Editor
Genomary Krigbaum

Associate Editors
Radosveta Dimitrova
Dana Basnight-Brown

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

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Message From the President
Division 52’s Coming Year – Have a Voice, Give Your Vote, and Join in (Merry Bullock)  3

Division 52 - News & Updates
Remembering Ivan Kos, PhD (1947-2017)  5
An Obituary and Tribute to Sherri McCarthy  6
Internationalizing the Campus and Curriculum: Practical Lessons Learned from the Micro to the Macro  9
Call for Policy Briefs, International Perspectives in Psychology: Research, Practice, Consultation®  12
Thank You to the 2017 Reviewers for the International Psychology Bulletin (IPB) - Peer Review Section  13

Peer Reviewed Articles
A Principal Component Analysis of the Thai Revised Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale and Qualitative Evaluation on How Thai People Cope with Shyness: A Multi-method Replication and Cultural Extension (Skulpti Sirikantraporn, Nattinee Jitnarin, Bencharatana Jongjumruspun & Bernardo Carducci)  14

Early Career Professional Column
Parent-oriented Motivation and Adolescents' Emotional Well-being: The Case of the United States and China (Cecilia S. Cheung & Danielle E. Delany)  25

Teaching International Psychology
Psychology and the Fulbright Program: Information and Advice for Prospective Applicants (Bruce B. Svare)  31

Current Issues Around the Globe
Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in South Asia: Economic, Sociocultural and Environmental Challenges (Dinesh Sharma, Omair Gill, & Ani Kalayjian)  39

Brief Reports
Forum Addressed Psychological Science at the United Nations (Eric Riklin)  45
Learning to Change the World: Binghamton University Students Immersed in Psychology at the UN (Dinesh Sharma)  48
Fifty Years Later: The Origins of Environmental Psychology at CUNY in 1968 (Melissa Woroschinski Search & Harold Takooshian)  50

Book Review
Ethical Issues in Counseling and Psychotherapy Practice: Walking the Line (Gaby Shefler)  54

Board Members
International Psychology Bulletin Submission Peer Review Section Guidelines, Deadlines and Section-editors
https://www.div52.org/index.php/publications/32-publication-details
Welcome to 2018! This will be an auspicious year for Division 52 as it reaches “legal age” – 21 years old, with a new strategic vision (www.div52.org/images/PDF/d52-StrategicPlan.pdf) and a mandate to engage members in programs, outreach and advocacy. Over the last two years, the division presidents Jean Lau Chin and Craig Shealy focused on global and diverse leadership and completing a consensus-based strategic plan for the division. Now it’s time for us, collectively, to implement that vision.

Draft revised bylaws, that implement the strategic vision into governance structures to promote synergy and communication are now ready for review (see https://div52.org/index.php/resources/d52-news-archive/185-draft-bylaws). They will be discussed and voted on at the Division mid-winter meeting, held this year in conjunction with the meetings of the Society for Cross Cultural Research, February 24-25, in Law Vegas. You can join in via Zoom! (see www.div52.org for the announcement).

Of course, a plan on paper, no matter how dynamic, is only a blueprint – the goal is for Division 52 to offer its members and potential members the structure and means for engaging about perspectives, activities, connections, and impact that reflect psychological science and models from around the world. Here are some ways that this can happen:

- Division 52 is collaborating with 21 other divisions to build a library of webinars about perspectives on psychology from around the world. This year, 22 divisions will each produce a webinar with the generic title “X around the world” where “x” is their division’s focus – (“Educational psychology around the world;” “Media psychology around the world;” “Developmental science around the world;” and so on). Individually, each division’s webinar will inform their members about different perspectives on their own specialty; collectively, they will provide a terrific resource to us all on the breadth of psychology internationally. These webinars will be taped and archived to be available as resources for reuse, for example, as teaching materials. This project was generously funded by a CODAPAR grant.

- Division 52’s journal, International Perspectives in Psychology, has announced a new initiative to further the Division’s commitment to bridging and gap between psychological science and action in addressing global challenges. The journal will publish “policy briefs” – short pieces, written to make sense to a non-specialized audience, that derive evidence-based advice on a policy issue from research work (see https://div52.org/index.php/resources/d52-news-archive/184-call-for-papers).

- In collaboration with the APA Office of International Affairs, Division 52 will produce a series of “how-to” webinars focused on responsible, ethical, and informed international research, teaching and practice. Led by colleagues from inside and outside the USA, the series...
will explore challenges and solutions to issues that arise in international collaborations.

As President for 2018, my goals are focused on continuing to build the Division as an APA home for those who are interested in international ideas, perspectives and activities. Some of our members have devoted their lives and careers to international engagement; others see “international” as more of a side-bar to their daily work; others have aspirations to create a professional life that includes international collaboration and work. I hope that the division can provide a home for all and can be the “go-to” place to discuss, learn, and find international connections and inspiration. The division has, and will continue to engage members and others to create the resources to make this possible.

However, beyond programs and resources, the Division 52 serves another important role within APA. Unlike many of APA’s 54 Divisions, 52 does not “stand for” a specific specialty area. Rather, we stand for a perspective that promotes the idea that psychology is broader than its representation in the “mainstream,” English language literature, that we each need to understand the impact of our particular theoretical “lens,” and that conversation about celebrating the diversity of frameworks used to understand psychological phenomena is crucial to our future. Indeed, in a sense even the term “international psychology” sets up a false “us” and “the rest” dichotomy. The division, as stated in its strategic plan, promotes openly exploring “a globally inclusive and epistemologically diverse understanding of psychology as a discipline and profession” and promoting “a globally inclusive and epistemologically diverse understanding of psychology within our affiliated organizations and systems.”

Let’s do this!
Remembering Ivan Kos, PhD (1947-2017)
(Submitted by Mirella Kos)

On September 4, 2017, APA Division 52 lost Ivan Kos, PhD, a founding member of the APA Division 52 in 1997. Born in Croatia in 1947, Kos was a long-time psychotherapist in New York City, who accepted the invitation from our first Division 52 President Ernst Beier, to be the inaugural Editor of the Division 52 bulletin, International Reporter (IR). For seven years under Kos' leadership, from 1997 through 2004, IR segued from a newsletter into a global magazine, welcoming feature articles on international themes by APA luminaries (like Raymond Fowler, Judith Albino, Philip Zimbardo), alongside reports by novice authors and students. Kos worked with a team of assistant editors--like Giuseppe Sottile, Richard Velayo, and Harold Takooshian--and his quarterly IR became the heart of the Division, attracting readers into its membership. It is posted on the Division's website, www.div52.org

Kos was elected a Fellow of the American Psychological Association in 2002, based on his extensive cross-national consulting, as well as his service to the new APA International Division. He consulted on political psychology with several global groups, including the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), and the International Research & Exchange Board (IREX).

When Kos received a diagnosis of lung cancer in 2001, his beloved wife Mirella Kos helped him successfully retool a healthy lifestyle, including exercise and a macrobiotic diet, that kept Kos in remission until 2017. In 2011, Kos released his first book, "To DARE: It is easier to succeed than to fail"--a self-help book to help readers overcome challenges.

Below are some images of Dr. Kos with Giuseppe Sottile, Richard Velayo, and Mirella Kos.
Sherri McCarthy (1958-2017)

Sherri McCarthy, a fellow of APA Division 52, and one of its most active members, died on October 2, 2017, following an automobile accident. Sherri combined several careers in her relatively short life – school teacher, school psychologist, and then professor at Northern Arizona University-Yuma. Sherri was a genuine international psychologist, engaging in research and other collaborative projects around the world. Among her many contributions, she co-founded a series of international conferences on psychology education beginning in 2002 in St. Petersburg, Russia, and edited three volumes of Teaching of Psychology Around the World (2007, 2009, 2012). Sherri is survived by her mother Lois McCarthy, her children Colin and Chryssie, and four grandchildren. She was predeceased by her husband Brian Ewing.

Several of Sherri’s Div. 52 friends wrote to the Division, commenting on her death and offering tributes. Several are copied below:

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Sherri McCarthy was a global teacher of teachers. How sad that we lost Sherri so suddenly in October, 2017. And how wonderful that our Division 52 is saluting her. While not an officer of D52, Sherri made immense contributions to our specialty in so many diverse ways since completing her doctorate in 1995. As a scholar, over half of her 14 books and 175 other publications were on international themes, including her unique 4-volume series on international teaching. As a teacher, she

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Sherri believed in the power of psychology to improve the world. She dedicated her work to improving the teaching of psychology around the world. She was always kind and patient. Like so many others, I will miss her.

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In July 2008, I had the pleasure of participating in the Third International Conference on the Teaching of Psychology in St. Petersburg, Russia. There and at various

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Sherri McCarthy was one of my best reviewers for PsycCRITIQUES, and I would frequently go to her when I had books to review that focused on international psychology. She reviewed a total of 28 books for PsycCRITIQUES, and she served on my editorial advisory board. She always made her deadlines, and her work was consistently excellent. I'll miss her.

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It is with a great sadness of heart that I received the news of Sherri's death. My connection with Sherri goes back many years when I first attended international conferences in the 1990s. Sherri made me so welcome into this arena in which she felt so comfortable without any hint of self-interest. She asked me to be a referee for her a few years ago and I recognized her incredible outreach as well as her ever generous support for the student body. She had recently invited me to visit her in Arizona - now sadly not to be. May she now be where her life journey was destined.

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I send sincere condolence to colleagues of Division 52 on the death of Sherri McCarthy.

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In July 2008, I had the pleasure of participating in the Third International Conference on the Teaching of Psychology in St. Petersburg, Russia. There and at various
other conferences, I had the good fortune of speaking with Sherri whose extensive knowledge of international psychology and especially its teaching aspects left a profound impression on me. Over the following years, as we would meet in various contexts, I became more thoroughly aware that she was not only an extremely active academic and writer of fiction, but also a wonderful person.

It is hardly a surprise that she was so interested in peace psychology. Her early death represents a major loss for the world of international psychology and for all those who were part of her personal world. Farewell, Sherri!

Uwe P. Gielen, Executive Director, Institute for International and Cross-Cultural Psychology, St. Francis College, Brooklyn, NY

My time knowing Dr. McCarthy was all too brief. We met last year at the 2016 International Congress of Psychology (ICP) in Yokohama, Japan, through the joint APA-USNC mentoring program. Sherri was the personification of boundless joy and optimism, and I was grateful to share a number of intensely interesting breakfast chats with her at the hotel we shared during the congress. These informal meetings crystalized perhaps most fully the aims of the mentoring experience—despite the rather hierarchical structure of the program (i.e., mentor/mentee), Sherri engaged mentees fully as full colleagues, encouraging us to take confidence in our own growing areas of expertise. At the end of the congress Sherri and I made plans to stay in touch. That I will be unable to share with her the fullness of my experiences since those days in Yokohama will remain one of my greatest professional regrets.

Brian R. Davis, Doctoral Candidate
Fulbright Graduate Fellow to Japan (2016-17)
City University of New York

I am so saddened to hear that Dr. McCarthy has passed away. We met in 2016 but in a short time that I got to know Dr. McCarthy, she really impacted my life. Dr. McCarthy was assigned to be my mentor through the American Psychological Association- U.S. National Committee for Psychology Travel and Mentoring Program. She was truly an exceptional mentor. Not only did she introduce me to her professional network, but she also took a personal interest in me, periodically checking on me before our formal program started and after it ended. She advised me how to navigate tenure process and academia while being a female. Sherri had such an amazing personality, so optimistic, upbeat, welcoming, open to new people and experiences! She touched lives of so many students and colleagues all over the world and will be missed by many. I am grateful that life gave this opportunity to get to know her...My deepest condolences to her family, students, colleagues and friends.

Elena Stepanova, Department of Psychology, The University of Southern Mississippi, Hattiesburg, MS

Sherri was an enthusiastic and positive supporter of Psi Chi’s move to become an international honor society in 2009. We will miss greatly her kind and welcoming approach, as well as her broad support of internationalizing psychology. She had a special knack for encouraging people to move in the same direction in order to get things done, and that will be hard to replace.

Martha S. Zlokovich, Executive Director
Psi Chi, the International Honor Society in Psychology, Chattanooga, TN

Sherri McCarthy was a true international psychologist! She was a mentor to professionals and students interested in the field. Sherri connected me with an Italian psychologist when at a conference in Padua, Italy who expanded my worldview of psychology and education at the University of Bologna. For several years, Sherri and I met at the Western Psychology Conference. Here we shared international psychology professional experiences. Sherri went out of her way to introduce me to new colleagues in the west region interested in international psychology. Sherri's charisma brought psychologists and students together. Thanks to Sherri for her communication efforts in building the
field of international psychology. Let Sherri be a model for all to follow and may her legacy live on. She will be deeply missed.

Mercedes McCormick, Pace University
APA Div. 52 president, 2013

From our first communication in 2000, Sherri and I became close friends and collaborators. We worked together for the promotion of international psychology education through continuing series of international teaching of psychology conferences and various publications. Sherri was a leader and co-founder of ICOPE (International Council of Psychology Educators) in the early 2000s. She and I worked together to launch the first International Conference on Psychology Education in St. Petersburg, Russia, in 2002. A series of ICOPE conferences followed and were regularly held in different parts of the world. The 2014 conference was held at Northern Arizona University, her home university.

Sherri was a wonderful, passionate, kind person, and a master in bringing people together. A true global citizen, she made people from across the world become friends and join hands in the pursuit of teaching psychology. As a result, she became a dear friend to many psychology educators around the world.

I have many fond memories of working with Sherri and want to express my heart-felt tribute to her. Such a benevolent and giving life snuffed out. She was a real citizen of the world, generous in all regards, in friendship and collaboration. The world will never be the same without her.

Victor Karandashev
Aquinas College, Michigan, USA

Sherry was a master at recognizing the value and implications of her students’ and colleagues’ work and perspectives and creating ways for their voices to be heard - in conferences, publications, discussions, and classes. She promoted inclusion and outreach, connecting across time, place and ideas. We will all miss her acumen and generous spirit.

Merry Bullock
APA Div. 52 president, 2018
Internationalizing the Campus and Curriculum: Practical Lessons Learned from the Micro to the Macro
(Submitted by Caitlin Coyer, Kaitlin Patton, & Desta Gebregiorgis)

Introduction

Internationalizing the curriculum is a topic that is central to the identity of Division 52/International Psychology (Bikos, DePaul Chism, Forman, & King, 2013; Takooshian, Gielen, Plous, Rich, & Velayo, 2016). A D52-sponsored symposium at the 2017 convention of the Western Psychological Association provided lessons learned and examples of practical resources the internationalization process that ranged spanned the macro to the micro. Because such resources are not always captured formally, we thought it important to document and distribute the valuable information that was shared. The authors of this paper are three doctoral students at Seattle Pacific University, and two of the three authors presented at this symposium. The purpose of this symposium was to present four examples of how a curriculum can be internationalized and foster global outcomes. At the macro level, presenters reported on institutional commitments to globalization. The first presenter reviewed the presence of global learning outcomes within the curriculum across departments and individual courses as captured through student course evaluations. This presentation provided an example of how global learning objectives are currently captured at Seattle Pacific University and revealed patterns in how they are adopted across departments. The second presenter reviewed how his faculty-led global engagement task force was created and operates to provide students with greater exposure to cultures and ideas other than their own. At the micro level, presenters reviewed student-level experiences are important in fostering global learning outcomes. The third presenter reviewed outcomes of pairing international field experiences and student mentoring, specifically the opportunity for students to aid in and learn about the research process and adopt more globalized perspectives. The final presenters introduced the notion that global learning outcomes do not always require international exposure, and can be realized locally as students become involved in their own communities. These presenters reviewed the results of a qualitative study of a service-learning community kitchen, in which transformational learning led to the acquisition of global learning outcomes. Together, these presentations introduce some of the many avenues possible for working toward the American Psychologist recommendation for internationalizing the undergraduate psychology curriculum (Takooshian et al., 2016).

Dr. Lynette Bikos, the symposium chair, opened the symposium by reminding the audience about the importance of international curriculum at the micro and macro level. The four aims of this symposium were to: (a) identify three outcomes that could be identified as “global learning outcomes;” (b) identify at least three approaches to internationalizing a campus community; (c) describe the potential role for students in multi-national research projects; and (d) describe how a local service learning opportunity could contribute to global learning outcomes.
Lauren Hirsch and Thomas Pankau, doctoral students in clinical psychology at Seattle Pacific University, presented their research completed in collaboration with Clara Roberts, Lindsey Moore, and Dr. Lynette Bikos on evaluating global learning outcomes within undergraduate college classes at Seattle Pacific University. They began by introducing global learning outcomes as those that foster a sense of global self-awareness, allow students to take perspectives other than their own, fosters cultural diversity, imbue a greater sense of personal and social responsibility, allow for a deeper understanding of global systems, and provide the opportunity for students to apply their knowledge within global contexts. They then introduced the first phase of their study, in which department heads were asked to identify courses they believed would be consistent with global learning outcomes. They described the patterns they noticed, including that most courses consistent with these outcomes were higher-level courses completed by junior and senior students, and that the arts and humanities department had the highest percentage of course content consistent with global learning outcomes, while the school of psychology, family, and community had the lowest percentage. They then introduced the second phase of their research, which utilized qualitative methodology to explore which global learning outcomes were perceived as important and how they were used. They described their results, which included that all departments saw global learning outcomes as important, but differed in the relative emphasis they placed on each outcome. The researchers then used these qualitative responses to determine how course instructors saw their courses as satisfying global learning outcomes. Instructors saw their courses as exploring how ideas grew and were applied throughout various historical contexts; discussing contemporary global issues relevant in today’s world; fostering an understanding of global systems; applying a theological orientation to global perspectives; engaging with ethical and philosophical ideas to explore various perspectives; applying a theoretical lens through which to understand global perspectives; and exploring cultures through the use of art. The presenters closed by highlighting the many and diverse ways in which instructors of many disciplines were able to integrate and foster global learning outcomes through their courses.

Representing the California State University, Sacramento, Greg Kim-Ju presented his work on university globalization directed by a faculty led-task force. Discussing his work from a contextualized, first-person viewpoint, the presenter began by describing his involvement with the Global Engagement Task Force which spearheads globalization efforts throughout his campus. Of primary concern to the university was the desire to strengthen international opportunities for faculty and students by creating structured department-driven programs that addressed global issues. They then outlined four programs or initiatives that have been used to meet this demand throughout his campus: International Programs and Global Engagement, Global Engagement Task Force, Peace and Conflict International, and Peace Corps Prep Program. The integrative goal of these programs was to foster collaborative, department-spanning efforts on the campus to increase internationally-focused teaching, scholarship, and research. The presenter expounded upon the fact that a college-level focus presented the platform to approach international issues from an interdisciplinary and systemic standpoint. Moreover, the presenter expounded upon the role that psychology as a discipline adds to such an endeavor through its collaborative and systemically focused expertise.

Dr. Robert Levine of California State University, Fresno, discussed engaging students in international research through the recruitment and employment of student summer sojourners to collect data internationally. Dr. Levine shared the research questions shaped his work, namely his interest in cultural differences in altruistic behaviors and culturally different situational expectations for such behaviors. Acknowledging the multifaceted characteristics that influence cultural norms in helping behaviors (e.g., population density, competition for resources, pace of life, crime rates, etc.), Dr. Levine sought to investigate how helping behaviors varied by cities and countries and were influenced by population size. He shared his experience with
the complexity of international data collection and recruitment of a global participant pool. To obtain his sample, Dr. Levine hired U.S. college students as temporary research assistants to collect data during their international summer travels, using word-of-mouth and flyers briefly describing the research role offered. Research assistants who were traveling outside of the United States were asked to work “for approximately 2 days of work (per country)” and were paid for their time. Research assistants presented participants with six situations or vignettes where help may be given (i.e. helping a wounded individual, picking up a dropped item for a passerby) and asking participants if they would help the person in the presented stimuli. He then shared the results of these efforts, a discussion of the unique helping behavior profiles that emerged from 23 countries where data collection met inclusion criteria (Levine, 2003). Culturally distinct patterns of helping behavior did emerge, as a function of country, as well as type of situation where help was more likely to be obtained. Dr. Levine then finished his discussion by framing his results in light of environment and mechanism of cultural embeddedness, social norms, and level of interpersonal relationship within varying cultural contexts and living environments.

Caitlin Coyer and Desta Gebregiorgis, doctoral students in clinical psychology at Seattle Pacific University, presented qualitative research completed in collaboration with students Kaitlin Patton, Thomas Pankau, and Lauren Hirsch, with Dr. Lynette Bikos and Dr. Daniela Geleva as faculty sponsors. They described the history and mission of Seattle Pacific University’s community kitchen, which was founded by and is led by Dr. Geleva, run by undergraduate students, and funded by participants’ fees and donations with the purpose of serving and teaching low-income individuals in the community about nutrition and cooking. They shared the results of their qualitative research study, which showcased the global learning outcomes described by student participants of the community kitchen. Specifically, participation in the community kitchen was associated with the global learning outcomes of applying knowledge, learning about global systems, developing a sense of global self-awareness, taking another’s perspective, and instilling a greater sense of personal and social responsibility. They proposed a model based on participants’ responses and a review of the literature on knowledge, skills, and attitudes; Mezirow’s (2006) theory of transformational learning; and vocational identity development. This model described the researchers’ hypothesis regarding the process of acquiring the global learning outcomes participants described through their participation in the community kitchen. This process described the community kitchen as providing a warm and open environment that facilitated the development of relational connections and community engagement, which both influence a reciprocal cycle of transformational learning, knowledge and skills, and the development of vocational identity; a sense of personal benefit resulted from participation in this process. They concluded by describing how the community kitchen could be a local avenue for fostering global learning outcomes in students by allowing them the opportunity to engage with their broader communities.

The discussion was facilitated by Dr. Harold Takooshian, a Distinguished Speaker at the WPA conference, presenting, “125 Years Later: Ten surprising facts about international psychology.” The audience had a number of questions and comments regarding the information presented by Dr. Greg Kim-Ju. Many of the questions focused on the administrative work that was necessary to orchestrate and deploy the task force across the university. Dr. Kim-Ju stated that the initiative's ability to strengthen the university's academic and general opportunities in total helped create university involvement and resource allocation. Further, he explained that the initiative has been benefited by international research efforts and partnerships that not only increase globalization efforts, but also aid in and strengthen the opportunities available at CSU Sacramento. With the work of faculty-led internationalization efforts, differing disciplines and areas of expertise supported one another while adding individual strengths of expertise and field-focus.

Discussion surrounding Dr. Levine’s work focused on the integration and use of students-experiences as research resources. He presented the audience with an example of utilizing available resources within the academic community to broaden and expand the scope of international research. It was suggested that offering such an opportunity to students may be bidirectionally positive, such that research scope is
expanded as students gain unique experiences in ongoing research. Further, the use of students provides a readily available network of research assistants that may be available in many settings of higher learning within the United States. Dr. Levine specified how he was able to involve students in these processes and shared how the students benefitted in gaining knowledge about the country they were visiting and cultural norms surrounding helping behaviors through the research assistantship.

Shifting to research methodology for analysis, Caitlin Coyer and Desta Gebregiorgis responded to questions about their qualitative research process utilizing Consensual Qualitative Research methods (Hill, 2012). The discussants shared the process that they undertook in analyzing the data and spoke to ways that they could have strengthened their methodology by better framing and shaping the questions posed to participants. Discussion turned to specific applications of qualitative methodology as an audience member asked how the discussants would conceptualize applying their shared methods for a project working with women of minority groups within the United States.

References


Call for Policy Briefs

International Perspectives in Psychology: Research, Practice, Consultation® (IPP) is the official journal of Division 52 (International Psychology) of the American Psychological Association. “We are excited to announce the journal now seeks submissions of Policy Briefs. Designed to enable outreach and impact, policy briefs are a vehicle for cogent evidence-based advice on a policy issue. They are typically derived from a research project and written to include a non-specialized audience.” For more information, see: https://div52.org/index.php/resources/d52-news-archive/184-call-policy-briefs

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
Thank You to the 2017 Reviewers for the International Psychology Bulletin (IPB) - Peer Review Section

We would like to acknowledge the following reviewers:

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Thank you for your contributions; the IPB editors and readership appreciates it.

INTERESTED IN REVIEWING?

Readers who are interested in reviewing for the IPB - Peer Review section should contact, Genomary Krigbaum, PsyD Editor at genomary.krigbaum@my.gcu.edu, indicating relevant expertise, training, and interests.

D52 members and friends! Plan to attend the APA Convention
August 9-12, 2018
San Francisco, California

Division 52 will have dynamic programs! Symposia and Roundtables on international perspectives in teaching, development, and research; two strong poster sessions; Suite programming to promote conversations, engagement and collaboration.

Here is how to get involved

- Poster Judges: Volunteer to read and judge student posters during convention - an inspiring international "pat on the back" for students and their advisors!
- Be a D52 Ambassador: Attend sessions with an international focus and talk with colleagues about joining others in D52
- Be a host to international visitors: Participate as a host to international visitors
- Volunteer for the program committee: Work with the Program Chairs to develop social events, outreach and more at Convention 2018

Abstract

The aims of this mixed-methods study were to investigate the component structure of the Thai Revised Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale (T-RCBS) and to examine self-selected strategies to deal with shyness in a sample of Thai adults. One hundred and fifty-eight Thai adults participated in an online survey on shyness by completing the T-RCBS and the Thai Shyness Survey (T-SS). Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was carried out to examine the empirical validity of the T-RCBS. In addition, qualitative content analysis was used to analyze an open-ended question from the T-SS to capture major and minor self-selected strategies to deal with their shyness. The findings found that the T-RCBS yielded a three-factor model: factor 1 assessing Assertive Difficulty, factor 2 assessing Stranger Shyness/Fear of High Status Others, and factor 3 assessing General Social Distress similar to past studies. Content analysis revealed three major strategies and five minor strategies with forced extraversion being the most endorsed strategy among the participants to deal with their shyness.

Keywords: Shyness, Coping, Thailand, Principal Component Analysis, Content Analysis.

Shyness is a universal construct experienced by a large number of people across cultures; however, international and cross-cultural shyness research is relatively new and nascent. The prevalence of shyness is believed to be ranging from 30% to 60% in various countries (Carducci, 2013; Carducci, Stubbins, Bryant, 2007; Carducci & Zimbardo, 1995; Zimbardo, 1986). The experience of shyness may pose barriers that interfere with achieving one’s personal, interpersonal, and professional goals (Henderson, Zimbardo, & Carducci, 2001). Unlike introverted individuals, who are likely to be content with solitude and willingly choose to have time alone from social interactions, shy individuals are often isolated because they feel distressed in social situations and feel subjected to social isolation in order to avoid distress. Persistent and severe shyness may result in chronic loneliness and social isolation that can lead to more pathology (e.g. social anxiety) and compromised health and well-being (Henderson & Zimbardo, 2010). In fact, past research shows that the majority of shy people were distressed by their shyness and expressed their willingness to do something to overcome it (Carducci, 2009). Although a few studies have examined culturally relevant self-selected coping strategies to deal with shyness (Carducci, 2009; Carducci & Bocchiaro, 2011b), to our knowledge, no studies have been done in Thai culture. Severe shyness may pose significant barriers to social and career development for...
Thais living in fast-changing globalizing society. Culturally relevant knowledge on shyness in Thailand is, therefore, needed, so that culturally responsive interventions may be developed and implemented. The aim of this study is two-fold. First, it aims to evaluate the Thai Revised Cheek-Buss Shyness Scale (Thai-RCBS), one of the most widely used shyness scales, by assessing its component structure and internal consistency. Second, it aims to capture themes of self-selected strategies among Thais to deal with shyness.

Efforts to understand how shy individuals deal with their shyness is critical because shyness is a problem for individuals of varying ages and in a variety of cultures. Shy children are at greater risk to be bullied and rejected by peers, to internalize depression and anxiety surrounding social interactions (Boivin, Hymel, & Bukowski, 1995). This is especially important during the transitional years of young adulthood (18 to 26) when adolescents take on adult roles and form new attachments outside of family of origin. And, although comparisons of shy young, middle-aged, and elderly individuals all report perceiving their shyness as undesirable, shy middle-aged and elderly individuals were less optimistic regarding their ability to overcome their shyness than shy young adults (Barrett & Carducci, 2016). Thus, across the lifespan, shyness or persistent social inhibition is often associated with fewer friends, smaller social networks, and with dissatisfaction with one’s available relationships (Chen, Rubin, & Li, 1995), which are crucial for one’s health and well-being. In support of such reasoning, specific investigations suggest that shy individuals from different cultures report that the most common area for which their shyness is a personal problem is in the area of interpersonal relationships (e.g., meeting new people, making friends) (Carducci & Bocchiaro, 2012; Carducci, Ragains, Kee, Johnson, & Duncan, 1998).

Cross-cultural research suggests that culture may play an important role when understanding shyness. Past studies found that participants from Asian countries report significantly more shyness than their peers in North America. For example, Zimbardo (1986) found 57% of Japanese respondents were shy compared to 42% of American respondents in his study. Shyness is conceptualized as a contextual phenomenon, meaning that it includes both intrapersonal (self-concept and self evaluation) and interpersonal elements (Jones, & Carpenter, 1986). Conceptually, culture plays a role in how people interact with each other in social situations, and how shyness may affect individuals within the culture. The sense of self of an individual differs greatly depending on one’s own culture and cultural orientation (Rhee, Uleman, Lee, & Roman, 1995). From the individualistic orientation of Western cultures, self is composed of individual attributes such as independent, ambitious, assertive, good humor, and extravert qualities (Trafimow, Triandis, & Goto, 1991). From the collectivistic orientation of Eastern cultures, the idea of self tends to be more interdependent and connected to the social context than distinct individuals’ characteristics, and social harmony is often more valued than individualistic attributes (Markus and Kitayama, 1991).

In Thailand, a collectivistic and high-context (implicit communication) society, shyness may be considered a desirable way of communication. As opposed to being assertive, expressive, and vocal, which is considered a competent communication style in the individualistic and low-context (explicit communication) culture (e.g., Europeans and European Americans), appearing shy, reluctant to ask for favors or help, and slow response is used strategically to gain social respect and acceptance in Thailand (Chaidaroon, 2003). Another concept is “face-saving” which is also applied in the Thai context when Thai people show significant sensitivity in protecting the feelings of others to maintain social harmony (Deveney, 2005). Shy, easy going, fun loving, polite, kind, and reluctant to be in conflict or direct confrontation are therefore some of the ways ethnographers used to describe Thai people (Knutson, Komolsevin, Chatiketu, and Smith, 2002). Kreng jai, being extremely considerate, is also known to be a desirable quality in Thailand and often used in interpersonal communication in the form of being shy to ask for favors or resist saying “no” directly to requests (Burapharat, 2009).

Not asking for help, slow responses, and avoiding direct communication may cause other people from other cultures to misunderstand Thai people and view them as shy. With increasing globalization and international influence in Thailand, Thai people are also expected to be effective communicators in these intercultural encounters (Lam & Zane, 2004). In addition, in Thai educational, work, and...
social settings, strong motivation and high performance are increasingly essential to be seen as a competent communicator (Chaidaroon, 2003); therefore, persistent social inhibition and avoidance may pose significant problems and social tensions for Thais both in personal and professional areas. Young adults in Thailand may be affected by shyness in a unique way in that it is the transitional age with new demands to perform well in relationship and career building in the increasingly globalizing society.

While some individuals may attribute positive feelings to their shyness, the majority endorse a list of negative effects that they hope to change, such as anxiety and adjustment difficulties (Tasker, 2000; Zimbardo & Henderson, 2000). Even in society where shyness is more socially acceptable, such as Thailand, being overly shy may not be desirable. Compared to American parents, Thai parents significantly reported more overcontrolled problems (e.g., shyness, inhibition of talking, fearfulness) as behavioral problems in their adolescents (Weisz et al., 1993). The same study suggested that overcontrolled behaviors (e.g., shyness) are significantly more prevalent among Thai adolescents than American adolescents. This may be explained by the role of Thai culture, which is a collectivistic orientation, on determining individuals’ social behavior and attitudes. It is consistent with Buddhist values (the predominant religion in Thailand), which discourage aggression and encourage self-control, emotional restraint, and social inhibition (Sangsingkeo, 1969).

Shy people’s reticence may elicit from others the assumption that shy people are disinterested in social interaction which may or may not be true. Quantitative research indicates that 66% of shy individuals believed their shyness could be overcome and over 80% express a willingness to do something about it (Carducci, Stubbins, & Bryant, 2008; Carducci, & Clark, 1993). In addition, a qualitative content analysis study in Western cultures found several self-selected categories for coping with shyness, which include strategies such as forced extraversion, self-assurance and training, sought professional help, and alcohol-assisted extraversion (Carducci, 2009).

Certain strategies may be more or less adaptive for certain situations and culture. This poses a need to better understand shyness in the context of Thailand. An attempt to treat and address shyness in a given culture requires an understanding derived from the individuals within the culture on the prevalence of shyness and what coping strategies they use to address the issue on their own. A qualitative understanding of how individuals in society choose to deal with shyness is essential for the purpose of designing culturally appropriate interventions. This mix-methods study, therefore, had two aims. First, it aims to determine the prevalence of shyness (through descriptive analysis) and validation results (through a principal component analysis) of the Thai version of Revised Check-Buss Shyness Scale (T-RCBS) in a sample of young Thai adults. Second, it aims to capture self-selected strategies to cope with shyness through qualitative content analysis.

**Methods**

**Participants**

The participants were 158 Thai young adult volunteers who completed the online survey, operated by Qualtrics (Qualtrics, Provo, UT, USA). The majority of the participants were female (63%), single (96%), and had some college and/or undergraduate degree (75%), with a mean age of 23.8 years ($SD = 4.0$). The participants were recruited with the mixture of random and snowball sampling methods via word of mouth, flyers posted at universities, community centers, and a Facebook page with an attempt to reach as many Thai participants as possible both in Bangkok and around Thailand.

**Measures**

All Thai version measures were developed with a back-translation procedure. One professional bilingual Thai-English translator translated the English version of all the measures into Thai. Two other professional Thai-English bilingual translators then translated that translation back into English. Discrepancies emerging from this back-translation were discussed and adjustments to the Thai translation of the measures were made with 100% solved discrepancies. The online survey consisted of three instruments.

*Demographic form (DF10 items)*: The DF consists of demographic questions, such as age, gender, education, religion, and socio-economic status.

*The Thai Revised Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale (T-RCBS; 13 items)*: The T-RCBS is a 13-item unifactorial measure of shyness which was translated into Thai of the...
original Revised Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale (RCBS-13 items; Cheek, 1983; Cheek, & Melchior, 1985; Leary, 1991), using backward and forward translation and retaining its original statement-format. The 13-items RCBS (Cheek, 1983) was used to translate into the Thai version and examined in this study in order “to measure affective and behavioral aspects of shyness without reference to the desire to seek out or avoid social interaction” (Leary, 1991). It was associated with strong internal consistency (α =0.90) and high test-retest reliability (r=0.88) (Bruch, et al., 1989; Cheek, 1983). The items in the RCBS are answered on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (“very uncharacteristic or untrue”) to 5 (“very characteristic or very true”) (Cheek, 1983; Leary, 1991). The RCBS has the scores ranged from 13 (lowest shyness) to 65 (highest shyness). A cutoff score of 39 was considered as shy, a scored of 49 was considered as very shy (Cheek, 1983). The original RCBS was associated with strong internal consistency (α =0.90) and high test-retest reliability (r=0.88) (Cheek, 1983).

The Thai Shyness Survey (T-SS; 10 fixed-format and five open-ended items): The TSS was a Thai translation of the Psychology Today Survey on Shyness (PTSS; Carducci & Zimbardo 1995). The TSS consisted of ten fixed-format items and five open-ended questions. Examples of the fixed-format questions include: Do you consider yourself to be a shy person? (yes or no).; How often do you experience (or have you experienced) feelings of shyness? (every day; almost every day; often, nearly every other day; once or twice a week; occasionally, less than once a week; rarely, once a month or less); and Do you think your shyness can be overcome? (yes; no; uncertain). The five open-ended items requested the participants to answer the following: Describe what factors you believed contributed to your shyness.; Describe how your shyness is expressed.; Describe what problems your shyness has created for you in your personal, social, educational, and/or professional life.; Describe what you have tried to do to overcome shyness; What else would you like to report about their shyness?; Various translations of the PTSS into Arabic (Carducci, Elbedour, & Alsubie, 2014), Italian (Carducci & Bocchiaro, 2011a), and Spanish (Escobar & Carducci, 2017), and have been used to investigate the experience of shyness in different countries. This study focused on the written responses to the open-ended item “Describe what you have tried to do to overcome your shyness” to find common themes for self-selected strategies to overcome shyness for the purpose of cross-cultural comparisons with previous research (Carducci, 2009; Carducci & Barrett, 2016; Carducci, & Bocchiaro, 2011b).

Procedures

The conduct of this study followed the American Psychological Association (APA) ethical standards and guidelines for research and publication. After the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Alliant International University was obtained, the recruitment process started from June 2015 to June 2016. A web-based survey was used to increase the level of anonymity of the survey to maximize the likelihood of participation. The participants completed the demographic information, the T-SS, and the T-RCBS. Cronbach’s alpha analysis was performed on the RCBS to explore internal reliability of these questionnaires on this Thai sample.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The first aim of the study also was to evaluate the Thai RCBS by assessing its component structure and internal consistency. The IBM SPSS Statistics version 22 was used to analyze descriptive statistics, component structure, internal consistency and the reliability of the Thai RCBS. In order to examine the empirical validity of the T-RCBS, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was carried out.

Content Analysis. The second aim of the study was to capture themes of self-selected strategies to deal with shyness. Content Analysis was used to analyze the participants’ responses to open-ended questions. This portion of the study is a replication of a study conducted by Carducci (2009), using the same content analysis methods but with different participants of another culture -Thai. The strategies included several steps. To begin with, three independent raters examined the written responses to the open-ended question, “Describe what you have done to deal with your shyness.” Each of the raters read all the responses of all 158 participants. The raters highlighted statements that reflected any form of action/behavior taken by the participants to deal with their shyness. Next, after reading and analyzing the responses, the raters met and discussed the findings of themes that emerged. In the rating session, the raters took turns reading out loud to the other raters statements they identified as self-selected strategies the shy individuals
implemented to deal with their shyness. The raters then identified examples (quotes) of the statements that were exemplars of the categories of the self-selected strategies. After consensus was reached among all three of the raters, the statement was listed with other similar statements reflecting similar strategies. This procedure was followed until all of the statements were considered and classified. Lastly, each statement was classified and categorized by its dominant feature.

Results

Quantitative Analysis

Using a cutoff score of 39 on the T-RCBS, 78.2% of the participants were classified as shy. The overall mean of 34.51 (SD=8.01) indicated that the participants were below threshold on the shyness scale but close to the cutoff. There was no statistically difference in the mean shyness score between male (M=35.45, SD=8.03) and female (M=33.93, SD=8.05) participants.

T-RCBS Reliability

Internal consistency for the Thai shyness scale of the T-RCBS (13-items) was strong (α =0.88). The observed alphas for first, second, and third factors are 0.83, 0.76, and 0.66, respectively. As presented in Table 1, corrected item-total correlations all were statistically significant (p < 0.05) and ranged from r = .40 to r = .72.

Inspection of the pattern of results in Table 1 indicates the 13 items of the T-RCBS total scale corresponded to three factors (four items in factors one and three, and five items in factor two) which explained 62.63% of the variance (40.87%, 13.32%, and 8.44% for factors 1, 2, and 3, respectively). Structure coefficients of the exploratory analysis are also presented in Table 1. For an item to be included on a factor, factor loadings with a value of 0.40 or greater were considered salient. As indicated in Table 1, Factor 1 assessed Assertive Difficulty; Factor 2 Stranger Shyness/Fear of High Status Others; and Factor 3 General Social Distress. Interfactor correlations were as follows: Factor 1/Factor 2, r = .22; Factor 1/Factor 3, r = .16; and Factor 2/Factor 3, r = .57.

Qualitative Analysis

After a rigorous coding and verifying process of content analysis was completed, nine distinctively different categories of self-selected strategies in dealing with shyness among 158 Thai participants were yielded. Overall, 100% of the respondents attempted at least one strategy to cope with their shyness, 14.81% tried two strategies, and 2.77% tried as many as three strategies.

The strategy-by-strategy analysis of the results included an assessment of the frequency of relative use of a particular strategy and a sample of personal statements provided by the shy individuals. The results showed three major strategies and five minor strategies of coping with shyness.

Forced Extraversion

Endorsed by 35.1% of the sample, forced extraversion was the most frequently endorsed self-selected strategy in dealing with shyness. Forced extraversion refers to activities that the individuals force themselves to engage in, activities that normally would cause them to be shy, such as group activities at the university, company meetings and parties, and giving public speech. Moreover, some participants have tried to interact with others by various means such as starting
the conversation, asking and talking about personal stories, and expressing opinions in a group setting. Additional activities included volunteering to teach children and performing religious activities at temples. Exemplary comments that reflect this strategy are as follows: “I will strive to encounter the challenging situation that normally would avoid.” “Encountering the difficult situation is not so bad after all; in fact, the consequence of my action could be beneficial.” “I decide to do it even if I feel shy about it.” “I try to make eye contact occasionally/ go out to do new activities/ go to apply for jobs by myself.”

**Cognitively induced self-reassurance**

Present in 32.4% of the sample, the second most frequently endorsed self-selected strategy in dealing with shyness was cognitively induced self-reassurance. Cognitively induced self-reassurance is defined as when an individual changes his/her attitude and thought or engages in the new mindset in order to feel more confident or move out of their comfort zone. Comments that reflect this strategy include:

“I stop worrying, and then I think about reasons why I should face the problem, not fear.”

“I tell myself that I can do it, and encourage myself that the future’s outcome is yet to know, so there is no need to worry about it at the moment.”

“Don’t fear others’ opinion or judgment.”

“I believe in my ability and thought.”

**Self-taught practices**

The third-most frequently self-selected strategy in dealing with shyness was self-taught practices mentioned by 29.6% of the participants. Self-taught practices were divided into four categories: planning, breathing, coaching/practicing, and doing recreational activities. Comments that reflect each category of these strategies include:

Planning: “I planned the event in details to make sure that there was no problem.”

Breathing: “I take a deep breath, controlling my breathing: inhale and exhale. I try to be aware of myself and be mindful.”

Coaching/practicing: “I prepare a script for presentation and rehearse many times. I sometimes practice in front of a mirror to learn and reflect my speech. I even prepare scripts for normal conversation.”

Doing recreational activity: “I would listen to music for relaxation before attending events or giving presentations.”

**Residual strategies**

In addition to the three major strategies, five additional minor or “residual strategies” in dealing with shyness were mentioned by less than 10%. The “sought professional and/or informal help” was mentioned by 5.5% of the participants, e.g., seeing a psychologist, talking with friends and family about the shyness problems. The “modify physical appearance” was mentioned by 5.5%, e.g. “I studied how to improve my a body posture”, “I changed the color of my hair or the clothing style.” The “educational extraversion” was mentioned by 4.6%, e.g., “I read self-improvement books”, “I studied presentations and social courses.” Some shy individuals applied aforementioned strategies to gain more confidence. On the other hand, other shy individuals used negative strategies such as alcohol use (1.8%), and avoidance of the situation and relationships (2.7%).

**Discussion**

The first purpose of the present study was to examine the component structure of Thai RCBS and self-selected strategies to deal with shyness in Thai adults sample. 78.2% of the participants were classified as shy, which is much higher than the estimates in previous studies of shyness in the U.S.A. (30-60%; Carducci, Stubbins, Bryant, 2007).

The results of a Principal Content Analysis of the T-RCBS yielded the following: factor 1 assessing Assertive Difficulty, similar to Jones, Briggs, & Smith (1986)’s Factor 3; factor 2 assessing Stranger Shyness/Fear of High Status Others, and factor 3 assessing General Social Distress similar to Jones, Briggs, & Smith (1986)’s Factor 1, and correlates with the original scale of Cheek and Buss (1981). Factor 1 assessed Assertiveness Difficulty, Factor 2 assessed Stranger Shyness/Fear of High Status Others, and factor 3 assessing General Social Distress similar to Jones, Briggs, & Smith (1986)’s Factor 1. Internal consistency for the Thai shyness scale was strong and comparable to previously reported data (Crozier, 2005; Hopko, Stowell, Jones, Armento, & Cheek, 2005; Kwiatkowska et al., 2017; Vahedi, 2011).

In addition, these findings suggested that the Thai RCBS is not a unidimensional (Crozier, 2005). The Cronbach’s alpha showed high consistency in this Thai...
sample ranging from 0.66 to 0.83 with the lowest alpha for general social distress and the highest for assertive difficulty. These findings are consistent with the results of the previous studies (Crozier, 2005; Hopko, Stowell, Jones, Armento, & Cheek, 2005; Kwiatkowska, et al., 2017; Matsuda, Sato, & Carducci, 2016; Vahedi, 2011) suggesting these factors appear to be valid and reliably assess shyness among Thai adults, more nationally representative sample of Thai adults and adolescents are needed to confirm the results and the trends of shyness in Thai population.

The qualitative content analysis findings revealed that there are several strategies endorsed by participants in this sample. These strategies were grouped as three major strategies (i.e., forced extraversion, cognitively induced self-assurance, and self-taught practices) and five minor strategies of coping with shyness. The three major strategies were consistent with the findings by Carducci (2009).

Forced extraversion was characterized as ways in which participants chose to force themselves to be in social or public situation despite being uncomfortable. Shyness is often found to be highly correlated with the introversion personality trait (Briggs, 1988), including in a cross-cultural context (e.g., Afsha, Askari, & Manickam, 2014). The participants in this study wrote strategies, such as participating in activities in college, volunteering in different occasions, going to company parties, “trying to talk to people I don’t know.” The high prevalence of force extraversion highlights the desire to be social among shyness, which is one of the key differences between shyness and introversion (Leary, & Buckley, 2000). The effectiveness of these strategies is still unknown. Because shy people tend to initiate fewer conversations and interact with fewer people in social situations (Asendorpf, 2000), forced extraversion may still put them in disadvantages if they do not initiate or maintain conversations. Culturally, the strategy of forced extraversion may be somewhat unexpected as research shows that Thai ideology tends to encourage the opposite (e.g., slow responses, not asking for help, not being verbal). However, the expectations to perform in modern Thai society, which has been influenced by globalization (Lam & Zane, 2004) may explain this most endorsed strategy to deal with shyness.

Cognitively induced self-assurance strategies are the second most endorsed strategies to deal with shyness. This category refers to a list of strategies that the participants used to change, modify, and shift their thoughts and attitudes in order to cope with shyness, such as “changing my attitude to fight with my low self-confidence”, “I have to change the way I think…. people probably don’t always think that I’m stupid.” Shyness has cognitive, affective, and somatic components and 60-90% of shy students in three studies reported cognitive symptoms as part of their shyness (Cheek & Melchior, 1985). Cognitive induced strategies may be understood in the Buddhist context in Thailand, which emphasizes the present, and that one’s thinking can cause suffering or the end of suffering. This is consistent with the findings that cognitive therapy is aligned with Thai values and beliefs and well-accepted in the Thai context (Scorzelli & Reinke-Scorzello, 2001).

The category self-taught practices were the third most common endorsed list of strategies to deal with shyness. These practices refer to activities and actions that the participants reported using to combat shyness, such as “Take deep breaths”, “Practice mindful breathing before meeting new people”, “Listen to music to practice concentration”, and “Practice speaking in front of the mirror.” These practices indicate active behavioral motivation to combat shyness and increase self-esteem. It is noteworthy that taking deep breaths and mindful breathing was the most frequently endorsed self-taught practice in this sample. This may be seen as consistent with the Thai cultural context that emphasizes mindfulness practices and Buddhist meditation, which has a focus on mindful breathing (Cassaniti, 2014). It is, therefore, not surprising to find that the participants found this practice to be a helpful one to engage in when attempting to induce relaxation and cope with stress and discomfort in social situations.

In addition to these three major categories of strategies, there were other self-selected strategies less frequently endorsed by the participants (less than 10%), including seeking informal or professional help, changing their appearance to feel more confident, and in less than 2% of the sample reporting using alcohol to combat shyness. This is somewhat different from the previous study on self-selected strategies to deal with shyness (Carducci, 2009), which found
14.7% of the sample reporting that they sought professional help and 12.7% reporting that they used “alcohol-assisted extraversion” as strategies to combat shyness. This may suggest the difference in culturally acceptable strategies between these two cultural contexts. In Thailand, mental health professionals play a larger role in crisis and severe psychopathology cases than other types of concerns, such as anxiety and day-to-day stress (World Health Organization, 2007). In addition, the primary modality of mental health support in the Thailand’s mental health system is community-based services and not individually-based counseling (World Health Organization, 2007), which may indicate the unique need for intervention planning for Thai shy individuals who are less likely to seek community-based interventions. Social norms and attitudes toward alcohol consumption in Thailand are restrictive, especially among females (Wakabayashi et al., 2015). This cultural protectiveness against alcohol consumption may somewhat explain the low endorsement of alcohol use for sociability in this sample. However, the rise in alcohol consumption among Thai youth is documented; therefore, alcohol-assisted extraversion should still be further investigated for prevention efforts.

Another noteworthy point is that 100% of the respondents attempted at least one strategy to cope with their shyness and 14.81% tried at least two strategies suggest that the presence of motivation among these Thai participants to deal with their shyness and to be more social. This is consistent with previous studies showing that shy individuals are discomforted by their shyness and have interest to reduce their shyness and increase sociability (Carducci, 2009; Cheek, & Buss, 1981).

The findings of the similarity in the first two strategies (i.e., forced extraversion and cognitively induced self-reassurance) between this Thai sample and the past similar study of American sample (Carducci, 2009) suggest that the eastern and western cultures may share some similar values in what they deem as positive coping skills. Through ongoing intercultural interactions and globalization (e.g., international collaborations in work places, exchange students in educational settings), Thai and western cultures have influenced each other behaviorally in many contexts (Lam & Zane, 2004). However, some strategies such as seeking professional help and alcohol use were not popular in Thailand because social and cultural norms have strong influence in reduction of alcohol consumption in Thailand and not sharing personal issues with others (Kamonrat, 2015). Therefore, the similarity between two cultures may stem from shared values and beliefs of each society, leading to them exhibiting similar behavior. On the other hand, if values differ, their behaviors are likely to be different. (Betancourt & LÓpez, 1993).

In sum, this study offers a better understanding of how Thais choose to cope with shyness and encourage readers to observe cross-cultural differences and similarities between eastern and western culture. Understanding shyness in context of Thailand would lead to a new insight to understand the cause, effect and approaches to deal with shyness in general.

**Limitations and Future Research Directions**

There are some limitations of this study. First, the study used an online survey. While an online survey offers an advantage of increased anonymity, which may encourage more participation, the disadvantage is what it may also increase a chance of misrepresentation of data (Wright, 2005). This study addressed this issue by not offering compensation for participation in an attempt to deter individuals from misrepresenting their information for the compensation. Second, this sample consisted of relatively young adults (mean age= 23.8, SD=4.0). The results may not be generalizable to other adult age groups. Third, the online survey does not allow prompt or clarifying questions that conducting face-to-face interviews would. This may have limited the in-depth exploration of the data.

In future study, researchers may consider examining the motivation to use what strategies to combat shyness among Thais. This knowledge may shed light on what motivates people to use positive strategies vs negative strategies (e.g., avoiding social situations, using alcohol, etc.). Furthermore, future researchers may consider investigating the effectiveness (short-term and long-term) of the major strategies endorsed by the participants in this sample in order to help inform intervention development. Lastly, the study should be replicated with a larger sample with all age groups (including children) as research has shown that the onset of shyness is in childhood and in many cases persists onto...
adulthood and/or exacerbates into more psychopathology, such as social phobia. Knowing more about age-appropriate strategies to deal with shyness may inform age-appropriate shyness interventions for Thai people to prevent the worsening of the condition and/or co-morbidity, increase self-confidence, and improve quality of life.

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Abstract
Recent research indicates that adolescents’ desire to please their parents by doing well in school facilitates their engagement and achievement in school. However, the role of such a desire in adolescents’ emotional adjustment is unclear. This research examined the extent to which the association between adolescents’ parent-oriented motivation and their emotional functioning depends on adolescents’ feelings of autonomy. American and Chinese adolescents (N = 531; Mage = 13.15) reported on their parent-oriented motivation, feelings of autonomy, parents’ autonomy support, and emotional functioning. In both the United States and China, the more adolescents endorsed parent-oriented reasons to do well in school, the more they reported heightened positive emotional experiences. Regardless of culture, the association between parent-oriented motivation and adolescents’ emotional functioning was not moderated by adolescents’ feelings of autonomy. A similar pattern was evident when parents’ autonomy support was included as a moderator. Results suggest that parent-oriented motivation may be a special form of extrinsic motivation with similar implications for adolescents’ emotional adjustment across cultures.

In many societies around the world, children’s development of academic competencies is valued (Chao, 1996; Fuligni, 1997; Pomerantz, Ng, Cheung, & Qu, 2014). Despite distinct cultural values, parents from diverse cultural backgrounds often view school success as a major goal in the process of socialization (Chao, 2000; Keller et al., 2006; Pearson & Rao, 2003). As parents become involved in their children’s learning, children tend to see doing well in school as important – in part because they may gain parents’ approval and can reciprocate parents’ commitment of resources to their education by performing well in school. Children are seen as possessing parent-oriented motivation when they are driven by a concern with meeting their parents’ expectations in the academic arena (Cheung & Pomerantz, 2012). Despite evidence indicating the beneficial role of parent-oriented motivation in children’s school engagement and achievement (Cheung & Pomerantz, 2012;
Pomerantz, Qin, Wang, & Chen, 2011), it is unclear whether such a form of motivation also benefits children’s emotional functioning. The current research was designed to examine the association between parent-oriented motivation and adolescents’ emotional functioning, with attention to the conditions under which parent-oriented motivation may be related to adolescents’ emotional adjustment.

**Parent-oriented Motivation: A Double-edged Sword?**

Within the framework of Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), parent-oriented motivation is considered a controlled (vs. autonomous) form of motivation, given that the source of such motivation originates from an external agent (i.e., parents). Indeed, there is evidence that parent-oriented motivation is more strongly correlated with controlled (i.e., extrinsic and introjected) motivation than autonomous (i.e., identified and intrinsic) motivation among early adolescents (Cheung & Pomerantz, 2012). Although general controlled motivation may dampen adolescents’ feelings of personal agency, the relational aspect of parent-oriented motivation may lead adolescents to internalize parents’ expectations, thereby facilitating gains in adolescents’ school engagement and achievement. Emerging evidence from longitudinal investigations indicates that adolescents’ desire to please parents by doing well in school predicts adolescents’ use of self-regulatory strategies in the academic context, which in turn lead them to attain higher school grades (Cheung & Pomerantz, 2012; see also Pomerantz et al., 2011).

Despite the benefits of parent-oriented motivation for adolescents’ academic adjustment, the role of such controlled motivation in adolescents’ emotional functioning is unclear. On the one hand, a heightened desire to fulfill parents’ expectations may lead adolescents to feel that they are compelled to excel in school – creating what researchers referred to as “competent pawns” (deCharms, 1968). Research indicates that when individuals feel pressured to succeed, they are more likely to experience frustration in the face of challenge and view the tasks at hand as less enjoyable (Isen & Reeve, 2005). Hence, parent-oriented motivation may detract from adolescents’ positive emotional functioning. On the other hand, given the unique relationship between parents and their adolescent children, parent-oriented motivation may facilitate adolescents’ internalization of parents’ expectations, such that they view attaining success in school as personally important (Cheung & Pomerantz, 2015). Thus, positive emotional experiences may ensue from children’s volitional pursuit of common goals shared by adolescents and their parents in the academic domain.

**Does Culture Matter?**

Researchers argued that in an individualistic cultural context, personal choice and sense of autonomy are often emphasized (Iyengar & Lepper, 1999; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Individuals’ functioning is hampered when their sense of personal agency is violated, particularly in cultures oriented toward individualism (Savani, Markus, Naidu, Kumar, & Berlia, 2010). For example, when children are prevented from exercising personal choice in a drawing task, children of European American descent (compared to those of Asian American descent) tend to exhibit decreased intrinsic motivation (Iyengar & Lepper, 1999). Given the importance of personal agency in individualistic environments, it is possible that the association between parent-oriented motivation and adolescents’ emotional functioning depends on adolescents’ subjective feelings of autonomy. When adolescents raised in individualistic cultural contexts feel that their parents allow adequate autonomy in their everyday lives, they may be more likely to see their pursuit for academic success as a self-initiated desire. Hence, it is possible that environments that support adolescents’ autonomy may afford the benefits of parent-oriented motivation for children’s emotional functioning, particularly in individualistic cultures.

**Overview of Current Research**

In an effort to expand the literature beyond academic outcomes, we evaluated the associations between parent-oriented motivation and young adolescents’ emotional adjustment. We also tested the hypothesis that the link between parent-oriented motivation and adolescents’ emotional experiences depends on adolescents’ subjective feelings of autonomy, particularly in individualistic culture contexts. We chose to study early adolescents in the United States and China given the countries’ distinct cultural orientations toward individualism (Hofstede, 1980, 2015). In Hofstede’s (2015) research, the United States is ranked in the
highest quartile on the national individualism scale, whereas China is ranked in the lowest quartile of the same scale. The transition into middle school is a critical milestone given that early adolescents’ interest in school often begins to wane in both the United States and China (e.g., Wang & Pomerantz, 2009). Parent-oriented motivation may provide adolescents with a reason to remain engaged in school. In addition, issues of personal autonomy become increasingly salient in the school and family contexts, which can interfere with adolescents’ emotional functioning (Eccles et al., 1993).

**Method**

A total of 531 adolescents ($M_{age} = 13.15$, $SD = .35$, age range $= 12 – 13.5$) in the United States ($n = 296$) and China ($n = 235$) participated in a study about their school experiences and family lives. Adolescents in the United States were recruited from four middle schools and a summer program in California; adolescents in China were recruited from five middle schools in Hong Kong. Adolescents filled out surveys during a typical day at school. A portion of American participants (7.2%) completed the survey at home through paper or electronic surveys. The demographic backgrounds (i.e., age, gender, family SES) of the participants who completed the survey at home were not different from their counterparts who completed the survey at school. Adolescents in both countries received a gift card after completing the survey as a token of appreciation for their time and effort. The measures were originally created in English. Standard translation and back-translation procedures (Brislin, 1980) were employed to ensure equivalence between the English and Chinese versions. All measures included in the current analyses attained metric invariance, allowing for valid comparisons of the associations between the United States and China.

**Parent-oriented motivation.** To assess adolescents’ parent-oriented motivation in school, we adapted six items from the Social Approval and Responsibility Scales of Dowson and McInerney’s (2004) Goal Orientation and Learning Strategies Survey (GOALS-S); six additional items were created by our research team. Adolescents indicated how true (1 = not at all true to 5 = very true) each of the 12 statements was of them (e.g., “I try to do well because I want my parents’ approval,” and “I try to do well to show my parents that I am being responsible”). The items were combined, with higher numbers indicating greater parent-oriented motivation in school, $\alpha = .89$ and .86 in the United States and China, respectively.

**Positive emotional functioning.** Adolescents’ positive emotional experiences were assessed with 16 items selected from scales used in prior research (Diener, Smith, & Fujita, 1995; Patrick, Skinner, & Connell, 1993; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Adolescents indicated how often (1 = never to 5 = very often) they experienced each emotion (e.g., happy and proud) in the past week. The mean of the 16 items was taken, with higher numbers indicating greater positive emotions, $\alpha = .87$ in the United States and .82 in China.

**Subjective feelings of autonomy.** A new measure was created to assess adolescents’ subjective feelings of autonomy in the family context. Adolescents indicated (1 = not at all true to 5 = very true) the extent to which they feel autonomous in the home context (e.g., “I feel that I have enough freedom from my parents to do what I want.”). Factor analyses were conducted; results demonstrated that a one-factor structure provided the best fit for the data, with no difference between the United States and China. The mean of the items was taken, with higher numbers reflecting stronger subjective feelings of autonomy, $\alpha = .83$ in the United States and .78 in China.

**Parents’ autonomy support.** Twelve items adopted from prior research were used to measure parents’ autonomy support (McPartland & Epstein, 1977; Robbins, 1994; Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Darling, 1992). Adolescents indicated (1 = not at all true to 5 = very true) the extent to which their parents used autonomy-supportive practices (e.g., “My parents allow me to make choices whenever possible” and “My parents are usually willing to consider things from my point of view”). The mean of the items was taken, with higher numbers reflecting greater autonomy support, $\alpha = .81$ in the United States and .84 in China.

**Results**

Three sets of analyses were conducted. The first set focused on describing mean level differences of all variables under study. The second set of analyses examined the correlations among all studied variables, with attention to differences in the strength of associations between the United
States and China. The third set of analyses explored the moderating roles of adolescents’ feelings of autonomy and parental autonomy support in the association between parent-oriented motivation and adolescents’ emotional functioning. As with the correlation analyses, we assessed the extent to which the moderating roles of adolescents’ feelings of autonomy and parental autonomy support were uniform in the United States and China.

Table 1 presents the means of parent-oriented motivation and adolescents’ emotional functioning in the United States and China. A series of independent-sample t tests were used to evaluate mean differences between American and Chinese adolescents’ reports of their parent-oriented motivation, feelings of autonomy, and emotional functioning. Compared to their Chinese counterparts, adolescents in the United States reported higher levels of positive emotions and parent-oriented motivation. However, adolescents’ reports of their subjective feelings of autonomy and perceptions of parents’ provision of autonomy support did not differ across the two countries.

Contrary to the notion that parent-oriented motivation hampers emotional functioning, the more adolescents had parent-oriented reasons to do well in school, the more adolescents experienced heightened positive emotions, rs = .36 and .30, in the United States and China, respectively. The simple correlations were transformed into z-scores to allow for comparisons of the strength of associations between the two countries, and independent t-statistics were used to assess statistical significance of the difference. The difference in the strength of the associations between countries did not reach significance, t < .76, p = .36. Table 2 presents the correlations among all of the variables included in the analysis; none of the correlations statistically differed when comparing the two countries.

Table 2

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<td>3. Autonomy Support</td>
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<td>4. Positive Emotions</td>
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* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Note. Lower triangle represents correlations in the United States; upper triangle represents correlations in China.

Separate stepwise regression analyses were conducted to evaluate the moderating roles of adolescents’ feelings of autonomy and parental autonomy support. In each model, adolescents’ gender and school grades were included as statistical controls. Mean-centered predictors were used to create interaction terms. In the first step, the main effects of parent-oriented motivation, feelings of autonomy, and country were assessed. In the second step, the 2-way interaction between parent-oriented motivation and feelings of autonomy was examined. In the final step, the 3-way interaction among parent-oriented motivation, feelings of autonomy, and culture was evaluated. In both models, the 2- and 3-way interactions did not reach statistical significance, indicating that the association between parent-oriented motivation and positive emotions did not depend on culture and adolescents’ feelings of autonomy (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. The associations between American and Chinese adolescents’ parent-oriented motivation and their positive emotional experience did not depend on their subjective feelings of autonomy.
Notably, adolescents who had heightened feelings of autonomy tended to report higher levels of positive emotion, \( \beta = .74 \), regardless of culture, \( t < 1.21, p = .27 \). A similar pattern was evident when parental autonomy support was included as a moderator (see Figure 2).

**Discussion**

The current research provides preliminary evidence in support of the role of parent-oriented motivation in adolescents’ emotional experiences. Our findings support prior research focusing on the role of parent-oriented motivation in adolescents’ academic adjustment (e.g., Cheung & Pomerantz, 2012; Pomerantz et al., 2011). Although a desire to meet parents’ expectations may be an external form of regulation, adolescents’ desires to meet their parents’ expectations may provide them with a sense of purpose in school. This may be particularly important during early adolescence when children’s interest in school begins to decline. In turn, the heightened sense of purpose in school may enhance adolescents’ emotional well-being.

Importantly, the associations between parent-oriented motivation and adolescents’ positive emotional experiences did not differ between the United States and China – two countries with distinct cultural orientations toward individualism (Hofstede, 2015); in addition, the associations were independent from adolescents’ subjective feelings of autonomy and parental autonomy support. Given the value of school achievement in many societies around the world, including the United States and China, adolescents may not see meeting parents’ expectations in the academic domain as a violation of their personal autonomy. Instead, adolescents who are cognizant about their parents’ expectations may find it important to align their personal goals with those of their parents’. As such, it is possible that the degree of internalization, rather than the extent to which adolescents’ feel autonomous, plays a critical role in the functional significance of parent-oriented motivation.

The current research utilized a cross-sectional design to provide an initial analysis of the associations between parent-oriented motivation and adolescents’ emotional well-being. Thus, it is unclear if parent-oriented motivation actually leads adolescents to experience heightened positive emotions. It is possible that emotionally resourceful adolescents are more inclined to adopt parents’ goals and values, thereby embracing more parent-oriented reasons for doing well in school. Future research utilizing longitudinal designs can shed light on the transactions between parent-oriented motivation and adolescents’ emotional experiences. In addition, the current research did not directly assess the two countries’ cultural orientations. It is possible other attributes of the two countries (e.g., level of economic development, curriculum, parents’ beliefs about their role in children’s education), rather than cultural orientations, contributed to observed associations between parent-oriented motivation and adolescents’ emotional well-being. Future research incorporating specific measures of cultural orientations at both the country and individual level is crucial in evaluating the role of culture in the interplay between adolescents’ desire to please parents and their emotional well-being.

**Conclusions**

This research lends support to the notion that parent-oriented motivation is a unique form of external regulation, such that a desire to satisfy parents’ hopes and expectations can accompany adolescents’ emotional adjustment. Parent-oriented motivational was associated with adolescents’ positive emotional experiences, with such an association evident among adolescents residing in two distinct cultural contexts – the United States and China. Notably, there is no evidence that the association depended on adolescents’ feelings of autonomy. Hence, parent-oriented motivation may not only buffer against the downward trajectory in school engagement evident during adolescence, but may also heighten adolescents’ positive emotional experience given the added sense of purpose adolescents have for their school endeavors.

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*Figure 2. The associations between American and Chinese adolescents’ parent-oriented motivation and their positive emotional experience did not depend on parental autonomy support.*
References


The Fulbright Scholar Program run by the Council for International Exchange of Scholars (CIES), United States Department of State, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, has the potential to be a major vehicle for advancing the discipline of psychology in countries where the study of behavior is either absent or in its infancy. The author is a two-time Fulbright Senior Scholar to Thailand and has served as a reviewer of Fulbright applications to CIES. This paper reviews some of the history of the Fulbright program and the success that psychologists have had in obtaining such awards in the past. Finally, the author offers insight and advice to those who may be considering an application for a core Fulbright award in the future.

Background

The Fulbright Scholar Program. The Fulbright Scholar program was the brainchild of Senator J. William Fulbright who, in the wake of World War II, proposed in 1946 a bilateral international exchange program for U.S. and foreign scholars. The program was established to increase mutual understanding between the people of the United States and other countries through competitive, merit-based grants for international educational exchange for students, scholars, teachers, professionals, scientists and artists. In addition to the Peace Corps program, the Fulbright program is considered to be one of the most important ways for the U.S. to exercise soft power as part of its public diplomacy agenda. Famously, J. William Fulbright expressed the mission of the Fulbright program in this way: “to see the world as others see it”. It is considered to be one of the most prestigious scholarship programs in the world today (www.cies.org).

The Fulbright Program provides approximately 8,000 grants annually for individuals to undertake graduate study, advanced research, university lecturing, and classroom teaching. It is administered by the Institute of International Education (IIE) and operates in over 160 countries around the world. Often overlooked is the fact that each year the Fulbright program also brings approximately 800 scholars from abroad to the United States.

The U.S. Department of State's Bureau of Educational
and Cultural Affairs sponsors the Fulbright Program from an annual appropriation (2016 appropriation was $235 million dollars) from the U.S. Congress. Other direct and in-kind support comes from partner governments, foundations, corporations, and host institutions both inside and outside the U.S. In each of 49 countries, a bi-national Fulbright Commission administers and oversees the Fulbright Program. In countries that do not have a Fulbright Commission but have an active program, the Public Affairs Section of the U.S. Embassy oversees it.

More than 360,000 persons have participated in the Fulbright program since it began. Notably, 54 Fulbright alumni have won Nobel Prizes, 82 have won Pulitzer Prizes, 37 have become heads of state or government, 31 were named MacArthur Fellows, and 16 were named Presidential Medal of Freedom recipients. This legacy places the Fulbright program in rarified space, the end result of which is to foster enthusiastic bipartisan support from politicians in our federal government.

**Fulbright and Psychology.** Individual Fulbright Scholar awards (also called “core” awards), the subject of this paper, are highly variable in terms of their mission and scope (Reiss, 2011). Just about every discipline is represented and grantees engage in a variety of activities ranging from teaching, research, faculty and administration development, and consulting on higher education issues in general. Importantly, Fulbright awards and points of emphasis are actually designed by the host country and local American embassy. In fact, the U.S. State Department plays no role in designating the needs and priorities of the Fulbright program in individual countries. As a result, the awards and interests of individual countries vary over time. Although applicants are often told to design their own awards because so many different types of activities are supported, they are also told to pay attention to individual country information and preferences that are presented in the yearly Fulbright catalogue of awards (for more on this see section on advice in executing a Fulbright application).

Those who do receive Fulbright Awards often remark that their experiences represent defining moments in their careers. They become passionate advocates for the Fulbright program and what it can do to foster the development of their discipline in a foreign country and give back to their discipline. They also see it as a way to “get outside” themselves and become more sensitive to diverse cultures that are so different from their own. When returning to the U.S., they incorporate what they have learned in their courses, report to colleagues at their respective universities about what they have learned, and become advocates for the linking of other colleagues and administrators to the Fulbright Program and the world around us. Clearly, many former Fulbrighters see their experiences as profoundly important and in many cases the single most important thing they have done in their professional life (Takooshian, 2011; Reiss, 2011).

The Council for the International Exchange of Scholars (CIES) maintains a searchable data base of core Fulbright awards on their website (www.cies.org). This database was used to examine a number of factors regarding the awarding of Fulbright scholarships in the seven year period from 2010 to 2017. This information showed that psychology has been reasonably well represented in the Fulbright program in the past when one considers that 46 different disciplines are represented. The data show that 124 (out of 5880, 2.1% of all disciplines) Fulbright Scholar core awards were given to individuals who identified themselves as psychologists (Reiss, 2011; Svare, personal observation from data presented on www.cies.org). The breakdown of these awards for psychologists shows that 23% were for teaching, 46% were for teaching and research, and 31% were for research.

The regional breakdown (Fulbright divides the world into six regions) for psychology core awards from 2010 to 2017 was the following: the East Asia-Pacific region accounted for 17 awards (out of 531 awards for all disciplines, 2.6%); the Europe-Eurasia region accounted for 58 awards (out of 2264, 2.5%); the Africa-SubSaharan region accounted for 14 awards (out of 531, 2.6%); the South-Central Asia region accounted for 12 awards (out of 584, 2.0%); the Western Hemisphere region accounted for 14 awards (out of 909, 1.8%); and the Mideast-North Africa region accounted for six awards (out of 273, 2.1%).

The examination of psychology subspecialties for U.S. Fulbrighters showed that 78.4% of the awards were made in the areas of clinical (27.6%), developmental (18.1%), applied/I/O (9.2%), cognitive (9.7%), health (6.9%), and social (6.9%). The remainder of the awards (21.6%) were
almost equally distributed among the areas of behavioral neuroscience, experimental and comparative psychology, cultural psychology, school and counseling psychology, and forensic and cultural psychology.

The scope of the work performed by U.S. Fulbrighters identifying as psychologists was remarkably diverse. Included among the topics were youth substance abuse, cognitive neuroscience, reading remediation, mental health disparities, cultural issues in clinical psychology, animal communication, promoting access to mental health services, improving psychology curriculum, cross cultural differences in memory processing, child abuse prevention, suicide prevention, schizophrenia diagnosis and treatment, treatment of obesity, childhood psychopathology, comparative neuroscience of emotion, promotion of creativity in young children, international twin studies, identity development, domestic violence, lifespan development, assessment of bullying, analysis of gender roles, psychology and law, human perception and cognition, development of counseling psychology, internationalizing psychology education, art therapy, biopsychology of sleep, and assessment of the quality of life of HIV patients. Many of the projects contained both basic and applied research while others were designed to elevate the understanding of basic psychological research and practice and/or improve psychology curriculum in host countries. Still others were intended to address targeted societal/psychological issues in host countries. The impressive breadth of Fulbright work performed by psychologists is consistent with other disciplines and reflects the constantly evolving and sophisticated nature of the study of behavior.

There are clearly some parts of the world where applicants with psychology backgrounds have either not applied for a Fulbright or, if they did apply, they have not won an award. For example, in some countries of South East Asia the discipline of psychology is just beginning to emerge. Laos, Cambodia and Myanmar have not had a single Fulbright awarded to a psychologist in the past. In the case of Myanmar (Burma), this is due in part to the fact that this country recently opened to the West and the Fulbright program was commissioned there only two years ago. Most importantly, however, these three East Asian countries have some of the highest needs for the building of psychology infrastructure in higher education as well as the development of better mental health care services from professionally trained practitioners (Svare, manuscript submitted). For this reason, future applicants who may be interested in spreading the discipline of psychology might want to consider these countries and others like them for a Fulbright submission.

It is also instructive to examine the CIES database for information regarding foreign psychology scholars who receive core Fulbright awards to come to the United States. Once again, the database for the seven year period from 2010 to 2017 was used. It showed that there were a total of 161 awards given to psychologists (out of 5,868, or 2.7% of all disciplines). Once again, given the fact that 46 different disciplines are funded in any given year, awards to psychologists are reasonably well represented. The breakdown of these awards shows that 90% were for research and only 10% were for teaching and research. There were no awards in the category of just teaching which probably reflects the fact that many foreign Fulbrighters are seeking additional training with noted U.S. scholars.

The regional breakdown for core awards for foreign psychology scholars from 2010 to 2017 was the following: the East Asia-Pacific region accounted for 33 awards (out of 1172 awards for all disciplines, 2.6%); the Europe-Eurasia region accounted for 58 awards (out of 2264, 2.6%); the Africa-SubSahara region accounted for six awards (out of 260, 2.3%); the South-Central Asia region accounted for 18 awards (out of 764, 2.3%); the Western Hemisphere region accounted for 11 awards (out of 713, 1.5%); and the Mideast-North Africa region accounted for 14 awards (out of 435, 3.2%).

When psychology subspecialties were examined, 94% of the foreign Fulbright awards were made in the areas of clinical (29.1%), social (16.1%), applied/I/O (14.2%), cognitive (13.6%), developmental (12.4%), and experimental (8.6%). The remainder of the awards (6%) was almost evenly distributed in the areas of behavioral neuroscience and comparative psychology, health psychology, school and counseling psychology, forensic and cultural psychology.

Foreign Fulbrighters that identified as psychologists, like their U.S. counterparts, also engaged in a wide variety of projects for their awards. Some of the topics included environmental factors that influence support services for...
autistic children, youth drinking across cultures, investigation of social dominance theory, predictors of depression, pre-stimulus predictors of emotion, bias in mental health trials, cognitive factors in adolescent risk taking, comparative research on violence prevention, predicting dishonesty at work, the role of memory in post conflict reconciliation, client centered counseling, construction of social cognitive theory, neuronal mechanisms of decision making, EEG and f-MRI studies of ADHD children, dopaminergic dysfunction in schizophrenia, optogenetic techniques and prefrontal cortical involvement in inhibition, hippocampus and contextual generalization, obsessive compulsive disorder and brain neuroimaging, eounseling and addiction prevention, trauma therapy and art therapy, cyberbullying coping strategies, dissonance-based intervention for eating disorder, seven factor model in personality assessment, speech and language of children with ADD, and the role of oxytocin and vasopressin in obsessive compulsive disorder.

**Some Advice on Executing a Fulbright Scholar Award Application**

Applying for a Fulbright Scholar Award requires thoughtful reflection as well as a thorough understanding of the application process. Much of this can be obtained by a close examination of the Fulbright website (www.cies.org), discussion with Fulbright staff, taking advantage of Fulbright webinars, as well as discussion with former Fulbrighters at your institution. I have found that the latter (discussion with former Fulbrighters) is probably the most productive way of improving your chances of success in receiving a Fulbright. What follows is some advice I have developed through my own experiences as a two time Fulbrighter to Thailand (2006-2007 and 2014-2015); for a review (see Svare, manuscript submitted) of my discussions with other Fulbrighters and my role as a Fulbright core reviewer for three years with CIES. It is not exhaustive by any means and is only meant to add to the previously mentioned information that is already available.

**Keep in Mind the Basic Goals of the Fulbright Program.** In executing a good Fulbright application, it is important to be mindful of the overall intention of the program: to promote peace and understanding throughout the world. While educational exchange is also a focus of the Fulbright program, it is much more than this. One of the important advantages of being a Fulbrighter is the opportunity it gives to get outside yourself. This allows you to gain a new perspective on what you do as an academic, to give back to your profession, to give of yourself to another country, culture, and academic institution, and to forge bilateral research and teaching relationships with colleagues in other countries. Making this connection in a Fulbright application is crucial for its success.

**Keep Your Expectations Realistic.** There is no information on the CIES website regarding the number of applications that are received and the resulting percentage that are actually funded as a function of country. Moreover, this information seems to be closely guarded and not shared by CIES staff with applicants. Logic would indicate that there are some regions of the world and some countries which are more desirable such as Australia, parts of Europe and locations like China and India that are particularly popular right now and offer many more awards than other countries. Many former Fulbrighters I have spoken with reported that they were not funded on their first or even second application but were eventually successful on subsequent submissions. I put myself in that category as I was unsuccessful on my first attempt. The important message here is that persistence eventually pays off, but you should nonetheless be prepared for early failure.

**Country Guidelines Can Vary Dramatically.** Fulbright is not in every country. Also, country guidelines vary widely. Some countries simply list that all disciplines are acceptable and cast the net broadly while others present a very narrow set of qualifications perhaps restricting applications to just a few disciplines. Most awards are teaching, research, or both teaching and research.

**The Basic Credentials for Fulbright Core Scholarships Remain the Same.** The baseline qualifications needed when applying for a Fulbright core award have changed little since the inception of the program. Applicants must have proper training and professional standing in their respective disciplines, exhibit excellence through quality publications, grants, honors, conference presentations, and exhibitions and performances. They must also have a record of service to their discipline and their home institution. Applicants must be able to demonstrate that they can serve as a cultural ambassador of the U.S. This
necessarily includes collegiality, cultural adaptability and sensitivity.

For teaching awards, there must be a good match between your academic expertise and qualifications to the award. This should be reflected in your demonstrated teaching ability and experience, the quality and feasibility of your proposed teaching project and the long term outcomes, lasting connections, and proposed benefits of your teaching in the host country. For research awards, the intellectual merits of the proposal are of course critical. This should be reflected in the suitability of the research for the host institution, its feasibility in terms of resources, the need for a period of residence in the host country, evidence of interest and affiliation by the host country, and the outcomes and potential benefits of the research for the host country, the U.S. and the broader discipline itself.

In some countries there may be a foreign language proficiency requirement, but this seems to be more the exception than the rule. Having a previous Fulbright award is not held against applicants, but it must be adequately justified since there is a preference for those who have never been awarded a scholarship. There is also a preference for those with prior military service. Having extensive previous experience in the country to which you are applying (five years) can disqualify an applicant from consideration. Lastly, Fulbright attempts to balance geographic distribution of awards as well as the applicant’s home state and type of institution.

Fulbright requires three letters of reference with an application. Typically, these letters come from your supervisor (usually the chair of your department), a colleague from within your institution, and one from outside your institution. Each letter should address your credentials and qualifications, your application goals, and your ability to properly execute a Fulbright award.

The Match and Justifying How an Award Will Help You and Your Institution are Critically Important in a Successful Application: Further Elaboration. As noted above, there are two very critical keys to a successful application. First, there is “the match”. Do your talents and what you can offer match with what is needed/offered at a host institution? What this requires is a well-researched application in which it is obvious that there is a good match between the applicant and the host institution. I have reviewed a number of applications in the past where there was no obvious match and it appeared as though the applicant had done little or no thinking about this essential aspect of the proposal. Second, there is the justification you provide for how a Fulbright will help you and your host institution. How will the results of an award improve the institution/country where you have applied? Will new programs, curriculum and lines of research develop as a result of your stay at a host institution? Also, how will a Fulbright award help you and your home institution? Will an award give you new perspectives in how you teach courses and/or do research at your home institution? More broadly, how will an award alter how you interact with students and colleagues? The success of your application is linked to how you answer these questions in the narrative of your application.

Getting an Invitation from a Host Institution is an Important Step. Securing an invitation from a host institution is easier said than done. You need to do this long before the application is formed. The host institution in its letter must demonstrate that they really want you because of the expertise you bring and the needs that they have (e.g., that you are a good match) and that they can provide the resources (e.g. office space, research space, classroom space, access to libraries, museums etc.) you need to complete your Fulbright mission. Some awards say that you do not need an invitation and the host country will arrange a match with an institution, but this is the exception. I have never seen a good application that does not have a very strong letter of commitment from the host institution. I reviewed some applications that were hastily put together, lacked a good match (or there was no match) and otherwise appeared as though the applicant was just seeking a vacation in a nice foreign country. These deficiencies are very easy to detect.

Getting Input from Others is Invaluable in Developing a Good Application. It is critically important to have several sets of eyes read your proposal before it is submitted. Former Fulbrighters as well as colleagues inside and outside your institution are especially valuable. This requirement can’t be overstated. I have spoken with a number of applicants through the years who did not seek reviews of their proposals before submitting the final version to CIES.
In short, nearly all of them reported that their first submission was unsuccessful and concluded that it was a critical mistake not to take this step. Thankfully, many reported that once they sought outside reviews on subsequent submissions they were successful.

Financial Considerations at Your Home Institution May Dictate the Feasibility of a Fulbright Application. Most Fulbright applications are due on or before August 1 each year. In addition to executing the application and demonstrating that your mission is a worthy one, you must pave the way in your own department as well as with your Dean concerning the financial arrangements you will be seeking should you be awarded a Fulbright. Because the stipends offered by Fulbright are minimal and because most faculty can’t afford to take a leave without pay, applications for a sabbatical (half year/full pay or full year/ half pay) are the norm. Applying for a Fulbright does not necessarily mean you will be granted a sabbatical should you receive an award. Though Fulbrights are considered to be very prestigious awards, some institutions are known to view them as a drain on finances since someone will have to be hired to cover your classroom responsibilities while you are gone. This philosophy seems to vary from institution to institution and from one administrator to another. Therefore, it is prudent to be aware of specific institutional policies well before the execution of an application.

Application Evaluation at both the CIES Level and the Country Level are Important Steps in the Review Process. There is a dual review that occurs when evaluating Fulbright applications. The first level of review is in the U.S. and it is done by experts (usually former Fulbrighters) in your general area. My experience is that each proposal is reviewed by a total of about three to five individuals. My experiences in reviewing many submissions over a three year period of time for CIES also suggest that about 60-80% of applications pass this level of review. Typically, an applicant finds out about the results of this level of review (which is usually just yes or no….no summary evaluations are given even if one calls) in late November/early December. Applications are rated in a downward direction if the application is poorly written and executed with key information left out or goals not justified. Importantly, as stated earlier, if the match is not good and/or it is not adequately justified and/or the invitation letter is weak and superficial, then this raises red flags and can be a cause for a poor evaluation and ultimate rejection at this level of review.

The second level of review is at the country level. This can take on two different forms depending upon whether the country is merely a post or instead has a Fulbright binational commission.

Figure 1. Dr Svare with psychology graduate students at Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai, Thailand.
In a post country, the U.S. Embassy (Public Affairs Office) and State Department officials coordinate the review and decision making on who will be selected for an award. In a binational Fulbright commission country, the selection process is overseen by a committee consisting of Fulbright (binational commission) officers from the host nation, host nation educators, NGO representatives, State Department officials, U.S. business leaders, and in-country business leaders. The success rate at the second level is difficult to determine but some factors influencing the outcome of reviews include the popularity of the country as a destination, its level of development (highly developed or underdeveloped), the number of Fulbrights that are yearly awarded in that country, and the amount of in-country strife that might exist at the time. If approved at the binational level, your application then goes to the Presidentially appointed Fulbright committee in the U.S. Once it gets to this level, you are all but assured of receiving your Fulbright. Final decisions and notification typically are received by June 1.

Some New Developments in the Fulbright Program Provide More Flexible Opportunities. The Fulbright program recently has tried to do a better job of addressing diversity issues (www.cies.org). Despite the U.S. Department of State’s Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs increased efforts to diversify the pool of grantees in recent years, the program has a reputation of being overwhelmingly white. The State Department has explored new ways to get information about Fulbright opportunities to a broader audience — increased communication with minority-serving institutions and other campuses through webinars, social media, and other outreach — while acknowledging that these efforts can take years to resonate. Potential applicants often need to hear about the program multiple times before they actually apply. Experts in international education agree, however, that nothing is as effective as potential applicants talking one-on-one with Fulbrighters with whom they can identify. The Bureau is still working through these challenges to increase diversity but no specific strategies to accomplish this have been announced.

There are two relatively new (within the last two years) Fulbright scholar programs that are being implemented: The Global Scholar Award and the Flex Award. The Global Scholar Award, unlike the traditional Core Scholar program, allows awardees flexibility to engage in advanced regional or trans-regional research or combined teaching/research. As a truly worldwide award, U.S. scholars can now collaborate and engage in scholarly activities in two or three countries in one or more regions. The Fulbright Flex Award was designed for U.S. scholars who are generally unable to spend extended periods of time abroad. The Fulbright Program now allows multiple, short-term stays in a host country over a period of one to two years.

Lastly, restrictions regarding previous Fulbright experiences were recently lifted by the J. William Fulbright Foreign Scholarship Board. Hence, there are no longer restrictions on the number of awards an applicant can receive or on the timing of awards. For example, in the past, a previous Fulbrighter had to wait six years before they could apply again. However, the Board continues to reiterate that it has a strong preference for Fulbright Scholar opportunities to be given to candidates who have not previously received an award.

Conclusions

The Fulbright Scholar program is considered to be the premier international scholarship exchange program in the world today. Psychologists routinely apply for these awards and have been successful in obtaining them in many different parts of the world for a wide range of topics. Some of the keys to a successful application include a strong match between the applicant and the host institution, getting input from former Fulbrighters and colleagues regarding your application prior to submission, and justifying how your award will help your host institution and you in the conduct of teaching, research and interactions with colleagues and students. In underdeveloped countries where the discipline of psychology is just beginning to emerge, there may be special opportunities for Fulbright applicants to spread the study of behavior in higher education systems. New Fulbright guidelines have been incorporated to improve applicant diversity, to make awards more flexible in how they are executed, and to allow more trans-regional opportunities for teaching and research.

Though core individual grants are the focus of this analysis and are considered to be the mainstay of the Fulbright program for faculty, there are other awards that
psychologists might want to consider in their desire to spread the discipline. For example, Fulbright specialist awards allow faculty to go for two to six weeks to partner with host institutions to pursue special projects that support a host institution’s priorities, and Fulbright distinguished chair awards permit grantees to spend three to 12 months in a country lecturing, conducting research and consulting on higher education issues.

Finally, as a service to the psychology profession, the author is happy to review Fulbright applications prior to their submission by contacting him at bsvare@albany.edu

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"No country can meet these tests alone. But if we work together, we can chart a safer, more stable course." Antonio Guterres, UN Secretary General (UN 2017, p. 1)

Abstract
In this essay, we examine the challenges posed by the recently announced SDGs for the South Asia region. First, we present an analysis of the SDGs in relation to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Second, we present the SDGs in the context of South Asia. Third, based on empirical research and data analysis, we present the specific challenges South Asian countries face in implementing these global goals. Finally, we conclude with some general recommendations for implementation of these goals on the ground.

Keywords: SDGs, sustainability, UN, South Asia, global goals.

Introduction
South Asia is one of the most densely populated geographic regions in the world, comprising almost one third of the entire world’s population, where people have been living in relative harmony with each other (Keck, 2014). The South Asian region is filled with several natural resources, ranging from minerals to spices to tea. With an enterprising population and numerous natural resources, South Asia has been able to sustain a growing economy in the past few decades. The entire region has significant geopolitical and economic location, and historically, it has been colonized.

Today, South Asia has established itself as one of the booming economic centers of the world. Dubbed the “world’s fastest growing region” (World Bank, 2016), economic growth in the region is forecasted to gradually accelerate from 7.1% in 2016 to 7.3% in 2017 as per a World Bank report. Like several regions in the world today, South Asia has a small elite harboring most of the wealth and power, in addition to a growing middle class. The economic inequality in South Asia is particularly alarming, given the region harbors half of the entire world’s poor. In 1997, the Human Development Center called the region “the poorest, the most illiterate, the most malnourished, and the least gender-sensitive—indeed the most deprived—region of the world” (Human Development Center, 1998, p. 14). Plagued with problems, such as lack of sanitation, gender inequality, and extreme poverty, the economic inequality in the region remains a problem (Park, 2016). The newly articulated Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) can help the South Asian region focus on specific goals to reduce income inequality and improve gender equality, perhaps leading to better living standards.

From MDGs to SDGs
The United Nations established the MDGs in 2000, which include 8 goals in total, each with their own specific targets as a way for the international community to eradicate
inequalities together. The SDGs are composed of 17 unique goals, some taken from the MDGs, and were created in 2015 as a replacement for the MDGs. The SDGs were designed to advance the global goals that the MDGs were unable to accomplish. Throughout this article, we will discuss the effects of the MDGs in furthering economic equality in South Asia, the limitations of the MDGs, and why we believe the SDGs may be a more effective set of goals will also be discussed. The UN should act as a facilitator of the global goals, rather than the enforcer. This can perhaps lead to more local success in countries adopting the SDGs.

As per the UN official report in 2015, the MDGs made great achievements in some areas, but increased efforts are needed in many other areas. The level of extreme poverty in South Asia dramatically decreased from 52% to 17% from 1990 to 2015, with the rate of reduction only increasing from 2008 onwards (UNDP, 2015). India has played a central role in the reduction of poverty in the region.

Women’s representation has also increased in South Asia. Gender parity in regards to primary and secondary education could also be seen in South Asia, with 103 girls enrolled for every 100 boys. Additionally, from 2000 to 2015, the proportion of seats held by women in single or lower houses of national parliament increased from 7% to 18%. When women work, economies can further expand; although, women can only get in the labor force through literacy and education. Women’s representation in the labor force is central to faster economic growth and equality, as the two work hand in hand.

The MDGs, however, were limited in several ways. There are millions of people in South Asia who are still suffering from extreme poverty. More than half the population in South Asia still lacks access to improved sanitation (UNESCAP, 2017). There is still a serious problem with regards to discrimination against women, though there is an increase in their education and parliament representation. Looking towards the SDGs is the only way to move forward. The SDGs are a more thought-out and well-structured set of goals. The eight goals chosen by the MDGs were not selected in a thorough analysis of the current global economic situation. The complexity of world stability and sustainability was not reflected in the MDGs.

The SDGs provide a full framework of all the areas needed to work on the 17 distinct, yet correlated and intertwined goals. The necessity to take a holistic approach is present within the SDGs, and to look at the bigger picture of long-term sustainable development is something the MDGs have greatly lacked. With a large population at-risk, South Asians cannot afford to be left behind in the race for a sustainable planet.

**SDGs in South Asian Countries**

The South Asian countries are a mix of different populations, economies and developmental constraints; they are all developing countries, but have remarkably varied challenges. Five of those countries have unique development needs. For example, Maldives is a Small Island Developing State (SIDS), Bangladesh is a least developed country (LDC), and Afghanistan, Bhutan and Nepal are landlocked least developed countries (LLDC). When we rank countries by GDP, GDP per capita and population size, South Asia can be grouped into various clusters of countries (see Figure 1).

As suggested earlier, South Asia faces fundamental gaps in sustainable development goals in meeting basic needs and services. The SDGs can provide South Asia a timely
opportunity to make its economic growth more inclusive and sustainable; reducing the development gap between rich and poor, men and women, and majority versus minority populations is a worthy ambition.

**SDG Agenda**

The SDG agenda represents the culmination of several years of consultation and review at the local-societal level, national, regional, sub-regional and global goal setting process among 193 member states to be examined for the next fifteen years. Civil society, business and industry have also added to the global goals. The goals consist of a cross-matrix review of economic, social and environmental domains.

The 17 SDGs consist of 169 targets adopted by the world leaders on Sep 25, 2015 to be tracked through the year 2030. As mentioned above, some of the goals are carried over from the MDGs, but the emphasis on environmental goals is relatively new. SDGs 1 to 7 focus on providing basic needs and services to the underserved populations that began with the MDGs. Given South Asia has the largest concentration of poverty, hunger and deprivation in the world, we still have a long way to go. Unlike MDGs, SDGs aim "to leave no one behind" (see Figure 2).

SDGs 8 to 10 focus on the drivers of change that are interoperable across economic, societal and environmental domains: jobs and decent work; infrastructure and sustainable industrialization; and promoting income equality. South Asia faces huge problems in infrastructure development, but there is political will and popular support for investment in these development projects currently. Thus, SDGs provide an ideal context for policy makers to piggyback on the global goals.

SDGs 11 to 15 work to enhance conservation and sustainability across various dimensions of the biosphere by making cities more resilient, enhancing sustainable consumption and production, promoting climate action and conserving ocean life and life on land. As South Asia embraces greater industrial reforms, ensuring long-term sustainability would be paramount. Finally, SDGs 16 and 17 foster exchange and partnerships for harnessing sustainability between state agencies and with NGOs.

### Key Issues in South Asia

#### Ending Hunger

In South Asia, one out of every five persons is in a malnourished condition (Goal 2). Given the large population size, the region is the largest hunger hotspot on the planet, with an estimated 281 million undernourished (16% of the population). With improved infrastructure (Goal 9), South Asian countries can improve food productivity and distribution. However, a reduction in anemia, zinc, and vitamin A deficiency, which are relatively common in the region, can only occur with better health policies (Goal 3) (World Hunger, 2015). Given that agriculture employs more than half of the population, any improvements in the agriculture sector will impact hunger directly. Better technologies in sustainable agribusiness, with better seeds and irrigation methods, can also have a positive impact on poverty reduction (Goal 1), job creation (Goal 8), and equality (Goal 10).

#### Sharing in the Growth

While South Asia has shown remarkable improvements in reducing inequality, the recent growth in the economy has not been broadly shared across different socioeconomic and rural-urban segments. According to UN data, South Asia remains one of the least inclusive sub-regions of the Asia-Pacific countries (UNESCAP, 2017). For example, India's...
billionaire community has increased 12-fold in the last 15 years, and they have twice the monetary resources to eliminate extreme poverty (Goal 1), but the wealth has not been shared and has not trickled down (Goal 10). As Jeffery Sachs states, in his recent book The Age of Sustainability, "Ours is a world of fabulous wealth and extreme poverty: billions of people enjoy longevity and good health unimaginable in previous generations, yet at least 1 billion people live in such abject poverty that they struggle for mere survival every day" (Sachs, 2015, p. 2).

Access to Education and Health

South Asia met the MDG targets for universal primary education. Yet, at 59%, the region lags behind the global average of 65% of primary education enrollment (Goal 4). Specifically, Pakistan and Afghanistan have very low rates of primary education for girls, and children in lower socioeconomic segments also lag significantly behind children from other regions. Investments in universal primary education are sorely needed; public expenditure in Bangladesh is 2% of the GDP, 3.8% in India, 2.5% in Pakistan, and 1.6% in Sri Lanka, which is much lower than the recommended 6%. Similarly, in terms of health outcomes, a 67% reduction in maternal mortality was significant, but South Asia still lags behind the MDG target of 75% reduction in maternal mortality (Goal 3).

Gender Equality

While South Asia reached gender parity in primary education between boys and girls, as per the MDG targets, the region still lags on multiple measures of gender equality (Goal 5). On three key measures of gender equality, South Asia shows a significant lag: (1) Global Gender Gap produced by the World Economic Forum, (2) Gender Development Index, and (3) Gender Inequality Index produced by the Human Development Report (UNESCAP, 2015, WEF, 2015). The Gender Development Index measures gender gaps in human development achievements by accounting for disparities between women and men. The Gender Inequality Index measures gender inequalities in three important aspects of human development—reproductive health, empowerment, and economic status. The Global Gender Gap Report also provides gender inequality scores on countries’ performance against four sub-indices, namely education, health, political empowerment and economic participation. Generally, Sri Lanka has the best ranking among the South Asian countries, while Afghanistan and Pakistan find themselves generally at the bottom of these indices.

Decent Jobs and Wages

It is indeed significant that South Asia has emerged as the fastest growing sub-region in the Asia-Pacific economy; however, it is yet to scale the high economic growth rate witnessed before the onset of the global financial crisis of 2008. Economic growth has been central to the 2030 SDG agenda, as outlined in Goal 8. Goal 9 is also important as it is focused on jobs and industrialization, while Goal 1 is focused on poverty reduction. Job creation in South Asia has been stagnant or declining, averaged around 1.8% annually in India and 2.6% annually in the rest of South Asia between 1992 and 2012. While GDP growth has been three times faster than employment growth in India (6.8% annually), and 1.8 times faster than employment growth in the rest of South Asia, the end result has been that prosperity has not been widely shared (Kumar et al., 2016).

Infrastructure Development

South Asian countries are characterized by huge infrastructure gaps. For example, when India is compared with Asian tigers, it finds itself at a relatively poor level in the recent global ranking of countries’ infrastructure development (with inadequate availability of transport infrastructure, electricity and information and communications technology services). South Asia lags behind in terms of transport infrastructure (SDG 9) and basic needs infrastructure, such as, access to sanitation (SDG 6) and access to electricity (SDG 7).

Access to basic infrastructure services influences other SDG targets. For instance, improved sanitation can lead to better health outcomes in terms of a reduced under-five mortality rate. Access to roads can affect health outcomes and drive down the high maternal mortality ratio. Likewise, access to electricity can promote educational goals and overall human development. Closing infrastructure gaps in South Asia will require large-scale resources, approximately $2.5 trillion by 2020, and $4 trillion to $5 trillion by 2030, according to recent UNDP estimates. India alone is investing $1 trillion in infrastructure, which is undertaken by the Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017). South Asian countries
are also part of the initiatives led by the Asian Development Bank and BRICS Bank (Andres et al., 2013).

Renewable Energy

South Asia must take the lead on renewable sources of energy (Goal 13), if they are to prosper. Countries like India can not only address the energy scarcities; they must actively save valuable foreign exchange from imports of hydrocarbons and develop sustainable green solutions. Nepal suffers from power scarcities, cutting power for 14 hours a day in the city of Kathmandu. The country, situated in the Himalayan foothills, is endowed with hydroelectric generation potential, but the green technology is scarce. Bhutan, on the other hand, has harnessed hydropower potential, embraced sustainable growth, and higher levels of happiness. Vast solar and wind energy sources must be streamlined in South Asia; these countries can also switch over to cleaner fuels, natural gas, and clean coal technologies. Advancing a unified energy market, linked by energy grids and pipelines will help the sub-region leap-frog towards enhancing energy conservation into the 21st century (Goal 11) (Kumar et al., 2016).

Meaningfulworld outreach in South Asia

We need civil society, consisting of army of NGOs, to move these goals forward. Meaningfulworld has been providing emotional healing, psychoeducation, emotional intelligence, and other ways of empowering the community to embrace the SDG’s, as well as the United Nations Declaration for Human Rights. We have worked in Sri Lanka and Pakistan directly, and provided consultations and guidance to Afghanistan, Bhutan, and Nepal. Our research findings reveal that education is a key to empowering societies economically, as well as emotionally, physically and spiritually. Our 7-step Integrative Healing Model has been translated and used in the above countries with full success. Our Integrative Healing Model crosses cultural, religious, geographic, and other boundaries and differences; by bringing peace to self, and then to others. Education is central for change of attitude, and transforms generational and destructive practices against women. When societies have cultural practices that destroy or disable approximately half of their population (women), those societies do not develop in a healthy direction.

Our Motto is: When one helps another, BOTH become stronger.

Conclusion

The United Nations has the profound and truly challenging mission to sustain peace and justice while securing a healthier future for all. Our observations in the field, in over 45 countries around the world, reveal that peacekeeping and other United Nations initiatives are neither sufficient to maintain peace nor facilitate the achievement of the SDGs. For this reason, we recommend focusing on SDGs 16 and 17, partnering for development with member states, civil service organizations, NGOs, academia, and media. We recommend brainstorming in order to develop local solutions in 15 steps, one big step for each 15 years of the SDGs (2015-2030). In Humanitarian Missions to Pakistan and Sri Lanka, ATOP Meaningfulworld partnered with over 12 local and international NGO’s, 4 academic institutions, health, welfare, and education ministries, educational institutions, and health care institutions, including orphanages, domestic abuse prevention centers, and environmental groups (Kalayjian & Eugene, 2010). The United Nations, as the international organization for upholding the law, justice, and peace, is in a best position to facilitate and support these partnerships at the local level.

Change is always challenging, especially when it pertains to long-term cultural, religious, and 'traditional' practices. Cultures can bind us as well as blind us. Therefore, local authorities may resist achieving some of the SDGs, such as, gender equality (Goal 5) which addresses women's development, under the disguise of 'tradition,' 'culture,' or even 'religion.' The United Nations could benefit greatly to embracing a clear method of actualizing the goals, and even more importantly establishing consequences for when countries resist and do not actualize the SDG's. With a local and grass root ownership of these goals, coupled with clearly expressed consequences if and when these goals are not achieved, will multiply the chances of actualizing the SDG's by 2030.

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D52 members and friends! Plan to attend the APA Convention
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Division 52 will have dynamic programs! Symposia and Roundtables on international perspectives in teaching, development, and research; two strong poster sessions; Suite programming to promote conversations, engagement and collaboration.

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•Volunteer for the program committee: Work with the Program Chairs to develop social events, outreach and more at Convention 2018

"What are the growing roles of psychological science at the United Nations today?" On October 4, 2017, Fordham University hosted a forum with six speakers who represented diverse organizations at the United Nations. They spoke about the role of psychological science in the United Nations, and how students can get involved in this work.

The forum was chaired by Harold Takooshian, as part of Fordham's graduate seminar on "Issues in social psychology." The 50 attendees included graduate students in clinical psychology and psychometrics from Fordham and other institutions. The six panelists spoke about their experiences at the United Nations with their diverse organizations.

Harold Takooshian welcomed the audience and introduced the five speakers. He described the three separate parts of the United Nations (governments, agencies, and civil society), a prehistory of individual psychologists at the UN, and the slow growth of psychology organizations at the UN since the 1990s (Takooshian & Shahinian, 2008), which are now expanding their scope with the 17 UN Sustainable Development Goals (Shankar & Foster, 2016).

Elaine Congress, Associate Dean in the Graduate School of Social Service at Fordham University, discussed the role of a social worker/psychologist at the United Nations. She mentioned how one of her roles in the United Nations is to be a representative for the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW). The IFSW is a non-governmental organization (NGO) that represents social work organizations in 120 countries around the world and consists of over 1 million social workers. They recently hosted the 34th Social Work Day at the United Nations in New York which focused on innovative projects and issues related to international social work and the critical role social work plays in the world. Social worker/psychologists may also work with other international NGOs to bring awareness of their organization to the United States by attending NGO and executive meetings or by helping put together various events. Dean Congress is also involved with Side Effects, an organization focused on issues important to students, and the Commission on the Status of Women. She assisted with the
High Level Political Forum which emphasizes Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for cities and towns around the world.

**Ani Kalayjian**, a professor at Columbia University Teachers College, recounted her years of experience at the United Nations (Kalayjian, 2003). Kalayjian joined the United Nations in 1988, representing the World Federation for Mental Health and the Armenian International Women's Association. She then formed the Association for Trauma Outreach & Prevention (ATOP), which later became known as Meaningfulworld, focused on genocide prevention and disaster relief. Kalayjian discussed the various SDGs related to Meaningfulworld such as no poverty, good health and well-being, post-war recovery, quality education, gender equality, reduced inequalities, sustainable communities, partnership for the goals, and peace, justice, and strong institutions, among others. In 1993, they held their first full-day mental health conference where they covered topics surrounding disaster relief in Congo and Sierra Leone. The conference emphasized the proverb that when we do not take care of each other, it turns into "horizontal violence," with governmental agencies and policies pushing down. Kalayjian explained how this idiom led to the Meaningfulworld motto: "When one helps another, BOTH become stronger." Her team at the United Nation works on several topics such as human rights, policy development, and global humanitarian relief. Kalayjian ended her talk by providing one final piece of advice: "Make a difference in your life, someone else's life, and to mother nature."

**David Marcotte**, a Jesuit priest and psychologist on the Fordham faculty, was the Moderator of the Tenth Psychology Day at the United Nations in 2017. He noted three ways for students to be a part of the United Nations. (a) First, students can join the Psychology Coalition at the United Nations (PCUN), which is a group of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that meet over various issues (http://psychologycoalitionun.org). For example, several NGOs focus on developing new relationships with ambassadors so that they can help develop psychological research on sustainable development in other countries. Marcotte explained how students could assist the coalition by finding research related to sustainable goals and entering it into a working database. (b) Second, students can help set up the next Psychology Day (Marcotte, 2016), or by assisting with write-ups on previous Psychology Day topics. (c) Third, student can get involved with organizing psychology "side events" during UN conferences, helping set up events and plan for future talks associated with this organization.

**Sowmya Kstriya** discussed her work as an APA intern at the United Nations from her perspective as a masters student in clinical psychology at Columbia University. She explained how an APA intern must collaborate with other NGO and APA offices to identify critical issues and human rights concerns, and have a passion for psychology and human rights (Ober, 2016). As an APA intern, Kstriya actively participated in NGO committees, presented global psychology research at national psychology conferences, and helped planning and implement events. Some of these committees and topics included aging, children's rights, family, mental health, migration, and status of women. She also mentioned that APA interns tend to network with other UN ambassadors, past/present presidents of the United Nations and APA, and other professionals working to promote human rights across the world. Kstriya ended her talk by providing ways in which students could get involved with the United Nations. She suggested that students could attend the annual Psychology Day conference, apply to become or recommend a graduate student to become an APA intern at the United Nations, and stay informed about news related to the United Nations and its affiliations.

**Oruada Oruada**, a student in the Fordham Graduate School of Social Service, and youth representative of Close the Gap, spoke about his organization's mission statement and goals, as an international nonprofit that bridge the "digital divide" by offering computers to educational, medical, and social projects in developing countries. Oruada explained the main SDGs of Close the Gap are: no poverty, quality education, gender equality, good jobs and economic growth, and innovation and infrastructure. As a Close the Gap intern, Oruada attended many briefings, wrote articles, and built partnerships through networking. He encouraged students to reach out to the organization via their Twitter or Facebook pages and to get involved if they are interested.

This United Nations psychology forum helped raise awareness of the impact of psychological sciences in the United Nations, and provided a snapshot of the various
organizations, NGOs, and committees that audience members could join at the United Nations. The forum ended with a 10-minute question and answer session led by Dr. Takooshian, who then thanked the panelists for sharing their expertise.

This forum was hosted by the Fordham seminar in social psychology, in cooperation with SPSSI-NY and the International Council of Psychologists. Thanks to IT expert Olivia Bradley-Willemann, this 80-minute forum was live-streamed, and now available at https://youtu.be/IGZqoHIWqsg.

Note: Eric Riklin is a graduate student in the clinical psychology Ph.D. program at Fordham University.

References

NEWS OF DIVISION 52
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How can students learn more about psychologists' work with the United Nations work? One purpose of the monthly meeting of PCUN (the Coalition of Psychology NGOs Accredited at the United Nations) is to allow visitors to hear first-hand how some psychologists are bringing psychology into the work of the UN. How do psychologists help shape policy at the global level? What can we do directly to reshape human rights in the globalized world?*

On Oct 19, 2017, a caravan of ten enterprising students, three graduate students and seven undergraduates, from Binghamton University drove about four hours to CUNY Graduate Center to participate in a full day of activities at the United Nations in Manhattan. This was a highly select group of students (described below), who are taking Dr. Sharma's course in Human Rights Advocacy, learning to be advocates in the immediate and larger global community. The students are researching diverse topics, and wanted to experience the people and places described in their readings and learn about the NGOs, social policy experts, and real-life change-makers who work with the UN.

The student's day began with the morning meeting at the CUNY Graduate Center at 365 Fifth Avenue. They took in the monthly meeting of the PCUN, led by PCUN President Livert of PSU-Lehigh. As the newly elected PCUN Treasurer, Sharma presented a financial report to the group. Students met with founding members of PCUN, including Prof Florence Denmark of Pace University.

Next, students had lunch on the 8th floor cafeteria of the Graduate Center, where Dr. Takooshian met with them for an informal talk about the psychology at the UN. Students followed Dr. Takooshian to one of the conference rooms. During a wide ranging discussion, they learned about the role of mental health and psychosocial issues in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Students also shared about their background and interests. The students who attended were as follows (alphabetically):

- **Ophelia Chidgey** is an exchange student from Lancaster University, UK, who is interested in working for the betterment and welfare of women and aspires to be a human rights lawyer.
- **Mariama Coulibaly** is a student in Master's in Public Administration, who is interested in conflict resolution and community development particularly with the people of the DRC, and thinks more can be done by the UN.
- **Elsie Cussons** is an exchange student from Lancaster University, UK, who is studying politics and international relations, and wants work with the UN in the future.
- **Ryan Martin** is a student in English Rhetoric and Global Cultures, with a minor in Chinese language, who

* Dinesh Sharma, PhD contact information, email:  dsharma2020@gmail.com
wants to pursue a career in international relations and human rights advocacy.

**Jiyan Omar** is a Master's degree student in Public Administration, who is researching economic revitalization in the Kurdish region, and is an advocate for the rights of the Kurdish people.

**Chaouki Ouadah** is an Algerian activist, Fulbright scholar, UN intern, and Algerian civil society representative at the UN International Human Rights Summit.

**Rebecca Rayappa** is a student in Human Development, who is a pre-Physical Therapy track, works in a non-profit corporation with children who have psychological disorders and has a strong interest in mental health policy in underdeveloped nations.

**Alyssa Santiago** is a Human Development major with a pre-law concentration, who will be studying legal procedures and human rights issues in Spain and aspire to be a Human Rights lawyer someday.

**Matthew Sperzel** is a student of economics and Chinese, with deep interest in foreign politics and would like to pursue a career in the foreign service with the U.S. State Department.

**Harlie Wise** is a Public Administration Graduate student, currently working on education and anti-poverty initiatives with the United Way.

**Dr. Takooshian**, PCUN Secretary, met with these students for 40 minutes. Based on this dialog, he shared a few items, including his article on "a brief history of psychology at the UN." Since fewer than half of the 193 nations at the UN have a national psychology association, diplomats are often unfamiliar with behavioral science, and resist the valuable contributions the behavioral science can make to their UN work.

Finally, students took a short walk to the UN campus (46th St. and 1st Ave.) and participated in a guided tour of the gilded complex, including the UN General Assembly and the Security Council. For an hour, students walked the maze of hallways and conference rooms, learning about the history of the institution, founded after the atrocities and genocidal madness of World War II.

They pondered aloud, the wise words of Dag Hammarskjöld, one of the more influential Secretary Generals, “The UN was not created to take mankind to heaven, but to save humanity from hell.” Wise words to meditate on until students return to the UN, again.
How did psychological science become part of today's global environmental agenda: pollution, sustainability, conservation, recycling, energy, fossil fuels, ecology, smart buildings, carbon footprints, and climate change? This two-part essay briefly reviews: (1) the background of the early ecology movement in the USA in 1970, and (2) the launch of a bold new field of Environmental Psychology in New York City in 1968.

**Background.** The modern Environmental movement barely existed before September 27, 1962, when science writer Rachel Carson (1907-1964) published her block-buster book, *Silent Spring*. This 400-page tome was an immediate best-seller, and surely one of the most impactful books of the Twentieth Century. With meticulous care, Carson documented three points, how: (1) corporations were poisoning the planet, (2) the situation was urgent, already causing countless global deaths within many species, including humans, and (3) government has a moral obligation to become part of the solution rather than the problem. Public response to this book was quick and massive.

The first Earth Day took place on April 22, 1970, with unprecedented rallies in New York City and world-wide. These rallies were heralded in a six-column, page-one article in *The New York Times* (Lelyveld, 1970). U.S. President Richard Nixon soon formed the Environmental Protection Administration (EPA) by Executive Order on December 2, 1970. The United Nations formed its Habitat agency in 1976 (Walker, 2005). In 1976 the American Psychological Association formed its new Division 34, Population and Environmental Psychology (Richards, 2000). This environmental movement has become a major force in the new millennium, involving psychologists world-wide (IAAP, 2017). With others (USGCRP, 2016), the American Psychological Association has been active in documenting the impacts of the environment on humans' mental and physical well-being (Clayton et al, 2014; Clayton et al, 2017).

*Our special thanks to the Ittelson family (Bill, Lane, Ellen) for their kind cooperation in preparing this brief report. An earlier version was presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association in August of 2017 in Washington DC.*
CUNY. In 1968--two years before Earth Day filled the streets of midtown Manhattan on April 22, 1970-- the elite CUNY Graduate Center in New York City became the first school in the USA, if not the world, to launch a doctoral program in Environmental Psychology. Under its redoubtable future President Harold M. Proshansky, this unique GC program attracted cutting-edge architects, urban planners, psychologists, and others to craft a bold new specialty, in its award-winning new building at 33 West 42 Street, in the heart of Manhattan. This included two new textbooks (Proshansky et al., 1970; Ittelson et al., 1974), the journal *Environment & Behavior* (Winkel, 1969), courses, and programs (Environmental Psychology, 2017). As 2018 looms, this review examines the history of environmental psychology in New York City 50 years later.

Prior to the development of the Environmental Psychology program at CUNY Graduate Center, William Ittelson was the Chair of the Psychology Department at Brooklyn College and Harold Proshansky was a professor. It was the early 1960s when Ittelson was approached by the Veterans Administration to conduct research regarding the environment of psychiatric hospitals and how the design might affect patients’ mental health (W.H. Ittelson, personal communication, July 26, 2017). Upon consideration to take on the project Ittelson realized that partnering with a social psychologist would be useful (W.H. Ittelson, personal communication, July 26, 2017). Harold M. Proshansky was a social psychologist with a long-time interest in art and design (Proshansky, 1976). The goal was to create such a design for the hospital that patients would be treated more effectively and efficiently and therefore decrease the amount of time spent at the hospital (Proshansky, 1966). In the development of the field of environmental psychology, many challenges arose due to countless variables and the complexity of human behavior. However, Ittelson and Proshansky, along with their colleague Leanne Rivlin, were up for the challenge and began conducting research and developing methodology at a V.A. hospital in New York (W.H. Ittelson, personal communication, July 26, 2017). Through this process, the three psychologists realized that there was not yet a clear field in psychology to explore how physical surroundings impact behavior.

In 1968, the CUNY Graduate Center opened in its unique new building at 33 West 42 Street in Manhattan, to house all the doctoral programs scattered across the 20 campuses of CUNY. Professors Ittelson, Proshansky and Rivlin took their research to the new institution and developed a program which they called Environmental Psychology (W.H. Ittelson, personal communication, July 26, 2017). The first people hired were Gary Winkel, as a member of the faculty, and Susan Saegert, as a research director (W.H. Ittelson, personal communication, July 26, 2017). As a team, their work spread to other “closed institutions” (such as schools) where they had more control over the numerous variables.

Initially, the main concepts of the program, as highlighted on the current CUNY (2017) website, were:

1. To address the “environmental crisis” that was recognized as urbanization both developed and decayed, and what this meant for social identity and human development.
2. Research was conducted outside of the laboratory and would “embrace the messy world of the everyday” (Environmental Psychology CUNY, 2017).
3. Integrate the knowledge of how different places effect human behavior, while incorporating the regulations and policies in our environments.

The key elements of study in environmental psychology that were observed included behavioral mapping, privacy, crowding, and place-identity. Building on research from fellow psychologists, such as Kurt Lewin and Roger Barker, as well as offering credit to ancient civilizations (Greek, Asian, and Mesopotamian) and even Grimm’s fairytales, (Ittelson, Proshansky, Rivlin, & Winkel, 1974) the field began to develop an identity, scientific credibility and efficacy (Proshansky, 1976).

Environmental psychology began to attract psychologists and students allowing research to move to more open settings and public places. The Graduate Center received a grant from the National Institute for Mental Health (NIMH) and adapted this to research children’s environments and homelessness, while continuing to study health environments, public spaces, and homes.

The first book which had the term “environmental psychology” in the title was, *Environmental Psychology:*
**Man and His Physical Setting**, edited by Proshansky, Ittelson, and Rivlin (W.H. Ittelson, personal communication, July 26, 2017). In 1974, the authors expanded their research and wrote the first textbook, *An Introduction to Environmental Psychology*, along with Gary Winkel. Additionally, the first issue of *Environment and Behavior: Perception and Evaluation of a Man’s Physical Environment* debuted on June 1, 1969, under Editor Gary Winkel (1969).

In 1974, Harold Proshansky became the President of The CUNY Graduate School and University Center, where he remained until he passed away in 1990 (Narvaez, 1990). William Ittelson left the program in 1975 to teach environmental psychology at the University of Arizona, where he worked until his death at age 97, on September 20, 2017, continuing his writing about perception (S. Saegert, personal communication, August 3, 2017). Rivlin, Winkel and Saegert, along with Maxine Wolfe remained at CUNY, conducting research and developing the program. Winkel conducted research at Bellevue Hospital for seven years while remaining part of the faculty at CUNY. He currently is a research professor at the Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai (Mount Sinai, 2017). Susan Saegert became a Professor of Environmental Psychology at CUNY, a position which she proudly holds today, as well as Director of the Center for Human Environments and the Center for the Study of Women and Society (S. Saegert, personal communication, July 28, 2017). These psychologists contributed significant, ground-breaking research and numerous publications to the field of Environmental Psychology as we know it today, as the CUNY program marks its fiftieth year in 2018.

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Conference: www.icep2017.org/


Brief Reports

The photos below are (l to r): William H. Ittelson (1920-2017), Harold M. Proshansky (1920-1990), Gary Winkel, Susan Saegert, Leanne G. Rivlin, Roger Hart

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“Ethics is the study of right and wrong, but is often taught as the study of wrong” Handelsman et al. (2005).

I chose to start my review of this excellently written and immensely important book with the above citation, as I found this book an outstanding source for guiding readers, both mental health professionals and the general public, to walk on the line of the ‘right’, in the fields of mental health practice.

Dr. Poornima Bhola and Dr. Ahalya Raguram, two leading figures in professional clinical psychology and ethics scholars at the National Institute of Mental Health and Neuro Sciences (NIMHANS) in Bangalore, India, and their contributors, 21 first level, highly experienced experts in a variety of mental health professionals, walk us along the line of ethics in counseling and psychotherapy practice.

Being myself the co-editor of two textbooks in professional ethics, one in psychotherapy and counseling and the other in research, I can appreciate the huge effort invested in such enterprises, and have advocated the fact that such needed textbooks cannot be written by one or two authors. It is the professional community that validates the ethical codes of conduct and only a collection of representative experts of the professional community can offer such well-balanced and optimally chosen contents to navigate the complexities of high professional ethical conduct.

The foreword by Professor Shamasundar presents a deeply elaborated amalgam of the Indian ancient traditional –religious and the modern professional – ethical approaches. I found the analysis of the interaction of cultural–religious values, relating to “righteousness”, in its different individual and communal implementations, and its integration into ethical and legal systems very enriching. Even though it refers directly to Indian religious and cultural frames of reference, it is applicable to the understanding of the relations between ethical conduct and cultural background in different cultures, for example the Jewish or the Moslem traditions and religious. This wide scope of cultural perspectives, makes this book very relevant to professionals of many cultures, to learn from the facts, as well as from the approach to the different dilemmas discussed in the specific chapters. The editors with their contributors take us along 14 well-constructed chapters, each focused on ethical issues within a more specific domain in psychology.

In most of the encounters between clients and practitioners, there is a clear power asymmetry between the two; even with very strong, and well-functioning clients. The editors chose to devote 6 of the 14 chapters to ethical issues in regard to extremely weak population segments that are in need of psychological interventions. Children in general, physically ill hospitalized children, women in sex work survivors of sexual violence, lesbian and gay clients, and employees receiving psychological help via their employers.

In each of these six chapters, the authors describe clearly and sharply the soft points to which ethical professionals should pay attention, knowing in advance, that these make clients vulnerable to exploitation by non-ethical practitioners. These chapters highlight, both for practitioners working with these populations as well as for practitioners in general, the ethical-professional dilemmas that are involved or that can arise
when providing professional help to such vulnerable clients. When practitioners are aware of and attend to these emergent dilemmas, their actions can benefit and empower their clients.

Another seven chapters of this book deal with what I relate to as more universal ethical issues. Even though they refer partly to the Indian realm and culture, they are very relevant and useful to professionals from other cultures. The opening chapter by Bhola and Raguram, “Navigating the ethical landscape: critical issues in practice and training”, is a scholarly written chapter covering many typical issues in practical ethics in professional praxis and training. They refer in their chapter to ethics in context, demonstrating the issue of informed consent in the Indian culture, but the reader can easily apply the principles emphasized in the chapter to her or his cultural and social background. Similarly, chapters on the ethical private practitioner, classroom and counselor ethics, working with couples and families, ethics of on-line client-therapist interactions, ethical and legal issues of psychotherapy and ethics in research of psychotherapy and psychosocial interventions. All these excellently and clearly written chapters have much relevance to any practitioner all over the globe. All of them (as well as the previously mentioned six chapters) are based on updated and rich bibliography and sources of reviews, research data and theories, all generously offered by the authors.

The last chapter to mention in this short review is the chapter by R. Raguram, Ethics in Therapeutic Practice: Universal and Valid? Starting with the four Biomedical principles comprising of autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence and justice, the author navigates between the universal value of these principles and the demand from every professional in mental health practice to be aware and consider the socio-cultural surrounding of the client. The cultural sensitivity is an independent variable in the professional equation. When I read it I thought it could (and should) be the conclusive chapter of this valuable book.

My apologies to many of the contributors, whose chapters I did not mention in detail. This is only for the sake of stimulating and encouraging the readers of this review to rush and read the book from cover to cover. I found the book as a whole volume, well written and accompanied by very high level of knowledge and thought. Walking the line means maintaining universal principles while adopting local socio-cultural perspectives and values. Unlike Handelsman et al.’s citation at the very beginning of my review, I appreciate the positive, right ethical line on which Bhola and Raguram walk us all along this book.

I added this book to the basic reading list of both my courses in Professional ethics in clinical psychology and Introduction to psychodynamic psychotherapy. I enthusiastically recommend mental health practitioners to assimilate this worthy book into their practice manuals and routine, and teachers and supervisors to use it in teaching and training.

References
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