biological diversity, especially through overexploitation of resources and deposition of toxic wastes.

Social scientists have used an ecological analogy in advocating for ethnic and social diversity. In general, the advocated principle is that diversity among peoples, especially when we are interdependent in times of rapid technological, economic, and social change, maximizes adaptive potential for the human species. Although recent events in hotspots such as the Balkans could be said to challenge the viability of the ecological argument for ethnic and social diversity, I believe that environmental psychology has much to offer in helping us understand why diversity is inevitable. Research in environmental psychology may also show us how to take advantage of diversity for the benefit of all.

I owe much of my thinking to two articles by Julian Edney (1981, 1984) on rationality, social justice, and the commons dilemma. The commons dilemma derives from Hardin's (1968) treatise on the social dilemma of overpopulation, which has been extended to the dilemma of managing a shared resource. If a resource such as clean air, water, whales, a national park, or even capacity of a freeway regenerates at a fairly constant rate, people can share the resource and mutually thrive as long as they do not consume the resource faster than it can regenerate. The temptation of the individual, however, is to overharvest. As long as only a small percentage of participants engages in such selfish exploitation, the resource can probably survive, but if too many people consume the resource faster than it can regenerate, the resource becomes depleted and all participants—including those who do not overharvest—suffer collectively.

Edney observes a number of paradoxes deriving from this dilemma that I believe relate directly to the challenges of dealing with an ethnically and socially diverse world. Edney traces one paradox to the 17th century thinking embodied in Hobbes' Rule of Reason. Briefly, Hobbes believed that—in part due to his reaction to perceived oppressive control by the Church—we are each governed by our own reason. Moreover, it is a competitive world out there and social interaction with others is often hazardous rather than comforting. Although this latter notion is often challenged by today's social and biological scientists who propound an inherent advantage to being a social animal, for Hobbes the rational conclusion from the Rule of

Reason is what we too often see in the news headlines today: by our individual reasoning we should seek peace, but if we cannot obtain peace it is logical to seek and use war as an alternative. Peace advocates would argue that justification for war—if such justification exists at all—is not so simple, but Hobbesean logic posits that those who seek peace at any price will be consumed by those who wage dog-eat-dog war. The bottom line is that rationality involves self-interest.

This notion that self-interest is rational pervades much of our contemporary thought in psychology. The pleasure principle, drive reduction theories of motivation, the law of effect, and even the belief that “altruistic” behavior is rooted in motives to make us feel better, are all based on an assumption that self-interest is rational. In the mental health field, being able to take care of yourself (i.e., self-interest) is rational, and not being able to act in self-interest—including giving away all your worldly goods—can subject you to involuntary confinement. Thus, one paradox is that the very self-interest that can lead to destruction also defines rationality.

Another paradox derives from the writings of Locke, who advocated at the time of the American and French Revolutions that all “men” are created equal. This thinking was an extension of Hobbes' notion of reason: if individual reason is paramount, then no individual's reason is superior to another's. Moreover, as Locke and others advocated, freedom from oppressive control of reason is an inherent right. Pragmatists or utilitarians (Bentham, Mill, Smith) picked up on this line of thought and argued that individual pursuit of happiness is also a basic right. Together, this thinking converged into the proposition that free people, each choosing personal happiness, would advance society as a whole to greater and greater heights. But free people each choosing personal happiness seems to be a formula for disaster in the commons dilemma, and thus a second paradox.

It is worth noting that there are many commentaries in recent decades pertaining to the absence of fulfillment of the basic assumptions in the above paragraph in American culture. For example, there are gender issues related to the assumption that all “men” are created equal, and even in incorporating “equality” for all into the Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Constitution, the Founders were explicit that slaves were not equal to nonslaves, and the slavery of the time implied an absence of freedom for some. But the notions of inherent rights to freedom, equality, and pursuit of happiness persist in Western thought, although courts regularly rule on limits to these rights.

A third paradox, according to Edney, evolves from the consequences of people being free and equal, and is directly related to the ecological proposition that diversity maximizes adaptive potential in times of change. Specifically, if each person is free to exercise individual reason and choice, then as circumstances change (e.g., new economic opportunities arise, new technology becomes available, new uses of a resource appear, new consequences of environmental degradation are discovered), some individuals will be at an advantage and some at a disadvantage in terms of adapting to the change (e.g., having access to the technology vs. not having access, being dependent on a resource that is being degraded vs. having alternatives to the resource). Differential adaptation to some

changes may lead to extreme inequalities in terms of wealth, health, education, procreation, defense capabilities, and access to resources. Thus, a third paradox is that over time, freedom inevitably leads to inequality.

Inequality, in turn, often leads people to seek justice. Although cultures and individuals define justice differently, it usually involves notions of equality, equity (proportionality of outcomes to inputs), redistribution of wealth or opportunities, and/or retribution for perceived injustice. Indeed, revolutions are motivated by the search for justice. And, simulation after simulation of the commons dilemma shows that destructive overconsumption is often the result of perceptions that others are overconsuming, and therefore if one participant is unfairly using the resource, justice says that it is fair for all to overconsume.

So what does this lead us to say about the role of environmental psychology in the debate over diversity? First, let us summarize the arguments above. Diversity maximizes adaptive potential. Reason and rationality dictate that we act in self-interest. We should all be equal, at least in principle. We should also be free from oppression and free to exercise individual reason and to pursue happiness, and exercising these rights will lead to the greatest good for the group. But in being free to exercise reason and self-interest as we adapt to change, inequalities will inevitably occur in the long run. Often, these inequalities correspond with differences in ethnic diversity. The demand for justice—to some way restore “equality” however defined in the eye of the beholder—leads to tension. The perception of injustice or unfairness can lead to ruin if not adequately addressed. One role of psychology in this whole process is to discover and disseminate nondestructive mechanisms to address the perceptions of injustice.

Research from environmental and social psychology suggests some means of achieving favorable outcomes. Some political systems have suggested forced equality for all, but as the arguments above suggest and these political systems have shown, freedom and forced equality cannot co-exist for long. Indeed, research on the commons dilemma suggests that a better solution focuses on the long run. Specifically, it is *short-term* self-interest that destroys shared resources. *Long-term* self-interest implies cooperatively managing the common resource so that it is available for all to share well into the future. But acting in this long-term self-interest means sacrificing what appears to be a more prominent short-term self-interest (i.e., immediate overindulgence). What moves participants in the direction of long-term self-interest, which also happens to be long-term group interest? Factors such as friendship, group identity, group interdependence, focus on common goals, moral exhortation to be altruistic, rewards for abandoning short-term self-interest, and punishments for engaging in short-term self-interest have all been shown to be effective (e.g., Martichuski & Bell, 1991). When feasible, dividing resources into privately owned shares can also be successful, but sometimes feasibility is not there, as in the case of the air we breathe or our national parks.

Psychologists could write volumes on each one of the above factors. One that is increasingly important in today's world is privatization. Privatization can help preserve a resource, but not

all resources can be divided immediately (e.g., air) and many cannot be divided into smaller and smaller practical parcels indefinitely (e.g., farm land). Another factor important in today's world is group interdependence. As Morton Deutsch (1973) has so eloquently observed, the more our fates are promotively linked—the more our positive outcomes are linked to positive outcomes for others and negative outcomes for us are linked to negative outcomes for others—the more we are motivated to seek positive outcomes for others and for ourselves (and, similarly, avoid negative outcomes). In such a system, it is in our long-term self-interest to succeed and to make sure others in the system succeed.

If inequality and diversity results from differential success at adapting to multiple changes, then diversity is inevitable. We do not know what changes and challenges await us in the future, nor do we know who among us is better equipped to adapt to unknown future changes. However, if we are interdependently linked to those who have better adapted to prior changes in the environment, and interdependently linked to those who are better equipped to adapt to unknown changes in the future, it is to our long-term advantage. It follows that such linkage means it is to everyone's long-term advantage to preserve the environment on which we are collectively dependent, and to preserve the adaptive potential of others' social and biological heritage.

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Inequalities and Mismanagement of Scarcity

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As various resources become depleted, scarcity is a problem that faces more and more people. When a resource becomes scarce, the society that is dependent on the resource is faced with the dilemma of determining which of its members will retain access to the resource. This requires the society to make value judgments, and, "...in an egalitarian society, unless the scarce good is divided and distributed equally, a contradiction is created as soon as allocation begins." (Edney, 1981, p. 9). The problems involved with managing a scarcity can be exacerbated in situations where there are inequalities outside of those caused

by allocation of the scarce resource. One of the most illustrative examples of this would be a situation in which those people who are suffering from the scarcity belong to a different group, however the groups are delineated, than the people who are expected to manage the scarcity. One such situation occurred in Ireland during and immediately following the potato blight, from 1845-1852.

When *Phytophthora infestans* first appeared in Ireland in August of 1845, the danger was not immediately apparent. The early potato crop that had been harvested that month had been healthy. It was not until the harvest of the main crop began in October that the fungus truly made its presence felt. As it turned out, "about one-third of the late crop was lost that season, although the full impact was not obvious until many of the apparently sound potatoes stored in pits after harvesting were found to be rotten when uncovered." (Gray, 1995, p. 35). This came at a time when over half of Ireland's population was dependent on the potato as their main food (Ó Gráda, 1995). The result was that by 1851, Ireland had lost over 2,000,000 people, roughly one-half of that being due to famine related deaths and the other half due to emigration. This number accounted for over one-fourth of the total population. Now, Ireland is the only European country to have had a larger population in 1840 than it does today (Kinealy, 1997).

There are many different ways of looking at the devastating effects of *Phytophthora infestans* on the potato crops, and subsequently the people, of Ireland. On the one extreme is the belief, not uncommon at the time of the blight, that was expressed by Sir Charles Trevelyan, who played an important role in devising and implementing the government's relief strategies. According to Trevelyan, the potato blight was, "the judgement of God on an indolent and un-self-reliant people" (Kinealy, 1997, p.4). At the other extreme is the view best summed up by Irish nationalist John Mitchel--"the Almighty, indeed, sent the potato blight but the English created the Famine" (ibid., p. 6). And, of course, there are many viewpoints on the spectrum between these two extremes. Both extremes do appear to converge on a single point, that of the perceived inequality.

To outside observers, the poor of Ireland were particularly primitive and backward, both compared with the poor of other countries, and compared with the Anglo-Irish elite that constituted the ruling class in Ireland. Observers more familiar with Ireland and its history may have seen in these images the direct result of the marginalizing of the majority of the island's indigenous people. The particulars of the conquest of Ireland, such as Cromwell's campaign and the penal laws, provide an interesting lens through which to view the social, economic, and political status of the rural Catholic poor on the eve of the potato crop failures. While academic objectivity affords us a vantage point where we can clearly see the enormous impact that political and economic ideology in England played in the starvation of so many, people who can see the matter in a more emotional, subjective manner cannot fail to see in these circumstances all the stereotypical inequalities that exist between The Oppressors and The Oppressed. Some argue that this contentious history serves as evidence that the mismanagement of the effects of the potato blight were

deliberate, while others see the mismanagement as a logical outcome of the prevailing economic and political ideologies of the time. In either case, the relief strategies employed do seem flawed in retrospect. The most familiar of these strategies are free trade and public works, which will be discussed (albeit briefly and superficially).

The views expressed by Trevelyan were echoed in what some considered to be the economic implications of the potato blight. Some members of the ruling class in England, "saw it as a chance for the economy (belatedly) to achieve its natural balance: to do any more than the minimum to alleviate the starvation would deprive Ireland of the opportunity to achieve the right balance and to modernise" (Kinealy, 1997, p. 10). While it is true that in 1846 the Corn Laws, which were designed to protect British agriculture from less expensive foreign grain, were repealed, the main motivation was to promote free trade in general. Also, while the British government did import maize to be sold to relief committees and then sold by those committees at cost price, the intent of allowing this foreign corn into the market was not to feed people, but to keep grain prices down (Kinealy, 1997). Another aspect of relief policy that seemed counterproductive to some of those who were suffering was the export of grain from Ireland while people were starving. As it happened, the "Government relied instead on the self-correcting power of the price mechanism and free trade to match supply and demand" (Ó Gráda, 1995, p. 53).

In order for free trade to stem the tide of starvation, those who were starving would need money to purchase the food. To that end, public works were instituted. There was obviously a limit to how much manual labor people who are ill and malnourished would be able to complete. As a result, many people were working for wages that wouldn't keep their families from starving. The failure of this strategy is closely related to the failure of free trade to solve the problem of starvation--"Had the poor in Ireland been granted a living wage on the public works during the winter of 1846-47, then no doubt an adequate supply of food would have been forthcoming from across the Irish Sea or further afield" (Ó Gráda, 1997, p. 55).

The main criticism of these particular strategies was that they simply didn't provide enough relief. Some argue that it is unfair to expect the British government to have done more than it did. Indeed, some historians hold that, "the British government did all that reasonably could have been expected of it" (Kinealy, 1997, p. 3). There are others, however, who point out the contrasts between what the government did and what it was clearly capable of at the time. The total amount of money spent by the Treasury on relief works was just over £8,000,000. This figure was contrasted with the £20,000,000 given to slave-owners just a decade before to compensate them for the emancipation of their slaves, as well as with the £70,000,000 spent a decade later on the Crimean War (Gray, 1995).

Whether the mismanagement of this crisis was deliberate, for whatever reason, or incidental, the role it can play as a cautionary example must not be lost on us. This example provides a startling picture of what can happen when politics and economics, instead of any type of moral imperative, determine how a society responds to lethal scarcities. It also

shows us how prejudices, be they social, ethnic, or religious, can seriously impact how the scarcity is managed. Unfortunately, the potential for crisis like the potato blight in Ireland to occur today exists in any place where the political or economic good of a majority can be made a higher priority than the survival of a minority.

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Environmental Psychology and Culture

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Looking at the world from the perspectives of culture, ethnicity, race, gender, and minority status opens up vistas of possibilities for social scientists, especially psychologists interested in populations and environments. Some of the topics are new, others are not, but most offer incompletely charted areas for exploration. These areas are exciting in terms of their prospects and possibilities.

Focusing on environmental psychology and on culture, in this brief essay I shall lay the ground work of possibilities and vantage points or ways of seeing. In the process I shall also touch on ethnic groups, ethnicity, race, minority and gender issues. The points I bring up relate to conceptual, methodological, and ethical matters.

In the past, for psychologists, making distinctions among populations, cultures, ethnicities, races, and sexes was not considered important. Humankind was seen as one and differences were seen as negligible or minor. Methodologically, a focus on differences would have narrowed the applicability of their studies, thereby reducing generalizability. It went against the notion that an appropriate result of research was to develop theories that would have wide generalizability i.e. be akin to laws with few, if any, exceptions.

This approach led to the suppression of research interest in breaking down large populations to enable more focused studies of specific populations. Yet, psychologists were aware that large populations needed to be differentiated based on certain kinds of characteristics. Here I am referring to studies focusing on traits for example. From these studies we learned that people with certain traits tended to have certain preferences or behaviors. These traits, however, were ones that anyone in the population could have and were not confined to specific

populations. Even though many of the studies were geographically based, that is, the sample was derived from populations in specific geographic areas, the focus was not on those populations themselves but on findings that could transcend that geographical area and that population to people everywhere.

In another part of academia, anthropologists and sociologists studying people were focusing their attention on socially developed world views, activities, mores, rituals, and practices. They described socialization practices and how new members were aided or even compelled in taking on a world view and way of thinking similar to that of the group, and how, once socialized they continued these ways. Within these disciplines, there was one set of social scientists interested in the psychology of these group members. Another set was interested in how people in these groups perceived items on standardized tests.

Almost parallel to this, were some psychologists who focused on small groups as the subject of their research. They observed how small numbers of people, when given certain tasks that required them to interact with the others, behaved, thought, and were influenced in their decisions by others in the set, or confederates introduced by the researchers.

These approaches were examining, although not explicitly, issues that should have led to the realization of the importance of culture. Underlying many of these studies was the often unacknowledged sense that people's cultures affected not only individual choices, but also their psyches and the way they conceptualized and acted. The important conceptual point here is that people do not develop their psyches independently in total isolation but, as George Herbert Mead pointed out, are affected strongly by significant others in early life and later by the generalized other. Erving Goffman showed how people tend to present themselves in ways they perceive the other would like to see them.

It thus makes sense to focus on cultural values as they seem to affect a person's preferences, choices, behavior, and wellbeing. Therefore, the intersection of culture and psychology forms a fruitful area for research.

Culture, the concept, is universal, but cultures or cultural values vary from group to group. This leads to rethinking of methodologies and to investigation of the appropriateness of various methodologies. More on this later.

Psychologists have begun to refocus their efforts on questions that differentiate populations along cultures. There is work comparing the academic performance of students in China with that of the United States. Although the administering of standardized tests (developed by or in one culture) to people of other cultures and comparing the results aggregated for countries is not new, this approach is different in that it treats culture as a variable, especially as an independent variable. It points out that cultures vary in their views of a subject. Although these studies point to the importance of differentiating populations and breaking down large agglomerations there is a need to go farther with the idea of culture.

From a conceptual perspective, it becomes important to understand what culture is, and how it affects people's psychologies. Cultural conditioning or socialization is an

important factor. My research on Vietnamese Americans, still ongoing, reveals that sharing of rooms by children, not simply for the inability to afford a house with more rooms, can be valued for the interaction with siblings and relatives this design facilitates. It is not unusual for Vietnamese Americans and Chinese Americans to purchase adjacent properties to facilitate such interaction and the closeness it brings, even though it leads to loss of privacy. It is also expected that relatives and close friends will visit, that they will stay for long periods, will cook and sleep. The house then is continuously transformed, and the importance placed on privacy and territoriality is minimal. Children grow up observing this and do not necessarily see it as a problem, unless their school friends espouse different values.

Culture is not necessarily some distant and exotic entity. Although cultures related to nations and geographic regions continue in importance, there are other levels at which culture exists. Any groups of people interacting for extended periods develops its own values, mores, notions of appropriate and inappropriate behavior. It is important to note that nested in larger cultures are sub-cultures. This definition enables us to study smaller and more closer-to-home cultures, such as organizational culture.

Studies comparing workers from one cultural group with others in work or office environments indicate some of the variety in not only the use of space. Research by Amos Rapoport and Craig Zimring is instructive here. Not only the use of space but also the conceptualization and valuation of space are important to understand. Thus, although it is useful to treat culture as a variable, it is important to also understand in an in-depth way the culture itself.

Finally, there may be some ethical issues involved. What I describe below are not research ethics in the traditional sense. They refer to the effects of studies that tend not to understand and to overlook the issue of culture. Studies focusing on the derivation of mean or normal tend to suppress those preferences different from the mean. For those who are not in the normal range, this may mean overlooking one part of their personality - the part that is different.

When normal is derived from studies of one culture, or one distinct subset of a population, it does disservice to others. For example, if based on studies in Europe or America we deduced that people have a need for privacy, of being able to be alone, this might imply that those who do not have similar needs for privacy are abnormal in some way. Alternatively, studies done in certain parts of India or China may lead to the conclusion that people do not have a strong need for privacy. This in turn may lead Europeans to feel inadequate, abnormal, or even guilty.

For an agenda for research, it is useful to look at some interesting possibilities. Recently, Suad Joseph has been developing the concept of relational self suggesting that the self is mired in a myriad of social, family and kin relationships, and is hardly independent. Others have suggested that African American individuals have strong relationships with others and take that into consideration in their choice-making. American Psychologist in 1996 looked at issues faced by psychologists from non-western cultures who, when they returned from their studies in the west, had to alter their practice to fit (see the work of Kenneth Gergen, Girishwar Misra, Durganand Sinha, Aydan

Gulercer and others). Culture & Psychology, a journal started in 1995, also provides options that include culture.

Culture exists in various populations. A race can be a single culture, but likely consists of several other cultures. Ethnic groups can be a culture but could be more than one culture. Minority issues involve culture but tend to focus more on power or lack thereof to change conditions, or facing discrimination. It thus is useful to focus on culture as a way of understanding the core issues involved.

The methodology most appropriate for the kind of work is anti-positivistic. This requires proper training in how to conduct such research. A re-orientation may be necessary. Recent books on qualitative research may help. Data collection techniques include observation; participant observation; in-depth, open-ended, unstructured interviewing; text analysis, and others.

But most important, is the need to shift the focus to culture, and the need for verstehen or in-depth understanding, from which theory can be developed. This approach will enrich psychology and enable a better understanding of different groups.

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FROM THE PRESIDENT... DR. ROBERT'S ICE CUBE REVERIE

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I rarely use ice cubes in my beverages, but a few days ago when I was hot after cutting the grass I plunked a few into a glass. In my relaxation haze, I pondered the clinking cubes and conversations I've recently enjoyed with a colleague from the Netherlands who is visiting me and who has just published a book on energy use.

The curious mix of cubes and conversations recalled made me realize that I was consuming energy when I plunked those ice cubes. More precisely, it was when I chucked out the half-melted cubes that I realized I had used a certain amount of energy to create them, then wasted a good part of that energy by throwing half of the cubes into the sink.

OK, I admit this was a pretty small waste of energy. But...what if we added up all the energy we use to create all the ice cubes that we all use merely to cool our drinks, and what if we measured how many ice cubes are not even fully utilized?

Not convinced? OK, I thought not everyone would be, so I decided to learn how much energy we spend for a big time activity: airline flights. Searching the web, I found some Federal Aviation Administration pages that list total miles traveled, fuel consumption, and number of passengers on US air carriers (this omits all other countries' air carriers, of course). For any serious fact-checkers or interested readers, the basic page is <http://api.hq.faa.gov/forca98/fortab2.htm>; see Tables 13 and 18.

Well, after comparing a few tables, and doing a few calculations, I discovered that next year, US air carriers expect to host about 59.9 million passengers, who will fly about 159 billion miles and use about 20.8 billion gallons of fuel to do so. The average flight will be about 2637 miles, which seems long, but the figures include international flights by US carriers. That comes out to about 347 gallons of fuel, per person, per average flight. That's a lot of ice cubes, no? Moreover, each passenger will travel at about 7.5 miles per gallon on that average flight, if my calculations are correct. What if your car(s) got 7.5 miles per gallon?

I selected airline flights because the book I mentioned, by Dr. Linda Steg, which was written in Dutch (but for an English summary, see "Summary" at <http://www.scp.nl/uk/Publicaties/index.html>) points out that North American middle-class folk, such as ourselves, who espouse many environmental ideals and usually even recycle, nevertheless are the largest users of energy. Why? Because although we recycle, our houses are larger, they contain more gadgets, and we drive and fly off to more places...and that's where the serious energy use lies.

So what, say you? As conservative economists such as Julian Simon tell us, there's no problem. Why? Because (a) we keep discovering new sources of energy, (b) current estimates about available fossil fuels are that there are huge reserves left in the earth, (c) the low price of energy reflects that reality, ergo (d) there is no energy problem. The economic facts clearly show there's no problem.

But there is. The problem is not a shortage of energy, or its price, but the byproducts of energy use: pollution and atmospheric changes. True, every new plane and car pollutes less than previous models (sport utility vehicles excepted!), but there are so many newer vehicles and they are traveling so much farther (e.g., US airline carrier miles are expected to increase 42% between 1992 to 2000; see Table 13 from the FAA website above).

An article in the October issue of *BioScience* by Cornell researchers estimates that 40% of deaths worldwide are caused by pollution and related environmental factors. A new book by a respected Canadian science writer (Lydia Dotto, *Storm Warning*) claims that the debate about whether the climate is really warming up is pretty well over: it is.

Even if these figures are a bit high (or low), they are large enough for serious concern.

But what has this to do with environmental psychology? Along with many others, I have long held the view that these big environmental problems are the cumulative effect of many individual actions and choices. Not attitudes--everyone is an environmentalist by professed belief now--but actions. Division 34 is the home of knowledge about individual actions and the environment. We are responsible for figuring out how to get middle-class North Americans (mostly, but others too) to act in accordance with their beliefs. That's the tough job, and the one that I see as our prime challenge in the new millenium.

This is my final column in this forum before I pass the presidential gavel to Robert Sommer in August. It's been fun and I truly have felt honored to hold this post. Over to you, Bob.

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A DAY-IN-THE-LIFE... of an Academic Environmental Psychologist

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Non-academics are most aware of the few hours we spend in the classroom each week; yet surveys of my department show that faculty average 60 hours of work a week. What on earth do we do that requires these hours? One of my days might show how academics divide their time between our three standard duties of teaching, research, and service.

I arrive at 7:30 a.m. to print out the new overheads for today's lecture; the class is an interdisciplinary one, Introduction to Home and Community Environments. Class capacity grew from 45 students last year to 200 students this year. So my colleagues and I are converting it from a class with a reading packet, papers, and essay exams to one with a textbook, in-class exercises, and multiple choice exams. I try to make the lectures interesting and memorable by embellishing lecture outlines with numerical graphs or tables and pictures. This year I have been teaching myself to use presentation software to help with this.

Last night I found some great statistics from the Texas Transportation Institute. Salt Lake won the traffic congestion race, with the greatest increase in congestion over a recent 5-year period. I created a table illustrating congestion increases in various cities. In addition, a recent newspaper photo of local traffic calming measures installed on local streets was digitally scanned and incorporated into my overhead outline for the lecture.

I can tell from the students' reactions that their favorite overhead today is a national archives poster illustrating that government policy in WWII encouraged energy savings through car-sharing. A man drives with a ghost image of Hitler in the passenger seat. The caption: When you ride ALONE you ride with Hitler! Join a car-sharing club TODAY! It makes for an interesting contrast to current policies that create high demands for energy inefficient solo driving (subsidies for parking, freeways, suburban home loans, etc.). An award winning teacher from my department sits in on my class today as part of a formal peer evaluation; I will get a written evaluation at the end of the semester from him.

Research. I have two research meetings today. One involves Envision Utah, a partnership that is planning growth in the local region, which will balloon from 1.7 million to 5 million people by the year 2050. I have been consulting with them about the design and social qualities of healthy neighborhoods and communities and I created and conducted citizen workshops to test visual preferences for community design and policy alternatives. Envision has been instrumental in developing both public awareness and new laws. It has described four different growth plans, that vary according to

average lot size, amount of public transportation, infrastructure costs, pollution amounts, etc. Because the least costly plans involve denser living arrangements than we have currently, many citizens have expressed fear about these changes. At the meeting, and weekly in our local paper, citizens question how the four different growth plans would relate to privacy and open space, crowding, air pollution, congestion, perceived government interference in land use, etc. Environmental psychology topics are clearly central to citizen hopes and fears about the future.

The next meeting occurs while I grab a quick brown bag lunch and talk with a graduate student who is developing a survey to test community satisfaction and place attachment in neighborhoods with and without accessory apartments over the garage. As more citizens resist accepting residential apartments in their neighborhood, we have wondered whether accessory apartments in rear garages, accessed through alleyways, provide a more acceptable way to blend renters and owners.

Service. Those unfamiliar with academia might be surprised at the extent to which university life is filled with committees and service roles. These service activities extend to the department (curriculum, area, hiring, promotion, scholarships, graduate admissions, self-study, peer teaching reviews), the University (senate, personnel committees, scholarship committees, etc.), the community (guest lectures, advisory services to community groups, occasional media interviews), and the profession (editorial board duties, task forces, letters of recommendation and review, professional society duties). Today I represent the faculty on the Campus Planning Advisory Committee, where we discuss new student housing being built for the 2002 Winter Olympics on campus and the light rail line planned to link the University and the airport. There are lots of environmental psychology issues here, such as trying to educate the campus about the impossibility of providing everyone a parking space and how light rail stops must be sited close to well-used destinations to be effective. The devoted drivers on campus want the rail stops relegated to the distant fringes of campus, guaranteeing fewer riders and greater pressure on existing scarce parking spaces.

Like most days, I also deal with 20 or so e-mails, plus a few phone calls and drop-in requests from students. Today two students ask me about our department's graduate program, because I serve the department as the Graduate Director. By the time I get through these routine but unscheduled requests, I have not had time to work on the manuscript review I had planned to start today. Maybe tonight. It is 6:00 and I'm ready to go home.

When I reflect on how many audiences are eager for environmental psychology information, whether through research, service, or teaching pathways, it always surprises me that ours is such a small division of APA. So when I advise students who want to go into academia, I urge them to consider both positive and negative aspects of the field. On the positive side, no single discipline can fully address large complicated societal problems. Hence, the interdisciplinary orientation, field research, and relevance of environmental psychology are valuable tools to address fundamental issues of humans in environments. Yet explicitly multidisciplinary departments like mine (soon to be renamed Family, Consumer, and Community

Studies) are all too scarce for students to count on landing a job in one of them. So I encourage graduate students who share my passion for environmental topics to make sure they choose research topics and describe their research in ways that make their value clear to more mainstream disciplinary departments in psychology, sociology, planning, or design. The rewards of having research topics so relevant that the ideas jump out at you from the daily newspaper are, in my opinion, enough to merit the extra efforts needed to communicate with traditional disciplines.

Barbara Brown, Ph.D. can be reached by e-mail at brown@fcs.utah.edu.

DIVISION BUSINESS ANNOUNCEMENT

Important Change in the Division Possible

As some of you know, a group of a couple of hundred psychologists whose interest lies in the study of human-animal relations has approached Division 34. They had previously sought to form their own division, but apparently have not been able to accomplish this.

Were they to join, they might wish to form a separate subdivision within Division 34, and would, by virtue of their numbers, become a substantial portion of Division 34.

My conversations with numerous Division 34 and APA members have yielded a spectrum of opinion. One view is that an influx of new interest and energy would be an enriching development for the division. Another view holds that we are already rather diverse, and further dilution of our divisional mandate would weaken our organization.

How to decide? Representatives of the group will make a presentation to the division's Executive Committee at APA in August (Saturday at noon). The Executive Committee will, I expect, move an executive motion to be considered at the division's Business Meeting (Monday at noon). A decision will be made at the Business Meeting, where any member can discuss, debate, and vote.

Thus, the obvious: if this issue is important to you, attend the Business Meeting, listen to the discussion, and vote. If you care, but cannot attend the Business Meeting, at least express your opinion to any executive committee member, or to me (rgifford@uvic.ca).

Robert Gifford, Ph.D., President, Division 34

BOOK REVIEWS

Environmental Discourse

A review of: Harré, R., Brockmeier, J., & Mühlhäusler, P. (1999). *Greenspeak: A study of environmental discourse*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. ISBN: 0-7619-1704-7 (hardcover) / ISBN: 0-7619-1705-5 (paperback).

Reviewed by Monroe Friedman, Ph.D., Eastern Michigan University

Years ago I had a friend and colleague with an annoying habit. When we engaged in intellectual conversations he would often respond to a comment of mine as follows: "I'm a little confused by what you just said since you used a word with several meanings and I'm not sure which one you had in mind." Usually a quick explanation from me would do but sometimes it would include another puzzling word which prompted a repeat of his comment. Needless to say, these conversations were often long and tedious. Sometimes, however, I found that they were extremely helpful in that they forced me to examine rather conventional (some might say pedestrian) approaches I had been taking to scholarly subjects.

Reading *Greenspeak: A Study of Environmental Discourse* is an experience not unlike these conversations - sometimes frustrating but often very useful in forcing one to scrutinize the language commonly used to characterize environmental phenomena. The authors are three Europeans with extensive training and scholarly experience relating to language and the environment; indeed, two of them (Harré and Mühlhäusler) recently team-taught a course on this topic at Oxford.

The focus of the book is not on environmental phenomena per se, but on human discourse about these phenomena. The authors pursue an interdisciplinary analysis of environmental discourse by examining philosophical, linguistic, psychological, cultural and historical perspectives. Rather than put forth a pro-environment argument the authors present an extensive and sophisticated scholarly examination of the methods of persuasion and advocacy employed in the environmental debate by the "conservationists" on one side and by the "conservatives" on the other. Based on studies of various text samples generated between 1992 and 1996 (mostly from British rather than American sources), the authors show how such terms as "pollution," "growth," "waste," "disposable," "biodegradable," "environmentally friendly," and "sustainability" are often used not to elucidate or enlighten but as tools in a Greenspeak debate by one side or the other. A theme sounded repeatedly in this nine-chapter volume concerns the interdependencies of the natural world (the physical environment) and the social, political and economic institutions that form its human context. The authors conclude with a penetrating analysis of philosophical issues relating to moral and esthetic perspectives on environmental discourse.

This brief review of *Greenspeak* does not do justice to its pathbreaking contribution to a fuller understanding of the environmental issues before the world at the turn of the century. While a difficult read at times, and especially for environmental psychologists trained in a sensation-perception tradition rather than a social-context tradition, the effort is well worth it. This pioneering book provides an opportunity to enlarge one's intellectual perspectives on environmental issues under the guidance of three erudite masters of their scholarly subject matter.

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Do We Need Ecopsychology?

A review of: Howard, G.S. (1997). *Ecological psychology: Creating a more earth-friendly human nature*. Notre Dame, IN: Notre Dame University Press. ISBN: 0-268-00938-4 (paperback).

Reviewed by Russ Parsons, Ph.D., Dept of. Landscape Architecture, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

A strong argument can be made that ecopsychology is not psychology at all, but a social movement that has mined concepts and terminology from a narrow vein of clinical psychology and applied them to ecological concerns (Reser, 1995). In fact, one of its most prominent proponents regards ecopsychology as an emerging synthesis of the ecological and the psychological, with the latter narrowly defined in terms of psychotherapy and psychiatry (Roszak, 1995, p. 4). A similarly strong argument can be made that, to the extent that ecopsychologists embrace such ecologically dubious concepts as the balance of nature, the global web of life or the Gaia hypothesis, ecopsychology is also rather poor ecology (cf. Budiansky, 1995). Thus, this emerging social movement is at once overly catholic and parochial in its understanding of ecological and psychological disciplines, respectively. At its best, Howard's *Ecological Psychology* works to expand the role for psychologists in the study of ecologically irresponsible behavior. On the whole, however, this brief, personal account of one psychologist's awakening to the world's ecological problems does little to rectify the primary weaknesses of ecopsychology.

The first part of the book recounts various aspects of our current environmental malaise, highlighting two general proximate causes: overpopulation and overconsumption. For those familiar with global environmental crises, there is nothing new here. Chapters in part one on overpopulation, the carrying capacity of the earth, and business and ecology are sandwiched between an introduction to our "blindness" to ecological problems and a conclusion that describes the "killer thoughts" that characterize our current view of human nature. The idea that most of us are blind to the ecologically destructive effects of our actions is a conceit that runs throughout the book, and it forms the basis on which psychologists can contribute to the modification of inappropriate behaviors. Chapters in the second part of the book alternately provide anecdotes and advice about the five principles of sustainable living: conservation, recycling, renewable resource use, restoration and population control. Included are stories about Howard's initial forays into recycling and his students' attempts to get Notre Dame University to use compact florescent light bulbs in its dormitories, as well as advice about how to live financially sustainable lives as a first step towards leading environmentally sustainable lives. Little is said about world population other than that it should be

controlled, and ecological restoration is not directly addressed at all.

Though the argument is never fully developed, Howard believes that we are blind to ecological crises because being responsive to them would require putting limits on our wants and desires, and in the exercise of those homely limits we would recognize the most psychologically important limit of our lives, our mortality. Thus, we use Freudian defense mechanisms (denial, self-deception, etc.) to deny death as it is symbolically manifest in limits to our material well-being. The specific form of these defense mechanisms is the abovementioned *killer thoughts* (killer because they lead to ecological destruction), which are a function of our maximization/optimization view of human nature. Howard, a counseling psychologist, argues that ecologically destructive views of human nature are derived from three contemporary belief systems, rational economic man theory, behavioral psychology and sociobiology, which are variations on the general theme of maximization/optimization. Killer thoughts that flow from this view of human nature include the ideas that consumption produces happiness, growth is good (economic as well as the size of one's family), present consumption is preferred to investment in the future, free-market capitalism is the best economic system, etc. To counter such killer thoughts, we must change our maximization/optimization view of human nature. Howard's research specialization is free will (agentic behavior), and he uses this work to argue that people's actions are principally governed by the stories they choose to believe about what is real, true and important in their lives. These core narratives, which are socially and culturally constructed, constitute human nature for Howard; so, to foster ecologically responsible behavior, psychologists must persuade people to believe more "earth-friendly" stories about what is true, real and important.

This line of reasoning, which must be culled from disparate chapters, contains many implicit assumptions that are not adequately addressed in this book. Some of the more obvious include an unwarranted faith in the power of belief- and attitude-change to elicit desired behavioral changes (see Gardner & Stern, 1996); the attribution of ecological blindness to a fear of death rather than to more pedestrian limitations on the range of phenomena people ordinarily include in their commonsense psychologies (Kelley, 1992); and, the assumption that human tendencies to overconsume are attributable to three recently developed Western belief systems as opposed to a less era- and culture-specific (common) human desire to improve one's material well-being (Lewis, 1996).

Given these fairly major weaknesses, it bears repeating that this is a personal account of ecopsychology, not a scholarly one. Howard does not specify his intended audience, though one of the endorsements on the cover suggests that this book "should be required reading for every high school senior and college freshman," and we can assume that this is a reasonable target. If so, the conversational tone and engaging style of a personal approach might inspire younger readers. However, regardless of their age, we would still want readers to know what the ecopsychology movement is. Howard does not define his use of the term "ecological psychology" nor distinguish it from the ecological psychology of Barker or Gibson, a failure that is

fairly typical of the ecopsychology movement (notwithstanding a few feckless attempts to trace the intellectual provenance of ecopsychology to Gibson's theory of perception; DuNann Winter, 1996; Hill, 1995). We would also want readers to know about the directly pertinent work in *environmental psychology* (again, see Gardner & Stern, 1996), which all too often is neglected by writers in the ecopsychology movement, and which is relegated to a single paragraph in one of the appendices of Howard's book. And, we would want readers to have an understanding of ecology that is rooted in science and yet recognizes the poetry of the natural world, rather than the obverse. In the main, the ecology in Howard's *Ecological Psychology* hews to this standard.

Finally, as environmental scientists, we might ask ourselves this question: Considering the ecopsychology movement's parochial psychology, uncritically catholic ecology, and often strident postmodernism (i.e., antiscientism), and acknowledging the existing, directly pertinent theoretical frameworks and empirical literature in environmental psychology, do we need ecopsychology?

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APA 1999 CONVENTION ABSTRACTS

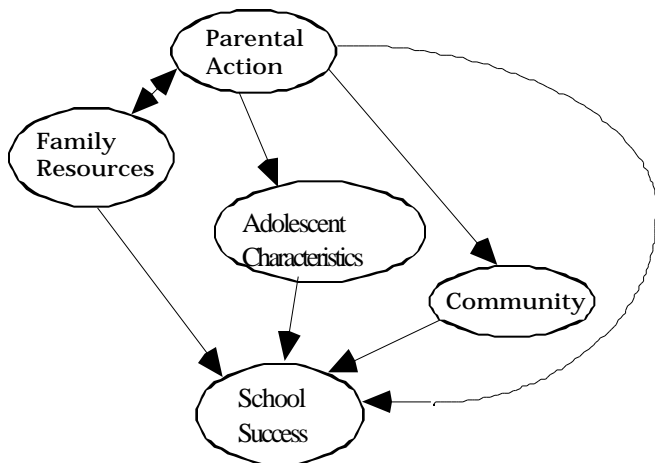
The following is a sampling of abstracts from the Division 34 program at the APA Convention this August in Boston, and of presentations by Division 34 members that are in the programs of other divisions. Authors whose abstracts do not appear here

may have them included in the Autumn issue of PEPB if they submit them by the deadline of October 1, 1999.

**SYMPOSIUM:
POPULATION AND ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS
PROMOTING SCHOOL SUCCESS.**

Toni Falbo, Ph.D.
Department of Educational Psychology
University of Texas at Austin
and
Laura Lein, Ph.D.
School of Social Work
University of Texas at Austin

This symposium explores the effects of population and environmental characteristics on children's successful transition from middle to high school. The figure below summarizes the theoretical model underlying the research described in this symposium. This model reflects earlier works by Romo and Falbo (1996) indicating that parental action is strongly determinative of school success and Edin and Lein (1997) indicating that family resources constrain the actions that families can take.



The symposium consists of case studies that illustrate how the model works to create school success or failure. The families who participated in the study were recruited from the same middle school, but our data were collected in their homes. The families reflected a wide range of socioeconomic statuses, ethnicities, and family structures.

The symposium draws on a series of diverse family cases to explore a number of issues related to our model. We start with an ideal case, of a family with high resources, which were used to generate effective parental actions that promoted the dazzling success of their talented and gifted son. Then, we present another family with high resources, illustrating how their parental actions were essential for the successful transition of their special education son. The third family we present exemplifies how families with low resources can use community resources to promote the successful transition of their daughter. Our fourth case study explains how constraints in parental time leads children from large families to flounder in

high school. Finally, our last case study will delineate how families living in low income neighborhoods and using ineffective parental actions experience school failure.

References

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- Romo, H.D. and Falbo, T. (1996). *Latino High School Graduation: Defying the Odds*. Austin, Texas: The University of Texas Press.

Case Study 1: The Ideal Family and Student

Cindy A. Blankenship
Department of Educational Psychology
University of Texas at Austin,

The purpose of this presentation is to illustrate how rich family resources and effective parental action promotes the success of adolescents. When we first met this family, the mother described herself as a "very hands-on mother" who "micro managed" her children. In middle school, her son was an outstanding student, but his mother was ever vigilant, making sure every day that he was performing well in school and in competitive swimming. For instance, his mother worked with the middle school's vice-principal in establishing talented and gifted classes equivalent to other schools in their district.

This close monitoring continued into high school. When the son forgot to do one high school assignment, which the mother learned during a school orientation meeting, she bought him an organizer that night, to prevent such mistakes from happening again. When her son protested her close management of him, she responded "I will let you handle it until you show me evidence you can't."

The mother had told us that she thought that her son would be successful in high school as long as he could find a "niche." For several years, she had promoted swimming for her son and encouraged him to compete. This paid off when he tried out and was selected as a member on the varsity swimming team, as a freshman. His mother approved of his having friends who were on the swim team and would allow him to socialize with them. He ended the school year earning straight As in all his classes.

In conclusion, this boy's success at the transition to high school cannot be attributed solely to his innate abilities. His parents had worked toward preparing him for high school, and it paid off, when he made an extremely successful transition to high school.

Case Study 2: Ideal Family and Special Needs Students

Nicole A. Amador and K. Denise Bradley
Department of Educational Psychology
University of Texas at Austin,

Knowledge about school policies and procedures is one mechanism that empowers parents to guide their children's academic success. For example, having knowledge of problems, possible solutions, and a range of available resources

and effective combinations of those resources allows the parent to act to resolve problems that the adolescent may encounter. However, both knowledge and action are crucial to the adolescent's success. A parent could lack knowledge and thus fail to take action, have the knowledge and still fail to take action, or act without sufficient knowledge.

The Phillips family demonstrates this relation between parental knowledge and action and the adolescent's successful transition from middle to high school. The family included a mother, father, and three biological sons, including Justin, a dyslexic. The parents were also joint managing conservators with custody of Carlos, a Hispanic boy in Special Education, and the adoptive parents of an emotionally disturbed daughter. The mother and her two eighth grade sons, Justin and Carlos, participated in this study.

The parents utilized a range of family, school, and community resources, from friends and siblings to school staff and the PTA. Of these resources, the family's access to knowledge about schooling was the key to the adolescents' success. The mother sought the protection of special education laws to help her sons get the type of classes and help they needed to be successful. Throughout all this the mother coached her sons through their schoolwork, while the father coached his sons on the soccer field. Both boys made the transition to high school successfully. Justin made Bs and Cs in challenging courses, while playing on the freshman soccer team; Carlos made Cs on regular or easy classes, while playing on the varsity soccer team.

Case Study 3: Community Help for Low Resource Families

Patricia A. Castenada-English
Department of Educational Psychology
University of Texas at Austin,

Parents with few resources have less to draw on to energize and inform their actions in support of their children's school success. Yet, some children from low resource families succeed in school, often because of the help provided by their communities.

The Garcia family consisted of a father, mother and three teenage daughters. The father had some college; the mother only a 7th grade education in Mexico and a GED. The mother acknowledged that she could not help her daughters with academics; the father was often unable to help because of his long work days.

Instead, the family reached out to their religious community to help them make the transition to high school successfully. Their church provided them with a caring environment reminiscent of a close family. The mother remarked, "The church and all our friends in the church all want the best for our kids. " The members of their church "...helped our daughter achieve whatever she's done because we have school and they have learned how to use the Bible and that's why she learned how to speak Spanish fluently, she writes it, and she speaks it real good and they encourage kids to study." Not only did the church provide academic support and enrichment, but also provided the student with a satisfying social life.

This student developed a positive identification with her Mexican heritage through her extended family, the support of her Spanish language learning through her church, and via her major extracurricular activity, ballet folklorico. The mothers' siblings commented frequently on "how good miija is doing in school and that makes me feel real proud." All of this support culminated in her earning a B average for her entire ninth grade school year, having taken very challenging courses.

Case Study 4: Large Families Limiting Parental Attention

Helen Contreras
Department of Educational Psychology
University of Texas at Austin

Parental attention is a critical factor in helping a teen make the transition to high school successfully. Although teens are more self-sufficient than younger children, they often expect and desire parental attention, warmth, and guidance. Lack of parental attention was a major source of difficulty for the student profiled in this presentation.

Alex was the fourth of eight children, with three older sisters, a younger step-brother, and three younger step-sisters--one of whom is hearing impaired. The family lived in a 3-bedroom home. The parents provided a structured, yet crowded environment. If older children wanted their parents' help, they had to write their requests on a board on the refrigerator. Alex's mother was a homemaker so that she could spend more time with her children; while her stepfather worked 50 to 55 hours a week in order to provide an adequate income for the family.

The parents believed they were doing their best to give each child the attention he or she needed. Alex had a different view. When asked what she wished her parents would do but could not, she simply replied: "I wish my mom would pay more attention to me." While in 8th grade, Alex relied more on her older sisters for help with homework than on her parents, but this changed when she entered 9th grade and her older sisters went away to college.

Although Alex earned enough credits to be promoted to the 10th grade, she received Cs in all core classes. Given that one of her goals was to earn a bachelor's degree, her chances of getting into college would be slim without grade improvements. The family was well aware of school and community resources; yet Alex lacked the kind of individualized academic support necessary for her to be successful in high school.

Case Study 5: Low Income Neighborhoods and Ineffective Parental Actions

Chris E. LaBonte
Department of Educational Psychology
University of Texas at Austin

Growing up in a low income neighborhood, combined with ineffective parental actions, can lead to serious problems for adolescents trying to make the transition to high school. This transition is particularly challenging for students who

already have experienced problems in school. During this transition, parents' abilities to address their children's problems can prevent the exacerbation of these problems in the new environment.

Gary and his mother, Kay, lived in a shack near a low income housing project with his grandmother, described by Kay as "not counting," and many dogs. Gary needed medication in order to function in school, but his mother only mentioned this while explaining that Gary had been suspended from 8th grade for giving a classmate one of his pills in school. When describing Gary's friends, Kay said, "I wouldn't let them play with my dogs."

Soon after entering high school, Gary assaulted the school principal. His mother had lost her job and could no longer afford his medication. Rather than seek help from the school, Kay let the problem grow to the point where Gary could no longer function in school. He was suspended and eventually stopped attending school. Nine months later, Gary was in a juvenile detention center because of his drug use and attempted suicide.

The middle school had been able to work with Gary and his mother to keep Gary in school, but the high school, which was vastly overcrowded and inflexible, was unable to give him the support he needed. Although Kay attempted to meet Gary's needs, most of her energies were dedicated to solving problems after they had become extreme, rather than preventing them. Her ineffective approach to parenting, plus the presence of neighborhood peers who encouraged him to stay away from school played a significant role in Gary's school failure.

City Behavior and Precautionary Measures

Ann Sloan Devlin, Ph.D. Connecticut College

In a between-subjects design, a Precautionary Measures Scale was developed to assess the extent to which 120 participants would endorse 30 precautionary behaviors if visiting a small town, a city, or a metropolis. Results indicated high internal consistency for the measure, and significant main effects for sex and location. Women had significantly higher precautionary scale scores than did men, and participants in both the small city and the metropolis conditions had significantly higher scores than did those in the small town condition. Further, participants classified as Feminine on the Bem Sex-role Inventory had significantly higher scores across locations than did those classified as Masculine.

The Long and Short of "The Long Hot Summer Effect"

James Rotton and Ellen G. Cohn
Florida International University

Previously published data on assaults and domestic violence and unpublished data on complaints about disorderly conduct in Minneapolis, MN, were combined in order to learn more about temperature's long-term effects on violence. Distributed lag

(Box-Jenkins) analyses indicated that variations in temperature were not only associated with violence, but high temperatures preceded domestic violence by 12 hours, assaults by 36 hours, and disorderly conduct investigations by 48 hours. Curvilinear relationships predicted by the negative affect escape model also attained significance in analyses that controlled for diurnal (day-night) cycles, day of the week, and season of the year.

The Soft Classroom 25 Years Later

Robert Sommer, University of California, Davis
Kevin Rafter, City University of New York

The soft classroom was created in 1974 as a collaboration between design and psychology classes and evaluated several times. To improve aesthetics, the room was renovated in postmodern style in 1995. Survey responses indicated that the renovation succeeded in improving aesthetics both relation to the earlier design and to other small classrooms. Students were more pleased than faculty with the new design. Lessons learned from the renovation are described.

Expanding Psychology's Role at the UN: Exemplars of NGO Work -- Environmental Issues

Peter R. Walker, Ph.D.
New College
Hofstra University

Since the Brundtland Report, *Our Common Future*, 1987, increasing diplomatic interest has focused on the interaction between human behavior and the physical environment. The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (1992, UNCED); and HABITAT II (1996, The City Summit) and the annual UN progress reviews are notable examples. This presentation will briefly explore some of the significant issues and NGO interventions, with examples taken from work with the UN/NGO Caucus of Older Persons.

Saturday, August 21, 9:00 - 11:00 A.M.
Hynes Convention Center, Room 110

Chair of Session: Corann Okordudu, Ed.D., Main UN/NGO Representative, Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues (SPSSI)

Participant: Peter R. Walker, Ph.D., NGO Representative, Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues (SPSSI), **Environmental Issues**

Participant: Helen R. Hamlin, M.S.S.W., A.C.S.W., UN/NGO Representative International Federation of Ageing (IFA), **Aging and Family Issues**

Participant: Per Milgeteig, Ph.D., Childwatch International, Norway, **Children's Rights**

Participant: Corann Okordudu, Ed.D., **The Global Agenda for the Advancement of Women and Girls**

Participant: Ricki Kantrowitz, Ph.D., World Federation of Mental Health, **Integrating Mental Health in the UN's Agenda**

Invited Address: Division 23
Consumer Boycotts: Effecting Change through the Marketplace and the Media

Monroe Friedman, Ph.D. Eastern Michigan Univ
 Saturday, August 21, 10:00 A.M.

Dr. Friedman will be speaking on the material in his new book, recently published by Routledge. He will discuss various types of boycotts from their historical focus on labor and economic concerns to more recent inclusion of minority rights, environmental protection, and animal welfare. Strategic emphasis, he says, has shifted from the marketplace to the media, a change which offers insights into larger social and economic issues.

**VISIT THE JOHN F. KENNEDY
 PRESIDENTIAL LIBRARY
 AT APA 1999 IN BOSTON**

The Psychology Department at the University of Massachusetts Boston invites all APA convention goers and their guests to an afternoon at the John F. Kennedy Presidential Library on the Boston Harbor. The department has arranged a special afternoon at the I. M. Pei-designed Presidential Library on Sunday, August 22, 1999, from 1-5 p.m., with 20% off the normal entrance rates. Please identify yourself as part of the APA convention party for the reduced rates. You will note among the exhibits the pioneering legislation that changes our conceptions, research programs, and treatment of the mentally retarded. After your tour please join us at a reception with non-alcoholic beverages and hors d'oeuvres hosted by the U. Mass Psychology department, under a tent on the harbor adjoining the Library. For more information and to reserve a place, please send an e-mail to Psychology@umb.edu.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

New Books

Design by Competition: Making Design Competition Work, by Jack L. Nasar, (Cambridge, 1999, ISBN 0-521-44449-7, hb, 39 photos, 10 diagrams, 9 tables).

The publisher writes: "This innovative book brings a social science and public policy analysis to design competition and signature design. It shows the flaws of competition architecture,

and high brow design in general, for the consumer; and it offers an approach to make design results more meaningful and functional for the public. "Nasar's readable book stands out for its unique outlook and the systematic way in which the author presents and evaluates his results. While architectural critics speculate about the merits of various buildings, this book presents solid evidence on the failures of high style design in general and the Wexner Center, a design competition design heralded as the "building of the decade" and designed by the controversial architect, Peter Eisenman. Also in an innovative use of historiometric analyses, Nasar evaluates the performance of competition design through history.

"Jack Nasar (Ph.D., AICP), professor of City & Regional Planning at the Ohio State University former chair of the Environmental Design Research Association, has published five books on humans response to design and served as architectural critic for the Columbus Dispatch."

Gender, Culture, and Ethnicity: Current Research about Women and Men, edited by Letitia A. Peplau, Sheri C. DeBro, Rosemary C. Veniegas, and Pamela L. Taylor (Mayfield Publishing Co., 1999). Designed for use in college classes, this edited paperback brings together some of the best available research on the joint effects of gender, culture, and ethnicity in people's lives.

Conferences

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August 12-15, 1999

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CoDesigning 2000 11 - 13 September 2000

An International Conference of the Design Research Society

In recent years, the view of design as an essentially individual creative activity has come under increasing question. Instead, for a variety of reasons, design is being viewed, studied and developed as a collective, collaborative, even community process. At the same time, the role of computers and collaboration technology in supporting design has emerged as a major research topic. This conference aims to explore these diverse developments and hence the co in CoDesigning is intended to convey multiple meanings. It covers for example collaborative, cooperative, concurrent, user centred, participatory, socio-technical and community design. In other words, any development where design as a group process is explored. Papers are welcomed that present theories, report empirical studies, methods, tools and techniques of CoDesigning.

Call for Papers: A 200 word abstract of the proposed paper should be sent to the Conference Administrator no later than January 14th 2000 one single printed copy in addition to an electronic copy, preferably in MS Word format. If possible this should be sent via email to CoDesigning@colour.derby.ac.uk where an acknowledgement will be returned to the sender.

The conference referees will review the abstracts by the 18th February 2000 and successful authors will be asked to produce a full text of their paper in a standard format and preferred media, not later than 21st April 2000. The papers will be fully refereed and authors advised of the outcome by 16th June 2000.

Subject Areas: Submissions on all aspects of CoDesigning are welcome. A prize for the best CoDesigning 2000 paper will be awarded by the Design Research Society. CoDesigning is supported by the Design Research Society.

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Publishers, P.O. Box 358, Accord Station, Norwell, MA 02061-0358, or e-mail kluwer@wkap.com.

Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour, a new journal in the Transportation Research series, focuses on the behavioural and psychological aspects of traffic and transport. Editors: J. A. Rothengatter, University of Groningen, the Netherlands, and J. A. Groeger, University of Surrey, UK. Supported by IAAP and published by Elsevier. For more information, visit the journal's web site: <http://www.elsevier.nl/locate/trf>.

Urban Affairs Review, a leading journal on urban issues and themes including urban policy, urban development, residential and community development, metropolitan governance and service delivery, international urban research, and social and cultural dynamics. Edited by Dennis R. Judd, University of Missouri-St. Louis, and published by Sage. For more information, contact Sage Publications, P.O. Box 5084, Thousand Oaks, CA 91359 USA, tel 805-499-9774, fax 805-499-0871.

Award Announcement

International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology Harry and Pola Triandis Award

This award honors and rewards high-quality intercultural research and advances the early careers of dedicated researchers. Applicants must submit a 1500-word abstract in English of their doctoral thesis; the thesis must be relevant to the study of cross-cultural / cultural psychology, with particular emphasis on new and emerging trends in the field. The winner will receive US\$300, a one-year membership in IACCP, and free registration at the next biennial IACCP Congress. The winner will also be asked to give a presentation on the research at the Congress. For more information on submission criteria and deadlines, contact Marta Young, Deputy Secretary General, IACCP, Dept. of Psychology, University of Ottawa, Centre for Psychological Services, 11 Marie Curie Dr., Ottawa, Ontario, K1N 6N5 Canada, or call 613-562-5800, ext. 4823, or e-mail myoung@uottawa.ca.

Interesting Journals

Mitigation and Adaptation Strategies for Global Change, an international journal devoted to scientific, engineering, socio-economic and policy responses to environmental change. Editor-in-chief: Robert K. Dixon, Oregon State University, Corvallis. ISSN: 1381-2386. Publisher: Kluwer Academic

WANTED: MEMORIES OF DIVISION 34

This is the Silver Anniversary of the creation of Division 34. The Autumn issue will focus on memories of the Division, how it was created, how Environment was merged with Population, and recollections of signal achievements and anecdotes from years past. Help your Editor put together a keepsake issue! Submit those memories by October 1, 1999, to

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