DEMOCRACY
BUREAUCRACY
AND
THE PSYCHOLOGIST

incorporating the Bulletin of the British Psychological Society
The British Psychological Society

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DEMOCRACY BUREAUCRACY AND THE PSYCHOLOGIST

Why psychology should replace economics as the key discipline in policy development

Public servants and politicians should be guided by psychological considerations, rather than economic ones, John Raven argues. Only when the insights available through psychological research are applied to public policy can we ensure that public servants and politicians act in the public interest.

In writing the best case for social research that has ever been published, Rothschild (1982) argued that social scientists had not laid claim to the major role which they should be playing in modern societies. Maintaining that modern societies could not function effectively without a great deal of social research, he argued that social scientists had generally failed to perceive the need for studies of the requisite type and scale. They tended to mount studies which were too academic and individualistic. Undergraduate training in psychology tended to lead researchers to avoid messy policy-relevant studies, the results of which would not be beyond dispute, and to avoid pressing home the implications of such studies as they did carry out by engaging in politically-relevant debate. And social scientists were too inclined to criticise each other's work in ways which made funding agencies reluctant to invest more money in social research.

Rothschild did not spell out the social changes which formed a context for his remarks. However, the fact is that, over the past 40 years, dramatic changes have come about in the way in which society is organised. We now live in a world in which everybody's money has been overturned: instead of providing a mechanism whereby people can vote with their pennies to determine the direction in which things are headed, the invisible hand of the economic marketplace now turns economic theory, with the by-products of an industrial civilisation, and providing the education, highway, and regulatory infrastructure required for its effective operation, were

Citizens have the utmost difficulty in influencing the way the two thirds of their "income" devoted to taxation is ultimately spent.

The extent of these changes is not generally recognised. In all EEC countries, approximately 45 per cent of GNP is spent directly by governments. This does not include local authority expenditure or expenditure by the nationalised industries. When this is added on, the figure comes to some 65 per cent. This still does not include the effects of legislation requiring firms to install such things as safety and pollution-control equipment or motorists to insure their cars. Nor does it include grant and levy legislation which is designed to ensure that people spend much of their "own" money in ways deemed appropriate by government. When these are added, the total comes to some 75 per cent. One can argue about the figure of 75 per cent, and one can argue about such things as how much control governments actually have over the way in which citizens spend transfer payments, but the general conclusion that governments play the dominant role in managing modern economies is indisputable.

These changes have come about for the best of reasons. An economy managed by the invisible hand of the marketplace gave us little control over the quality of the urban environment, crime, the inequitable distribution of income, plague and disease, environmental despoilation and pollution by producers or consumers, or even continued economic development itself. The immense social costs of dealing with the by-products of an industrial civilisation, and providing the education, highway, and regulatory infrastructure required for its effective operation, were
not subject to market forces. Only an extension of explicit management will give us control over international forces which have until now been beyond control such as the worldwide depletion of physical and biological resources, pollution, population growth, exploitation of third world countries, international movements of money, tax evasion and unjustifiable marketing practices on the part of transnational companies, and war. Only an increase in world management will enable us to further improve, or even maintain, the quality of life - the wealth of modern society.

The significance of these observations is this: while it has frequently been obvious that there was a need to evaluate particular policies - and especially pilot programmes - the central importance of evaluation and social accounting in modern society has generally not been appreciated.

Not only has the importance of such activity been underestimated, with the result that the establishment of more and better social research and development units has not been identified as the key development which is needed if we are to find better ways of running modern society, there has been little discussion of either the institutional base which is required if social researchers are to perform their role effectively or the concept of science and research which should inform decisions about which research should be funded.

• was unacceptable to many tenants - and for good reasons: it imposed a sedentary way of life upon them (because they felt that any noise they made would disturb their neighbours); it bred isolation (because they had difficulty getting to know their neighbours because they could not see them from their living rooms and therefore did not recognise them when they met); it was unadaptable to their particular needs (because they could not alter it in the way that - as the growth of DIY has since demonstrated - many owners of two-storey housing do as a matter of course); it made for the deterioration of family relationships (because they were unable from their kitchens to supervise children at play outside); and access was often difficult (because the lifts went wrong or were vandalised).

• was more costly to build than equivalent two-storey housing

• was more costly to maintain than two storey housing

• accommodated fewer people per acre than two storey housing - which had the added advantage, if properly developed, at the same density of persons per acre, of providing highly desirable garages, gardens and access to public open space.

Despite this high quality research, which reached the pernickety standards demanded in civil service research units, no action was taken. Building high rise family housing continued into the 1980s. The disaster is now recognised for what it is and these expensive tall blocks are being demolished.

However, apart from emphasising that the first set of conclusions could only have been established through social research, the main point I want to make here is, that not the policies in force were misguided, but that we need to evolve structures and procedures which will make it possible to ensure that action is taken on the basis of good information. Later in this article I will argue that psychologists have a crucial role to play in promoting the evolution of such structures and in developing and operating appropriate procedures.

There is, however, something else to be learnt from housing research because our research and that of colleagues working elsewhere (Willmott, 1963; Willmott & Young, 1960, 1963) also yielded other important insights. Not only did people want a wide variety of different types of housing, and wish to avoid the grey uniformity which is associated with public housing, the creation of vast single-class suburbs - many as large as whole towns - made it very difficult for young people who aspired to other ways of life to make contact with like-minded people and gain sufficient insight into their values and way of life to make meaningful choices. Furthermore, bureaucratic rules made it difficult for tenants to establish the community support networks which are associated with "unplanned" working class communities and this forced many people to lead isolated lives of demeaning dependence on welfare agencies and tranquillisers.

These further observations illustrate that not only do we need some (social research based) means of ensuring that public servants attend to the needs of their clients and try to invent better ways of meeting those needs, we also need to: (a) legitimise or at least justify choice is required in public provision; (b) provide the public with the (social research based) information they need to make meaningful decisions; (c) provide public servants with the (social research based) tools they need to administer that choice; and (d) (in part through social research) evaluate and improve each of the choices so as better to meet the needs of those concerned.

If we require such an elaborate infrastructure to administer public housing effectively why have it at all? First, because it was necessary to build housing, and whole new towns, on an unprecedented scale. Second, because those for whom public housing was intended had, in the past, been very poorly catered for (and sometimes mercilessly exploited by) builders, landowners and landlords. Third, because, although those concerned had a clear need for housing, they often lacked the resources which would have been required to transform that need into an economic demand. Fourth, because, even when they did have the necessary cash, they often did not have the collateral information and power to ensure that they were not exploited. And, fifth, because the knock-on effect of a large number of street people or impoverished families who lived in poor and insanitary housing would be so great, both immediately in terms of disease and crime and, in the longer term, through the community's inability to make use of the considerable talents which undernourished and alienated youth could otherwise develop. (It may be noted that these needs still exist among our vast army of poorly paid and untrained people, young or old, among the single unemployed.) In short, if one left it to the market, one did not

Housing research and the bureaucrats

To underline the importance and nature of the social research required, the results of two programmes of research will now be summarised.

In the course of research conducted at the Building Research Station between 1959 and 1963 my colleagues and I (Raven, 1967; Stone 1961) found that high-rise family housing:
get enough provision and a large proportion of that provided was socially unacceptable and had serious negative consequences for everyone.

There is one more lesson to be learnt from housing research. Public servants were, and remain, remarkably blind to issues which involve linkages between housing and economic development. To accumulate the "points" required to demonstrate "need", one had both to have children and to have lived in the same locality for many years. If one moved from one local authority to another one went back to the bottom of the waiting list. This markedly restricted geographical mobility. One survey showed that 84 per cent of public housing tenants in England were unwilling to move under any circumstances.

Adam Smith and Hayek have argued that it is precisely this inability to appreciate connections, relationships and cumulative consequences which is the strongest argument for leaving such decisions to the invisible hand of the marketplace. Unfortunately, it was precisely the failings of the marketplace which led people to try to manage these processes. What is more, with the aid of information technology, we are now in a much better position to study and identify relevant relationships and consequences. The true conclusion to be drawn is that we need to establish policy research, evaluation, and development units whose brief it is to examine such issues, and then to find some way of ensuring that public servants take account of the results.

Exhortation and failure in education

Another, and in many ways even more disturbing, set of examples of the failure of public servants to act on information and consider the needs of their clients comes from education. Education was one of the first sectors of the economy to be socialised, for two main reasons: first, because education is intended to benefit everyone in society and not just those who pass through the system; second, because the poor are in no position to pay for the education of their children and this is not only unfair on the children concerned but is also likely to deprive society of their talents.

Good though the reasons for socialising education are, research we have conducted since 1965 (Raven, 1977, 1989b) shows that some two thirds of the money spent on secondary education is wasted so far as the development of human resources is concerned. Secondary schools do little to foster the qualities which most parents, teachers, employers and ex-pupils think they are there to foster and which other research shows it is, indeed, most important for them to foster. The qualities which are required include initiative, the ability to work with others and the ability to understand and influence society.

There are many reasons why schools tend to neglect these goals. Most were not obvious until research was undertaken and, even then, their discovery was usually "accidental" because little of the research was explicitly initiated with a view to identifying the forces which deflect schools from their goals. HMI and the DES tended to assume that exhortation was all that was necessary: if teachers did not follow the prescriptions the problem was assumed to have to do with teacher training or management. In reality, the problems are deep-seated and non-obvious, having to do with value conflicts, beliefs about the way the public sector should operate and the absence of the tools needed to manage individualised, competency-oriented, educational programmes. A great deal of further research and development activity - much of it of a fundamental nature - is required if the barriers are to be overcome (Raven, 1977, 1983, 1987a,c, 1989; Raven, Johnstone & Varley, 1985).

The reasons schools have tended not to foster these qualities include lack of understanding of the psychological nature of the desired competencies, how they are to be fostered and how progress towards them is to be assessed. The assessment problem is of particular importance because what happens in schools is mainly determined by what is assessed in the certification and placement process and not by the priorities of teachers, pupils, employers or even ministers of education.

When one studies the processes which lead to the development of competencies like initiative, leadership and the ability to solve problems, one discovers that such qualities can only be fostered in the course of activities which the pupil values. Yet teachers have no tools to help them to identify individual pupils' values, concerns and priorities, or to monitor the growth of these high level competencies in the course of individualised educational programmes. As soon as a serious attempt is made to implement programmes designed to foster such qualities, one discovers that one cannot, in the same classroom, foster qualities like toughness and strength, instant obedience and the ability to stick up for oneself, and qualities like creativity, initiative, sensitivity to the germs of new ideas, and the ability to communicate effectively. If one is to foster the latter qualities with any pupils, it is necessary to legitimise the provision of a variety of educational programmes directed towards the development of different competencies. This conflicts with the current emphasis on equality in public provision and education in particular.

Yet other barriers to the introduction of generic-competency-oriented education stem from concepts of the role of the teacher and the criteria applied in staff appraisal. If teachers are to foster high level competencies they must pay attention to the needs of individual pupils and try to invent better ways of meeting them. Yet teachers are not expected to be innovators and inventors. No time is set aside for such activities. Their job is viewed as being to do the bidding of elected representatives. There is no means of getting credit for engaging in the difficult, demanding, frustrating, and risky business of trying to find better ways of meeting each student's needs. Thus it emerges that, if education is to be brought into secondary schools, it will be necessary for the pupils' parents to evolve new understandings of how public sector institutions should work and the role of public servants, including teachers.

Other notable conclusions are that the public servants responsible for the development and implementation of educational policy have failed: (a) to monitor and attend to the needs and reactions of the clients of the educational system; (b) to capitalise on the wide variety of different talents which can be fostered among pupils for their own and society's benefit; (c) to harness the wide variety of motives which can be tapped to fuel enthusiasm for educational activities; and, most importantly, (d) to act on such information as was available.

"Vast misuse of public money"

So here we have evidence - much of which has been available for 20 years - of another vast misuse of public money, further evidence of the need to provide variety within the public sector and further evidence of the need to hold public servants accountable against different criteria.
In the context of the current Zeitgeist it is important to emphasise that the problem could not be solved by “returning” the activity to the marketplace. The reasons for this are: (a) if our society is to develop, many attitudes and skills - which it is the responsibility of the educational system to identify and foster - need to be widely shared in society and not just possessed by an elite; (b) we need a wide variety of people who possess different combinations of specialist information the need for which cannot become clear until after the event and which it is therefore difficult to purchase as an individual; (c) many people are in no position to pay for themselves or their children; and (d) the main benefits are not going to be derived by people as individuals but by them as members of a society which has developed as a whole. If everyone is going to benefit (even those who have no children), everyone should pay.

People would be most likely to pay, as individuals, for those “educational” programmes which were most likely to lead to credentials which would in turn buy entry to protected occupations. But those credentials would neither testify to the development of important competencies nor lead those who provided the courses to focus on such competencies. What is more, those who could pay and expect to recover the costs from increased personal income would be those who used the educational system most ruthlessly to promote their own advancement. Yet such are not the sort of people whom we should be appointing to senior management positions in our society. The people we need are those who are most committed to orchestrating communal action for the common good.

One could multiply examples of the deficiencies of public provision - in health, welfare, defence, and the management of agribusiness and international trade (Rose, 1980; Klein, 1980). At a more micro level, the inability of public servants to act in the public interest is well documented in Chapman's book Your Disobedient Servant, (1979). However, in concluding this section, we may return to, and underline, the need to do more to examine the linkages between one area of policy and another.

The policies which are currently enacted tend to be domain specific. Thus, the way we provide for social security makes for the subjection of large numbers of people to a demeaning and dehumanising way of life which kills initiative and enterprise. The way we provide health care separates it from agricultural policy, housing policy and environmental policy - including job design and transportation. As a result, we spend a lot of time treating diseases which are caused by the over-consumption of milk and beef products, themselves produced as a result of specific agricultural policies, and diseases caused by pesticides or hormones the use of which is encouraged by agricultural policy. We spend a lot of time treating depression caused by neighbourboothoods which breed isolation. We urgently need to find ways of involving more people in the community-support networks which could better cater for our pension, welfare, child-care, education, economic, development, environmental quality, crime prevention and health needs, and do so in a way as to avoid implying that such activity is not “real work” which merits financial reward (for a fuller discussion see Robertson, 1985 and Ferguson, 1980).

We treat the symptoms of stress caused by the way we organise work. And we treat accidents and lead poisoning caused by motor vehicles - the need for which in turn derives in part from the way we provide and finance housing (for this deters people from moving home in order to live nearer their place of work) and the way we organise job allocation (for this does not make it easy for people to find work near their homes). The way we allocate position and status creates a “demand” for expensive “education” which, in reality, confers few benefits on those concerned other than a passport to a protected occupation.

An economist’s or a psychologist’s solution?

The public has become increasingly conscious of the kinds of problems discussed above. They have found themselves increasingly unable to get public servants to act in the public interest or to get from public servants decisions which take account of all the factors which ought to be considered. This is why, in our quality of life surveys (Raven, 1980) we found that, while people were satisfied with their washing machines and cars, more dissatisfied with the quality of the environments in which they lived, and still more dissatisfied with social welfare, health and educational provision, they were most dissatisfied with their relationships with public servants and politicians.

Despite the fact that numerous surveys have shown that a majority of people in the UK do not want to abolish public provision and are willing to pay higher taxes in order to get better public provision, it is the growing awareness of problems like those mentioned above which has fuelled public support for “privatisation”. The next question we must address is, therefore, whether this represents anything more than clutching at a straw.

There is ample evidence that both large and small companies frequently fail to act in the public interest and are often anything but innovative (Sutherland, 1949; Roberts & Wainer, 1966; Bellini, 1980; Etzioni, 1984; Kanter, 1985; Ekins, 1986). The privatised legal system is anything but cheap, responsive to clients’ needs or well suited to meeting their needs. Nor does it have a reputation for acting in the public interest. The reduced operating costs sometimes obtained by privatising services are often only achieved at the expense of the weakest members of the workforce. Indeed, special legislation has been introduced to enable the firms concerned to evade pension and social security requirements. Further “savings” are made by externalising the costs of monitoring and policing the activities of larger operations like telephones and transport. Breaking up large organisations does not necessarily make their services cheaper, more efficient or more responsive to customer needs; witness, on the one hand, what has happened as the provision of old people’s homes has been turned over to small private landlords (revealing that, to exercise economic power effectively, one needs many non-economic powers) and, on the other, the fact that breaking up the
Ball telephone system in the US has increased costs to the consumer by a factor of three and deregulation of air travel, which at first reduced fares, later led to the concentration of 80 per cent of US air traffic in four companies and then to increased fares.

Other forms of privatisation equally offer no solution to the other problems we have discussed: one tends either to create vast private monopolies in place of public monopolies or to create private organisations which are dependent for their continued existence on the patronage of one or more public servants or public service departments. The problem of monitoring and running them - and stimulating innovation and consumer responsiveness within them - remains.

In the light of these observations it would seem that faith in privatisation is misplaced. The solution to the problems which plague us will be provided by psychologists, not economists.

**Acting on information received**

The basic problem is to find ways of ensuring that public servants act on information, in an innovatory manner, in the public interest. I would suggest that this is to be achieved by introducing new staff appraisal systems and a new institutional framework which will make it easier to supervise the activities of public servants and ensure that they act in the public interest. Paradoxically, despite the fact that the UK has, by international standards, one of the highest levels of awareness of these problems - as well of others which might be termed the "green agenda" - it is unlikely that the solutions will evolve here, because we have one of the lowest levels of interest in innovation, doing new things, finding new ways of doing things, doing things efficiently and effectively. Our organisational structures do not promote innovation and encourage our members to pay attention to clients' needs. Structures of promotion do not ensure that it is in the employee's interests to act with the long-term needs of the organisation, or its clients, in mind (Freeman, 1975; 1974; Raven, 1984c; Kanter, 1985; Graham et al., 1987). Finding ways of overcoming these problems and fostering the concerns, and creating the structures, which would help us to resolve this dilemma and release energy to promote social innovation is clearly yet another specifically psychological task.

I would like to suggest that it is crucial to the future of the world as we know it to find alternative ways of solving the problems highlighted above. There is ample evidence (e.g. in the writings of Robertson (1985), Ekins (1986), Thurow (1983) and George (1988)) that the economic marketplace does not work in the public interest and that we have built our standard of living on economic processes which are non-sustainable. To give effect to information on the long-term social, ecological, physical and environmental consequences of alternatives we must find ways of making managed economies work.

If we are to do this we will need to develop new expectations of public servants, new criteria against which to judge their performance (such as "it is important to take innovative action in the public interest"), new appraisal tools to assess their performance against these criteria, new forms of bureaucracy and their functioning, new ways of thinking about the relationship between bureaucracy and government, new forms of democracy which enable us to ensure that politicians and public servants are more inclined to act in the public interest, new concepts of citizenship and new concepts of wealth and wealth-creation. All of these are essentially tasks for psychologists.

If the kind of innovation in the social process envisaged above is to come about, there is a need for an unprecedented public debate about the goals of society, the state of that society and what is to be done about it. This debate cannot take place without the assistance of the media, and those who take part in that debate need some mechanism through which they can make their views known. Modern information technology (such as Prestel) makes it easy for people to vote from their living rooms. But the value of feedback of this sort is not only dependent on the dissemination of information. It is also dependent on psychologists' developing sets of survey questions which yield more meaningful results than those obtained from opinion polls. If meaningful conclusions are to be drawn from such data it will also be necessary for those concerned to develop understandings of democracy which do not imply that majority decisions should be binding on all, but which instead imply that some means must be found to enable people with different priorities to get equitable treatment, geared to their priorities, from the public service.

Furthermore, the time required for many members of the population to engage in the kind of participative - as distinct from representative - democratic process required to oversee the public sector activities which dominate our society will be considerable. It is therefore important to note that such civic activity contributes to the efficiency of our society and the quality of life of all. In other words it is wealth creating activity. It therefore merits financial reward. (In order to discourage immediate rejection of this possibility it should be noted that the costs of operating the economic marketplace are enormous: two thirds of the cost of the average articles goes on distribution and marketing. Yet this work - unlike the chore of supervising the public sector - tends to be viewed as contributing to wealth creation.)

**Implications for psychologists**

My objectives thus far in this paper have been to show that modern society needs psychologists to:

- carry out evaluations of a wide variety of public policies, to identify barriers to their effective operation and to contribute to the invention of better policies;
- examine the workings of the public sector as an organisation;
- develop the tools required to administer diversity in public policy and provide feedback from each group of clients;
- develop the tools to take stock of organisation in the public service, and for staff appraisal, staff guidance, and (ii) the public sector - for which most of us now work either directly or indirectly - can make the best use of the available talent in energetic, innovative, activity;
- above all, to contribute to the evolution of new concepts of democracy, the public service, the role of the public servant, wealth, wealth-creation, work and citizenship.

These observations have major implications for the kind of research we see ourselves undertaking, the criteria we apply to research proposals and the products of research, the institutions we seek to establish to carry out that research, the relationships we seek to establish between researchers and policy makers and the public, and the
The concept of research

Accuracy and unarguability are widely believed to be the hallmarks of science. This view dominates the thinking of the US Joint Committee on Standards for the Evaluation of Educational Policies and Programmes. However, it will be argued here that, while this view may well be appropriate in academic research, it is not appropriate in policy and evaluation research.

To take an example, there is little point in demonstrating that an innovative educational programme, weakly implemented and without other supportive changes, does not have dramatic effects. Yet most pilot programmes are of this sort: the teachers directly involved have typically only a limited grasp of what is to be achieved and how it is to be achieved. (Indeed, it is frequently the case that no one at the start of the programme can specify the pedagogic processes which are to be used to reach its goals.) Crucial equipment has usually not arrived, and facilities are makeshift. There are no tools to enable the teachers concerned - or even the programme evaluators - to find out whether the new goals have been achieved, still less to give individual teachers or pupils tradeable credit for having achieved them. Teachers in other classrooms, with whom the pupils may be spending more than 90 per cent of their time, may have changed neither their teaching practices nor their expectations of pupils. The programme goals may never have been discussed with pupils or parents and may therefore not have their support. And employers and universities may still be selecting their entrants on the basis of conflicting criteria. Under such circumstances, what is required is an evaluation which (a) uses the available evidence to infer what the effects of properly developed inputs, in various contexts, would be likely to be; (b) identifies the barriers which are preventing the programme being more effective (and it is important to note that many of these barriers may have their origins in the sociological functions which schools perform for society rather than the educational process itself); and (c) attempts to evaluate outcomes which it would require a considerable investment in fundamental research (based on yet-to-be invented psychometric models) to evaluate properly (a fuller discussion of these issues will be found in Hamilton, 1977; Raven, 1984a, 1985; Eisner, 1985).

An evaluation which does not endeavour our comment on (i) all important outcomes of an educational process (including both the positive and negative outcomes), (ii) all important barriers to the effective implementation of the programme - whether deriving from resources, psychological and pedagogic understanding, or sociological processes, and (iii) the crucial steps needed to make progress, is hard to justify. Evaluators who fail to cover the ground because important variables are "intangible and hard to measure" commit crimes against mankind - because this will mean that significant programme benefits and failures, and real barriers to diffusion and dissemination, are overlooked in all subsequent discussion of, and decisions about, the activity.

It emerges, therefore, that, while the hallmark of good academic research may well be accuracy, the hallmark of good evaluation is comprehensiveness. A good policy study is one which yields new understandings and insights and points the way forward. In such a context, it is inappropriate to judge the work of an individual researcher against the criterion of "proof beyond reasonable doubt". What is needed is a contribution to a public debate which will advance understanding. It is the process of science which leads to accurate and complete understanding, not the work of an individual scientist. Instead of asking whether a researcher's conclusions are beyond dispute, we must ask whether the work yields new insights, information and understanding. What is needed is public debate between scientists all hotly pursuing "the same" issues. It therefore seems that Eisner's (1985) emphasis on the "art" of educational evaluation and "curriculum leadership", while important in legitimising the kinds of activity advocated here, is unfortunate in that it fails to challenge the concept of science which informs most academic thinking - and especially that of the Joint Committee on Evaluation. Likewise, it emerges that "administrators' concern to avoid duplication" is as misguided as their quest to initiate research which will give unarguable answers to clearly defined questions. As a profession, we therefore need to encourage those who control the funding of policy-relevant research to fund research into important issues even when neither we nor they know how it is to be done and even when it is clear from the start that the conclusions will be debatable.

Although many people will find what has been said disturbing, it is important now to share another insight which has emerged in the course of 30 years of policy research. This is that such work regularly points to the need for studies of, and public debate about, fundamental social values, political beliefs and beliefs about the operation of the public service itself. A few examples will illustrate the point.

As has been indicated, studies of educational policy pointed to the conclusion that one of the main reasons why a great deal of the money spent on secondary schools is wasted is that our preoccupation with equality prevents us respecting and fostering the wide variety of value-based competencies which exist. To handle the problem we need both to legitimise the provision of variety in the public sector and to respect individual pupils' rights to opt out of programmes which they do not find congenial (Raven, 1988a,b). In a similar way, studies of values, attitudes and institutional structures associated with economic and social development pointed to the conclusion that understandings of how society does and should work - i.e. social and political beliefs and expectations - are of fundamental importance. It emerged that, in Britain, we need new understandings of terms like "management", "participation", "democracy" and "wealth". An attempt (Raven & Dolphin, 1978; Raven, 1984a) to develop the tools required to measure qualities like initiative, leadership and the ability to work with others suggested that, as psychologists, we need new psychometric models which give pride of place to values, even political understandings. To assess these qualities we need to

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find out what the person concerned values and that he or she believes about how society works and understands by such terms as "democracy", "management" and "participation". Yet, although both the continued tendency to recruit ex-public school pupils for important positions and MSC's ban on political education in its enterprise development programmes testify to the validity of the proposition that competence is crucially dependent on these beliefs, the notion that the assessment of competence involves the assessment of values and political beliefs is, in view of the moral dilemmas it rightly raises, deeply disturbing. An evaluation of a pilot programme of school-based teacher education (Raven, 1987b) suggested that one of the chief barriers to effective teacher education is the concept of the role of institutions of higher education held by the Scottish Office, the institutions themselves, and the public in general.

I want to emphasise that these are scientific conclusions, not political positions. More than that, they are conclusions drawn from specifically psychological research. New, specifically psychological, understandings and tools are required if progress is to be made. While the accusation of going beyond science to draw political conclusions is mainly levelled at the social sciences, Galileo's experiences testify to the fact that this has not always been the case.

In saying that these are scientific conclusions, I do not mean to imply that I think they are beyond dispute. On the contrary, one thing a scientist knows for certain is that s/he is wrong. The emphasis that has been placed on the argumentability of these conclusions is diversionary. The real problem is that they upset our view of the universe. The result of this has been that, even though, in retrospect, our sponsors have often been inclined to agree with our conclusions, they have still found themselves unable to support the research which would be required to substantiate them or find ways of tackling the very problems which led them to approach us in the first place. Perhaps even more importantly, conclusions like these disturb those of our fellows who referee applications to funding bodies like the ESRC. Unless we, as a profession, address these issues we will continue to behave in the dysfunctional way described by Rothschild.

That is why it is so important for the whole profession - and not just those of us who have been contaminated by the experiences we have had as a result of dabbling in this area - to consider the issues I have raised in this paper.

If what I have said is correct, and if we are to encourage useful evaluation, it will be necessary for us, as profession, to:

(1) Change our beliefs about the outcomes which it is appropriate to expect from the research process.

(2) Change our beliefs about the topics that it is appropriate for researchers to study.

(3) Change our beliefs about the research process - so that it comes to be seen as appropriate for researchers to follow up, and write up, unexpected observations made in the course of their research and so that further research to follow up unexpected re-orientations can be funded.

(4) Do much more to protect researchers who stumble into new areas and find themselves in conflict with the assumptions of those who control funding.

(5) Most importantly, emphasise that effective applied research almost always involves a considerable amount of fundamental research - fundamental research, the importance of which academics who do not have contact with applied problems will be most unlikely to see. Or, put the other way round, academic life is not ideally suited to the task of stimulating new lines of fundamental research or paradigm shifts.

We have seen that we now live in a society which is managed by people (and not by the economic marketplace) and that management is based on beliefs and explicit information. We have seen that the main actors on this stage are public servants. It is they who mainly decide what information will be collected and how it will be presented to politicians and the public. It has not been shown that prices are mainly determined by public servants, nor that public servants manage trade as a result of their control of tax structures (i.e. that they use money as a management tool instead of allowing money to manage the economy) but these things are also true. And it has been shown that government is grossly overloaded and that the form of representative democracy to which we have become accustomed is no longer viable (Raven, 1984a,b,c).

Our earlier discussion, and these observations, point to the need to:

A. Develop tools which will make it possible to hold public servants accountable for such things as:

- considering the needs of their clients and inventing better ways of meeting those needs;
- considering, and taking appropriate action in the light of, the long term social consequences of the options available;
- initiating the collection of relevant information, including information on the worldwide social consequences of potential courses of action;
- seeking out, and using, the information which is available and using it to come to defensible conclusions about the course of action which is in the long-term best interest of the public and each of the sub-groups of which it is composed;
- creating organisational, community, and societal climates characterised by innovation, efficiency, and dedication to the public interest.

B: Develop mechanisms which make it possible to:

- stimulate public debate about issues varying from those of concern in local workplaces, classrooms and communities to those of international concern;
- weight the opinions of those concerned to allow for the fact that some views deserve to carry more weight than others (the uninformed should not be allowed to impose their values on others who have quite different priorities and concerns);
- ensure that both public servants and others who have a significant impact on what happens in society consider the available information and come to justifiable decisions about what is to be done.

These two sets of problems call for the establishment of a number of units charged with the task of developing the concepts, tools and institutions which are required to, for example, administer choice in education and housing. We need tools which can be used to give public servants credit for engaging in the difficult and demanding business of innovation, which can be used for staff guidance, placement and development (so that our managed economy can make the best use of the human resources which are available to it) and which can be used when deciding whom to appoint to senior management positions.

I have to confess to being less clear about precisely what research should be initiated to contribute to the evolution of the new concepts of democracy, bureaucracy, wealth, management, participation and citizenship which are
required. But this is clearly an area which urgently needs to be probed. Two specific suggestions are: one, to experiment with techniques of television-based debate and feedback, two, to initiate an international project which would involve psychologists from different countries spending significant amounts of time in each other's countries, not reviewing research, but using the contrasts between those countries to surface embedded concepts of how information should be collected and used and how decisions should be taken. It strikes me, for example, that these assumptions are very different in Norway, the UK and Japan.

It will be clear by now that useful policy-relevant research is very different in nature from what has in the past commonly been assumed. The structures required to execute and reproduce research within the framework of expectations within which it is carried out are also very different. Classical, but still highly relevant, discussions of these issues have been contributed by Cherns (1970), Donnison (1972) and Freeman (1973, 1974).

At an absolute minimum we need to press for the establishment of a number of units to work in this area. These units should not be university-based, because the criteria to be applied to the researchers' work are so very different to those appropriate in academe. Academic time scales are also inappropriate. Teams of researchers need to be able to devote their full time to the work and they need to be provided with an assured career structure which does not require them to conform either to traditional bureaucratic or academic criteria. While there needs to be sufficient contact with policy makers for the researchers to become thoroughly familiar with the problems which need to be tackled, researchers need considerate scope to determine the way in which they will tackle them and to follow up new issues which come to light. There also needs to be some mechanism whereby people who are "peripheral" to mainstream decision making can initiate studies and ensure that they are carried out from their own perspective. These reflections suggest that, instead of being accountable to administrators, researchers should be accountable to a Director who should him or herself be accountable for creating a climate of innovation, dedication, the development of new understandings and ideas and the development of new tools which can be used to run the public service more effectively. One tendency to assume that applied research can be effectively carried out by researchers who are individually on short-term contracts tied to short-term project funding has proved to be a recipe for disaster and, in any case, bears no resemblance to what Rothchild had in mind when enunciating the customer-contractor principle.

As far as the UK is concerned, it is important to underline the scale of funding which should be envisaged because the string and sealing-wax of grants provided by the SSRC/ESRC have led psychologists - and especially university-based psychologists - to have quite inappropriate expectations. More appropriate standards for funding are to be found in the Government Social Survey, where it is not uncommon to find £250,000 being devoted to projects with very limited objectives. The extent of the underfunding of policy research can also be judged from the fact that two years' losses of the British Steel Corporation would have funded the Scottish Council for Research in Education since Stonehenge was built. Yet far more of our national resources are devoted to - even misapplied in - education than steel.

But I do not wish to give the impression that things are better in America. I know of nowhere in America where I could have carried out the research I have in fact been able to carry out, even though it has been carried out under extremely unsatisfactory conditions. It is therefore important to challenge the US contract-research model. An outsider cannot help noticing that, although the funds sloshing around are astronomical by our standards, and although hundreds of thousands of people are employed, the actual contribution to advance in understanding is often extremely small. This is attributable not only to the belief that public service customers are able to identify research needs but also to widely held views about what constitutes good research. In saying this, I have the Joint Committee's Standards for the Evaluation of Educational Policies and Projects very much in mind.

Beliefs, expectations and understandings to be fostered in undergraduate education

The very different beliefs we need to develop about what constitutes science, psychology, good research and especially, the role and nature of policy research and evaluation have already been discussed. It remains to emphasise how important it is for the universities to encourage students to develop more appropriate expectations.

But perhaps the most important message for the universities to disseminate is that what society most urgently needs is not a new set of specific policies in health, housing, incomes, pricing, management, labour relations, third-world trade or whatever, but policy development units and, especially, units set up to develop new concepts of bureaucracy and democracy and the tools which are required to run them more effectively. Psychologists have a major role to play in these units. We know more than anyone else about organisations, institutions and tools of policy appraisal and performance assessment. One urgent task is to get the establishment of such units onto the agenda of at least two of the major political parties.

These may sound like grandiloquent claims, but it must again be emphasised that we are living in an economy which is quite unlike that which most of us take it to be. Our claim as psychologists must therefore be, not that we can help to introduce some Utopia, but we can help society to do better that which it is already doing.

Notwithstanding the strength of this argument, the question of how all this is to be paid for will still be raised. The answer is to be found in the previously mentioned fact that some two thirds of the cost of any article is spent on distribution and marketing - that is, on making the economic marketplace work. An effective managed economy, in which most of the necessary information was contributed by psychologists - and not by financiers or "economists" - could hardly cost more to administer. And, in pressing this case, use should also be made of our earlier observation that such activity would constitute genuine wealth-creating work.

This paper evolved out of addresses presented to the Society's Conference on the Future of the Psychological Sciences at Harrogate in February 1987, and subsequently to the XXIV International Congress of Psychology, Sydney, Australia in 1988. A brief version of the latter is to be published in the Proceedings of the Congress (Volume 8), Elsevier 1989.
References

I am indebted to Bryan Dockrell, Stanley Nisbet and my wife for their assistance, over many years, in preparing this article.

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Research in Brief

Disastrous Effects

In addition to work with people directly affected by disasters, psychologists are also carrying out important new research into the adverse effects suffered by rescue workers. Geoff Lowe reports.

The destruction of communities and the magnitude of death and injury is often more substantial in a natural disaster than in those resulting from technological failure or human error. Douglas Paton, a Chartered Occupational Psychologist from the University of St Andrews, has been focussing particularly on the relief workers who went out from Britain to help in the aftermath of the Armenian earthquake in December 1988.

Dr Paton is an adviser to the International Rescue Corps, and is concerned about whether these volunteers - and, indeed, full-time emergency service workers - are adequately prepared either physically or psychologically for the tasks they have to perform. His findings reveal that many of them have symptoms relating to Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder.

Monkeys Face Brain Tests

Brain researchers have discovered neurons which respond only to faces and hairstyles. Vincent Walsh reports.


Small populations of neurons in the temporal lobe cortex of the macaque have been shown to be selectively responsive to faces. Some neurons display different firing patterns according to the orientation of the face stimulus and others to the direction of gaze of the face stimulus. However, it is not clear which particular features or configurations of features are important for face neurons.

Yamane et al recorded from 446 neurons in the inferotemporal cortex of a macaque monkey, with 21 responding exclusively to faces. These face neurons were presented with 62 faces which were controlled for various facial features (e.g. nose length, jaw width, inter-eye distance). Multiple regression analysis showed that the neurons responded best to particular combinations of features. The most important ones were inter-eye distance, eye to mouth distance, and hairstyle.

While previous studies have located face neurons in the banks of the superior temporal sulcus (STS), Yamane et al recorded from the inferotemporal gyrus (ITG). They suggest a possible processing route from ITG to STS.

Business Types

Are extroverts more successful in business than introverts? Mark Parkinson reports.


The possibility of predicting business success by using a specific questionnaire or battery of personality tests has intrigued occupational psychologists for a number of years. In North America particularly, a great deal of effort has been invested in trying to define entrepreneurs in terms of certain sets of traits or as particular types.

Rice and Lindecamp have recently attempted to correlate the Jungian personality types of the owner-managers of small retail stores with their business incomes - income, in this case, being the only "success" indicator used. The "personality" of 102 owner-managers was determined by using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and three main hypotheses tested. Namely that extroverts would be more successful in business than introverts; and that either thinking-judging types or thinking-sensing types would also be more successful. In Jung's terms thinkers are people who base their decisions on logic and objective analysis; and sensors are those that focus on the present and concrete information gained through their senses. The researchers found no convincing link between a particular Jungian personality type and business income. However, there was an indication that extroverts were likely to make more money, but were less efficient than introverts in deploying it, i.e. by taking on employees.

The point is also made that Jungian criteria constitute continua. This means that it is possible for a person to fall near the centre of a scale, only slightly into the extrovert division for example, and receive the same classification as an extreme case. As Rice and Lindecamp suggest, this particular problem with the Myers-Briggs could well distort the findings.
Do We Think We Have More Personality Than Others?

Are traits things we see in others but not ourselves - or vice versa?

Anthony C. Edwards reports.


It was once believed that we see ourselves as possessing fewer traits than other people. Evidence supporting this view came from research in which subjects were presented with pairs of trait names, and, for each pair, had to indicate which was the better description of various people. Permitted to say "Depends on the Situation", subjects did this most frequently when judging themselves.

Low Verbal IQ Drinkers

Drinkers with low verbal intelligence could end up with more alcohol-related problems. Geoff Lowe reports.


The impaired neuropsychological performance among social drinkers and alcoholics is well documented. However, some newer research is being directed towards cognitive deficits that may precede the onset of systematic heavy drinking and which may function as risk factors for subsequent alcohol abuse and alcoholism.

Michael Windle and Howard Blane, of the Research Institute on Alcoholism, Buffalo, USA, undertook a national study of adolescents. They looked at verbal intelligence in relation to alcohol consumption and to three alcohol problem areas - dependency symptoms, aggressive behaviours, and job problems.

Contrary evidence was found in several experiments by Sande et al. Subjects were required to perform a similar task - but, in place of a "Depends" option, were allowed to answer with "Both" or "Neither". They answered "Both" for themselves more than for acquaintances, and for liked others more than disliked others. This suggests we see ourselves as possessing more traits than others. This could reflect a tendency to see more traits in people we regard highly - assuming, of course, we have considerable self-respect.

With regard to alcohol consumption, abstainers manifested lower verbal intelligence scores than drinkers. However, among drinkers, lower verbal intelligence was associated with more alcohol problems. With influence of socioeconomic status statistically controlled, lower verbal intelligence still predicted alcohol problems, but not alcohol consumption. The effect was robust across gender and age groups.

These studies suggest that alcohol-related neuropsychological research may benefit from assessment of cognitive behavioural functions associated with verbal intelligence, such as social judgement and social skills. Such an evaluation may shed light on the differential risk for drinkers with low verbal intelligence.

It Moved But Where To?

Vincent Walsh reports on an unusual case of "motion blindness".


Primate studies have suggested that areas within the extrastriate visual cortex are specialized for processing particular attributes of visual stimuli (e.g., colour, movement, or position in space), but there are very few cases of human patients suffering from deficits which can be attributed to specific extrastriate cortex damage. Over a period of three years, using a range of psychophysical tests, Hess et al have studied one such patient who has bilateral damage to a region of cortex located according to V5 in the macaque. Neurons in V5 are especially responsive to movement. The patient's visual acuity and hue discrimination threshold were normal, stereopsis was only mildly impaired, and spatial and contrast sensitivity functions were relatively unimpaired. However, when tested for the ability to discriminate the direction or rate of movement of gratings presented on a screen the patient was severely impaired. A severe impairment was also observed when the patient was asked to judge the direction of apparent motion. Thus the patient could detect movement and discriminate normally between stimuli unless they differed only in the direction or rate of movement.

Hess et al discuss the results in terms of striate and extrastriate cortical mechanisms, and compare their findings with studies demonstrating functional specialization in other regions of extrastriate cortex.

Oral Intelligence Tests?

Mark Parkinson reports on the potential validity of structured interviews.


The interview is the most popular industrial selection technique. However, this enthusiasm is not matched by its validity - the degree to which it predicts future performance. A comparison with other common selection techniques places it last after cognitive ability tests, assessment centres, biodata and reference checks.

Wright et al have examined recent evidence on structured interviews. These centre on job-related questions with predetermined answers that are applied across all interviews for a particular position. For instance, it can be determined how an applicant would respond to various situations, and also how similar situations have been dealt with in the past.

A comparison of the structured "situational" interview with the more traditional shows it to be superior. A number of reasons for the improved validity are suggested. First, structured interviews are based on a thorough job analysis and so unrelated questions can be avoided. Second, the assumption is made that individuals' intentions are influenced by past behaviour. Finally, the structured interview may work as a sort of "oral intelligence test" and have a significant correlation with cognitive ability tests. Thus there is perhaps no need to use both in selection.
Discovering Cumulative Social Science

Ian Donald reports on the Second International Facet Theory Conference held at the University of Surrey from 4-6 July 1989.

Facet theory is an approach to research devised and developed by the late Professor Louis Guttman. The approach has mutually exclusive conceptual facets, forming a very clear and precise picture. It is a concept that really does provide for cumulative social science research.

There was a free exchange of ideas amongst the 40 or so scientists present, and it emerged that differing domains of research had facets in common, though often with different names. These facets could also be easily transferred to another area. For example, a facet concerned with the level of interaction a person has with their environment is tapping the same psychological processes as a facet concerned with motivation for having dental treatment.

There were many interesting papers, and one which particularly brought home the strength of facet theory was presented by Ruth Guttman of the Hebrew University of Jerusalem. Herself a geneticist, she presented a paper entitled “Pharmacogenetics of Agnostic Behaviour in Male” which was then discussed by an engineer, Shlomo Waks, with contributions from social psychologists, a sociologist, a methodologist and, if I recall correctly, a political scientist.

A paper by D.C. Heritage and David Canter entitled “A Partial Order of Criminal History and Offence Location of Serial Rapists” demonstrated some of the newer developments in analysis methods associated with facet theory. It also showed that they can be used to include temporal developments in behaviour in a clear and structural way, and that facet theory has a contribution to make to applied decision-making.

The conference also revealed developments in methodology and computer programs. Margaret Wilson’s paper “The Development of Architectural Concepts” not only showed cumulative research at work, but provided a fine example of the application of the multiple sorting task, and the strength of facet theory and its associated analysis techniques in dealing with qualitative data.

An enormous diversity of topic areas were covered by the conference. While the participants came from many areas of science, they had in common their use of facet theory, and their belief in its value for advancing science, and this overcame the boundaries created by the various disciplines. The conference was originally organised into six symposia, but these boundaries became meaningless as the conference progressed.

The hallmarks of a truly developing science include the development of cumulative research, and the evolution of unifying concepts and ideas, which cut across disciplinary boundaries. If this is the direction in which we wish the social sciences to progress, facet theory has a major role to play in our future.

Dr Donald is an Associate Lecturer and Senior Research Fellow in the Department of Psychology, University of Surrey.

Gender and Knowledge Workshop

This was the first joint venture between the Psychology of Women Section and the History and Philosophy Section - and already people are asking “When's the next one?” The meeting was built around the visit of Professor Rhoda Unger to the UK, thanks to a grant from the SAB. Sue Wilkinson reports.

Rhoda Unger, of Montclair State College, New Jersey, is widely regarded as one of the leading psychology of women scholars in the USA, particularly for her work on feminist and personal epistemologies and the social construction of gender. We were fortunate that her visit to London coincided with that of Michele Wittig of California State University at Northridge, who is particularly interested in the area of sex equity. Our American guests were complemented by two British speakers: Wendy Hollway (University of Bradford) and Helen Haste (University of Bath).

The programme for the day was relatively informal, with the emphasis firmly on discussion. We aimed to generate an atmosphere which would encourage everyone to take part - and seemed to succeed: the discussion was both varied and lively.

Professor Unger focussed on the distinction between “sex” and “gender”, dismissing the traditional biological/social divide: her talk demonstrated graphically the ways in which biology is socially constructed and the apparent arbitrariness of gender attributions. Professor Wittig presented a metatheory for a psychology of gender, arguing the need for the reconciliation of “scientific” and “feminist” values. This began an extensive discussion on the nature of science and the extent to which it is inherently masculine.

Wendy Hollway emphasised the conditions of production of psychology, and the way in which the scientist-subject splits reproduces male-female power relations. Once this position is deconstructed, however, it becomes possible to propose an alternative “emancipatory” psychology. Helen Haste extended these arguments in her exploration of the ways in which gender is mapped onto changing views of knowledge. She demonstrated how male thought is always associated with the culturally dominant “way of knowing”, while female thought is seen as “the alternative”. The discussion surrounding these two papers began to explore the possibility and the nature of an alternative “feminist science”, which would pay due regard to a range of structural inequalities as well as to the multiple perspectives of its participants.

Sue Wilkinson is Principal Lecturer in Psychology and Head of the Psychology Section at Coventry Polytechnic.
One Day (and a bit) at the BA

Stephen White reports on The British Association for the Advancement of Science Annual Conference with its 3,000 delegates, over 200 journalists and a programme running to over 80 pages.

This year's romp through contemporary science was in Sheffield from 11-15 September, and I went for a day and a bit.

With such an enormous programme I had to be selective, so on day one I picked up on part of the Section X (the BA is just as sectionalised as the Society) symposium on the Public Understanding of Science, which included two brilliant performances. First, Professor Colin Blakemore from Oxford romped through the whole subject - surveys of public ignorance, exhortations about why science was so central to modern life, and various ideas about how the levels of ignorance could be improved.

One of his suggestions was to introduce a new compulsory science education for all school children. He said that it must be:

- A science not based on the present compartments of chemistry, physics and biology, but a science which showed the links between all the compartments.

He continued that the core of this new science should be biology and psychology:

- biology because of reductionist and expansionist principles, and psychology because of it relevance to the student's everyday life.

Professor John Durrant - the professor of the public understanding of science then revealed the latest survey on public ignorance and attitudes to science. His survey included a simple quiz about scientific facts. Nearly everyone got right that hot air rises, but when it came to a true or false statement about whether antibiotics kill viruses as well as bacteria, over two thirds got it wrong - which probably explains the size of the NHS drug bill.

My next dip into the programme was the Section J (the Psychology Section) symposium on emotion, led by Professor Keith Oatley. Dr Glenys Parry gave the final paper on "Emotional Stress: How can others help us bear it?" and gave results of some new research she has carried out in Southampton on a group of women who had suffered the sudden death of their husbands.

In her general discussion of stress she carefully explained the notion of self to her non-psychology audience and illustrated it thus:

- A White Horse goes into a pub and orders a pint of bitter.
- The barperson is somewhat surprised and says "I would have thought you would have had a whisky."
- The White Horse is somewhat non-plussed and asks why.
- "Well," says the barperson, "they've named a whisky after you."
- The White Horse looks very puzzled. He says "What do you mean - is there a whisky called Eric?"

Part of her research showed that sufferers often rejected help that was offered and gave as one of the reasons that the sufferer believed the person offering help felt "obliged". I postulated that this explained the low regard held for social workers (and clinical psychologists) by the public.

I finished up my BA visit by sitting in on a workshop by Geoff Deehan and Peter Evans of the BBC Radio Science unit on radio interviewing skills, techniques and tricks of the trade. As expected it was highly informative, brilliantly presented and as professional as they could manage without a full studio set-up.

The most memorable moment was a volunteer interviewer from the audience trying to get Colin Blakemore to answer any question thrown at him. Professor Blakemore had been told to be as difficult as possible, and he succeeded - one of the questions was how to make a successfully monosyllabic and the next so convolutorily jargon ridden that the audience felt suitably embarrassed for the poor dupe interviewer.

Finally, an observation which hopefully bears out Chris Blakemore's assertion that psychology has relevance to everyday life, especially of students. In the symposium on "Public Understanding" the average age of the audience was in the region of 50, but in the psychology symposium on emotion it was more like 20.

Stephen White is Director of Information with the Society.

AIDS and the Nervous System

Psychologists need to be aware that AIDS as an illness can directly attack the nervous system. Vincent Egan reports on a conference on "The Neurological and Neuropsychological Complications of HIV Infection" which took place in Quebec City, Canada, from 31 May - 3 June 1989.

The AIDS dementia complex (ADC) sometimes follows the infection of the brain by the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). Damage in subcortical regions of the brain can lead to impairments in memory, attention, fine motor control, and the speed of basic functions. This conference, a satellite event prior to the fifth International Conference on AIDS, drew together the psychologists, neurologists and psychiatrists interested in the nature of the ADC. It was very necessary given the chaos of the subsequent conference, which had over 11,000 delegates!

The ADC as a common presenting symptom of HIV infection, even in early stages of the illness, appears rather less common than once suggested. Well-controlled studies with conservative criteria of neuropsychological and neurological impairment are now replacing some of the disturbing reports that were initially published. Subclinical impairment may be seen, but the fear of dementia raised by the early studies shows that researchers must be cautious when reporting such worrying results.

Dementia in the American AIDS cohort of 39,332 people, studied by Dr Fred Jansen of the Centre for Disease Control, Atlanta, Georgia. He found that only 3 per cent of individuals with AIDS had the ADC as a presenting symptom of their illness, and only 6.5 per cent of adults (and 11.5 per cent of children) developed this complication. The incidence of ADC appears bimodal, with peaks for children under five years, and adults over 70; presumably this is because of the vulnerability of the young and older brain to progressive insult.

Marilyn Albert reviewed the neuropsychological studies of people with HIV and noted that no studies show vocabulary or mathematical deficits in patients; this implies that learned knowledge is largely unaffected. Tests that discriminate impaired from non-impaired patients, sometimes at quite early stages, are those involving memory (the Auditory Verbal Learning Test); sustained or divided attention (the Trail-Making test;
News

"Hotline" in Hong Kong

The military crackdown on the pro-democracy movement in Beijing, China, on 4 June 1989, galvanised psychologists in Hong Kong to respond by offering a telephone "hotline" service for people suffering from post-traumatic stress. David Lam reports.

The hotline was set up as a counselling and referral service, and was especially targeted to those recently returned from China who witnessed the extensive bloodshed around Tiananmen Square. This was a joint project of the Psychology Department at Hong Kong University and the Division of Clinical Psychology of the Hong Kong Psychological Society, and all services and facilities were donated free of charge.

The hotline was publicised by posters, press releases, and radio and television talk shows. A briefing session was also held for participating psychologists and trainees concerning the symptoms and treatment of post-traumatic stress reactions.

The service ran from 8-21 June and was operational during office hours including Saturdays. It was staffed by nine clinical psychology trainees, working in two-person teams, who conducted the initial assessment and provided informal counselling to callers.

The trainees were supervised by a university lecturer. Backing up the hotline were more than 20 clinical psychologists who were prepared to see the more seriously disturbed callers in individual sessions.

During the two-week period of the hotline a total of 70 calls were received, broken down as follows:

"Returnees" from China: 5 (7%)
Hong Kong residents distressed over events in China: 12 (17%)
General requests for psychological assistance or information: 29 (41%)
Media enquiries: 24 (34%)
TOTAL (percentages): 70 calls were received (99%)

Only five calls were received from the primary target group, all of whom were referred for individual appointments. The hotline also referred to participating psychologists seven of the twelve callers who were not China "returnees" but were disturbed enough about the Beijing crisis to need counselling. The relatively low response rate from these two groups might have been due to certain unique features of the Beijing crisis, including its ongoing nature (eg, arrests and executions) and political sensitivity.

The hotline was more successful in a wider sense: its publicity generated numerous calls (41%) of a general nature, involving requests for assistance or information, which enquires from the media accounted for another third of all calls.

The hotline project raised several broader implications of community mental health in Hong Kong (eg. Lam & Ho, 1989). Space does not permit a discussion of these issues here, but it is worth mentioning that the hotline achieved some success as a community service, enhanced the public perception of psychology, and provided an action vehicle for concerned psychologists. A follow-up educational booklet on post-traumatic stress reactions will soon be distributed widely to the Hong Kong community.

Reference


Dr Lam is with the Department of Psychology, University of Hong Kong.

The Psychologist November 1989
John Morton reports
The anatomy of a hooligan
No, not the result of a backstreet carve-up but a headline in the Sunday Mirror on our favourite subject: the hooligan. A recent article featuring David Nias and our own backstreet occasional and QPR supporter George Sikh. "Britain's parents are to blame for the thuggish thug" say top psychologists. It makes a change from the throw-them-all-in-juv bribe. Aggression in the family, lack of love as well as the older favourite lack of discipline all get a look-in. No-one attempted to provide any answers but at least the Mirror took half a page to try and explore the causes.

A Page 3 exposure
This time in the Graduate Post, a freebie I had never heard of. A two-page spread of the page in question was pushed through my letter box by a futile figure escaping from the married hordes of Birkbeck (if you don't read THIS JOURNAL regularly, don't bother to try to understand). Well, not many of us have achieved a full page spread with photograph. It is a curious profile, not without its charm. On the one hand "David Lewis is also a serious student, work on the other hand it is quoted as saying 'I'm much too silly to be an academic'". On the one hand he says "It's publish or perish in the academic world" and on the other he is described as a "serious scholar" and on the other hand we are told that there was no evidence that he was trying to do something for gifted children who were not getting on in school.

The Burt Rehabilitation Society
The Guardian and the Observer published raving and positive reviews of Joynson's attempt to rehabilitate Sir Cyril Burt. Both reviewers, Clare Bursill, Director of the National Foundation for Educational Research and Stuart Sutherland, formerly host to serious scholar David Lewis in Sussex, seemed to take everything Joynson said as fact. Both allow the Council of the Society endorsing Hearnshaw's argument that "the book ... demonstrates that that august but risible body, the Council of the British Psychological Society, was at one time described as a "man of niblets". Burstall says Hearnshaw's conclusions were accepted (by Council) without further enquiry. Given that Leslie Hearnshaw, a notable historian of psychology, had spent several years of his life having been invited by Burt's sister to write the official biography, this seemed the sensible thing to do. But was it? Burstall quotes Joynson "The errors are so frequent and widespread that they are highly likely to be discovered by anyone who sets out to check wherever they begin their enquiry". Twenty heavy stuff, particularly as Burstall adds to this having read the Hearnshaw book. (We don't know what Sutherland has read.)

What of Joynson? After all this, one would have expected him to double check everything. Let us take something in the public domain. Joynson takes on the Clarks who also played a part in the Burt exposure. They had claimed that Burt wrote and published these summaries in his name making changes from the original. Joynson wants to argue that if Burt were the supervisor for these two theses, then he would have the right to change the summaries. He then tries to suggest that Eysenck had no part in their supervision by, apparently, quoting from the acknowledgments in the two theses. He says, "neither thesis acknowledges any assistance from Eysenck whatsoever" (p 247) quoting from the preface of Alan Clarke's thesis: "This investigation constituted part of a major research under the direction of Dr H.J. Eysenck and from that of Ann Clarke (the Minorly): Dr H.J. Eysenck, who directed the major research of which this formed a part ...". These remarks directly follow the acknowledgments to Burt which Joynson quotes. If he had actually looked at the prefaces, he could not have failed to see them.

Others will observe how such examples may be multiplied. I would just like to ask whether the reviewing of books on scientific subjects in the national press is a scientific or a literary and emotional matter?

Professor Morton is Head of the MRC Cognitive Development Unit in London.

Psychology on the Air
CHARMIE BOLLINGER appeared on "The Health Show", BBC Radio 4 on 10 September, discussing the use of hypnosis in relation to sleep problems.

MARGARET CHARLTON, District Psychologist, Macclesfield Health Authority, appeared on BBC GMRI's Breakfast Show on 20 August talking about Starkey and Hutch star Paul Michael Glasson's experiences of HIV and AIDS.

PETRUSKA CLARKSON appeared in "Prisons of Childhood", a documentary on the work of Alice Miller, on Tuesday 30 May 1989 on Channel 4.

GLENSY PARRY was interviewed on the Today programme on 12 September about her research to the British Psychological Society on Advancement of Science on counselling for post-traumatic stress.

DOUGLAS PATON has been interviewed on BBC Radio Scotland, BBC Overseas Service, Radio 4, 5NR in Perth, Western Australia and Grampian Television on his research on the effects of disasters on helpers involved after the Armenian earthquake and the Lockerbie air crash.

Media Watch

One of the 36 scientists short-listed for the British prize on the June mission in '91 is Rupert England, a research psychologist at British Aerospace, Stephen Curran, of Leeds University is also reported to be in the running. Charlie Lewis (no relation) got half a page and piece in the Reading Evening Post outlining his research on 15-month-old recognition of same sex walking patterns and getting a plug for subjects on the way. Peter Colquhoun, formerly at Teesside Poly, has bred Major Ivo, a four-time winner at Redcar.

YUP
Full marks to The Independent for getting some good quotes from psychologists while putting the boot in the Mensa scheme for identifying Britain's 1,000 brightest children. Joan Freeman, who is President of the European Federation for Gifted Children, called the search "gimmicky and attention seeking". Lea Pearson said of the test Mensa was using "It's biased, unscientific and anxiety provoking" as well as racially and sexually biased and other psychologists joined in the fun. Mind you, over 6,000 parents have entered their children at £8.50 a throw, and if you pass you get invited to join at £25 a year. The article points out that there are currently not 1,000 but I think in the region (Mensa members will already have worked it out) of £25,000. According to the article they have taken over £350,000 in test fees since January! Pretty smart. Mensa agreed that the search was a stunt, but claimed that they were trying to do something for gifted children who were not getting on in school.

The Observer focussed on this side of the story and quoted the anxieties of a number of individuals and groups. Angela Rumbold, the Education Minister, who I heard on Question Time giving a spiralled, confused and ultimately incoherent plea for capital punishment (so far as I could gather she actually wanted it for sex offenders as well), claimed that there was no problem. "Properly delivered, (the new national curriculum) should enable even the brightest pupils to advance at a rate suitable to their ability." I love that "properly delivered".

Research gradings
According to the New Scientist, overall science and engineering, computer science got the most top ratings in the University Funding Council exercise this year with nine, followed by physics with eight and psychology with seven.

The Burt Rehabilitation Society
The Guardian and the Observer published raving and positive reviews of Joynson's attempt to rehabilitate Sir Cyril Burt. Both reviewers, Clare Bursill, Director of the National Foundation for Educational Research and Stuart Sutherland, formerly host to serious scholar David Lewis in Sussex, seemed to take everything Joynson said as fact. Both allowed the Council of the Society endorsing Hearnshaw's arguments. Sutherland writes with a childish glee that "the book ... demonstrates that that august but risible
Beatrice Heywood-Taylor discusses the art of creating a “safe-enough” environment for students to learn, with special reference to Rogerian student-centred learning. The opinions expressed are entirely those of the author and are designed to provoke discussion.

Since 1979, I have worked with young people in experiential groups on YOPS and YTS courses, as well as teaching “Communications” and “Interpersonal Skills” in different parts of Surrey. Almost without exception, these students have told of traumatic experiences during their school years, often resulting in their being labelled “difficult”, “problem” and other pejorative names. Many students have been on the receiving end of put-downs, sarcastic and caustic remarks, clouts and beatings, being “scapegoated”, largely negative personal and academic appraisals, and expulsions. Many teachers seem unaware of their own potentially destructive power in forms of transference, counter-transference and projection in relationships with students.

Recently, a highly-intelligent 17-year-old young man joined one of my groups. He told of his expulsion from school when, after being hit round the head twice by the teacher, he had retaliated and hit him back. He related how he had enthused about enjoying his work on the YTS course. The YTS teacher had turned to the other students and retorted: “I wonder how long he will last at that?” It does not appear easy for some teachers to treat students arriving in a new environment with earlier “labels”, in a fresh manner.

I have found with all so-called “difficult” students, that they will respond, flourish, and become motivated when treated as individuals worthy of a real, respectful relationship. The mutual expectation of respect may become then a reciprocal matter. It has become increasingly apparent to me that when students truthfully express their thoughts and feelings, many teachers feel threatened and students are perceived as “rude”. It is rare, except in a counselling situation, for students to be actively listened to with an understanding of their individual experience.

Teaching or enabling?

When I originally started working with students, intuitively I used a democratic, student-centred approach to learning which recognises and draws upon the experiential world of each student as an individual in any group. Student-centred learning derives from a humanistic approach to education arising from the Rousseauian notion that “people are born free”. Such a theoretical basis contrasts strongly with the mechanistic, behavioural model. Student-centred learning is far removed from the traditional “chalk-and-talk” methods of
lecturing and imposing ideas upon students. In Freedom to Learn, Carl Rogers (1969) explains:

The philosophy underlying ... a person-centred approach is one that is consistent with the values, the goals, the ideas that have historically been the spirit of our democracy.

Perhaps Bernard Shaw’s famous epigram, “Those who can, do; those who can’t, teach” might summarise the traditional, authoritarian teaching methods where the desire to teach is based upon a wish to impose theories, values and rules upon students. Rogers clarifies his position:

I know that I cannot teach anyone anything. I can only provide an environment in which s/he can learn.

The word “education” derives from the Latin word “educare”, meaning to draw out from within. When Rogers extended his theory of person-centred psychotherapy into educational concepts of student-centred learning, he proposed that acceptance, clarification and affirmation of human experience were more conducive to personality growth, development and learning than the imposition and interpretation of theories and concepts.

My experience in teaching has been that no one is able to learn anything unless s/he feels safe and at ease rather than threatened, is able to enjoy the learning process and feels understood rather than being met with a generalised approach. Rogers stressed the need for a teacher to be genuine and empathetic, offering openness and congruence, rather than hiding behind a role of an all-powerful, all-knowing authority. Students only then may feel the atmosphere is “safe enough” to take the risks involved in expressing thoughts, revealing experiences, experimenting with new ideas and creating and seeking new understandings. Best (Bell & Best, 1986) writes:

It is more often the case that it is the teacher’s perception of her/his role as a teacher which gets in the way of a clearer understanding of the problems and processes of learning.

Unfortunately, little attention or validity is given in the creation of many courses to drawing upon the wealth of individual talent, skill and experience brought by each student. Many students are unhappy in that, when they have taken the risk of admitting to not understanding concepts, teachers often proceed to explain the concept again in exactly the same manner as before, without attempting to enter into the experience and mind-view of the particular student. Recently, a sad example was related to me regarding a profoundly deaf student in one of my groups. The teacher in this case had explained the problem the second time by shouting at the student in a louder voice.

The students’ viewpoint

Many students come from family and academic backgrounds in which negative messages have created an overwhelming lack of self-confidence and self-esteem. Many problems such as over-eating, anorexia, depression, intense anxiety, and attention-seeking behaviour appear to be expressions of unease and insecurity from depowering environments.

I asked 50 of my students to write a few statements, addressing the question: “What do you feel you need in any learning environment in order to be able to learn most effectively?”

The following are extracts from some of their views:

• I like the friendliness of the teacher which makes you learn, enjoying the lesson. I grew up in a school where the teachers shouted and hit the kids ... it surprises me here that even if I am not in good mood the lesson can change me. (Greek student)

• If I cannot interact directly with the subject, then I have to interact with people during the lesson, otherwise I lose interest.

• As opposed to being continually “spoon fed” information, being encouraged to gather, collate and later discuss so as to contribute.

• The enjoyable thing for me is in role play or group discussion involving the warm, friendly, not boring, not strict, not moody teacher. Also when I walk into the classroom, the atmosphere has got to be right.

• Having a teacher that you feel confident with so you can express yourself more freely.

• Teaching myself and not being held down by the restrictions imposed on me in the classroom environment.

• I like to learn from experience and making mistakes. I don’t like being talked at or copying off the board, it is boring and then I get distracted so I don’t learn. I like to take an active part in lessons and not just sit back and listen.

Psychology is of immense value in enhancing the ability of teachers to create facilitating environments for learning. In spite of problems arising from high group numbers, it is vital to perceive the “real” person in each student. However restless, troubled or disruptive a student may be, it approaches as a unique human being, s/he will respond to a humanistic attitude. Jung (1933) wrote:

If I want to understand an individual human being, I must lay aside all scientific knowledge of the average man and discard all theories in order to adopt a completely new and un-prejudiced attitude - a free, open mind necessary for understanding.

Teachers need to know or to learn how to create a relaxed, “safe-enough” environment in which they are approachable and enthusiastic about their students’ learning and to reject authoritarian attitudes which put down students and create fears and tensions which prevent learning.

References


Beatrice Heywood-Taylor is a Psychotherapist and a Part-Time Lecturer at East Surrey College, Redhill.

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"Why did we win the war?" Edgar Anstey asks rhetorically. "Not because we had better soldiers - we didn't - but because we had better scientists. Everyone knows about the inventors of the jet aircraft, the spitfire, the tank landing craft, and radar, but the public seems to know very little about the psychologists. And psychologists transformed morale in the British army from zero level in 1942."

Edgar Anstey was one of a small group of psychologists whose work on selection during the Second World War helped to establish psychology as an applied science. From his home in Cornwall, with its panoramic views of the Atlantic rollers sweeping into Polzeath Bay, he looks back at those challenging years.
my grading advanced to B. Our feelings for this particular officer (a Regular) were of thinly disguised contempt, which almost reached breaking point when one Sunday, instead of our usual weekend chore of digging anti-tank trenches for the defence of Farnborough, he ordered us to spend the day shoring up the banks of an ornamental lake in the grounds of a titled friend. The third platoon commander came from King's College, Cambridge (my own college), and my grading rose to A.

While at Farnborough, I was told that at the neighbouring Royal Artillery Signals officer training unit, more than half of the cadets were "returned to unit" (i.e. failed) mainly because of lack of mathematical knowledge or skill. This reminded me of the lack of interest displayed in my own University Board certificate.

"On active service"

In the autumn of 1940 I obtained my Commission as Second Lieutenant and was posted to the second battalion of the Dorset Regiment, stationed at Hornsea in East Yorkshire, and entrusted with the task of defending some 15 miles of the Yorkshire coast against possible German invasion. I was made 3-inch Mortar Officer (at that time this was the most powerful weapon allotted to an infantry battalion) in charge of one and a half mortars (the barrel of one mortar had been mislaid) and precisely 50 live mortar shells, with no prospect of obtaining any more in the foreseeable future. My platoon contained 30 young men of exceptionally fine physique, but neither they nor I had ever fired a mortar shell and we had only a manual to guide us. I was thus faced with one of the most difficult decisions of my life - whether to preserve the 50 shells for the German invasion or to use half of them in a practice shoot. I chose the latter, and maybe this was the right decision, because it was not until the 21st attempt that we succeeded in damaging the target, let alone destroying it.

The winter passed peacefully, and in February 1941 I spent a few days' leave in Cambridge. While looking up old friends in the psychology laboratory, I found to my surprise that an experimental Army Selection Unit had been established under the direction of Eric Farner, with the able assistance of Norman Hotopf and Alec Rodger. They had invented selection tests bearing the initial letters of their surnames, FH3 and FHR, and obtained promising results with them. They enquired what I was doing, and I told them. I thought no more of this until to my astonishment a few days later my Battalion commander received a peremptory telegram from the War Office, instructing him to release me for "special duties" in the psychology laboratory at Cambridge. This he did, with some reluctance.

This first year of my Army service had actually been of great value in two ways. First, it convinced me that the Army selection methods were capable of improvement, and second, my "active service" in the infantry did in fact make me more acceptable later to other Army officers.

The gathering of the psychologists

Shortly after my arrival at the Cambridge Army selection unit, we were joined by a fourth psychologist, Jack Davies. In view of his distinguished service with the National Institute of Industrial Psychology and his commanding personality, he quickly achieved a reputation in Army circles: in April he was summoned to an interview at the War Office, leaving in the morning as a 2nd-Lieutenant, he returned to Cambridge in the evening as a Lt-Colonel. The War Office had set up a new Directorate for the Selection of Personnel, with Jack Davies as Inspector and Technical Director.

Norman Hotopf and I joined the Directorate as Captains, while Alec Rodger departed as Senior Psychologist to the Admiralty. The technical division "SP3" was soon joined by four more psychologists: Nigel Balchin (later a famous novelist), Philip Vernon (later successor to Jack Davies as Chief Psychologist), Denis McMahon and Edith Mercer in charge of ATS selection, and by two expert statisticians, Philip Vernon and Patrick Slater. All these were the most stimulating colleagues and companions one could possibly imagine. Philip Vernon was also a distinguished psychologist but, both in the Directorate and in the Admiralty, he was employed mainly on statistical analyses. Armed with a slide rule, he performed factor analyses with extraordinary speed and accuracy, often in a single evening. Patrick Slater, on the other hand, was a pioneer of electrical calculating machines, and his astonishment at being confronted with a Minister of the Crown who had never seen such a machine is dramatically recorded in Nigel Balchin's novel The Small Back Room.

The Directorate contained two other Divisions: SP1 under Lt-Colonel D.G.O. Ayerst was responsible for selection policy (i.e. persuading the rest of the Army to agree to our proposals); SP2 under Lt-Colonel Sentence-Tapp was responsible for "pay and rations", in other words logistical support. We were headed by Brigadier K. McLean, who in turn reported direct to the Adjutant-General of the Army, General Sir Ronald Adam. He was an extraordinarily forward looking man, without whose unswerving support we would never have been able to persuade the Army to accept the wholesale reforms which were recommended.

The history of personnel selection in World War II has been covered in Personnel Selection in the British Forces by Philip Vernon and John Parry, published in 1949. I shall confine myself therefore to personal recollections and comments.

In 1941 our initial tasks were twofold: first, job analyses of the main Army, to establish the requirements of each Corps in terms of numbers of men of varying grades of ability, special technical skills and personality characteristics; second, to devise a battery of tests which, when combined with interviews by trained Personnel Selection Officers (PSOs) would enable those requirements to be met by filling jobs with people well suited for them.

The job analyses were led by Balchin and Ungerson, with speed and efficiency. Some significant improvements were possible. For example, the crew for the standard 25-pounder gun had traditionally been of six men, one of whom had the main duty of holding the head of the horse. Given mechanisation and replanning of their duties, this crew could be reduced to five, only four of whom need be operational at any moment, with the fifth man as a relief.

Selecting tests

Choosing a battery of selection tests, some existing ones and others newly devised, was mainly my responsibility, with much assistance from all my colleagues. Our first test was the "Progressive Matrices Test" invented by J.C. Raven, a non-verbal test of intelligence, consisting of groups of patterns and little affected by educational or social factors. This was invaluable to identifying young men whose high innate intelligence had been concealed by poor upbringing and lack of educational opportunities.

I remember, for example, the first testing and then interviewing one young man whose only civilian job had been mind­ing a petrol pump. He obtained an outstandingly high score which showed him to be within the top 3 per cent of
the population for intelligence. On our advice, he was singled out for special training and promotion. Three years later he reached the rank of Sergeant-Major.

The other four basic tests were a test of Mechanical Aptitude, an Arithmetic test, a Verbal test, and an Instructions test. In addition we devised practical tests of physical agility, mechanical assembly and auditory acuity. There were thorough training courses for testers and for PSOs who interviewed recruits and made recommendations for their employment.

From the outset the emphasis was on strict validation and follow-up. Correlations between test results and end of training course examinations were usually high, but sometimes surprising. For example, the test of clerical aptitude devised by Mary Ormiston achieved high validities for drivers and other jobs, as well as for clerks. It was accordingly remodelled as a general "Instructions" test and included in the basic battery. On another occasion, when experimenting with 100 clerks under training at a Royal Service Corps depot, extraordinarily high correlation coefficients were obtained, some exceeding 0.9. However, the explanation was that 40 of the men, with no previous clerical experience, had been posted there in error. The variance of scores both in the tests and in the course examinations was thus exceptionally high, producing spuriously high validities.

**Helping to win the war**

For the Directorate, as for the country, 1942 was the decisive year. Until November 1941, from clearance of the Italians out of Northeast Africa) the British Army suffered defeat after defeat. As Churchill put it, "before Alamein we scarcely won a victory; after Alamein we scarcely suffered a defeat". Things went so badly in 1940-42 that the Army became prepared to consider any measures for reform, even those recommended by psychologists.

Our first great achievement was the introduction of the "General Service Corps". Under this scheme new recruits were given a common six weeks basic training before being allocated to Army units. Following the job analyses, all Army jobs had been classified into seven groups of Training Recommendations or "TRs". These were TR1 - Driving, TR2 - Mechanical Maintenance, TR3 - Signalling, TR4 - Practical and Constructional, TR5A - Clerical, TR5B - Storemen, TR6 - General Combatant, and TR7 - Labouring. The job analyses also recommended a suitable mix of TRs for each Army unit. For example, an Infantry Battalion should contain something like 10 per cent TR1; 5 per cent TR2; 5 per cent TR3; 10 per cent TR4; 5 per cent TR5; 60 per cent TR6; and 5 per cent TR7.

Early on in their basic training all recruits took the battery of five written and three practical tests and were interviewed by PSOs, who took account of both their previous experience and their abilities measured by the tests and gave each man three TRs in descending order of suitability for posting. Using "Hollerith" machinery, the men were allocated to units systematically in such a way that each unit received approximately the right spread of general intelligence and special experience and abilities to become an efficient fighting unit. This was a spectacular advance on the previous system by which some units received too many high quality men and others, less popular, received too high a proportion of poor quality recruits.

One striking tribute was paid by an elderly officer in the Pioneer Corps, who told me that the introduction of the scheme had "meant the ruin of a fine Corps". Previous entrants to the Corps had contained too many men of quite high ability but unsuited to heavy manual work. Under the new scheme entrants were mainly men of low intelligence but strong physique, eminently suited for their Pioneer Corps duties. On the other hand, the Royal Corps of Signals now received a high proportion of men of above average intelligence, numerate, and with some relevant experience in civilian life.

**Officer selection**

The second great achievement in 1942 was the introduction of new style War Office Selection Boards. The previous system of officer selection had been mainly by personal interview of men whose previous record (e.g. attendance at public schools), was thought to give promise of "Officer Quality". Commanding officers could also put forward men who had come to their attention, possibly through gallantry in action, or possibly through exceptional smartness on parade.

By the beginning of 1942 this system had palpably broken down. The percentage of cadets "returned to unit" by officer training units because of sheer lack of ability was alarmingly high. Even more serious, thousands of men with officer potential were not being identified and given any chance to receive officer training. The expanding Army was thus faced with a serious shortfall of officers and in despair turned to the Directorate to introduce an entirely new system of officer selection.

Selection Boards have been described in many books and articles. Suffice it to say that their main virtues were:

- Absence of bias in their attitude to candidates
- Reliance on objective selection tests for assessments of ability
- Use of leaderless group tests, some practical outdoor tests and some indoor discussions designed to assess four aspects of leadership - participation, dominance, acceptability and content
- Separate personal interviews by three assessors - a Senior officer, a Junior officer, and a psychiatrist, and thorough discussion of each candidate's strengths and weaknesses before arriving at a Board conclusion. The introduction of new style Selection Boards in the summer of 1942 resulted in such a dramatic drop in the percentage of candidates "returned to Unit" that they received general acceptance throughout the Army.

On the lighter side, it is amusing to recall some of the wilder ideas which were put forward but never put into effect. One of these was the barbed wire trench test - an offshoot of the success-

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**Extract from Who's Who 1989**

**ANSTY, Edgar, MA, PhD; Deputy Chief Scientific Officer, Civil Service Department, and Head of Behavioural Sciences Research Division, 1969-77; Assistant Principal, Dominions Office, 1938; Private Secretary to Duke of Devonshire, 1939; 2nd Lieutenant Dorset Regiment, Founder-Head of Civil Service Commission Research Unit, 1945; Principal Home Office, 1951; Senior Principal Psychologist, Ministry of Defence, 1958; Chief Psychologist, Civil Service Commission, 1964-69. Publications: Interviewing for the Selection of Staff (with Dr E.O. Mercer), 1956; Staff Reporting and Staff Development, 1961; Committees - How they work and how to work them, 1962; Psychological Tests, 1966; The Techniques of Interviewing, 1968; (with Dr C.A. Fletcher and Dr J. Walker) Staff Appraisal and Development, 1978: An Introduction to Selection Interviewing, 1978; articles in British Journal of Psychology, Occupational Psychology, etc.
ful practical test in which leaderless groups of men had to transport obstacles across a wide ditch, using poles, ropes and other apparatus placed at their disposal. In this variation, a candidate had to leap across a trench filled with barbed wire, tapering in width from about 8 feet at one end to 20 feet at the other. His instruction was simply to jump across the ditch at the widest point he could manage. The theory was that a good candidate would choose the point, say, 15 feet wide where he could just make it successfully. A cowardly candidate would choose a narrow part of the ditch, and a reckless candidate would choose too wide a part, fall backwards and eliminate himself. I don't think this particular test got off the drawing board!

One feature of the officer selection system which has not been publicised is the Officer Rating Index, derived from the basic test battery. With the great stress placed by the Directorate on testing and validating each part of the selection procedure, it was natural that in 1942, for the population passing through the Selection Boards we should correlate each of the individual tests with the final gradings. The results were startling.

All five tests correlated positively with overall gradings. But, using multiple correlation techniques, the best overall prediction of Selection Board verdict could be obtained by giving the Instructions and Verbal tests high positive weights and the Progressive Matrices and Mechanical Aptitude Tests low negative weights. The explanation probably lies in the different requirements for a private soldier and an officer. Intelligence and special skills are always helpful in any job. But, compared with a private, an officer requires a much higher degree of verbal skill in marshalling his thoughts and issuing clear orders, and also more of the particular skills measured in the Instructions test. Except in some specialised posts, an officer does not require any more mechanical aptitude or experience. Be all this as it may, at the initial selection stage one of our tasks was to pick out men with the greatest prospect of passing a Selection Board, and as a measure of relevant intellectual ability, the officer rating index was a useful tool in deciding to recommend a recruit for a Board.

Looking back over the history of the Directorate, it can be claimed that we made a substantial contribution to the efficiency and morale in the Army when each new recruit became assessed impartially on his merits, thus helping him to make this maximum contribution to the winning of the war, whether as an "other rank" or as an officer. I myself felt by January 1944 that I ought perhaps to return to active service in the forthcoming invasion of Europe, and I volunteered to do so. But in his reply dated 24 March, Brigadier Buchanan Smith refused my application on the grounds that the best use of the limited psychological expertise available to the Army was of overriding importance.

As the war was nearing its end Sir Percival Waterfield, the first Civil Service Commissioner, invited me to join the Civil Service Commission as Head of a new Research Unit and as one of the three psychologists serving at Stoke D'Abernon on the new Civil Service Selection Boards. Many happy years followed, culminating, so far as I was concerned, in my article "A 30-year Follow-up of the CSSB Procedure, with Lessons for the Future" published in the *Journal of Occupational Psychology* in September 1977, but that is another story.

The opinions expressed in this article are entirely those of the author.

Dr. Anstey was twice Chair of the Occupational Psychology Section and as such served on the BPS Council.

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The Psychologist November 1989 479
A Critique of the Evaluation of the "Child Development Programme" (Barker and Anderson 1988)

Jim Stevenson

Too rarely do psychologists get the opportunity to test the knowledge gained from psychological research in large-scale social programmes. This makes the work of Barker and his colleagues of considerable interest. The Child Development Programme represents a potential major influence on the development of health visiting practice in the UK. Many Health Authorities have considered the programme and a number of health districts have adopted various models of service delivery based upon the programme. The Early Childhood Development Unit at the University of Bristol has received funds from the Bernard van Leer Foundation to develop, disseminate and evaluate this programme. For the first time the project has made available its account of the evaluation of the programme in terms of the impact on processes within the family and the outcome as far as children are concerned. The programme represents an important re-orientation in the role of health visiting. In their own words:

It enables health visitors and community workers to offer structured support and encouragement to the parents of young children, especially first-time parents, or older parents who face problems in the rearing of their children. Visitors are expected to divest themselves of any vestige of "authority" and to approach the parents as real equals. The programme is very comprehensive, focusing on nutrition, language, social and cognitive development, as well as health and maternal self-esteem.

The Child Development Programme consists of semi-structured monthly home visits by the health visitor. At each visit the parent is asked about changes in the child's abilities since the last visit. The health visitor is supplied with materials, often humorous cartoons, with which to prompt the parent on various aspects of child-rearing that may be of concern to them. The child's diet is reviewed on a systematic basis, as is a check on more formal aspects of health care (e.g. immunisation) and developmental checks. The central part of the visit is taken up with identifying possible developmental tasks for the parent to tackle. This includes a check on progress with the task agreed at the previous visit. Such tasks might include stimulating some aspect of language skills, coping with a behavioural problem or altering part of the child's diet.

In publishing Stevenson's critique of the "Child Development Programme" and the reply by Barker and Anderson who developed it, we are making a new departure in the Academic Section of The Psychologist. It is unusual for us to publish methodological critiques of evaluation studies. However, this is an important area in psychological research as more intervention programmes are developed. Rigour in the evaluation of such intervention is clearly vital. The critique presented and its rebuttal illustrate some of the central considerations for any longitudinal evaluation programme. We hope in the future to provide in The Psychologist a venue for further debates on the adequacy of the evaluation of intervention programmes.

Honorary Editors

It is crucial that the evaluation evidence be considered carefully, precisely because the programme does represent a radical departure from established health visiting practice. The present critique is based upon Barker, W. and Anderson, R. (1988) The Child Development Programme: an evaluation of process and outcomes. Early Childhood Development Unit, University of Bristol.

The general design of the evaluation was based upon the random allocation of each of a pair of health visitors to intervention and control conditions and a good case is made for this procedure. Children for the evaluation study were randomly selected from the case loads of the control and intervention health visitors. For reasons that are unclear from the report, the number of intervention children in the evaluation in some regions was roughly twice that of the control sample.

Interviewers were recruited to conduct three assessments of the children and their families. The published results are based on year one and year three data only i.e. when the children were on average 10.4 months and 42.9 months of age respectively. There was no attempt to ensure that different interviewers for any one family were used at each assessment. The interviewers were blind as to whether the families were intervention or control at the first year assessment but not thereafter. Attempts were made to avoid the interviewers being familiar with the content of the programme.

There is a section of the report that gives a consumers' view of the value of the programme from the parents, health visitor and nurse managers. These are well presented and highlight advantages and disadvantages of the programme. Unfortunately no systematic or quantitative data is presented in support of this account of consumers' views.
The main substantive findings, as stated by the authors, are as follows:

1. Thirty three per cent of 1051 children were lost to the study - an equal loss in the intervention and control samples.
2. Significant improvements in the parental home environment measures favoured the intervention group.
3. Intervention produced a highly significant prediction of the child's global development score in the third year for three out of four Areas.
4. Parents, health visitors and managers were widely supportive of the programme.
5. Health visitor personality characteristics were a material factor in the success of the programme.
6. Nutritional and growth changes favouring the intervention cases could be detected in some areas.
7. The programme could produce a remarkable reduction in the number of cases on child abuse registers and a very low level of child abuse injuries.
8. The programme is influencing an increasing number of health visitors and health authorities.

The aim of this critique is to examine the substantive findings, as stated by the authors, is timely to consider the evidence on the programme's efficacy given the relative difficulty of demonstrating health visitor effectiveness in other programmes (Stevenson, 1988) and the enthusiasm for the programme amongst those developing services in certain areas.

A major problem with the evaluation concerns the testing of significant differences in changes between the intervention and control groups. This is shown, for example, in the analysis of changes in the home variables such as the "home cognitive environment", which is based on "observations and questions on the creative use of toys and their variety, as well as the child's freedom to play with kitchen utensils and other domestic objects". These results are given as the t-test statistics for the comparison of the control and intervention groups means for the home environment measures separately at Year 1 and Year 3. The comparison of the size of the change in the control and intervention groups is then indexed by the aggregated t-test statistics at the two time points. There are a number of difficulties with this approach. The size of "t" is not a direct measure of the magnitude of the differences between the mean scores of the groups at any one age. It is also influenced by the within sample variances and the number of subjects. In addition it is not appropriate to add two values of "t" to gain an index of an aggregated effect; it is not an interval scale measure.

A recurrent problem in the report is the failure to report simple group means on the environmental and outcome variables. Instead either t values are quoted or percentage variance explained are given from the regression analysis. Nowhere is there a straightforward statement of the mean scores for groups before and after either intervention or conventional health visiting. The statistical analysis of change data is notoriously difficult and many alternative solutions have been proposed (Harris, 1963; Wohlwill, 1973; Goldstein, 1979; Plewis, 1981) but the method chosen to analyse control and intervention differences in home measures makes little sense.

A good case is made for the need to use multivariate analysis to determine the impact of intervention on child development outcomes; the choice of multiple regression is appropriate. The authors have developed their own form of regression based on a v-ridge procedure and provide a good case for its adoption.

The child measures were amalgamated into an index based upon the weighted sum of the socialisation, language development, cognitive development and educational awareness of the child. Rather than obtaining these weights by principal component analysis different a priori weights are ascribed at the Year 1 and 3 time points.

A major concern in the analysis is the way the intervention variable was constructed. Rather than simply treating the intervention variable as a binary predictor in the regression, it is argued that variation such as the number of health visitor visits and the extent of the tasks given to the parents should be included in the intervention measure. The result of amalgamating the intervention variables in this way is a serious distortion that undermines the interpretation of the effects of the programme per se.

The control and intervention groups are both in the analysis. The control cases presumably all have a value of zero on the intervention variable. The intervention cases then receive scores distributed across a wider range that reflects the extent to which they were in contact with the programme. The use of this variable to then predict the child's global development, for example, could mean that the regression is only picking up the differential effects of within programme variation. It would have been more appropriate to use an intervention index that was a simple binary index to compare intervention and control. At a second stage the variation in programme delivery could have been investigated within the intervention sample alone. The net effect of this approach to the treatment of the intervention is the power of the original experimental design is lost i.e. the intervention measure is no longer based upon clear random allocation to intervention and control treatments.

A further difficulty this creates is the danger of circularity. It may be that those parents who saw the programme as being helpful to their child were the ones that most readily agreed to more frequent visiting or at least were less likely to break appointments or to deny the health visitor access to the family. This would then lead to an inevitable association between an intervention variable that included frequency of visiting and the child's developmental index.

Barker and Anderson (personal communication) have recalculated the regression analyses using this a binary intervention variable. For the eight main analyses, in seven cases the intervention variable remained significantly related to outcome in the expected direction of favouring the intervention group. However, the percentage of the variance attributable to the intervention variable was sharply reduced. The results of the published analyses using the continuous intervention measure produced results with 1.11 to 3.96 per cent of the variance attributable to the intervention. This means that after converting the intervention index to a binary form to avoid the confounding effects described above the programme is seen to have very little effect on the child outcome.

A second major confounding factor in these regression analyses is the incorporation of health visitor personality as part of the intervention measure. It is not clear whether these were measured on the control cases. When the intervention variable is then regressed onto the outcome measures the resultant significant regression could simply result from non-specific effects of health visitor personality. It is not central to the evaluation to demonstrate that some health visitors are more effective than others in their work with the families.
on their case loads. What is of greater relevance to the evaluation is whether there is differential effectiveness in the health visitors’ use of the Child Development Programme. At several points during the report, reference is made to Abelson (1985) who has argued that variables with small effects when they operate over a number of years will have a cumulatively greater effect. There is no evidence that this intervention can have such an effect. The impact on the families and on the child may wash out in time or may be limited to the duration of the programme. The onus is on the DCP to demonstrate cumulative effects rather than assuming they are present. Testing for cumulative effects should be possible by incorporating the Year 2 data which was excluded in the present analysis.

The major part of the evaluation concerns the initial format of the CDP. The final section presents some preliminary results from first parent visitors which is the current field tested version of the CDP. Some data are also presented on the levels of child abuse amongst CDP children. A strong claim is made that the programme has been effective in substantially reducing the rates of child abuse. Unfortunately, these claims are based upon spurious comparisons with national NSPCC statistics that were gathered in a somewhat different manner than that in the intervention cases. A second comparison is made with child abuse register data from other parts of the health authority. It is well-known that the policies over the inclusion of children onto the child abuse registers varies from area to area - so strict comparability is precluded (see Creighton, 1989). There is no clear demarcation of the age of the children in the programme and those taken from the Authority registers. These results are consistent with the programme having an impact on child abuse rates but no stronger conclusions should be drawn.

The Child Development Programme is a major feature in the development of health visitor practice in the UK. It is an approach with a strong theoretical justification and one that should stand a good chance of enhancing the impact of health visitors on their families. It therefore represents an important test ground for the application of psychological knowledge to the care and welfare of young children. Unfortunately the case for the programme is not aided by the reporting of evaluation data in this muddled and misleading manner. It is to be hoped that the authors will reconsider some aspects of the analysis and then present them for scrutiny in a variety of peer reviewed journals.

References

This critique was produced in conjunction with a Study Group of the Association for Child Psychology and Psychiatry on “Health visitor based services for preschool children with behaviour problems”. I am grateful to the ACFP for their financial support and to my colleagues on the Study Group for their comments (Peter Appleton, Jo Douglas, Trian Fundudis and Kevin Hewitt).

Requests for reprints should be addressed to: J. Stevenson, Dept of Psychology, University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey GU2 5XH.

Revised version received May 1989.
Response to Critique of the CDP's Evaluation Document 9

Walter Barker and Richard Anderson

This response will of necessity concentrate on the key issues, rather than attempt to comment on every detail in the Critique. The Study Group has made some interesting points which merit further examination when new analyses are undertaken on the 4 million items gathered in the Child Development Programme's evaluation of the first, experimental phase. In the current field programme there is a great deal of new information now being gathered by the participating Health Authorities and hopefully more results from the ongoing work will start to appear within the next year.

The nature of Programme visiting. The Critique's description of the nature of home visiting in the Programme does not identify the fundamental difference between this visiting and customary health visiting. In customary visiting the professional offers advice and guidance; she points the way forward to the parents, and concentrates almost entirely on the well-being of the baby or child. In Programme visiting the parent is empowered and helped to develop the skills needed to find her (or his) own way forward in rearing the child, supported with information and encouragement but not advice from the visitor; the mother's diet, well-being and self-esteem are treated as critical aspects of the dyadic or triadic process.

Different sizes of intervention and control samples. There is no statistical or other reason, other than that of having a "tidy" design, why intervention and control samples should be equal. The larger intervention samples gave us more (statistical) scope for exploring detailed aspects of the intervention.

Changing interviewers between assessments? The Critique says that no attempt was made to ensure that different interviewers for any one family were used at each assessment. In a large field research study with over 1000 families spread across six health authorities in three countries (England, Wales and the Republic of Ireland), it would have been unthinkable to ask the regionally selected interviewers (most had children of their own) to move home for several months, to learn the new geography of areas covering up to 30 miles across, and come to understand a new sub-culture sufficiently to cope with dialect and other differences when interviewing. The perfection of switching interviewers belongs to the tightly controlled homogenous laboratory environment.

No systematic or quantitative data on consumers' views. We have serious doubts about the statistical reliability of views from consumers who have given time and effort to participating in a research programme. Cognitive dissonance would prompt a high positive feedback, whether or not the programme had been effective. Consumers' views are the prime area for descriptive reports which often give profound insights into the process underlying a programme. To attempt to put figures on such views would trivialise the insights.

Aggregated t-test statistics comparing intervention and control samples in year 1 and year 3. Considerable concern is expressed in the Critique about the fact that we compare t-test differences across intervention and control samples, for each of ten home environment variables within each of the four regions. These t-test differences (intervention vs. control) are compared across years 1 and 3. Thus a reversal of a significant difference favouring controls in year 1, to a difference or a significant difference favouring intervention in year 3, was described by us as highly meaningful. Colin Chalmers, Senior Lecturer in Statistics at Birkbeck College, University of London, who has been a statistical consultant to this Programme from the outset, has commented on the above point:

The main criticism seems to revolve around your method of carrying out what is essentially a two-way analysis of variance as two t-tests. I really see nothing inherently wrong in this. What you are looking at is the interaction test slightly modified for an unequal variance structure. You have, after all, a two by two design (control and intervention) X (year one and year three). You have ignored the matching on the years and computed the linear contrast of (control v intervention) (year 1) versus (control v intervention) (year 3). Personally I would have carried out the anova and tried to use the matched data to improve the precision, but if this result points towards significance it is likely that using the matched information would increase the significance level. I do however feel that quoting the means and standard deviations would have helped to show the magnitude of the effects.

I do not accept the invalidity of adding t-scores in this particular instance. It is not something I would have done but when the sample sizes are the same this is exactly equivalent to adding standardised mean differences together or adding the standardised means before intervention and subtracting those after. A t-statistic is just like a standardised score and no one quibbles about adding together standardised scores. The problem I suspect is that they want this to be done conditional on age. This is something we have discussed ad nauseam and, as you remark, trying to take age into account in the scoring of the variables has been very troublesome. Again I would have carried out an anova in the hope of either removing age or showing that it was irrelevant.

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We can add that, in view of the complexity of the age factor and its varying effects across different predictors and outcomes, it seemed simplest to have it entered as a year 3 predictor in all our main regression models.

**Evidence from mean scores?** We recognise that many people do like to see means and standard deviations, enabling them to evaluate changes within the intervention and control samples. On their own, unadjusted for all the other covariates, the means and sds would be meaningless. Had we relied on analysis of variance and covariance it would have been easy to present adjusted means and then debate the importance or otherwise of fractional differences in standard deviations. We chose instead to use regression analysis. I have always favoured the presentation of variance explained and an examination of the size of predictions from each of a number of competing variables. It is more direct and may be a simpler exposition of a model than is possible with ANOVA.

**A priori weights for the weighted index of child competence?** Our use of a priori weights to assemble global child competence measures in years 1 and 3 is questioned, with principal components suggested as an alternative. Past experience in other research showed me that canonical correlation type analyses, or iterative path analyses would be of little use. We chose instead to use regression analysis. I have always favoured the presentation of variance explained and an examination of the size of predictions from each of a number of competing variables. It is more direct and may be a simpler exposition of a model than is possible with ANOVA.

**A priori weights for the weighted index of child competence?** Our use of a priori weights to assemble global child competence measures in years 1 and 3 is questioned, with principal components suggested as an alternative. Past experience in other research showed me that canonical correlation type analyses, or iterative path analyses procedures such as those advocated by Wold (Noonan & Wold, 1977), in which weights are refined on each round of regression, often serve to highlight particular variables at the expense of other variables entered into a composite or cluster group. We had strong a priori grounds for arguing that in years 1 and 3 the composite outcome measures should reflect fixed percentages of the socialisation, language, cognitive and early educational abilities rather than attempting to maximise any predictive relationships by using principal components or statistical iterative methods. For year 1 we gave 40 per cent weight to language and 30 per cent to cognitive. For the measurement of older children (two and a half years later) we increased the socialisation and educational ability proportions, for obvious reasons. We did not attempt to tailor these proportions to any predictive data set.

**The construction of the Intervention variable.** The Critique is most unhappy with our construction of a composite intervention variable, weighted to take account of the number of visits, the nature of parental tasks undertaken, and personality characteristics of the intervention health visitors. It describes this as "a serious distortion" which undermines the interpretation of the effects of the programme per se. This is a point of major and perhaps unbridgeable difference between ourselves and the authors of the Critique. In an earlier study I have argued at length that attempts to describe a programme statistically by a 1/0 (binary) variable is to assume the narrowest of laboratory models. Intervention in the Child Development Programme was not a rigid "treatment". Variations in the number of visits were usually related to the characteristics of the visitors (level of commitment, other responsibilities, etc.) rather than to those of the parents. Some "difficult" parents were simply abandoned by a few of the visitors, although they appeared to be quite willing to be interviewed each year.

Colin Chalmers, cited earlier, commented that he favoured the dose analogy in the treatment of intervention itself. "We are dealing with an interactive situation and the response in which one is interested is not the effect of intervention, but the effect of intervention in a specific case". You are really in the same ethical dilemma as doctors who prescribe doses of a drug which they then increase or decrease according to the patient's response. Does one count treatment then as binary? I suspect not. Intervention is not really an imposition but a co-operation."

In response to the comments in the Critique we re-ran the eight main regressions, using Intervention/control as a 1/0 variable. Although the size of the intervention contribution was sharply reduced, as could be expected, the variable continued to predict significantly in seven of the eight regressions, in five of these highly significantly. The variance predicted ranged from 0.1 per cent (in the one non-significant regression) up to 1.85 per cent. The deeper reality is that this 1/0 intervention variable contributes between 2 and 12 per cent of all variance explained, across the eight regressions. That is in itself a quite acceptable proportion given the powerful competing predictions of age (at final testing) and of 13 other important home variables. When intervention is scored more sensitively, based on numbers of visits and other factors, the proportion of all variance explained rises to between 7 and 27 per cent.

If the experimental programme had been planned to rely on a 1/0 intervention analysis, it would have been necessary to ensure approximate uniformity of programme input, comparable controls on control visitor input, and other controls which would have changed a very large field research study into a laboratory one. For example, we found some control visitors bringing books into the homes of parents as part of an intentionally higher frequency of visiting. How do we take statistical account of that, or of those (relatively few) control families who boasted that the nature of the home environment questions asked by the interviewers during the previous year's interviews had completely changed their perceptions of their role (and their behaviours) as parents? How could we have accounted for such factors other than by accepting the field reality and assessing the intervention input as sensitively as possible?

**The health visitor variable.** It is not unreasonable to compare the outcomes of this programme with the outcomes of a study by Stevenson, described briefly in the recent final report of the same ACPP Study Group on "Health Visitor based services for pre-school children with behavioural problems", Stevenson (referenced in the Critique) describes the failure of one such programme. Whatever the rationale for the negative outcomes, it is significant that one of the Group's conclusions is that home based interventions may not be the best way for health visitors to supply this type of behaviour management advice. "It may be that (by) using clinic visits or possibly even more fruitful the use of work with groups of mothers, the health visitor may be better able to adopt a more directive approach with families."

This advocacy of "a more directive approach" is a most important statement of philosophy. There is a chasm between that approach and our own alternative approach of capacitation and empowerment of parents, within the sheltered environment of the home where the parent is in charge and the visitor merely a support person, with no "directive" or even advisory role. It is within the context of the home that the health visitor's characteristics are all important. In the current ongoing phase of the programme, visitors are selected and trained to a far higher level of sensitivity and non-directiveness than was ever possible in the experimental phase.

**The Abelson study and cumulative effects.** The Critique's slighting comments on the small percentages of variance explained need to be set against the findings of Abelson (referenced in the Critique) that a strong relationship such as that between individuals' previous batting records and their subsequent performance had a predictive power of only 0.3 per cent, despite the very high significance of the prediction.

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Chalmers shows how it is possible for both omega squared and $R^2$ to be small, while $F$ is substantial, indicating a real effect. In a general ANOVA:

$$F = 1 + \left( \frac{Jw^2}{1 - w^2} \right)$$

and

$$R^2 = \left( \frac{(1 - (1 + (Jw^2 / (1 - w^2)))}{(1 - (1 + (Jw^2 / (1 - w^2)))} \right)$$

where $I = \text{number of levels}$, and $J = \text{number of replicates per level}$

With $I = 100, J = 1000, w^2 = .003$, one gets

$F = 4$ and $R^2 = .004$

The other criticism voiced in this regard is that we have not shown that small effects would have a cumulatively greater effect over the years. Headstart studies showed that, despite the Westinghouse/Ohio attempt to demolish the original positive findings (Cicirelli et al., 1969), it can take up to 10 years to establish long-term effects (Lazar et al., 1977). Our contention is that any programme which helps parents improve their parenting skills is likely to have cumulative effects because the prime environmental influence has been altered, one assumes for good. By comparison, programmes focussed on very young children tend to have only short-term effects because the children remain in an unchanged parenting environment. We would welcome funding support to establish the strength or otherwise of the long-term effects of our parent support programme.

The meaningfulness of the child abuse statistics. Figures cited in our Evaluation Document 9 showed a total of nine injuries among 7,300 first children from 0 to 3 in the current phase of the programme, with an approximate average of two years for each child sampled. This gives a total of 0.62 injuries per 1000 programme children per year, compared with the NSPCC total of 1.42 injuries per 1000 0- to 4-year-old children of all parties for a national sample from all social classes. Clearly, these figures are not strictly comparable. But given the fact that the programme children are selected from the most disadvantaged parts of any Health Authority where we work, given the estimate that over 20% of all injuries occur to first born children, and given comparable figures from disadvantaged health authorities with up to 4.5 injuries per 1000 children per year, we are confident in claiming remarkable success on this front. It is hardly a spurious comparison, as the Critique claims.

Our abuse register figures are criticised on the grounds that strict comparability is precluded by differing policies over the inclusion of children on the register. Our figures showed that in three health authorities only seven out of 2100 programme children were on the abuse register, compared with 234 children on the register out of a total of 11,900 for the whole of those same three authorities (including our disadvantaged Programme areas). If these figures do not suggest a very strong programme effect, it is hard to think what would.

Other comments. We are aware of the fact that shortage of funds and time has prevented us from writing more than a few reports for the scientific literature; we are still largely dependent on funding from an international charitable foundation, despite the fact that we are possibly achieving more than any other UK programme in changing the lives and health of children and parents living in social stress areas (and in helping to focus strongly on the much neglected area of women's diets, health and self-esteem). While we struggle to remain in existence and to continue expanding, there is little time for more and wider research studies, much as we would enjoy writing them. The Critique's description of our reporting of evaluation data in "this muddled and misleading manner" is the kind of verbal slanging to which we do not intend to reply. We would welcome other views on our evaluation report, and look forward to other, more constructive comments.

References


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Petition by British Scientists Abroad

British Scientists Abroad have launched a petition to draw attention to the effect of government science funding policies in driving academics overseas. The petition is to be signed only by British scientists working overseas, and is designed to illustrate the "brain drain" in terms of names, UK degrees and current positions held. Thus we hope to provide a direct and comprehensive demonstration of the loss of talent and national educational investment resulting from current science policy.

The petition reads:

Dear Mrs Thatcher

As British scientists working abroad, we are very concerned that British scientific research is being starved of necessary funding, with the consequent emigration of many scientists like ourselves. The dearth of funding for state-of-the-art equipment and supplies, coupled with the lack of jobs and career prospects for young academics, are major obstacles in our considering returning to the UK. We urge the Government to reform its science policy along the lines suggested by Save British Science, particularly as follows:

- Government support for science, as a fraction of national wealth invested in civil research and development, should be increased to be in line with other major European nations.
- Tax incentives for industrial support of fundamental research in institutions with open, academic type research and publication practices, should be improved.
- The Government should recognise its responsibility to safeguard a broad academic base of independent scientific research on which future technological progress can be based.

We ask all British scientists overseas who are concerned about the state of British science funding to write to us (SAE appreciated) or call us at the number below to request a copy of the petition for signature and further distribution. Alternatively, signed letters carrying the text of the petition as above and including the signatory's name, highest UK degree and institution where obtained, and current position and institution, would also be welcome. Our address is: British Scientists Abroad (BSA), c/o Dr Marie Rose Schraendijk, Lab of Infectious Diseases, DNAX Research Institute, 901 California Ave, Palo Alto CA 94304-1104, USA. BSA Tel. #(415) 856 4214.

Leslie Murray
Anne O'Garra
Marie Rose Schraendijk
DNAX Research Institute
Simon Hughes
Dept of Pharmacology
Stanford University

Report summary inaccurate

The summary of "The Future of the Psychological Sciences" Report offered by the Committee of the Psychotherapy Section (The Psychologist, August 1989) was so inconsistent with my memory of the document that I had helped to author that it sent me back to read it once again. The Psychotherapy Section interpreted the Report as advocating a marketing exercise to sell psychology on behalf of and for the benefits of the socio-political status quo. If it had done so I would certainly have shared their deep concern. However, that had never been my impression of the Report, and my re-reading of it confirmed my memory.

To me, the Report is a very wide-ranging challenge to most areas of the psychological sciences. It is true the Report covers 88 pages, in Section 18, to the marketing of psychology, but nowhere can I find the implied message that we should be marketing an image of psychology rather than the skills and knowledge of psychologists and psychologists themselves. The Report does argue that "Psychology is unlikely to succeed if we fail to demonstrate to the public mind that psychology has benefits of a social, economic, cultural and educational value and that psychologists have been naive in both local and national terms if they have not recognised that the well-being of their discipline depends on it making its mark in a competitive political world, in which there is social conflict, sectional interest, and a variety of competing moralities". The tenor of the Report is that it is not sufficient for the psychological sciences to accumulate psychological knowledge without attempting to make that knowledge known to the non-psychological world. To the Working Party, this seemed to be an essential aspect of the proper development of the discipline.

Rather than attempting to convey the content of the Report in a single letter (a task that was impossible within a full article: The Psychologist, June 1989) I urge all interested members of the Society to write to the Leicester office and obtain a free copy of the Report so that they can draw their own conclusions upon its approach and content.

Peter Morris
Chair, Scientific Affairs Board
Department of Psychology
Lancaster University
Lancaster LA1 4YF

Credit to the Careers Service

Mea culpa! I must apologise for my expressed lack of faith in careers officers - it is clear that, in my article "The Skills Acquired in Psychology Degrees" (The Psychologist, June 1989) I had failed to give them due credit.

While fully accepting that my sweeping generalisation misjudges the careers service, I must point out that the criticism did not come from nowhere. Even in the past academic year, I have known of a final year joint honours student who was explicitly told by a polytechnic careers officer that if she wanted to get a decent job, she had "done the wrong degree", and the best she could do would be to get some voluntary experience somewhere to make up for it. A similar story was told to me by three graduates of my acquaintance who had done their degree in another part of the country; and that, coupled with my knowledge of the experiences of many other psychology graduates in terms of lack of career awareness and lack of confidence in their skills, was the basis of my remarks.

But I really did not write the article to get at careers advisers - honest! And I was really pleased to find out that my
In defence of “black humour”

I was much interested to read David Joyce’s article about the “black humour” prevalent amongst police officers, and would like to add one or two small insights of my own.

I am a graduate psychologist and have been working for the London Ambulance Service for some years now, serving as both ambulance driver and control officer.

The tendency to relate as amusing, often for many years afterwards, the more horrifying incidents one has witnessed, appears to be almost universal amongst those whose business is other people’s misery. I have done it myself and I work within an environment where this reaction is the norm. Although there are clearly slightly different moves amongst the various emergency services, I feel I must contribute an interpretation slightly at variance with the need to save face and “not cock it up” by showing emotion as described by Mr Joyce.

As a raw ambulance trainee (and incidentally a woman), I was told that I was about to enter a world where I would see, many times a day, situations which would be variously unpleasant, tragic, horrifying and any other adjective which came to mind, and that whilst witnessing these things I would often be the first, if not the only professional on scene. At the sight of the uniform everyone would turn to me to take control and that getting upset would just have to wait. Over the years I have learned this to be true. At the scene of most emergency situations there are more than enough upset, frightened and emotional people to go round. The main service that we can render, especially where a death is involved and medical aid is inappropriate, is to remain detached and thus cope efficiently on everyone else’s behalf; the victim’s relatives and friends have become “patients”.

The control one learns to exercise in order to perform this professional function is not easy to switch on and off. It is true, however, that horrifying incidents do leave their mark and must be worked through somehow. As David Joyce says, “the very telling of a story helps the teller to come to terms with it” and the conversion from horror to humour renders the story tellable.

This humorous approach appears to me to be almost the only way in which the inevitable effects of working with tragedy for eight or more hours a day on the average compassionate human being can be expressed, given that the more “appropriate” response of immediate emotion renders the individual incapable of doing the job. I will risk suggesting that this observation is easier for a woman to make since there appears to me to be less of an automatic sheltering “behind bravado and face-saving” in the average female response to life.

We do cry, all of us at some time or other, from the rawest recruit to the most hard, bitter old hand, but we love doing our job and crying does not seem to help us do it better, whereas laughing does.

Carolyn Steele
Central Ambulance Control
London Ambulance Service
Headquarters
220 Waterloo Road
London SE1

Your recent article on the above in The Psychologist, September 1989, reminded me of an experience my son had as a probationer with the Metropolitan police. He was sent to investigate his first death, reported to have occurred in a car park at night on the outskirts of his inner city patch.

As he bent over the inert shape with only a torch to illuminate the possibly grisly reality, the cadaver leapt to its feet and raced off, laughing fit to kill itself.

On his return to report in, the prospective constable faced more unbridled mirth from colleagues and superiors; the cause now obvious. This was an initiation rite. I am sure you might think to that of a primitive tribe, and/or a British boy’s public school.

Of course my son has encountered many real deaths since that occasion; violent, premeditated, lonely and beyond recognition. He has never received or needed the need of counselling. But one wonders, what might be the cost to young men and women of the undoubtedly traumatic effect of encountering all manner of deaths, as well as informing those affected, whose immediate distress takes its own toll.

While you cannot have policemen sitting by the roadside weeping at traffic accidents, or carrying their truncheons at the scene of a homicide, might not police forces in this new communicative age be willing to accept the need for training for a programme of support in this area, for its young and/or new recruits. Perhaps, indeed, at all levels, if the shell of higher status officers has not grown too impermeable?

Janet E. Kingswood
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Amersham
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Role of educational psychologists

I read Marion Hobbs’ letter in the September issue of The Psychologist with some surprise. It may well be that the educational psychologists whom she is acquainted do in fact spend their time helping children rather than teachers. However, this has not been my experience. Having been an educational psychologist for the last 17 years, I find myself and my colleagues spending an increasing proportion of our time doing exactly those things she is advocating.

Individual counselling and support of teachers under stress has become a regular part of our work as have courses on time management, stress and coping strategies. With the advent of the 1988 Education Reform Act and the changing role of the Advisor, from supporter to inspector, it is likely that educational psychologists will be virtually the only professional group with the skills and opportunity to develop his area of work. So what we need are more educational psychologists rather than a whole new set of professionals.

S. Lorenz
Senior Educational Psychologist
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Few could fail to sympathise with Marion Hobbs’ desire to help teachers cope with their low morale, the over-demanding curriculum changes and the high levels of stress (The Psychologist, September 1989). Yet I find myself deeply disturbed by her suggestion “ultimately, we are all ourselves.” We do not have to scratch far beneath the surface of the literature on burnout, learned helplessness and systems theory to see the flaw in her argument. The short-term solution is to prop up an inadequate system, the longer term solution is to restructure it. When so
many individuals express such dissatisfaction with a system that they desperately seek escape from it, it is surely time for us to call it into question.

Where one stands on her proposal will be determined by how one construes the educational enterprise and its relationship to schooling. If we accept that education is to be defined simply and solely in terms of information transmission then I suppose we might just be led to accept her proposal. If, however, we accept that education is a curious, driven, decision making and, ultimately, a progressive problem shifting system, in which teachers and learners contribute to the evolution of the curriculum, then her proposal has to be totally rejected.

Peter V. Mathews
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Fearnhead Lane
Warrington
Cheshire

In defence of social work

Your correspondent Evelyn Ward (The Psychologist, September 1989) is almost but not quite right in declaring that "there are too many basically trained social workers trying to do work which really ought to be done by social psychologists".

Ms Ward rightly describes social workers as having been "given" the field (not the entire field I would argue, but at any rate a sizeable part of it) in "child abuse, domestic violence, recalcitrant delinquency, drug abuse, urban problems". A more relevant question, however, would be by whom was the field "given", and whose responsibility is it anyway?

There are a number of answers not necessarily related to the theory and practice of social psychology although I assume Ms Ward is aware that Social Work qualifying courses do include that discipline in their curricula. As to the first question, however, the problems which social workers face in their working lives are indeed "given" by a society which prefers to hive off these problems from the lives of the majority of the population who manage without them. As to the second question of responsibility, there are numerous answers: for child abuse and neglect, the parents; for domestic violence, the police; for delinquency, education, parents, unemployment; for drug abuse, probably all of the latter; for urban problems, planners, politicians. Need I go on?

Social workers do not indeed believe that basic education is adequate to fulfil all the above tasks: that is why so many of them undertake post-qualifying training in, among other things, psychotherapy, behaviour therapy, family work, management, and research, often at their own expense; and why the Council for Education and Training in Social Work asked for funding for a three-year basic qualifying course, a request denied by Government last year. There may be many psychology graduates who fail to get places on qualifying courses because of the rigorous selection procedures and competition for places; there are many who do and whom I have taught and tutored.

As to Ms Ward's final point, about unmet need, this again is a constant preoccupation of social workers and their trainers and one into which much creative thought and innovation goes. Perhaps instead of looking at what is wrong with social work Ms Ward's energies a a social psychologist would be better directed at looking at what is wrong with a society which puts these intractable burdens on its citizens and requires an under-resourced and undervalued profession to deal with them.

Joyce Tombs
19 Cator Road
London SE26 5DT

Dangers of Certificate in Occupational Testing

While it would be ungenerous to fail to acknowledge the energy and drive displayed by the Steering Committee on Test Standards in preparing their lengthy consultative document, I do feel that the members of the Society should be alerted by a warning note about what is being proposed.

The Committee's intention to create a BPS Certificate in Occupational Testing has, in my view, several quite serious dangers. Not the least of these is that the proposal has overtones of turning the Society into a "regulatory body" - and moreover to set the regulations in a style that is both authoritarian and curiously old-fashioned.

One aspect of this "old-fashioned" outlook is the insistence on testers being trained - and qualified by certification - to administer, score, and interpret paper and pencil tests of abilities before allowing them to be trained to administer "personality" tests and questionnaires. In fact, of course, the administration of respectable modern "tests" of temperament, interests, etc. can really be a quite straightforward business when one is dealing with non-clinical measures for "normal" subjects.

Nor, in my view, is it either wise or necessary to make out that the skills required to administer and score paper and pencil tests are so specialised and demanding that one virtually creates a specialist technician grade of job for the post. For the vast majority of industrial and commercial organisations the number of people to be tested is not large enough to justify such a specialist job role - the testing can be done by suitably chosen clerks, secretaries, or Junior Personnel Officers as an occasional part of their other day-to-day duties, after they have been given appropriate instruction and practice with the specific and quite limited number of tests that the firm chooses to adopt.

However, I find much more disturbing the inclusion in the document Psychological Testing - Guidance for the User of the remarkable claim on page 14 "Statistical surveys have produced the following as typical values (of validation coefficients) - Personality tests 0.15".

To those who know anything about the matter this is clearly nonsense - what surveys, of what personality tests, in what populations, and against what criterion measures?

But the booklet is addressed to non-psychologists, and its readers may be seriously misled into thinking that there really is sound evidence that personality test measurements are of such low validity as to be virtually useless.

The Steering Committee seems to be rushing at precipitate speed towards a nasty pile-up instead of, on the evidence from the two documents, the Steering Committee is distinctly "off its trolley!

John D. Handside
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Psychoanalysis and psychology

David Shapiro's response (The Psychologist, September 1989) to my comments (July) regarding Professor Howarth's review of psychotherapy books (April) requires a brief reply.

I did not mean to argue, as Shapiro suggests, that "psychoanalysis is beyond the pale of psychology". This would be an absurd assertion since psychoanalysis is inherently a branch of psychology. My point is rather that psychoanalysis has developed independently of academic psychology and relatively independently of clinical psychology. Whilst employing a different method it is an activity of immense rigour and discipline. I do believe that it is chauvinistic for psychoanalysts to criticise psychoanalysts for ignoring clinical psychologists' research, if the latter do not take the trouble to immerse themselves in psychoanalytic thinking. However, given goodwill and curiosity on both sides, it is possible for there to be an extremely creative intercourse between these distinct traditions, as I believe David Shapiro is aware.

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The Psychologist
November 1989

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LETTERS

Reviewing the reviewer

I quote:

... a refreshing contrast to the rambling and self-seeking misinterpretations of J.J. Gibson’s lucidity and originality by “Buddhist” psychologists and others.

This part of a review by Patrick Rabbitt in The Psychologist, August 1989, puzzled me. Why is the epithet Buddhist, with or without inverted commas, relevant? Presumably the reviewer has in mind particular psychologists, with whose writings he finds himself in disagreement. In that case, should he not be more specific?

I do realise that The Psychologist does not necessarily endorse anything written by contributors, but would prefer that the public organ of our Learned Society did not seem to cast aspersions on the belief system of any group.

John Sheppard
Field View House
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Rastick
Brighouse
West Yorks HD6 3PZ

Certificate Course in Brief Psychotherapy

The other day I received notice of a “Certificate Course in Brief Psychotherapy” (Cognitive - Analytic Therapy; CAT). The CAT approach to therapy was developed by Anthony Ryle (a psychologically orientated psychiatrist) and attempts to synthesise cognitive, dynamic, Kleinian and social aspects of psychological therapy.

One of the reasons I like CAT is that it tries to pull together a wide range of approaches and funnel them into one therapeutic paradigm. I therefore think it is rather ironic that this approach is then presented “open” to a whole range of people who are only likely to create the diversity and inconsistency which the theory has perhaps attempted to overcome. The publicity leaflet received suggests that the course is for “councillors, occupational therapists, GPs, physiotherapists, teachers, social workers, nurses, health visitors, police officers, probation officers, marriage counsellors, psychologists, samaritans, personnel officers, youth workers, religious ministers and other members of all helping professions”. This I think you will agree is a fairly comprehensive list of people although I did feel personally aggrieved that my granny was not mentioned!

Joking apart, I wonder whether the Society has any views on the suitability of different professions/occupations to undertake courses in psychotherapy. I was brought up in psychology to believe that psychologists had a special contribution to psychotherapy because of their special background and that the contribution of clinical psychologists was greater than other psychologists because of their special training in psychological approaches to psychological dysfunctions. If this is the case, and the Society also believes that clinical psychologists have a properly prominent place in psychotherapy, then I feel that it must surely also have views as to who would be less suited to benefit from courses in psychotherapy. The danger of such courses is quite apparent in that if every “Tom, Dick and Harry” goes off to do a course on brief psychotherapy and then tries to act as a psychotherapist, the overall standard of psychological services to the community may drop. The Society ought to have views on this as I believe its Charter seeks to protect the public and to optimise psychological services available to the public.

I would therefore be grateful if the Society could make some response to clarify in my mind whether it feels that it is appropriate that such a range of people should have on offer to them “Certificate Courses in Brief Psychotherapy”. I do of course fully appreciate that what the Society thinks should happen, and what actually happens may be quite different.

Malcolm MacLachlan
Chartered and Clinical Psychologist
Department of Psychological Services & Research
Crichton Royal Hospital
Dumfries DG1 4TG

Editors’ Note:

Readers may wish to note that the Society’s policy on this issue is set out in two published statements:


A standard information sheet is also available to members of the public from the Leicester office.

A golden opportunity

I was interested to read Peter Farrell’s article “Educational Psychology Services: Crisis or Opportunity” (The Psychologist, June 1989) and find yet again, the view being aired that we need a “local psychological service”. Is sense dawning at last on professional psychologists that they have a service to offer through the agency of the local authority?

But, as long as they operate from different bases, with mutually exclusive training systems and funded by government from different purses, their total influence will never equate that which can be exerted by one large co-ordinated service.

I recall, with some relish, in the 1970s the arguments that took place in the
early meetings of the Professional Affairs Board when educational and clinical psychologists hotly, often acrimoniously, debated the question of transferability, a means whereby one breed of psychologist could qualify to be another without having to complete a full postgraduate course. Core courses with qualifying modules do not seem to have penetrated very far but maybe the Membership and Qualifications Board could take this up.

At the same time, I had the great pleasure of serving on a Working Party, convened by the late Professor Jack Tizard, which was set up to consider the training of child psychologists. That report apparently sank without trace because we were recommending a training for psychologists focussed on the needs of children not as "educational units" in schools or as "clinical units" in hospitals. As part of our considerations, I put a paper to the Working Party suggesting just such a case as has been made by Peter Farrell - it founndered on the reef of clinical psychology.

Should professionals get together? If they do not, I fear they are in for hard times. I am sure that in the educational market, self-governing schools are likely to be less tempted to buy our products - we come pretty expensive. Dare one forecast less business for clinical psychologists as large mental handicap hospitals decant their patients into the great outdoors where they then become the clients of already hard-pressed social workers? Certainly, a local authority psychological service already well acquainted to working with social workers in multidisciplinary teams could absorb some of this trade. Many Training Agencies have discovered that psychologists, occupational or educational, can play an important role in developing assessment procedures and in presenting potential employers with the right staff.

I would commend Peter Farrell's concept of a single applied psychological service but I do not think that it can truly come about until the profession begins to see itself initially as trained psychologists who then develop specialised skills. At the moment, the base line is a graduate degree in psychology which varies enormously from university to university. Possibly this should remain though I think that some thought by the Society should be given to more uniformity. Graduation is succeeded by a postgraduate course in the applied field or at least it should be a course of training recognised by the Society. I am certain that, if all the courses that lead to qualification as an applied psychologist were scanned, quite a proportion of common elements which could form the core of a postgraduate qualification could be filtered out. To become fully qualified in a particular field or specialism, it would be necessary to add the requisite number of options as modules of the course. Subsequently, by topping up with the appropriate modules, one could transfer (or qualify) in a different specialism. An advantage of such a scheme would be to create one profession, applied psychology, lead the way to one Department of Applied Psychology, covering the specific area (geographical) and help to stop some of the bickering at the boundaries. An inter-Division initiative is the next step.

Douglas A.F. Conochie
Regional Educational Psychologist
Grampian Regional Council
Woodhill House
Ashgrove Road West
Aberdeen AB9 2LU

At one time Council Member, SPECP, Chair and representative of PAB, still a believer in the need for a College of Applied Psychology.

Information Section

Help needed

Social psychology technician requires any information on the topic of discourse processes in later life. Currently looking to investigate the perception of sleep as seen through the conversations of elderly people. Trying to understand the myths and dangers of homespun philosophies of retaining ideological conceptions of sleep with age.

Peter Beaman
Social Sciences Department
Loughborough University
Leicestershire LE11 3TU

In honour of Hans Eysenck

Although Professor Hans Eysenck officially departed from the Chair of Psychology at the Institute of Psychiatry more than five years ago, he is still so active in research and writing (not to say travel) that his colleagues find it hard to think of him as having retired. Nonetheless, it is so, and we think that the time has come to mark this fact in some appropriate manner. We have two possibilities in mind: commissioning a portrait of him to hang in the Institute of Psychiatry, or establishing an annual lecture to be named after him. Accordingly, we are seeking the funds required for either of these objectives.

May we appeal through your columns to anyone who would like to be associated with this venture and is prepared to give a donation to the fund (we suggest a sum of between £5 and £25). Cheques, made payable to "The Institute of Psychiatry" and marked "H. Eysenck Fund", should be posted to Professor Jeffrey Gray, Department of Psychology, at the address below, giving a clear indication of the donor's name and address. The names of contributors will be recorded in a book which will eventually be presented to Professor Eysenck.

Jeffrey Gray

Irene Martin

Gerald Russell

Glenn Wilson

Institute of Psychiatry

De Crespigny Park

Danmark Hill

London SE5 8AF

SPIG - Children and Young People

The Committee of the Special Interest Group for Clinical Psychologists working with Children and Young People would welcome as new members any psychologists interested in this field.

Membership is open to clinical psychologists who are members of the BPS and DCP and subscription is open to trainee clinical psychologists, psychological technicians and members of other professions.

The subscription fee currently stands at £7. Conferences and workshops are organised on a regular basis and a newsletter is published three or four times a year.

Please write for application forms and further information about SPIG.

Alison Heard

Chartered Clinical Psychologist

SPIG (Children and Young People)

Clinical Psychology Service (Child Health)

Playfield House

Cupar

File KY15 5RR

MIND

MIND is currently updating its national list of Chartered Psychologists who are willing to give independent professional assessments for solicitors who are representing clients, eg. at Mental Health Review Tribunals.

Any Chartered Psychologist interested in appearing on this list should write, with details of their experience to the Legal Department, MIND, at the address below. This list would then be made available to solicitors who are seeking details of available experts.

Ian Byne

Legal Director (Acting)

MIND

22 Harley Street

London W1N 2ED
Computer Column

Assistant Editor: Tony Gillie

WISEONE EXPERT SYSTEM SHELL
Swallowsoft, PO Box No 107, Wallington, Surrey KT12 5PO
Minimum requirements: Amstrad PCW 8256 with single disk drive. Supplied on 3-inch disk, with 84 pp manual: £34.95.

The arrival of this software, Artificial Intelligence, has moved into the realm of home computing. Hence, for this reviewer, after many years of hearing about AI, this opportunity became his first direct experience of it.

An expert system shell is a software package designed to help you create your own expert system on any suitable topic. The WiseOne shell, together with its seven example systems, is contained on one side of the distribution disk. The shell consists of two programme modules: a Knowledge Builder, and a Consultant. Each occupies 32K of memory.

The manual serves both as a tutor and user guide. Its format is A5, with plastic comb spine permitting it to lie flat. The print is small, but quite clear, printed on both sides of stiff paper. The manual is divided into nine chapters. One of these is the tutorial, which involves extensive cross-referencing with the other chapters. Thus, the process of learning to use the shell necessarily involves acquiring familiarity with the full text. Unfortunately, the manual lacks an index.

The software runs under C/PM. The manual assumes that the user is not familiar with this operating aspect of the PCW, and provides instructions on how best to use the M-drive in conjunction with the WiseOne disk. The C/PM text editor RPED is then used for entering information. Locoscript can be used for this purpose also, but less conveniently, since the file has to be converted to ASCII before use.

The Knowledge Builder module provides the Knowledge Representation Language which is used to develop two files: one of rules, and the other of elements. Knowledge is seen as being made up of "rules", in the form of a conclusion based upon IF-conditions; nouns in these rules are defined as "elements". The Knowledge Builder then checks these files for errors, and, when satisfied, combines them into a Knowledge Base file. It is this file which is processed by the Consultant module to draw inferences in response to the user's answers to questions.

As regards the expert system when ready for use, the inference mechanism appears to be relatively simple: a process of comparing element values with condition criteria. The Consultant operates over as many rules as necessary to arrive at a requested "Primary Goal", forming chains of rules in the process: a procedure described in the manual as: backward chaining.

Elements can be Boolean, numeric or "option". Elements may be supported by up to 255 characters of associated text, plus a facility to call-up a disk file of text of any length. Hence, help and explanatory text can be provided at any stage of a consultation.

The "primary goal" is that element selected by the user as the objective of the consultation (E.g. tax status). Rules may be given priority values (1 to 9) which determine the order of application. Special rule facilities include Print Rules, which activate (by "demon") text statements in response to a change in any element value at any time in the consultation. Similarly, Stage Rules can be triggered to yield a conclusion or to institute a sequence of rules for further consideration.

I found that the process of working through the tutorial and the illustrative examples took some 30 hours. This included building a few simple practice systems.

The user "screens" leave a lot to be desired in terms of ease of use at first contact. A new user could not undertake a consultation without initial guidance. This facility could have been avoided if there had been two menu screens: one for the designer, and another for the client user.

Developers or suppliers of software likely to be of interest to psychologists are encouraged to send review copies to:
The Editor
The Psychologist
The British Psychological Society
St Andrews House
48 Princess Road East
LEICESTER LE1 7DR

November 1989
The programming limitations on the knowledge base are 100 elements, 120 rules, and 350 conditions. In addition, each element is limited to 12 options, unless, that is, it is coded as numerical. Then one is restricted to integer values in the range 0 to 32000.

The largest example system supplied on the disk is the Tax Advisor. This has 43 elements, 37 rules and 64 conditions. Whereas the smaller example systems gave almost instantaneous advice, the performance of this system degenerated to a delay of two to three seconds before displaying its advice screen.

I have the following specific criticisms:

i) Logical relationships in the domain area are not recognised automatically. The designer has to establish these, perhaps by preparing an algorithm, before entering the rules and elements into the files. Otherwise, illogicalities and errors in reasoning can be entered into the knowledge database.

ii) Rules and elements are not numbered in the .ru1 and .elm files, but the Knowledge Builder numbers these for its analysis. Checking for errors would be easier if matching numbering could be attached to the user-generated source files.

Before using this software I had envisioned myself preparing a system to replace the aged white-haired supervisor in the back-room, who knew all the answers, with a PCW for the youngest at the front-desk to consult. However, each instance of a need for an expert system which I had identified, when tested on the provided example expert system on expert systems, failed on the grounds of my domains being too large.

Concerning the Tax Advisor example, the largest example on the disk, it appeared to me that this topic could have been dealt with adequately by a decision tree approach, using perhaps a few sheets of A4 paper.

Reflecting on this first experience of expert systems, I felt disappointed. Maybe my expectations were too high? On the other hand, perhaps AI has yet to address adequately the essence of expertise? Be that as it may, the designer of WiseOne must be congratulated on achieving as much flexibility and power as this within the confines of the PCW.

While I found it difficult to envisage many applications for this software in psychological practice, as an introduction to expert systems for a professional person not connected with the AI scene, the WiseOne provided me with much food for thought; and a mental model which should facilitate further study of the area.

A final point, if after trying the software you feel that you have not received value for money, then the suppliers offer to refund the purchase price.

Geoff Davies

COMMENTS BY SWALLOWSSOFT
PUBLICATIONS
We regret that the reviewer was unable to make practical use of WiseOne, but without any explanation or examples of the difficulties experienced, it is not easy to comment upon the criticisms made. Three previous reviews have been positive in tone, and our standing offer of an immediate refund to dissatisfied purchasers has so far found no takers from a wide range of users, so we retain complete confidence in WiseOne.

Size of suitable domain
The example knowledge base on the selection of appropriate subjects for an Expert System uses explicitly stated criteria for domain size of a maximum of 50 different situations to be considered, and a maximum of 40 different answers or pieces of advice to be given. Many users have practical applications within these approximate guidelines. The reviewer may need a larger system than WiseOne.

User Screens
A range of facilities are provided for the designer to provide appropriate User Screens and guidance. There are also the standard Help facilities and a constant Action Guide to what is going on. Other reviews have commented on the power and flexibility of these facilities.

Decision tree approach
Ultimately all knowledge can be reduced to decision tree form. Expert system knowledge is usually fairly complex however, and has multiple connections between decision nodes, and criteria which can affect several levels of a decision tree. WiseOne, like most other expert systems, handles this by keeping the various decision rules separate, and assembling a specific tree dynamically as a particular consultation progresses.

WiseOne further permits a decision process to have multiple interacting factors, and allows such a multiply-connected decision process to be entered at any point. An example supplied is the selection of the type of power, cutting mechanism, drive and size of a lawnmower. Subtrees to cater for some users having more firm information than others can also complicate the picture.

For these reasons, drawing out all decision trees for all possible combinations of user responses for any significant knowledge base will consume far more than the "few sheets of A4" envisioned by the reviewer. It is the capability to use any piece of its knowledge at any time that is one of the most powerful features of an expert system. (This topic is described in Chapter 5 of the User Guide.)

Specific criticisms
i) The meaning of this point is not clear. If the reviewer expects any expert system to have "world knowledge", he will remain disappointed for many years to come. WiseOne does perform many logical checks relating rules to element definitions, and appropriate inferences.

ii) WiseOne provides automatic file numbering on its element and rule output listings, (which is particularly advantageous when additions or deletions to a set of rules are made), and this printed listing can be used for checking errors. It does not amend user-generated source files, and this is not felt to be a general requirement.

Other points
Many significant features of WiseOne are not mentioned in the review, such as the ability to match element values irrespective of their specific value, to carry out arithmetic within rules, and to volunteer and change user information or to ask "Why", during a consultation. Such facilities go some way to emulating a "discussion" with an expert.

Elements in rules can be descriptive clauses, not just nouns, e.g. "the likelihood that you prefer lager to beer", with corresponding values of "very likely", "unlikely" etc., or alternatively, numeric values.

The inference mechanism of backward chaining by condition matching is the standard basic process for Expert System Shells. However, WiseOne has significant additional features including immediate (demon) operation on any required conditions, rule grouping and prioritising, and other control facilities.

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Society

Round the Board Room Tables

Colin Newman reports on a meeting of the Professional Affairs Board on 15 September 1989

Anything but the silly season
During the summer several working parties of the Board finalised their reports and other contributors from the Divisions prepared comments for submission to Government Departments in response to consultation papers. Comments were submitted on the following topics or had been dispatched by the Chair during the summer.

• To the Department of Health on the NHS Review White Paper: Working for Patients
• To the Home Office on "Punishment, Custody and the Community"
• To the SHHD on the Kincaid Report on Parole and Related Matters
• To the Department of Health and the SHHD on "Access to Mental Health Records"
• To the IBA on proposed revisions to its Television Advertising Code

Steps were also taken to respond to an invitation from the Department of Health to comment on a Draft Code and Handbook on Confidentiality of Personal Health Information. The Board received and accepted a Report from the Working Party on Services for Young Adult Patients with Acquired Brain Injury. To some extent this Report complements that of the Working Party on Psychology and Physical Disability. Some minor additions to the Report are likely to be made and when ready for publication copies of the Report will be available from the Leicester Office at a price that has yet to be determined.

Clinical psychologists and AIDS
As a member of the Board, Dr Jane Ussher had accepted the challenge of drafting a statement for circulation to Health Service managers on the role of clinical psychologists in AIDS. This statement covering the contribution that psychology has to offer in the care and treatment of people suffering from AIDS, their carers and relations was welcomed by the Board and is to be sent to Health Authorities, to sexually transmitted disease clinics and behavioural medicine units.

Dr Newman is Executive Secretary of the Society.

Dr Alan John PARKIN
Mr David Francis PECK
Ms Wendy Ann PRITCHARD
Mr Reginald George SELL
Dr John Anthony SLOBODA
Dr Mary Murray SMYTH
Dr Peter Michael STRATTON
Dr Glym Vivian THOMAS
Dr Michael John TOBIN
Dr Mona Manwah TSOI
Dr Louise Margaret WALLACE
Dr Alec WEBSTER
Dr Keith Andrew WESNES
Dr Patricia WRIGHT

Dates of Meetings 1989

Finance and General Purposes Standing Committee
Friday 17 November

Scientific Affairs Board
Saturday 2 December followed by Presidents' Award Committee

Professional Affairs Board
Saturday 11 November

Membership and Qualifications Board
Saturday 26 November

Graduate Admissions Committee
Thursday 16 November

Postgraduate Admissions Committee
Thursday 23 November

Disciplinary Board (Annual Meeting)
Thursday 2 November

Dates of Meetings 1990

Annual General Meeting
Saturday 7 April

Council
Saturday 24 February
Saturday 19 May
Saturday 13 October

Finance and General Purposes Standing Committee
Friday 5 January
Friday 23 February
Friday 16 March
Friday 6 April
Friday 27 April
Friday 18 May
Friday 15 June
Friday 7 September
Friday 12 October

Scientific Affairs Board
Wednesday 4 April (Followed by Spearman Medal Committee)
Friday 29 June
Friday 28 September

Professional Affairs Board
Saturday 13 January
Friday 2 March
Saturday 21 April
Friday 8 June
Friday 14 September

Membership and Qualifications Board
Saturday 27 January
Saturday 24 March
Friday 11 May
Friday 6 July
Friday 21 September

Graduate Admissions Committee
Thursday 18 January
Thursday 8 March
Thursday 26 April
Thursday 21 June
Thursday 6 September

Postgraduate Admissions Committee
Thursday 25 January
Thursday 15 March
Thursday 3 May
Thursday 28 June
Thursday 13 September

Fellowships Committee
Friday 2 February
Thursday 24 May
Friday 5 October

Standing Committee on Communications
Friday 2 February
Sunday 8 April
Monday 2 July
Tuesday 16 October

Fellows

Elected on 6 October 1989

Dr John BODDY
Dr Johnson Lockyer BRADSHAW
Dr Victoria Geraldine BRUCE
Professor Roy DAVIS
Professor Nicholas Peter EMLER
Dr James Rupert Gawayne FURNELL
Dr Jean Fraser HARTLEY
Dr John Michael INNES
Dr Alan LEWIS
Dr Nadina Berdice LINCOLN
Miss Ingrid Cecilia LUNT
Dr Donald MARCER
Dr Frank Edmund MERRETT
Dr Joyce Mildred MORRIS

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Announcements

IVTH EUROPEAN CONFERENCE ON DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY
AT THE UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING, SCOTLAND
27-31 August 1990
(incorporating the Developmental Psychology Section Annual Conference)
The University of Stirling is privileged to host the IVth European Conference on Developmental Psychology. Previous European Conferences have been held at Groningen, Netherlands; Florence, Italy; and Budapest, Hungary. The aims of the Conference on Developmental Psychology are to promote the discovery, dissemination and application of knowledge of human developmental processes at all stages of the lifespan from infancy to childhood, adolescence, adulthood and old age. This meeting will be of interest to many academics and practitioners.

For further details write to:
The Conference Organiser
Department of Psychology
University of Stirling
FK9 4LA
Scotland

DIVISION OF EDUCATIONAL AND CHILD PSYCHOLOGY
ANNUAL COURSE
2-5 January 1990
EFFECTIVE APPLICATIONS OF PSYCHOLOGY IN EDUCATION
Fernlea, Glendower and Lindum Hotels, St Anne's-on-Sea, Near Blackpool

KEYNOTE SPEAKERS will be:
Tony Dessent - Principal Educational Psychologist, Nottinghamshire
Dave Kearney - Psychologist with OFD Consultants
Peter Miltier - Professor of Special Education, University of Manchester
Valerie Walkerdine - Senior Lecturer in Psychology, Birmingham Polytechnic

WORKSHOPS AND SEMINARS will include:
Psychology and Personal Well-being
Poor supervision for EPs; beyond stress management; therapeutic groupwork with teenagers; story-telling as a treatment option; teacher support groups; prescriptive social skills programmes; bullying - is there anything we can do?; the child as self - three case studies; from TA to teacher appraisal; Rational Emotive Therapy; relaxation techniques workshops for children; stress in care - boys in O&A centres; stress and women in education.

Psychology and Effective Learning
Identifying special needs and providing IEPs through a whole-school approach; a menu of materials for parents preparing their young children for school; Was the Gorbil a Marxist mole? - some thoughts on ERA and the possible response from EPs; individual programmes: university and the National Curriculum; assessing specific learning difficulties; primary science - genetic epistemology in the classroom; results of the DECP national inquiry into specific learning difficulties.

Psychology and Partnership
Working with parents; partnership with Governors; what parents want to know; home-based reinforcement in secondary schools; troubles in services - problems of inadequate partnership; development of within-team support processes; joint working to develop services for the mentally handicapped; Pathfinder project; co-working in support of integration.

COST:
Full course residential (DECP member) £160; (Non-DECP) £170
Full course non-residential (DECP member) £110; (Non-DECP) £120
Application forms and further details available from:
Valerie Bull/Sue Tewley
The British Psychological Society
St Andrews House
46 Princess Road East
Leicester LE1 7DR

DIVISION OF EDUCATIONAL AND CHILD PSYCHOLOGY
NOTICE OF ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING: 1990
Notice is hereby given that the Annual General Meeting of the Division of Educational and Child Psychology will be held during the 1990 DECP course, 2-5 January 1990 (the exact date and time to be announced later) at the Fernlea, Glendower and Lindum Hotels, St Anne's-on-Sea, near Blackpool. Resolution items for the AGM and nominations for vacancies on the committee must be received by 16 November 1989.

CALL FOR NOMINATIONS
Nominations are invited for:
Honorary Secretary: To be elected for three years. (The present Honorary Secretary, Ms J. Feinmann and Mr M. Gledhill who have both served for three years.) According to Rule 18 they are eligible for re-election.
Committee Members: To be elected for three years. (The retiring Committee Members are Ms J. Feinmann and Mr M. Gledhill who have both served for three years.) According to Rule 18 they are eligible for re-election. There is a further vacancy on the Committee.

Nominations for the above vacancies should be sent to the Honorary Secretary at the Society's offices to reach her not later than 16 November 1989. The nominations require a Proposer and Secunder who must be Full Members of the Division and the consent of the nominee to accept office if elected, must be obtained in writing.

PSYCHOLOGY OF WOMEN
CALL FOR NOMINATIONS FOR 1990
Nominations are invited for:
Chair-elect (normally to become Chair in 1991, and Vice Chair in 1992)
Chair (a one-year term)
Honorary Secretary
Honorary Treasurer
Six committee members

Valid nominations require a proposer and a seconder who are Members of the Section and the written consent of the nominee to accept office, if elected. Nominations must reach the Honorary Secretary, Dr Jane Ussher, School of Cultural and Community Studies, Sussex University, Falmer, Brighton BN1 9QN, by 10 November. The election will take place by ballot, if required, and the results announced at the Annual General Meeting at the London Conference.

PSYCHOTHERAPY SECTION
The AGM will be held at 2 pm on Saturday 3 February, 1990 at 1 Daleham Gardens, London NW3 5QY
Nominations are invited for election of Chair-elect, Honorary Secretary, Honorary Treasurer, and ordinary members of the Section Committee. Any two or more members of the Section may nominate candidates, and these nominations, together with the written consent of the nominees to accept office if elected, should be deposited with the Honorary Secretary, by 23 December 1989, at the latest
The AGM will be preceded by a Scientific Meeting in the morning, and following the AGM Anthea Keller, Chair-elect, will address the Section. Further details will appear at a later date, and are available from Cassie Cooper, Student Counselling and Welfare Service, Harrow C of FE, Harrow HA1 3TP
Richard Marshall, Hon Sec
Nottingham Psychological Service
Community Unit
Memorial House
Standard Hill
Nottingham NG1 6FX

PSYCHOTHERAPY SECTION
CONFERENCE
Saturday 18 November 1989
PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES ON AGE AND TIME
Speakers include:
Phil Cohen - "Young Heads, Old Shoulders, Models of Age in a 'Post Modern' World"
Cassie Cooper - "On Hearing the First Cuckoo in Autumn"
Tom Kitwood - "Psychotherapy with Demented People"
Phil Salmon - "On Being in the Run-up to 60" Venue:
The Institute of Complementary Medicine
21 Portland Place
London W1N 3AF
Fee for the day: £15 (includes coffee, tea and lunch)
Details from:
Cassie Cooper
Harrow College of Higher Education
Northwick Park
Watford Road
Harrow HA1 3TP
Tel: 01 846 8422 Ext 223

DIVISION OF CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY
RESEARCH INTEREST GROUP
Research Issues in Health Psychology
1 December 1989
Prestwich Hospital, Manchester
10.30 am - 4.00 pm
Dr Chris Mair on back pain
Dr Glynn Owens on breast cancer
Dr Derek Johnston on cardiac problems
Dr John Green on AIDS
£20 including lunch and coffee
Applications with cheque for £20 made payable to the Research Interest Group of the DCP to:
Mr David Kirkby
Regional Secure Unit
St Bernard's Wing
Ealing Hospital
Uxbridge Road
Southall
Middlesex UB1 3EU

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DIVISION OF OCCUPATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
NOTICE OF ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING AND CALL FOR NOMINATIONS
Notice is hereby given that the Annual General Meeting of the Division of Occupational Psychology will be held during the Occupational Psychology Conference, 3-5 January 1990, at the Belfield and New England hotels, Bowness-on-Windermere, Cumbria when Annual Reports will be presented and business transacted. We are therefore asking for resolution items for the Annual General Meeting and nominations which must be received by 17 November 1989.
Nominations for the election of the Chair-Elect, Honorary Secretary, Honorary Treasurer and Committee Members (three vacancies each for three years) should be sent to the Honorary Secretary at the Society's office to arrive no later than 17 November 1989. The nominations require a Proposer and Seconder, who must be Full Members of the Division and the consent of the nominee to accept office, if elected, must be obtained in writing.
Roger Miles has served for one year as Honorary Secretary and is eligible for re-election. Tony Jackson is a retiring Committee member, therefore asking for resolution items for the Division and the consent of the nominee to accept office, if elected, must be obtained in writing.
Journals of the British Psychological Society cont...
News of Members

RICHARD BALL, formerly Principal Clinical Psychologist with Sandwell Health Authority, has taken up appointment as Head of Psychology Services for People with Learning Difficulties (Top Grade), Coventry Health Authority from August 1989.

MALCOLM BALLANTINE, formerly Lecturer in Occupational Psychology at Birkbeck College, has been appointed Senior Consultant at Wakefield Training and Development Ltd, 61-63 St John Street, London EC1 M 4AN, Tel: 01 253 2340.

CHRISTINE BLINCOE, formerly Senior Lecturer in Education at the University of Leicester, has been appointed Senior Lecturer in Psychology at the University of Aberdeen, and now Senior Research Fellow, The Sydney Hospital, Albion Street AIDS Centre, Sydney, Australia, has received the 1989 Newman Award for excellence in AIDS research.

DR ROBERT A. BOAKES has recently moved to Australia to take up a Professorship at the University of Sydney. His address is: Firs Clinic, Firs Lane, Smethwick, Walsall, West Midlands B67 6AE.

DR ROBERT HENDRY, Head of Department, University of Birmingham, has been awarded a Personal Chair in Education from 1 July 1989.

PROFESSOR PETER HERRIOT will be Director of Research, Sundridge Park Management Centre from 1 January 1990.

DR CLIVE HOLLIN, formerly of the University of Leicester, has been appointed Senior Lecturer in Psychology at the University of Birmingham, seconded part-time as Research Psychologist at Glenthorpe Youth Treatment Centre, Birmingham. He can be contacted at the School of Psychology, University of Birmingham, PO Box 363, Birmingham B15 2TT, Tel: 021 414 4937 and at Glenthorpe YTC, Kingsbury Road, Erdington, Birmingham B24 9SA, Tel: 021 382 5909.

DR CHARLES JACKSON has left the School of Psychology in Cardiff to join the Institute of Manpower Studies at the University of Sussex.

COMMITTEE SKILLS WORKSHOP

A workshop on Committee Skills will be held on Tuesday 19 December 1989 at the Institute of Education, Bedford Way, London (during the Society's London Conference). The Workshop will be led by Kathleen Cox an Educational Psychologist, and is sponsored by the Society's Standing Committee on Communications. There will be no charge for the Workshop and numbers will be limited. For details and a registration form, which must be returned by 17 November 1989, write to: Stephen White, Director of Information, The British Psychological Society, 48 Princess Road East, Leicester LE1 7DR.

DR PAMELA KENEALY, formerly Lecturer in the School of Psychology, University of Wales College of Cardiff, took up a Lectureship in the Department of Psychology, University College of Swansea, Singleton Park, Swansea SA2 8PP on 1 September 1989.

DR VIVIEN J. LEWIS, formerly Senior Clinical Psychologist with Wolverhampton Health Authority, has been appointed Principal Clinical Psychologist with Shropshire Health Authority from November 1989.

DR STEPHEN PAYNE has left the Psychology and Computing Departments at Lancaster University to take up a research post at the IBM Thomas J. Watson Research Center, Box 704, Yorktown Heights, NY 10598, USA.

DR MICHAEL ROSS, formerly Senior Lecturer in Psychiatry at the Flinders University Medical School, Adelaide, and now Senior Research Fellow, The Sydney Hospital, Albion Street AIDS Centre, Sydney, Australia, has received the 1989 Newman Award for excellence in AIDS research.

MARK SINGLETON, formerly Principal Clinical Psychologist, Airedale Health Authority, Department of Clinical Psychology, has taken up a post as District Clinical Psychologist, Bury Health Authority.

DR GEOFFREY L. THORPE, Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of Maine, has been awarded a Diploma in Behavioral Therapy by the American Board of Behavioral Psychology.

MARK TRUeman, formerly Section Leader and Senior Lecturer in the School of Health Sciences, Wolverhampton Polytechnic, has returned to the University of Keele as a Lecturer in the Department of Psychology.

Psychology and Physical Disability in the National Health Service

Report of the Professional Affairs Board British Psychological Society

1989

The full, 120 page version of this report is now complete and will soon be available £5, including postage.

If you require a copy, a quick response would be appreciated.

Please send request and cheque for £5 made payable to “The BPS” to:

The British Psychological Society
48 Princess Road East
Leicester LE1 7DR

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ADVERTISEMENTS

ADVERTISERS' ANNOUNCEMENTS

The publication of an advertisement by the Society is neither an endorsement of the advertiser nor of the products and services advertised. Advertisers may not incorporate in a subsequent advertisement or promotional piece the fact that a product or service has been advertised in The Psychologist. The Society reserves the right to reject or cancel any advertisement without notice.

For details of rates and how to submit advertisements, please contact our agents:
T.G. Scott,
30-32 Southampton Street,
London, WC2.
01-240-2032

Chartered Psychologists

Advertisements for services offered by Chartered Psychologists and those for whom they take responsibility may be placed in this section upon request, at no extra charge.

Courses and Workshops

Counselling Skills Workshops and Courses: 7 November, £40; 27-28 November, £69; 14-20 December (Th 7 F M T W), £200. 14 November (for past participants only), £30. Finchley, N3

Stress Management Workshop: 20 November, £50. London, WC1

Further information, dates and application forms from:
Dr S Delroy, C.Psychol., AFBPsS
3 Northumberland House
237 Ballards Lane
Finchley
London N3 1LB
Tel: 01 346 4010

Integrative Redecision Therapy

Incorporating Bioenergetics, TA and Gestalt

Two residential Workshops led by Silvio Silvestri from South Lake Tahoe, California

These are Dr Silvestri's first workshops in Europe

He will run a therapy workshop on 16-19 April 1990 in Edenbridge, Kent followed by a training workshop for counsellors and therapists on 23-30 September 1990.

For more details contact:
Joanna Beazley Richards
Moonsirens
Blackmore Road
East Sussex TN5 2LP
Tel: 0622 655195

Fifth International Conference on Personal Relationships

15-20 July at St Catherine's College, Oxford

(Sponsored by the Psychology Department, Lancaster University, and the International Society for the Study of Personal Relationships.)

The conference will cover all aspects of the study of personal and social relationships over the life cycle, including taxonomy, development and growth, disorders and disengagement, dissolution and repair. Previous conferences have been distinguished by the presentation of research from a wide diversity of backgrounds, including clinical, social, and developmental psychology, communications, soci­ology, anthropology and philosophy.

Invited participants include:
Michael Argyle, Oxford; Grazia Attili, Rome; Hans Bloch, Fribourg; Arthur Bochner, Florida; Jenny de Jong Gierveld, Amsterdam; Robert Hinde, Cambridge; Ted Huston, Texas; Hal Kelley, UCLA; George Levinger, Amherst; Harry Reis, Rochester.

Call for Papers:
In addition to the invited addresses, the programme will consist of reviewed symposia, thematic paper sessions or workshops, and individual papers and posters.

Proposals are invited in the above categories. Submissions should consist of 500 word summaries for individual papers and posters, with an additional 500 word overview from conveners in the case of symposia and thematic paper sessions. Authors' names and addresses should be attached on a separate cover sheet in all cases. Submission of proposals via Bitnet is especially welcomed, though in that event, a backup hardcopy should also be sent. Alternatively, five copies of each submission should be mailed.

The deadline for submission is 15 December 1989.

All proposals and enquiries should be sent to the Conference Organiser:
Robin Gilmour
Psychology Department
Fyle College
University of Lancaster
Lancaster LA1 4YF

Bitnet Number:
PASO11@UK.AC.LANCs.CENT1
Tel: 0254 65201 Ext 3574
(direct line for touch tone phones: 0254 66545 Ext 3574; mailbox no 3574)

University College London Psychoanalysis Unit

Conference on Shame: Theoretical and Clinical Aspects

2-3 February 1990

The conference will take place at University College London. The following papers will be presented and there will be ample time for discussion from the floor.

Malcolm Pines - The University of Shame: A Psychoanalytic Approach
Clifford Yorke - The Development and Function of the Sense of Shame

John Steiner - Discussion

The chair will be taken by Joseph Sandler, Freud Memorial Professor of Psychoanalysis.

The conference fee is £59 for registration before 31 December 1989. The fee for late registration will be £75.

In addition, application forms for awards should be sent to:
The Conference Secretary
Psychoanalysis Unit
UCL
26 Bedford Way
London WC1H OAP

Three-Day Course In Withdrawal-Oriented Therapy for Smokers

Institute of Psychiatry and the Maudsley Hospital, London

7-9 February 1990

This course consists of morning lectures by leading experts in smoking research and therapy (Russell, Jarvis, West, Hajek, Sut­ton) and afternoon workshops fo­cussed on teaching practical skills and methods of treatment.

Course fee is £95. Certificate on completion.

Applications and enquiries to:
Ms W Boyle
Addiction Research Unit
Deer Park Hill
London SES 8AF
Tel: 01 703 5411 Ext 3447

Managing Groups

18th Annual Training Laboratory of the Group Relations Training Association

2-7 January 1990

The course is held at the University of Manchester.

An opportunity to learn through five days' experience of group pro­cess about the tasks of managing self and others in groups. It will allow members to:
- develop new ways of understanding what happens in both small and large groups
- receive helpful feedback on how their behaviours are seen and experienced by others
- exercise leadership in a group and monitor the impact on self and others

The event is fully residential and will comprise a series of experiences in small and large groups. Everyone will be a member of a group of eight to twelve members, each with two trainers to assist the group in reflecting on its own process.

Details and application forms from:
David Jaques
7 Stanley Road
Oxford OX4 10Y
Tel: 0865 724141

South Manchester - Rehabilitation Demonstration Centre

TRENT POLYTECHNIC

New name
Trent Polytechnic has changed its name to Nottingham Polytechnic with effect from Monday 25 Sep­tember 1989.

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Society for Research into Higher Education

The Society for Research into Higher Education invites members to apply for Fellowship or Associateship of the Society.

Applications or nominations should be accompanied by a statement of qualifications and achievements, and the names of two persons who may be consulted by the Awards Panel. They should be received by the Honorary Secretary of the Society at Guildford by 1 March 1990.

The criteria for these awards are set out in "Notes for Applicants", obtainable on request from the SRHE office. In general, a Fellowship of the Society will be awarded where there is evidence of a sustained and significant contribution to knowledge and understanding of higher education. An Associateship will be awarded for a demonstrable contribution, especially from younger workers in the field.

Full details from:
SRHE At The University
Guildford GU2 5XH
Tel: 0483 390003
Fax: 0483 300803

First International Conference on Psychology and the Performing Arts
Institute of Psychiatry, London
5-7 July 1990
Abstracts and enquiries:
Dr Glenn Wilson
Institute of Psychiatry
De Crespigny Park
London SE5 8AF
Tel: 01 703 5411 Ext 3254

Treating the Aggressive Client
London: 20-21 November 1989
A two-day course on anger control techniques which have been successfully used to treat violent individuals.
Details from:
Dr Barry McGurk
Psychological Services
Horton Way
Farnham

Royal Society Lecture
The Ferrier Lecture
Side Glances at Blindsight: Recent approaches to implicit discrimination in human cortical blindness
By Professor L. Weiskrantz, F.R.S., Professor of Psychology in the University of Oxford. Wednesday 15 November 1989, 5.30 pm.
At University College London, Chemistry Auditorium, The Christopher Ingold Building, 2 Gordon Street, London WC1.
All are welcome to attend.
Details:
Tel: 01 380 7558 (The Vice-President, University College London)

Harley Street
Fully serviced sessional consulting rooms available on short licence within totally refurbished period building.
Services include full office back-up, medical equipment, disabled persons' lift, qualified nursing support and booking and reception service.
For further information call:
Fiona Hammond
01 436 5252
Carlton Healthcare Ltd
10 Harley Street
London W1N 1AA
Fax: 01 637 5227

Unblocking Assertive Actions
A Change Strategies Workshop: facilitated by Rose Evison
Friday 16 February 1990, 10.15-17.15 in Sheffield
Developing the Whole Person in their Job or Life Context
Participants will work on real situations where they wish to behave differently in the future, using practical methods which can be continued afterwards. The methods will be of interest to applied psychologists.
The practical work illustrates the principle of reinforcing optimum learning strategies by removing or reducing interfering intra-psychic blocks (rigid responses).
Cost: £80, BPS members £45.
Further details from:
Rose Evison, C. Psychol, AFBS
5 Victoria Road
Broomhall
Sheffield S10 2D3
Tel: 0742 686371

22nd International Congress of Applied Psychology
Kyoto, Japan
22-27 July 1990
For further information contact:
Professor Yasuhisa Nagayama
Secretary General of the Local Organising Committee
22 ICAP
PO Box 38, Suita-Senri
Osaka 565
Japan

The Advertising Standards Authority.
We're here to put it right.
The Psychologist
November 1989

ADVERTISEMENTS
HYPNOSIS COURSE (ERICKSONIAN)

TWO WEEKEND INTENSIVE
at St. Ann's Hospital, London
18th/19th/25th/26th Nov

★ PRACTICAL SKILLS
★ CLINICAL DEMONSTRATIONS
★ CERTIFICATION

For brochure please write or telephone:
British Hypnosis Research
8 Paston Place
Brighton BN2 1HA
Tel: (0273) 693622

THE 3rd BRITISH BRAIN MAPPING CONFERENCE
at the
INSTITUTE OF PSYCHIATRY
De Crespigny Park, Denmark Hill, London SE5 8AF
28th and 29th NOVEMBER 1989

A two day conference to present the clinical experience obtained with Topographic Brain Mapping Systems for both spontaneous ECG activity and Evoked Potential Analysis in hospitals and clinics.

Day 1 - Speakers:
Dr Horace Townsend - U.K.
Dr Bruce MacGillivray - U.K.
Dr Kurt Lohmann - West Germany
Prof. Roy McClelland - U.K.
Dr Paul McCullagh -U.K. Dr Michael Sedgwick U.K.
Prof. Graham Harding - U.K.
Dr Roger Thornton - U.K.
Prof. Francois Maugierre - France Dr David Wadbrook - U.K.

Day 2 - Hands-on Experience
Cost of the conference is £40.00 for
Day 1 and £25 for Day 2 - space on
Day 2 is limited and therefore early registration is essential.

Registration and enquiries to:
Dr Peter Fenwick, Institute of Psychiatry, De Crespigny Park,
Denmark Hill, London SE5 8AF
Telephone 01-703-5411

Anyone wishing to present a POSTER
should contact Dr Peter Fenwick at the above.

THE TEACHING OF WRITING, SPELLING AND READING
1990 is International Literacy Year. On Saturday 6th January
1990, at the CHESTER INTERNATIONAL HOTEL,
Chester, (Cheshire, England) a one day course has been
organised to draw attention to an exciting new way of teaching
writing, spelling and reading. Evidence, much of it recorded on video, indicates that the pack
would be extremely useful for those who work with, or have responsibilities for, the under 5's,
school-age children (especially those working within the National Curriculum) and adults. The
course also includes substantial reference to the teaching of dyslexics and shows how a single teacher can use the
SIMPLE STEPS PACK to teach large classes.

For further details send an S.A.E. to
THE SIMPLE STEPS PACK COURSE, WRITETRACK, 11A
Kilmory Park, Hoole,
CHESTER, Cheshire, England,
U.K. CH2 3QS

WANTED

Psychology Instruments

Cambridge
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Pursuit Rotors
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Forth Psychology Instruments Ltd
11 Brewster Square
Brucefield Industrial Estate,
Livingston, West Lothian
Tel: 0506 418500

November 1989

The Psychologist
MyoTrac™
rapid scanning.

THIS IS WHAT EMG MONITORING SHOULD BE

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MyoTrac™ Monitor gives instant, precise visual feedback through a nine-segment LED bar graph. Each of the nine LED's varies in intensity, providing an infinite range of visual feedback. Tone feedback is available in 3 ways including: proportional, threshold and alarm. The 'alarm' option alerts when the threshold is exceeded for more than 3 seconds . . . effective in nocturnal monitoring. Adjustable volume can be monitored through the internal speaker or earphone.

Myotrac is available by mail order direct from SURGICON LTD. Simply fill in the coupon below and send to:

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☐ MyoTrac EMG Monitor (£300) + £10.00 plus VAT including postage and packing.
☐ Please send me further information

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Tel. No.
☐ Cheque enclosed ☐ Access ☐ Visa
☐ Card No: ________________
☐ Signature

I understand that I can return this product within 30 days if not entirely satisfied.
11-12 Basic Training Course in Hypnosis. West Midlands Society of Hypnotherapy and Psychotherapy. Details: Dr D. Evans (021 327 6401). (See Sep 89.)

13-14 Gestalt Fundamentals Course. Details: metanoia (01 579 2505). (See Nov 89.)


14 Continuation One-Day Workshop. Finchley, London. Details: Dr S. Delroy (01 346 4010). (See Nov 89.)

14 Expressing Ourselves Thru Images: Body Images - day workshop. Details: J. Isaacs (01 876 5223). (See Sep 89.)

15 The Ferrier Lecture. University College London. Details: The Vice-Provost (01 380 7558). (See Nov 89.)

15-16 Ourselves as Carers - workshop. Details: The National Hospital's College of Speech Sciences (01 837 0112). (See Jun 89.)

15-17 Introduction to Repertory Grids - workshop. Details: Centre for Personal Construct Psychology (01 834 8675). (See Oct 89.)

17 Nocturnal Enuresia: Sharing New Research and Practice - conference. London. Details: Enuresis Resource and Information Centre Secretariat, 65 West Drive, Sutton SM2 7NB. (See July 89.)

18 Psychological Perspectives on Age and Time - workshop. Society of Hypnotherapy and Psychotherapy. London. Details: C. Cooper (01 864 5422 Ext 223). (See Nov 89.)

19-19, 25-26 Ericksonian Hypnosis Course. London. Details: British Hypnosis Research (0273 693622). (See Nov 89.)

20 Stress Management Workshop. London. Details: Dr S. Delroy (01 346 4010). (See Nov 89.)


20-21 Treating the Aggressive Client - course. London. Details: B. Mcguirk (0322 85654). (See Oct 89.)

21 National Group of Graduate Psychologists (with Special Interest in Clinical Psychology) - meeting. Leicester. Details: L. Foster (0533 883481 Ext 347). (See Nov 89.)

21-24 Nov, 13-15 Dec, 17-19 Jan 3 Unit Basic General Course. Details: Centre for Personal Construct Psychology (01 834 8675). (See Oct 89.)

22 Family Therapy with Orthodox Jewish Families - meeting. Jewish Mental Health Group. Details: 01 431 3916 or 01 670 9061 (evns). (See Sep 89.)


23-26 Psychology and Psychologists Today - conference. 2nd Convention of Portuguese Psychologists Association. Lisbon, Portugal. Details: Dr L.S. Almeida (010 351 2 9835963). (See Jun 89.)

24 Educational Reform and Legislative Changes - The implications for Educational Psychology in Scotland: SDECP and ASPEP. Glasgow. Details: T. Williams, c/o The Psychological Society, 2 Donaldson Avenue, Saltcoats KA21 5AG. (See Oct 89.)


27 Implementing Preventive Support Services for Schizophrenia - conference. London. Details: Research Secretary, MIND (01 637 0741). (See Sep 89.)

27-28 Counselling Skills Workshop. Finchley, London. Details: Dr S. Delroy (01 346 4010). (See Nov 89.)

29 Welsh Branch Scientific Meeting and AGM. Alcohol, Other Drugs, and the Family in Cross-cultural Perspective. Pontypool. Details: Dr G. Penny (0443 495490 Ext 2560).

29-30 3rd British Brain Mapping Conference. Details: P. Ferguson, Institute of Psychiatry (01 703 5411). (See Nov 89.)
A Balance Sheet on Bathing

Nicky Hayes reports on recent investigations into a widespread human behaviour.

Many theories have been proposed to explain that ubiquitous human activity: bathing. Psychoanalysts argue that bathing represents a return to the warm, immersing fluids of the mother's womb - satisfying a perpetual craving for that ambience and security lost for ever during the birth trauma. Nativists perceive in bathing an innate behaviour pattern, marginally modifiable by cultural factors (like whether to bath daily or just on Saturday nights), but essentially universal. Empiricists hotly dispute this: if bathing is innate, they say, then why the struggle to get certain children to engage in the activity?

Bathing is a problematic area, involving complex cognitive and behavioural patterns. For example: one of the first behaviours involved in the process of Having a Bath is that of causing the necessary Fluid to accumulate in the Bathtub. Here, we can distinguish two explicit and mutually exclusive behavioural strategies. The first, which we shall refer to as Water Before Self (WBS), consists of accumulating water in the bathtub without the simultaneous presence of the individual. WBS individuals show wide variation in their proximity to the Bathtub. Some remain very close to the water, occupying their time gazing pensively at the filling bath. (The hypothesis has been put forward that these individuals are, in fact, highly anxious about the potential spontaneous generation of supernatral beings in their absence. Having heard of Venus arising from the foam, they are taking good care to be around should it happen again.) Other WBS individuals, by contrast, remove themselves totally from the vicinity (often to go and make a cup of coffee for in-bath ingestion). It has been proposed (Tryitt & Dairing, 1982) that these are stimulus-seeking individuals, introducing an element of risk to an otherwise mundane procedure by courting forgetfulness.

An alternative to the WBS strategy of bath-filling behaviour is the SBW technique: Self Before Water. This involves the initial placement of the Self in the bathtub, with the subsequent addition of the necessary fluid; although Phrothy, Fome and Bubbells (1986) did demonstrate that most SBW individuals do in fact place a certain amount of Fluid in the bath first, but add the remainder after getting in. Bubbells and Skweeue (1977) had earlier showed that the SBW technique involves considerable agitation of the Limbs. The sociobiologists Courte & Imprint (1978) argue that this activity represents a primitive yet demanding attempt to swim (or fly): an innate behaviour pattern initiated by close proximity to the Fluid. Many psychologists, however, express uncertainty about that notion. A physicist of my acquaintance once suggested that the behaviour might represent an attempt by the individual to achieve optimal temperature levels by means of fluid agitation, but this hypothesis has yet to be empirically supported.

SBW individuals manage to avoid, almost completely, a dilemma which is highly problematic for WBS subjects. Specifically, this dilemma consists of the decision as to whether to Leap Into the Bath from a Great Height, or whether, instead to Step Sedately over the side and slide into the water. In interview, our subjects indicated clearly that the former strategy is the more enjoyable strategy, yet empirical investigations imply that it is actually quite rare. A possible explanation for this puzzling anomaly may be found in the negative valence ascribed to subsequent removal of superfluous Fluid from the vicinity of the Bathtub, as an inhibiting variable in the Leaping strategy. Interesting issues are raised by this observation, in terms of the validity of operant conditioning as a universal behaviour determinant. Superficially, after all, the individual should adopt the more rewarding strategy. Clearly further research is needed here.

While it appears that the majority of individuals do adopt the use of Soap, it seems that there is wide variation in the utilisation of Artificial Aids - sponges, flannels, etc. Some subjects appear to use a wide range of Implements such as loofahs, nailbrushes, facecloths etc.; while others appear to use none whatsoever, or very few. Splashe and Scrubbbitt (1988) have suggested that implement Users are, in fact, highly extraverted individuals with a very low boredom threshold. By thus varying the stimulus, they are able to reduce the time spent on any one individual activity and so remain in the bath for a longer period of time. (Time spent bathing is the subject of one of our current research projects. We hope to be able to report on it in the near future.)

Another decision concerns the crucial question: Hairwashing or Not? Our research produced some remarkable examples of set and rigorously defended attitudes here. Non-Hair-Washers (NHWs) tended to adopt what can loosely be grouped as "hygiene reasons", with a small minority who produced justifications in terms of the plumbing arrangements of the system. NHWs also showed an intense emotional rejection of the idea. By contrast, the Hair-Washers (HWs) justified their behaviour almost entirely in terms of convenience; but showed little aversion to the NHW activities. It is interesting that remarkably few individuals appear to engage in Tooth-Cleaning Behaviour while bathing, whether they are HWs or not.

A final decision concerns the removal of Self from the Bath. The majority trend here is to remove the Self first, and the Bath-Water later, but a significant number of individuals appear to utilise this procedure in reverse. Interview responses described laundry-reduction as a positive consequence of drying through evaporation for the latter group, but behavioural observations suggest an inertia variable, which did not emerge from the interviews.

Our research is continuing, and we hope soon to be able to report on some exciting new developments in this field.

References


Note: This paper is adapted from an article which first appeared in the Association for the Teaching of Psychology's Handbook for Psychology Students, 1982.

Nicky Hayes is a Chartered Psychologist, teacher and examiner.
Handbook of the Psychophysiology of Human Eating
Edited by R. SHEPHERD, AFRC Institute of Food Research, Norwich, UK
Eating is an important part of the lives of all humans – it is necessary to sustain life and is closely bound up with cultural and social function – this book looks at the psychophysiology of eating and in so doing brings together work from many branches of psychology. The distinguished contributors represent a broad spectrum of approaches to eating: from the study of neural processes affecting food intake, through the experimental manipulation of taste and other sensory properties of food, developmental processes and influences, the influence of outlets or behaviour and health, psychosocial states, clinical and research studies of weight control, to socio-cultural influences on food characteristics and nutritional behaviour.

Job Control and Worker Health
Edited by S.L. SALTER and J.J. HURRELL, both of National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health, USA, and C.L. COOPER, University of Manchester, UK
This book, written by scientists with international reputations for their research in the field of worker control and occupational stress/health, represents the first major effort to systematically review and appraise this expanding research field. Specifically, the book documents what is currently known about the influence of job (i.e., worker) control on worker well-being. The contributors address the theoretical bases and mechanisms of this influence and examine the implications of modern work practices for worker control and worker health.

Childhood Illness: The Psychosomatic Approach
Children Talking with their Bodies
B. LASE, Hospital for Sick Children, London, UK and A. FOSNOM, University of Kentucky, USA
This is a practical guide to the assessment and treatment of children who have physical symptoms but in whom stress or distress is playing a major role. The authors, a child psychiatrist and a paediatrician, both with wide clinical and research experience, present a current view on childhood illness.

Stress, Personal Control and Health
Edited by A. STEFFOE, St George's Hospital Medical School, UK, and A. APPELS, University of Limburg, The Netherlands
This book concerns the role that control plays in modulating the effects of stressful experiences on health. Over the last few years, evidence has been growing in many disciplines indicating that control, lack of control and loss of control are central concepts in linking behaviour and emotion with disease. Experimental investigations have shown that control over aversive stimulation has profound effects on autonomic, endocrine and immunological responses, and may influence the pathological processes involved in a range of diseases.

Advances in Cognitive Science
Volume 2: Theory and Applications
Edited by G. TIBBERGHEN, University of Grenoble II, France
This book presents recent advances in fundamental and applied cognitive science and gives a summary of original works planned by high level researchers in this field.

Personality and Environment
Assessment of Human Adaptation
Edited by P.J. HETHEMA, Tilburg University, The Netherlands
Understanding how individuals react to different situations has long been a key concern in psychology. This book deals primarily with the relationship of personality to the question of consistency of behaviour and the adaptation of behaviour to situations and environment.

Helping Older People
C. TWINING, Whitchurch Hospital, Cardiff, UK
This book covers both normal ageing and the problems which can arise for older people as individuals and as members of families and other groups. It shows in straightforward language how the application of psychological principles can help those working with older people to meet their needs.

Panic Disorder
Theory, Research and Therapy
Edited by E. BAKER, Grantham Health Board, UK
This book, about panic disorder and panic attacks, consists of chapters written by a team of international authors working in this field – psychologists, psychiatrists and a physician – who discuss the major advances in the psychological understanding and treatment of panic which have been made during the 1980s.

The Family Mental Health Encyclopedia
F.J. BRUNO
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Edited by T.J. BERNSTEDT and G.W. LAU, Purdue University, Indiana, USA
The past decade has seen tremendous growth in general research on the characteristics of childhood and adolescent peer relationships. But what do we know about the contributions of peer relationships, and how can we learn more about the role of peers in children's development? Peer Relationships in Child Development presents the stimulating answers of today's leading researchers and development psychologists in the field.

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C. TWINING, Whickham Hospital, Cardiff, UK
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Grief
The Mourning After
Dealing with Adult Bereavement
C. SANDERS, Charlotte, North Carolina, USA
In this groundbreaking, clinically oriented examination of grief and loss, caregivers and health professionals will gain a better understanding of the process of bereavement. The book focuses throughout on practical applications for caregiving to those suffering from grief.

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