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## Editorial

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In this third issue of the current volume of the Bulletin we continue and broaden the themes of articles in previous issues with contributions from Andrea Abele on gender differences in career progression and by Maykel Verkuyten on reactions to ethnic minorities. Future articles are planned, and we are open to suggestions for additional articles or themes. As 'Europe' becomes more inclusive of former eastern bloc countries an interesting question is how social psychology teaching and research has developed in those, and other, countries. To capture some of this important aspect of the history of European social psychology, Maria Jarymowicz is inviting short articles from researchers (see page 58).

In this issue we also have reports from three small group meetings. We plan to publish the abstracts of papers from Association meetings on an annual basis in a separate volume of the Bulletin.

Also in this issue are several reviews of new books. Reactions to my invitations to review books have been very positive and I'd like to thank the reviewers who have contributed so far. I hope that this aspect of the Bulletin will continue to provide timely and insightful commentary on current work in social psychology. If you are about to publish a book that you think will be of interest to EAESP members please let me know so that it can be considered for review. Also, if you are burning to write a review of a book (either that you love or hate!) please feel free to contact me.

The Association invites nominations for the next Editor of the European Journal of Social Psychology, which will commence in 2002. Please see page 46 of the *ProFile* for details of the procedure.

There are a couple of additional dates and developments to note. First, we have decided to move the deadlines for applications for small group and medium sized meetings to March 1<sup>st</sup> and September 1<sup>st</sup>. This will allow the Executive Committee time to review the applications prior to their

meeting, and also to request additional information from the proposers if required. One further meeting has been approved for 2001, the announcement will be published in the next issue of the Bulletin. Applications for personal grants can be received at any time.

Meanwhile, our first SPSSI/EAESP medium sized meeting on prejudice and racism is also going ahead (see *EBSP*, 12, 2, p. 44), and we hope that more will follow. Please refer to the web page for application details:  
[www.eaesp.org](http://www.eaesp.org)

A reminder that the Association is sponsoring international teaching fellowships in conjunction with SPSP. It is our intention that these should alternately be hosted by European and North American departments. The aims of this scheme are: a) to foster international cooperation between members of these two organisations; b) to provide an opportunity for groups of graduate students to receive intensive specialist education from an academic expert from overseas; c) to provide an opportunity to build links between groups of researchers and research institutions within a geographical region. For the first fellowship Mark Snyder was invited to Kiel by Bernd Simon. A report of this (very successful) event will be in the next Bulletin. For the next Fellowship, Charles M. Judd has been invited to Clermont-Ferrand by Markus Brauer. Both of these events are Europe-based, so we are keen that applications should now come for fellowships in North America. Please check the website or *EBSP*, 12, 1, pp. 50/51 for further details.

The Executive Committee is considering developing the teaching fellowship scheme for other activities within European countries. Because of the great popularity and demand for places in the Summer School, it seems that there would be some support for supplementing the Summer School with occasional smaller scale activities. We plan to publish formal details of a scheme in the next Bulletin. Meanwhile, we envisage it will be called something along the lines of 'European Workshops in Advanced Social Psychology' (EWASP). These will probably take the form of 1 week workshops for 15-20 graduate students. Each workshop will be organised by one or two local teachers and would be supported by fellowships for one or two visiting teachers and support for travel costs of around 10 students. The workshops will be thematic and will be designed to teach

advanced methodology, skills and theory, possibly on specific topics within social psychology. It is quite likely that such workshops could be attached to other activities of the Association (or other organisations), such as Small Group meetings, so as to maximize the convenience and benefits for students. If you would like to set up one of these workshops please contact a member of the Executive Committee.

The website is being developed gradually, and we would welcome any suggestions you have for useful links. Please also take the opportunity to include a link from your own web page to the EAESP site.

Finally, we are very pleased to be able to announce that the next General Meeting of the Association will take place in San Sebastian Donostia from June 24<sup>th</sup> to 28<sup>th</sup>, 2002. Further details will be available in the next few months.

Dominic Abrams  
Editor

## Article

*The Benefits to Social Psychology of Studying Ethnic Minorities*by Maykel Verkuyten<sup>1)</sup>

Issues of ethnicity, migration and multiculturalism are hotly debated in many European countries. The growing number of people who migrate to Western Europe, and seek asylum or refuge here, poses many political, legal, social and economic questions. In addition, there are social psychological questions, such as issues of communication, acculturation, integration, 'new' and 'subtle' racism, ethnic identity and inter-group relations. However, European social psychologists have not devoted much attention to ethnic issues, although there are differences between countries. In contrast, in the United States increased interest in ethnicity and related issues is evident across all areas of (social) psychology (Phinney, 1996). Here, I will focus on ethnic minority identity and inter-ethnic relations. I will not try to present an overview of the field or of the research in a particular country. Rather, I will use our own work conducted in the Netherlands for arguing that increased attention to ethnic minorities can have benefits for social psychology. It offers the possibility of asking new questions, considering neglected variables, and filling theoretical and empirical gaps. I will focus on the role of (1) group status, (2) history, (3) culture, and (4) social context.

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*Ethnic identity and group status*

Numerous authors have argued that ethnic identity is crucial or at least central to the self-concept and psychological functioning of ethnic minorities (see Phinney, 1990; Liebkind, 1992). And indeed, in many studies in the Netherlands (e.g. Kinket & Verkuyten, 1997, 1999; Verkuyten, 1990, 1995, 2000a), we have found that ethnic identity is psychologically more salient and important for ethnic minorities than for majority group members. Furthermore, we consistently have found that members of ethnic minority groups evaluate their group membership more positively and feel more committed to their group than majority members. However, the higher in-group identification and positive group evaluation are often not accompanied by stronger inter-group differentiation. For minority groups, ethnic identification is typically related to in-group preference rather than to out-group dislike, whereas for the majority group both in-group preference and out-group dislike tend to be related to identification (e.g. Verkuyten, 1992, 1999).

An obvious theoretical framework for explaining these results is Social Identity Theory (SIT: Tajfel & Turner, 1986). In SIT, the unfavourable social position is seen as the defining principle of ethnic minority groups, and as the central issue for understanding minority identity (e.g. Tajfel, 1978). Tajfel distinguishes between numerical and psychological minorities, and defines the latter as a group that feels bound together by common traits that are held in low regard. He focusses on the status and power differential between the majority and the minority group and addresses the question of the psychological effects of minority membership with respect to the threat to social identity that a minority position implies. He describes, how, depending on the perceived legitimacy and stability of the social system, individuals can accept or reject a negative social identity, and how minority groups may alter the valuation of their group by creativity or social competition (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

Following this conceptualization, many social psychological studies have investigated ethnic minority identity as an example of the more general effect of status differences between groups. That is, the 'minority' aspect of ethnic minorities is considered central. The empirical findings mentioned are typically explained from the fact that being a member of a

minority group poses a threat to one's self-concept and that threat can be counteracted by accentuating positive distinctiveness. Ethnic minority group members are thought to evaluate their group membership more positively because in most European countries ethnic group boundaries are perceived as relatively impermeable and intergroup status as relatively stable.

Ethnic awareness, identification and positive in-group evaluation are seen as reactions or responses to status differences and the predicaments of negative stereotypes, discrimination and forms of racism. These conditions have various (detrimental) psychological effects and are crucial for understanding ethnic minority identity. For example, many studies have found that perceived discrimination is negatively related to out-group attitudes and psychological wellbeing (e.g. Liebkind & Jasinskaja-Lahti, 2000; Verkuyten, 1998; Verkuyten & Nekuee, 1999, 2000). However, there are also limits to using an exclusive social position perspective. Ethnic identity is not composed simply of a minority status and treating it as such greatly limits the ability to examine and understand the richness of the meanings and experiences associated with this identity. In focussing on the 'minority' aspect, ethnic minority groups are treated as any low status or powerless group to which the same social psychological processes are applied. As a result, the 'ethnic' aspect is ignored and there is a failure to theorize ethnicity.

In the social sciences, the notion of ethnicity is conceptualised in many different ways. However, almost all link ethnicity to origin and culture, although in different ways. The meaning of ethnicity stems from its real or imagined common descent and shared culture. History and culture are the two main ingredients of ethnicity, but both are typically not considered in mainstream social psychology, or treated marginally at best.

### *History*

A colonial past or a history of labour migration may have relevance for understanding issues of ethnic minority identity and inter-ethnic relations. Collective representations about the past are not only shaped by the present but also influence present conditions, perceptions and behaviour.

An example is the South Moluccans in the Netherlands (Verkuyten, et al., 1999). In 1945, two days after the end of the Japanese occupation of what was then called Dutch-India, a group of nationalist leaders proclaimed the independent Republic of Indonesia. The Dutch sent troops in order to re-establish control over their colony. They also enlisted former military from the Royal Dutch Indian Army (KNIL) who had fought during the war. Among them were many soldiers from the Moluccan Islands. After Indonesia became independent in 1949 the Dutch government wanted to demobilize the KNIL. But the government had granted them the right to be demobilized in the place of their choice. The Moluccans wanted to go to East-Indonesia but this was impossible due to the political situation. Because the Moluccans were still in the service of the Dutch government and because of the delicate political situation, the Dutch government saw no other solution than to bring the Moluccan military and their families to the Netherlands. On arrival the military were dismissed from the army, which made them feel they had been betrayed and left to their own devices by a government and country for which they had risked their lives and which had promised to take care of them.

This history plays a central role in the way Moluccans define their relationship with the Dutch and other ethnic minority groups in the Netherlands. By stressing the historical relationship, a continuity with the Dutch and with the present situation in the Netherlands is defined. This historical discourse also implies rights and claims. After all the Dutch bear great responsibility for the fate of the South Moluccans and the way they were treated in Indonesia and after arrival in the Netherlands. This would give the Moluccans a justified claim to a special position and treatment, in particular in comparison with other minority groups. South Moluccans argue that they were brought to the country by the Dutch government and came on a political basis, and not for example as migrant labourers. Hence, for them it was the government's decision and the government made promises that were not kept. Therefore the Dutch have a moral responsibility and duty toward the Moluccans. The Moluccans consider themselves a separate group that has unique and justified claims and rights, compared to other ethnic minority groups. This history affects the ethnic self-definitions and the perceived nature and legitimacy of ethnic relations in society.

This example also shows the importance of referent selection in social psychological thinking and research. The implicit assumption behind many approaches is that ethnic minorities define their identity in relation to the dominant majority group. Studies on inter-ethnic relations are mainly concerned with minority-majority relationships and ignore relationships *between* minority groups. The majority group is implicitly assumed to be the only really significant other. However, in multi-ethnic societies there is a variety of groups in relation to whom people define their ethnic identity (e.g. Hagendoorn, 1995; Taylor et al., 1989). Ethnic minority identity is dependent on a diversity of comparisons that are being made and their relation to each other. South Moluccans do not only define their identity in relation to the Dutch, but certainly also in relation to what they define as 'foreigners', meaning Turks and Moroccans (Verkuyten et al., 1999). Their self-definition very much involves a contrast with other ethnic minority groups. Similarly, for many Turkish people in the Netherlands a self-definition as Turkish often involves Moroccans living in the same area (Verkuyten, 1997a). In fact, many Turks are keen to differentiate themselves from the Moroccans who are said to be aggressive and criminal. Furthermore, the Turks see themselves as more European and Moroccan culture as Arabic and archaic.

Ethnic history involves also assumed ancestry. Many social scientists follow Max Weber (1968) in emphasising that ethnicity is primarily a sense of belonging to particular (assumed) ancestry and origin (e.g. Cornell & Hartman, 1998; DeVos, 1995, Roosens, 1994). An ethnic group is thought to exist whenever the belief in common descent is used to bind people together to some degree. This sense of origin is often accomplished by defining ethnicity in terms of metaphors of kinship: ethnicity is family writ large (Horowitz, 1985). For social psychological analyses this conceptualisation is not without implications.

For one thing, we should be careful to overstate the extent to which identities should only be examined as being transient, flexible and voluntary (see also Abrams, 1999; Deaux, 1993). The need to avoid problems of reification and essentialism and to link social identity to context, can easily lead to a neglect of more enduring identities with long-term commitments and connections to, for example, former and future generations. However, for people themselves the genealogical dimension of

ethnic belonging is perceived as rather invariable, stable and context-independent (Roosens, 1994). A sense of ontological continuity (Condor, 1996) and 'in-group ontogeny' (Lui et al., 1999) are important aspects of ethnic identification. They define 'groupness' and continuities as well as obligations, loyalties and belongings. For ethnic minorities, many identity issues have to do with historical differences and similarities *within* their own ethnic group and in relation to the situation in their country of origin. Continuities and obligations with former and future generations have important self-defining meanings (Verkuyten, 1997a, 1999; Verkuyten et al., 1999; Waters, 1994). In addition, studies have shown that questions of acceptance by one's own ethnic minority group and in-group hassels are often more stressful and problematic than negative reactions of the majority group (e.g. Lay & Nguyen, 1998).

### *Culture*

Ethnicity is most often thought of as culture that is transmitted across generations. Although in social psychology the interest in culture is growing, it is still very limited (Fiske et al., 1998). However, studying ethnic minorities and inter-ethnic relations inevitably raises all kinds of cultural questions, related, for example, to the way culture is implicated in ethnicity, acculturation, group relations and many other psychological processes (Liebkind, 1992; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989). Here, it is not possible to address the different issues involved, including the difficulties in conceptualising 'culture', and the need to unpack culture and to describe specific cultural variables.

Cultural features may explain the finding of strong group identification and positive in-group evaluation among many ethnic minority groups. Most of these groups are endowed with a rich culture, tradition and structure of their own, which provides members with a sense of dignity. Ethnic minority members do not have to create new dimensions of comparison with the majority group but can rework old ones in order to develop a positive ethnic identity. Most ethnic minority groups are 'ethnic' from the inside and have their own social network and cultural sources for a positive ethnic identity (Hutnik, 1991).

Moreover, minority groups may differ in the emphasis placed on ethnicity. A sense of enduring group membership may be related to cultural features such as a strong collectivist value orientation in which 'ingroup centrism' predominates and identification is more of a nominal than a continuous variable. For example, in the Netherlands, Turkish parents are in general very much concerned with transmitting their traditions, history, and cultural values to their children. The relationships between parents and children are strongly affected by what is considered appropriate cultural behaviour within the Turkish community (e.g. de Vries 1987). In several studies we found that Turkish adolescents value family integrity much more than the Dutch (e.g. Verkuyten, 2000a). Furthermore, only among the Turks, family integrity is positively related to ethnic identification and the evaluation of ethnic group membership. In general, Turkish adolescents have a stronger collectivist value orientation that can explain why they more readily define themselves in ethnic group terms and show higher ethnic identification. This value orientation is in part a reaction to the minority position in the Netherlands, but is also rooted in cultural traditions. Cultural differences also explain, for instance, why Turkish children living in the Netherlands show higher gender identification and make a stronger evaluative distinction between boys and girls than the Dutch (Verkuyten & Thijs, 2001). Among Turkish people, gender differentiation in beliefs and everyday behaviour is in general more pronounced, and from early age on gender roles are explicitly learned and put into practice (Nijsten, 1998).

In examining the role of culture, a distinction can be made between treating culture as a 'text' or a 'conversation'. Both approaches offer possibilities for examining ethnic minority issues. The first one is more system-oriented in seeing culture as a relatively stable and characteristic system of shared meanings that define or determine perceptions and behaviour. This approach is typically taken when different ethnic groups are compared, for example in their endorsement of collectivist, individualist and family values (e.g. Gaines et al., 1997). Cultural features are identified and used to explain social psychological phenomenon among and between ethnic minority groups. Many social psychological studies in cross-cultural psychology take this stance. The culture-as-system approach attempts to describe relatively enduring patterns of meaning. Changes are

not denied or ignored but a more long-term perspective is taken (Kashima, 2000).

More gradual changes are also examined in research on acculturation. Many studies focus on psychological and behavioural changes that an individual or group experiences as a result of sustained contact with members of other cultural groups. Here the work of Berry (1990, 1997) is central. His conceptual analysis of acculturation attitudes and strategies is a prominent influence on theory and research in the field, not only in North America but also in Europe (e.g. Liebkind, 1996; Phalet & Hagendoorn, 1996).

The second view on culture is practice-oriented and tends to examine concrete, short-term interactions and context-dependent actions that (re)produce meanings. This view is adopted by those who are concerned with everyday processes in which cultural meanings are learned, challenged, and negotiated. The focus is on the dynamic nature of culture as an ongoing process in which people are not just culture-bearers but appropriate and alter the meanings by which they live.

It can also be investigated how the notion of 'culture' itself is used when people talk and argue about ethnicity and ethnic relations. Using a rhetorical social psychological perspective it can be shown how 'culture' is used in defining and explaining inter-ethnic conflicts and the assumed lack of integration and social disadvantage of minority groups (Verkuyten, 1997b; Wetherell & Potter, 1992). Social psychologists studying intergroup relations typically treat norms as given and independent of the actual practices people are involved in. However, (ab)normality has to be defined and constructed and because norms vary between different (sub)cultures, it is always possible to challenge a definition of (ab)normality applied to those who are defined as culturally different. Arguing that particular actions are common and accepted in the culture of a group is one way of accounting for behaviour that is uncommon from one's own perspective. Hence, for defining behaviour of ethnic minorities as abnormal, cultural explanations have to be dealt with (Verkuyten, 2000b).

### *Social context*

In social psychology, more and more attention is being paid to the importance of social context. Groups and group membership derive their identity from a particular context, and approaches such as self-categorisation theory (Turner et al., 1987) try to give a systematic account of the role of context. However, the notion of 'context' is ill-defined across many psychological paradigms. For example, context is taken to refer to the particular task or activity people are engaged in, such as the comparative context in eliciting group evaluations or the public or private expression of these evaluations (e.g. Ellemers, et al., 1999). Furthermore, the notion of context is used for historical and cultural circumstances (e.g. Gurin et al., 1994), immigration conditions (e.g. Rosenthal & Feldman, 1992), and actual social situations, such as in schools, neighbourhoods and workplaces (e.g. Ethier & Deaux, 1994).

These different notions of context raise different research questions. For example, for ethnic minorities actual local conditions are important because of the differential experiences with racism, stereotyping and discrimination, and the opportunities for friendship and social support. Coll et al. (1996) argue that many existing psychological models are not specific enough for the study of racial and ethnic minority populations. An understanding of minority groups would require explicit attention to negative social circumstances, such as racism and discrimination, in relation to concrete environmental influences. For example, they argue that very little systematic research has been done to examine how school variables promote or inhibit the wellbeing and social competence of minority group children.

Furthermore, existing studies on local conditions have serious methodological problems because they treat context variables at the individual level. Studies which examine both individual and contextual variables have to deal with data that are hierarchically structured. This hierarchical structure is almost always disaggregated to the individual level: variables that describe the context are assigned to individuals. However, disregarding levels of analysis has statistical disadvantages and can lead to misleading conclusions (Kenny & Judd, 1984; Kinket & Verkuyten, 1999).

Multilevel analysis allows the simultaneous modelling of individual and contextual level variables without compromising the quality of the information at any level. That is, ethnic identity and ethnic relations are explained by individual characteristics, such as identification, as well as group level characteristics, such as classroom norms in schools and the number of ingroup classmates (e.g. Kinket & Verkuyten, 1997, 1999; Verkuyten & Thijs, 2001). An example of a contextual effect is that children within the same class are more similar in ethnic attitudes than children from different classes, taking individual differences into account. This line of research contributes to a more contextual social psychology and often has policy implications, for example for schooling.

Another approach to social context, is to examine how identities, positions and ethnic relations are actually defined in local situations (e.g. Dixon & Reicher, 1997). In most social psychological studies, ethnic minority groups are considered to have low status and lack of power. This is an adequate assessment on the level of society and in many other contexts. However, local situations may differ. Relationships in the wider society do interfere in local situations but cannot be applied self-evidently to, for example, the lives of people in many urban quarters (e.g. Back, 1996; Mac an Ghail, 1999). In these situations status and power differences are actively defined and challenged making a simple majority-minority model not very adequate for understanding identities and group relations. This model, that predominates in social psychological thinking and research, has the danger of turning identities and group relations into fixed and essential entities, and does not examine how status and power relations are actually being locally produced and played out. For example, in different local situations the Dutch have lost much of their power, and group status is (re)defined in many ways (De Jong & Verkuyten, 1998; Verkuyten, 2000c). Hence, we cannot always and unproblematically equate one group with power (e.g. the Dutch) and others with powerlessness or subordination (e.g. ethnic minorities).

### *Conclusion*

Social psychology is traditionally more concerned with general processes and structures than with particular contents related to historical, cultural and contextual circumstances. However, in the field there is a growing

interest in content, culture and context. Ethnic studies can make an important contribution to this development. Perceptions of history and common ancestry as well as (assumed) cultural characteristics play an central role in ethnic minority identity and inter-ethnic relations.

For social psychologists studying ethnic minority groups there are several related challenges. One challenge is the balance between examining similarities across ethnic groups and considering particular meanings and experiences related to specific groups and situations. A social psychological understanding of ethnic minority identity can focus on both the delineation of underlying processes and structures for different groups and on the examination of contextual meanings and experiences of particular groups. Both approaches are useful and a combination of the two may raise new theoretical and empirical questions. The work by Sellers and colleagues (1998) on African American racial identity is a good example. Their multidimensional model of racial identity represents a synthesis of the strengths of approaches that focus on general cognitive and affective processes, and approaches that focus on the unique cultural and historical experiences of African Americans.

Another challenge is to find adequate ways for studying history, culture and contexts. Here, a combination of methods and techniques, such as experiments, questionnaires and focus groups, and of different theoretical perspectives, such as intergroup theories and rhetorical and discourse approaches, may prove useful and even necessary. This is not to say that such combination of methods or perspectives is simple. Between these perspectives there are important differences in research questions, epistemological positions, and in their understanding of the inner or psychological. However, as I have tried to argue, theories that model capacities and processes as well as theories that focus on actual interactions and performances are both important for social psychological analyses of ethnic issues. A view that focuses exclusively on one sort of theory, leaves certain types of questions and therefore certain types of phenomena unaccounted for. Hence, a dialogue between these approaches, or at least a rejection of a definition in terms of either-or, seems necessary and possible. For example, Reicher and colleagues (e.g Reicher et al., 1997) have argued and shown that the antecedents of categorisation can be examined in rhetorical rather than cognitive terms, whereas the social

cognitive consequences of categorisation can be understood by self-categorization theory.

In addition, other branches of psychology may have a lot to offer. For instance, many questions and problems in studying cultural features are extensively discussed in cross-cultural and cultural psychology. These cross-cultural approaches can help to address both substantial and methodological issues in research among ethnic minority groups.

A further challenge is to examine not only the major and accessible minority groups but also groups that are more difficult to reach. For example, despite the growing importance of the situation of refugees hardly any social psychological research exist (Verkuyten & Nekuee, 2000). There is a dearth of information about their experiences, perceptions and behaviour. One reason is that it is difficult to establish contact with political refugees. Generally, they suffer from high level of uncertainty and fear about their legal status and the possibility of being repatriated. In this situation, questions about personal opinions, attitudes and perceptions are often met with reluctance and suspicion.

The growing importance in European societies of ethnicity and related issues inevitably has implications for social psychological thinking and research. On the one hand, social psychology can and should make a contribution to improving the living conditions of ethnic minorities and inter-ethnic relations. On the other hand, and as I have tried to argue, studies on different ethnic minority groups can have important benefits to social psychology.

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## Article

*Gender gaps in early career development of university graduates. Why are women less successful than men?*by Andrea E. Abele<sup>1)</sup>

In a recent EBSP article Anne Maass and Paola Casotti (Maass & Casotti, 2000) analyzed the status of women in the European Association of Experimental Social Psychology. Two of their findings are especially remarkable: First, the ratio of female to male psychology students in European countries is about 7 to 3; the ratio of female to male full members in the EAESP, however, is about 1 to 9. Second, two out of three postgraduate members of the EAESP are women, however, two out of three female postgraduate members drop out and do not become full members, whereas the drop-out rate of male postgraduate members is less than 20%.

Why do so few women pursue an academic career in social psychology? And, especially alarming, why do so many women drop out of their academic career even after they have passed their PhD? Do they lack respective performances and skills? Do they lack respective motivation? Are they hindered by external conditions? The present article presents some findings related to these questions. The data were not collected within Social Psychology. However, since the underrepresentation of

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women in high career positions is not specific to Social Psychology, we can generalize from findings gathered in other disciplines.

*Women: brilliant educational biography - but relatively poor occupational biography*

Data from many occupational fields show that women have a brilliant educational biography -- sometimes even surpassing their male colleagues in formal educational level -- but they have a relatively poor occupational biography if percentages in high level career positions are taken as an indicator. In Germany, for instance, 53% of the pupils passing the "Abitur" are female and these women have better average grades than their male colleagues. About 50% of the students entering university are female, about 40% of the university exams are passed by women and about 30% of the doctoral dissertations are written by women (cf. Abele, 1997). Throughout Europe, however, -- with a certain variance between countries -- the ratio of women to men in leading career positions is about 1 to 9 (cf. Bischoff, 1999).

*Career psychology of women*

Historically, career psychology was concerned solely with men. As late as in the fifties researchers started to theorize about professional women. Respective approaches were centered around the assumption that conflict between occupation and family is central to professional women's lives. In accord with this reasoning it was shown that those few women who occupied top positions were often unmarried and had no children. In 1987 Betz and Fitzgerald published the first book specifically dedicated to career psychology of women. Besides also discussing the conflict possibly resulting from dual life plans of women they stressed the concept of gender roles. They posited that women with non-traditional gender roles (i.e. more "masculine" or "androgynous") are more motivated to pursue a professional career than women with more traditional gender roles. Since 1987 a huge number of (mainly cross-sectional) studies was concerned with the comparison of career development of women and men. Further variables predominantly on the individual level were introduced and analyzed with respect to career-related outcomes (overviews Abele, 2000a;

Philips & Imhoff, 1997). Longitudinal studies on career development, however, are scarce.

### *The Erlangen career development studies*

In our own research we are conducting two prospective longitudinal studies on career development of female and male university graduates. One study started in 1995 with two cohorts totalling 1,930 university graduates representing different study majors (arts, humanities, science, medicine, law, economics, technical subjects; study called BELA-E; see Abele, 2000a, b; Abele, Andrä & Schute, 1999a; Abele, Schute & Andrä, 1999b). At the present time, participants have answered three questionnaires (immediately after their final exams, one and a half years later, three years after their exams). The other study started in 1998 and focusses on 1,091 graduates in mathematics (Abele & Schradi, 2000; Abele & Krüsken, 2000). Participants have answered one questionnaire so far. Study one's sample is representative of the 1995 University of Erlangen graduates, study two's sample is representative of all 1998 German graduates in mathematics. The methodology allows the analysis of developments over time, and the slightly different focus of both studies (1995/96 university graduates with various majors and with different labor market opportunities; versus 1998 mathematics graduates with presently excellent labor market opportunities) allows us to analyze both stability and change in career development dependent on study major and on time of graduation.

The research is integrated in a socio-cognitive model of life planning with respect to career and private life (Abele, 2000a, b). Gender is assumed to have a dual and reciprocal impact on career related variables. It influences the environment's reactions towards this person (gender as a social category; external perspective) and it influences a person's self-concept (internal perspective). Both influence his/her structure of opportunities (Astin, 1984; see also the gender-in-context-model by Deaux & LaFrance, 1998). We state the general hypothesis of multiple sufficient causes for career development of men versus multiple necessary causes for career development of women. Since women have more and more diverse possibilities of constructing their occupational lives (full-time versus part-time versus no employment; unpaid social work, etc.) than men the

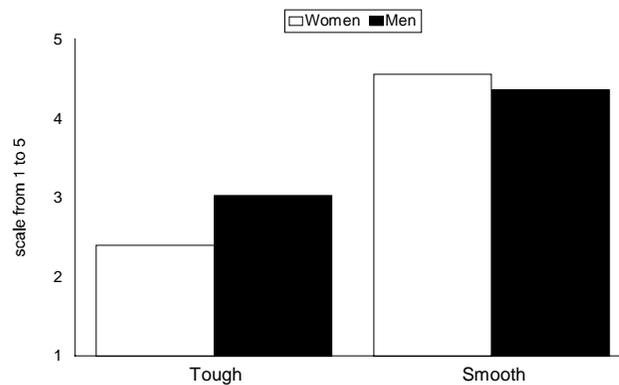
preconditions for pursuing *one* of these alternatives have to be more favorable. We further assume that due to selection processes (both men and women have selected their study major), to socialization processes (men and women have undergone the same academic training and have passed the same exams), and due to the fact that female university graduates usually do not become mothers immediately after their exam (in Germany the average graduation age is about 25, and the average age at which women with academic training have their first child is more than 30) the differences between men and women in career-relevant variables are smallest immediately after the exam. At later stages of career development the differences should become larger, because women experience more internal and external obstacles than men. I will present some selected findings here:

- a) With regard to the possibility that women and men differ in performance related variables, data on grade point averages, study duration and additional skills acquired during the study time are compared between our female and male respondents. These performance data will also be analyzed with respect to their predictive impact on career success one and a half years later.
- b) Concerning the possibility that women and men differ in motivation related variables, data on occupational motivation, career-motivation in particular, and specifically on motivation for doing science and passing a Ph.D. will be presented. These data will also be analyzed with respect to later career success.
- c) Regarding the possibility that the gender self-concept may have an influence, data on the gender self-concept at time 1 will be related to career success at time 2.
- d) Career success at time 2 will be analyzed with respect to gender and study major in order to see whether our female participants are less successful than their male colleagues, and in order to see whether this effect is mediated by study major.
- e) Finally we will be concerned with the impact of parenthood, i.e. whether the respondents have already children or not. Many researchers

have assumed that the role conflict of being a mother and being a professional is the most important reason for women's lower career success and this assumption will be tested here, too.

### *Time 1 findings (immediately after graduation)*

In both studies we found no differences in performance-related variables. Women and men did not differ in grade point averages, in study duration, in the number and kind of additional skills they had acquired during their time at the university (see Abele et al., 1999a), or in the general motivation to pursue a career (Abele et al., 1999b). However, there were subtle differences in the kind of occupational careers men and women wanted to pursue. Figure 1 shows data from the mathematics study. The participants had to rate two types of careers (see similarly v. Rosenstiel, Nerdinger, Spiess & Stengel, 1989). The first type we call "smooth career", where having an interesting and challenging position is more important than climbing up the career ladder. The second type we call "tough career", where climbing up the career ladder, earning much money and having high status is especially important. Figure 1 shows the ratings (5-point rating scales) for these two "types" of occupational careers made by men and women in the mathematics study (Abele & Krüsken, 2000).



**Figure 1:**  
Ratings of two types of career by men and women (mathematics study)

“Smooth” career was rated much higher than “tough career” by all participants, but “tough career” was rated significantly higher by men than by women.

In the BELA-E study we measured values, among others “prestige- and career oriented” work values. The results are comparable. Generally, prestige and career oriented work values were rated relatively low, but men had higher ratings than women (Abele et al., 1999b). If work values and career conceptualizations are determinants of respective actions, then these slight differences between women and men should have an impact on their career progress at time 2.

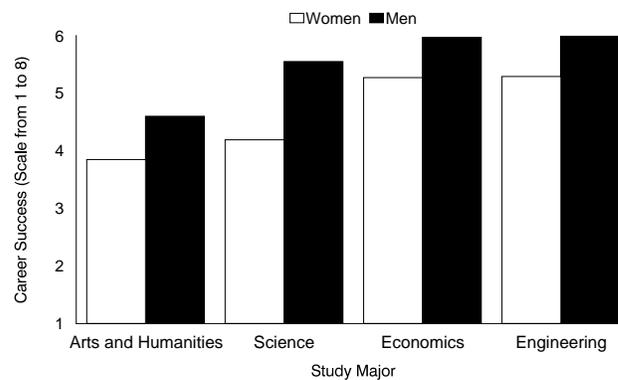
Regarding issues of an academic career, “doing science” was valued slightly lower by women than by men and the completion of a doctoral dissertation was also intended less by women than by men (data from the mathematics study, Abele & Krüsken, 2000).

With respect to general goal setting for private life (partnership, marriage, children) there were no differences between men and women. For instance, 72% of the women and 74% of the men in the BELA-E study definitely wanted to have children. However, whereas 82% of the women said that they would want to reduce their working hours until their children are about three years old, only 37% of the men intended to do so (see Abele, 2000b).

Gender-related traits were measured by means of the positive masculinity items “instrumentality” scale (examples: active, independent, self-confident; 5-point ratings) and the positive femininity items “expressiveness” scale (examples: friendly, helpful, gentle) of the EPAQ (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1974; German version Runge et al., 1981). The data show that men and women rated themselves high on both dimensions (Abele et al., 1999a). Contrary to the stereotype both women and men rated themselves higher on the expressiveness than the instrumentality scale. In accord with the stereotype, women rated themselves slightly lower on instrumentality than men, the difference is significant, but small.

*Time 2 findings (one and a half years after graduation)*

The response rate at time 2 (BELA-E study) was 79%. 4% were unemployed, 5% held “jobs” that were inadequate regarding their academic training, and 50% held a professional position. Omitting those 39% of the respondents who were still in their second stage of occupational training (medical doctors, law graduates, teachers) and those 3% who had chosen to undergo further training we constructed an “occupational success” score (scale from 1 to 8) for the other three groups (unemployed persons, “job” holders, professionals) by simultaneously considering employment status, kind of employment and salary (see Abele, 2000b, for more details). A higher score reflects greater success. Figure 2 shows this occupational success score for men and women and differentiated by study major (combined into four groups: arts and humanities, science, economics, engineering).

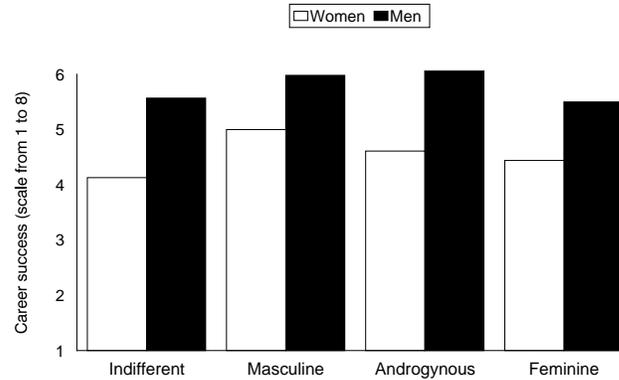


**Figure 2:**  
Career success one and a half years after graduation dependent on gender and study major (BELA-E study)

Both study major and gender have main effects on career success: Graduates from arts and science were less successful than graduates from economics and engineering. This reflects different labor market opportunities. Independent of study major women were always less

successful than men. This finding was independent of the gender self concept and independent of parenthood, i.e. whether the respondents already had a child or not.

Gender self concept also had an impact on career success. Splitting time 1 instrumentality and expressiveness scores at the median we created four gender role types, the “indifferent type” (low scores on both scales), the “masculine type” (high score on the instrumentality scale, low score on the expressiveness scale), the “androgynous type” (high score on both scales), and the “feminine type” (high score on the expressiveness scale, low score on the instrumentality scale). Figure 3 shows the results.

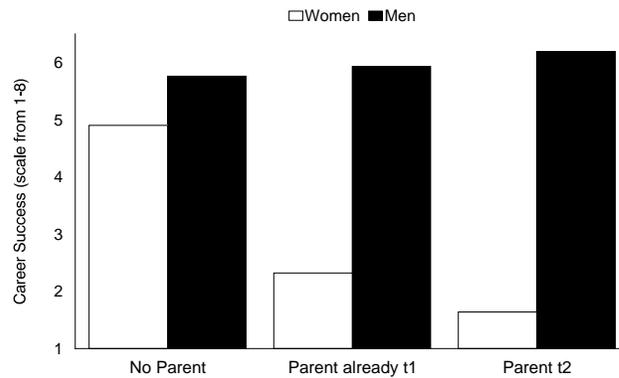


**Figure 3:**  
Career success dependent on gender and gender-role-type (BELA-E study)

Gender role type had an effect on career success with “masculine” and “androgynous” persons being more successful. This effect was independent of gender.

Parenthood had a highly significant effect on career success. 67% of the mothers were without employment, 19.5% were in part-time

employments and 13.5% were in full-time employments.<sup>1)</sup> In contrast, 92,7% of the fathers had full-time positions and no one was without employment. Gender, parenthood and the interaction of both variables explain 35% of the variance in career success. As can be seen in Figure 4, men were most successful, if they had recently become fathers. Women, in contrast, were most successful if they had no children and least successful if they had recently become mothers. The difference between men and women is always significant. Even if women were not mothers they were less successful than their male colleagues.

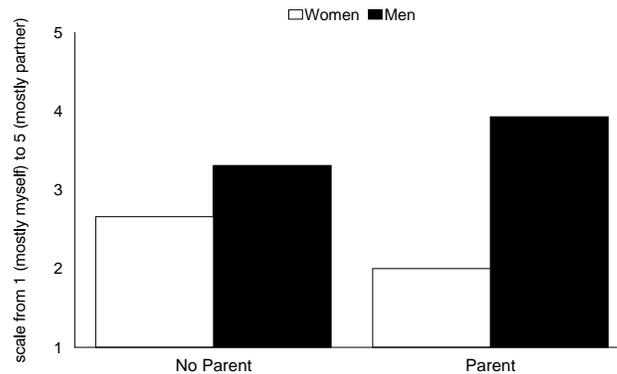


**Figure 4:**  
Career success dependent on gender and parenthood (no parent; parent already at time 1; parent only at time 2; BELA-E study)

The strong impact of parenthood on career success of men and women is in accord with many notions of the “conflict” between work and family in women’s lives (see above). We wanted to know a little bit more about the reasons and therefore asked our participants about the distribution of household work between partners and about their favorite model of child care as long as the child is less than three years old.

<sup>1)</sup> Mothers, who were taking a maternity leave at the time of answering the second questionnaire were counted in their respective occupational group and assigned the respective success score.

Figure 5 shows the data on the distribution of family work (scale from “1” I do more in the household, through “3” equal share of household work between both partners, to “5” partner does more in the household).

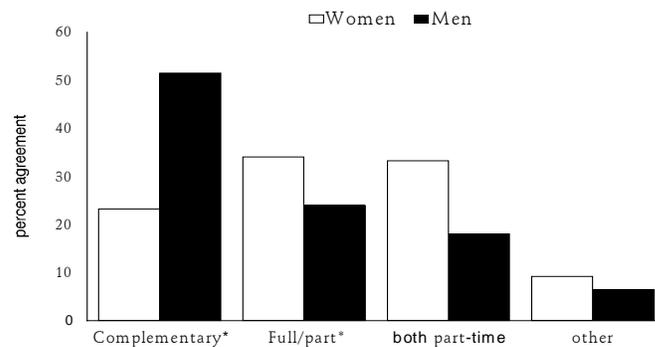


**Figure 5:**

Ratings of who is doing the family work dependent on gender and parenthood (time 2 BELA-E study)

Women rated their household share always higher than the one of their partners and men’s assessments were the same. But in the ratings of parents this difference is even larger than in the ratings of persons without children yet. This finding may be one reason why mothers are so much less occupationally successful than fathers. They do not only take over responsibilities in child care, but after they have become mothers they also take over additional responsibilities in household affairs.

This change in partners’ roles may on the one hand reflect both partners’ wishes. Already at time 1 more women (82%) than men (37%) had intended to reduce their working hours if they become parents. At time 2 this difference was even larger. We asked our participants, what model of child care they would prefer if they have children under the age of 3. Figure 6 shows the results.



\* complementary: man full-time occupation, woman at home; full/part: full-time occupation, woman part-time

**Figure 6:**

Preferred role-distribution in families with children under the age of 3 (BELA-E study; time 2 data)

More than 50% of the men preferred having their wife at home, thus a “complementary” roles model. Only 18% of the men preferred a model of part-time work for both partners. Women predominantly (two thirds) preferred having a part-time position with a partner who has either a full-time or a part-time position, thus a more “egalitarian” role model. It is interesting to note that our male and female participants with children were even more traditional in the sense of a complementary role model than those without children. For instance, fathers preferred the complementary role model in 57% of the cases, non-fathers in 51%. Mothers preferred this model in 34% of the cases, non-mothers in 22%.

On the other hand the partners’ role changes may also reflect the differences between intentions and behavior, and it may reflect changes in intentions and respective behaviors. Whereas at time 1 18% of our female respondents did not intend to reduce occupational engagement if they have young children, only 13.5% of the mothers held a full-time position at time 2. Whereas 63% of our male respondents did not intend to reduce their working hours if they become fathers, at time 2 only 21% of the men

preferred a model where fathers of small children have no full-time position and 92.7% of our time 2 fathers had full-time positions. Thus more mothers and less fathers than had wanted at time 1 had actually reduced their occupational engagement at time 2.

Why were women less successful than men in their early career even if they had not become mothers? In order to address this question we computed a multiple hierarchical regression analysis with gender, study major, performance variables (grade-point-average, study duration, additional qualifications), gender-related traits and “tough career” related work values on the career success measure (all predictors dummy-coded or z-transformed), considering only those participants that had no children yet. We also computed a communality analysis (Pedhazur, 1982) that allows determination of total prediction versus unique prediction of the interesting variable(s) by entering all predictors except that of interest and then entering the predictor variable(s) of interest and examining the change in explained variance. Table 1 shows the results.

**Table 1:**

Variance ( $R^2$ ) in career success of respondents without children accounted for by gender, study major, performance variables, gender-related traits and tough career-related work values

Predictors	Career Success
Total variance explained	<b>.261, <math>p &lt; .01</math></b>
Unique to gender	.014, $p < .01$
Unique to study major	.073, $p < .01$
Unique to performance (GPA, study duration, additional skills)	.055, $p < .01$
Unique to instrumentality	.013, $p < .01$
Unique to expressiveness	.00, n.s.
Unique to “tough career” related work values	.006, $p < .01$

Overall 26% of the career success variance is explained by these variables. Study major and the performance variables are the most important predictors. Instrumentality -- but not expressiveness -- and tough career related work values explain small, but significant portions of the career

success variance, too. Gender still explains a significant portion of the career success variance. That means, even controlling for study major, performance, gender related traits and work values women were still less successful than men.

### *Conclusions*

- a) The findings of our longitudinal research on career development of university graduates clearly show that performance factors are no reason for the gender gap in career success.
- b) General motivation to pursue a professional career is also no reason, but motivational factors may play a certain role such that women have a slightly different understanding of occupational careers than men. They want to have an interesting and challenging position, but -- on the average -- it need not be a top position. Women and men also have a slightly different motivation with respect to family life. Whereas men and women both want to have a family and children, men want much less than women to reduce their working time in order to care for the children. Specifically regarding academic careers women seem to be slightly less motivated to do science and complete a Ph.D. than men, but it remains to be seen whether this finding from the mathematics study will generalize.
- c) As has already been suggested by cross-sectional research gender role orientations also play a certain role, because persons high in -- stereotypically masculine -- instrumentality are more career oriented. Our findings show that "masculine" role types are -- independent of biological sex -- more successful.
- d) The gender career gap exists independently of study major.
- e) At the early stages of an occupational career analyzed here, parenthood emerges as the most important determinant of the gender gap in career development. Men profit in their occupational careers from having a family and children. Women's careers, in contrast, are negatively influenced by motherhood. Our data show that the uneven division of household work between partners gets still more uneven when the couple becomes parents. Parenthood changes the partners' roles dramatically such

that men continue in their professional careers, whereas women take over child care and household responsibilities. A very important reason for this change is the insufficient public child care. However, another important psychological reason is the more traditional role orientation of men than of women. As our data show this traditional role orientation even increases over time and when a man becomes father. We may conclude that the extreme impact of motherhood on career success of women is not really a question of role conflict, but a question of opportunity structures (public child-care, lack of qualified part-time positions), of partner attitudes (more traditional role orientation of men) and - for about 20% to one third of our female participants (see Figure 6) - of own wishes.

Partiallying out all these variables why is there still a significant portion of the career success variance attributable solely to gender? There may be more differences between our male and female participants than the ones analyzed here, and that these differences may account for the gender effect. However, the gender effect may also result from different external conditions and opportunity structures for men and women, like differential hiring practices, differential mentoring or differential support of men's and women's careers generally. With the present data we could only speculate about these factors, but our longitudinal studies will be continued and the analysis of the further career progress of our participants will provide more empirically sound answers.

Coming back to the female EAESP postgraduate affiliate member social psychologists, who do not become full members, we may deduce three possible reasons for their dropping out: They may have become mothers and may have -- more or less intentionally -- changed their roles, taken over still more household responsibilities, and may have adapted their wishes concerning occupation and family to what seems possible. They may have experienced that an academic position in social psychology is not the kind of career they would like to continue, possibly because they do not want to become a "workaholic" or because they dislike certain aspects of the present academic system with its high competitiveness and its high pressure to "publish or perish". And/or they may have experienced less support within the scientific community than their male colleagues. Why shouldn't there be no ingroup - outgroup effects in academic life, where the many more male professors might support their male PhD

students more than their female PhD students? This, however, is only one of the possibilities that is especially difficult to prove.<sup>1)</sup>

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## Book Reviews

*On Groups, Systems, and Origami: A review of Arrow, H., McGrath, J. E., & Berdahl, J. L. (2000). Small Groups as Complex Systems: Formation, Coordination, Development, and Adaptation.*

Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage.

Review by **Elisabeth Brauner**<sup>1)</sup> (Humboldt University of Berlin, Germany)

"Groups are like Origami," a friend of mine back in graduate school once said. "You look at them, and you can't figure out how they were made. You take them apart, and they are gone." For him, groups research was unorganized, and groups were murky and unpredictable. He never quite understood why someone would be interested in them.

For Holly Arrow, Joseph McGrath, and Jennifer Berdahl, groups are neither murky nor unpredictable. In their book "Small Groups as Complex Systems. Formation, Coordination, Development, and Adaptation" they conceive groups as complex, adaptive, and dynamic systems. Their aim is to provide an integrative theory on groups as well as to offer prospects for further research strategies.

The book is thoroughly, and I'm tempted to say perfectly, organized. After exploring the strengths and weaknesses of previous approaches, the authors present an overview of their own theory. The theory is then further elaborated in four chapters. In the remaining two chapters, the authors discuss implications for methodology and explore alternative research strategies.

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Let me briefly describe the basic concepts of the theory. The authors introduce their systems theory approach through five propositions. Proposition 1 reflects the nature of groups. Besides being complex systems themselves, groups interact with smaller systems and they are embedded within larger systems. Proposition 2 deals with what the authors call causal dynamics. These comprise aspects of coordination within groups and interaction with the embedding system. Proposition 3 reviews group functions, such as completing group projects, fulfilling member needs, and maintaining system integrity. Proposition 4 discusses composition and structure. A coordination network resulting from three basic components, members, tasks and tools, and their interrelations is outlined. Finally, proposition 5 looks at modes of group life, such as formation, operation, and metamorphosis.

So far for the theory. The authors assert that they view the book as a "starting place for a new program of research on small groups" (p. 292) rather than something that is perfect or complete. However, they present the most comprehensive theory on groups to date. While other theories deal with single phenomena, the authors integrate multiple dimensions. In particular, they emphasize the role of temporal aspects in group dynamics. The authors show what groups are, and how they work. Although the book is primarily addressed to groups researchers, it could also be used for teaching group dynamics, not only to students, but also to practitioners. It can even provide a framework for consulting. It's a good theory, and hence it's practical.

Nevertheless, two issues I found confusing. First, the scarce use of examples of groups leaves the theory somewhat inanimate. For instance, the example of a project group in an organization generated in Chapter 1 could be used to illustrate global variables or attractors. Second, the very last paragraph in the last chapter suggests a shift from predicting group behavior to just understanding it. This ending was confusing to me. Why should we give up predicting group behavior? Still, understanding is certainly essential for predicting, and the approach definitely helps with that.

Conceptualizing groups as complex systems is not an entirely new phenomenon. First attempts were made, for example, by James G. Miller

already in the early 1960s. Several others followed. Some other ideas are not entirely new either. For example, the 'trinity' members, tasks, and tools dates back to the sociotechnical approach. However, the theory presented in this book is new inasmuch as it integrates many different streams, approaches, and phenomena. Arrow, McGrath, and Berdahl have collected what we know about groups and constructed a story that tells us how the Origami was made. Moreover, they propose explanations for why and how it moves. My friend from graduate school would appreciate that.

"Writing this book has been a challenge, a frustration, and a delight", the authors say in their preface. Well, reading it has been purely a delight. I hope, wish, and believe that this book will have major impact on the field of groups research in the future.

*Social Identity Processes: Trends in Theory and Research. (2000). Eds.: Capozza, D: & Brown, R.*<sup>1)</sup>

London: Sage Publications  
ISBN 0-7619-6085-6 (Hardback £ 49), 0-7619-6086-4 (Paperback £ 16.99)  
www.sagepub.co.uk

Review by **Karen Long**<sup>2)</sup> (University of Sussex, UK)

Social identity theory has not fared particularly well outside of the laboratory, but researchers in area are starting to make real progress in predicting when the original theoretical predictions work, when they do not apply, and why. Researchers are beginning to tackle the diversity of group life, and to acknowledge that different individuals bring different motivations to group situations, different kinds of groups serve different

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functions for their members, and to examine cultural variation in the function and outcomes of social identification. From the contributions to this volume, it is clear that there is hope of order among the complexity.

This collection encompasses a wide range of approaches to social identity theory research. There is considerable variation in the strength of criticism applied to social identity theory. However, even the strongest critics are positive and constructive. Most of the contributions present potential extensions or refinement of the original theory, others call for alternative theoretical approaches. All of the work focuses on real social categories alone or in combination with minimal group laboratory studies. Many of the chapters examine complex situations of multiple, super-ordinate or nested social identities. The overall tone is optimistic and encouraging for other researchers in this area.

The book is organised into three sections – each focussing on a different overarching theoretical issue. The first section focuses on the concept of social identity itself and considers the relationship between personal and social identity and differences between social identities in terms of the significance and implications they have for those who adopt them. Deaux's chapter suggests that the reason for identification with a social category will depend on both aspects of the individual and properties of the social category. Worchel et al. draw our attention to the importance of intragroup identity and comparison, and argue for a more prominent position for personal identity in SIT theorising and research.

The second section questions the central assumption of social identity theory that ingroup identification usually (if not inevitably) results in intergroup bias. The contributions in this section identify issues such as the asymmetry in allocation of positive versus negative outcomes (Otten & Mummendey), and the benefits of using implicit measures of ingroup bias (Scaillet & Leyens, Maass et al.). The theme of diversity of identification motivation and outcome is continued in Capozza et al.'s chapter on cultural variation in the identification-discrimination relationship, and in Ros et al.'s chapter on nested identity contexts.

Third section on contact hypothesis research mirrors the theme of nested and multiple identities, with work by both Brewer and Gaertner and

colleagues on super-ordinate identity, and Crisp and Hewstone's work on crossed categorisation. Finally the chapter by Greenland and Brown identifies the importance of intergroup anxiety in contact situations. Taken together, these contributions promise significant new developments in intergroup contact research.

The overall organisation works well for what is a very heterogeneous collection. The majority of the chapters present overviews of programmes of research, providing extremely useful, comprehensive summaries of recent findings. Other chapters present more speculative and sometimes provocative theoretical debates, providing substantial food for thought. Thus the book is an excellent resource for other researchers working in the SIT area.

Some chapters require a fairly detailed understanding of SIT and so are really only suitable for senior undergraduate and postgraduate courses specialising in social identity issues. Other chapters such as Maass et al.'s excellent review of implicit and explicit measures of prejudice should be accessible to less specialised readers, and would be suitable for medium level undergraduate courses.

Obviously, it is not possible to include all of the current work on SIT in a single edited volume, but it is perhaps worth noting that there are no contributions from researchers in Australia or the Netherlands. However, much of this important SIT work has been published in other recent edited collections, so the two together provide an excellent overview of current developments of SIT research.

It is evident from Capozza and Brown's volume that SIT continues to be a vibrant field, with many new and interesting developments. As the editors themselves observe, there are encouraging prospects for a more complete understanding of intergroup behaviour.

We have been mining the rich seam of social identity for some time already. It is clear from this collection that this resource is a long way from being exhausted, and that further benefits in the form of theoretical extension, elaboration and refinement are yet to come.

## New Books by Members

*The Message within: The Role of Subjective Experience in Social Cognition and Behavior*

Edited by **Herbert Bless** (Mannheim) and **Joseph P. Forgas** (UNSW, Sydney)

Psychology Press, 2000, 352pp, £44.95

This book argues that the study of subjective experiences is one of core unifying themes of social psychology. Contributors discuss the critical role that subjective experiences (e.g., experienced ease of retrieval, experienced processing fluency, affective states, etc.) play in such key research areas as the study of intergroup behaviour, attitudes and stereotypes, social memory and judgments and interpersonal relationships. The book contains five main sections, discussing the role of subjective experiences in social information processing (Part 1), their influence on memory (Part 2) and their role in intergroup contexts (Part 3). The role of affective experiences in social thinking and behavior is analyzed (Part 4), and the influence of subjective experiences on the development and change of attitudes and stereotypes is also addressed (Part 5).

Chapters are contributed by: D.T. Gilbert & D.M. Wegner; K. Fiedler; A. Dijksterhuis, J. Bargh & J. Miedema; R. Neumann & F. Strack, C.M. Brendl, L.L. Martin & D. Whitaker; E.R. Smith; G. Haddock; M. Wänke & H. Bless; I. Skurnik & N. Schwarz; J.P. Forgas, J. Ciarrochi & S. Moylan; C. Sedikides & J.D. Green, G. Bohnet & T. Weinerth; T. Garcia-Marques & D.M. Mackie; Rainer Reisenzein; G.V. Bodenhausen & K.N. Moreno, B. Dardenne, V. Yzerbyt & C. Gregoire; A. E. Abele; J.F. Dovidio, S.L. Gaertner & S. Loux; H. Bless & J.P. Forgas

For more information and commentary statements about this book see:  
<http://www.psypress.co.uk>  
or email [info@psypress.co.uk](mailto:info@psypress.co.uk)

*Conflict and Decision Making in Close Relationships. Love, Money and Daily Routines*

**Erich Kirchler, Christa Rodler, Erik Hölzl, & Katja Meier** (all, university of Vienna)

Psychology Press 0-86377-811-9 December 2000 (A Volume in the European Monographs in Social Psychology Series, edited by Rupert Brown)

„This careful set of studies of family life creates a vibrant understanding of the mechanics and disagreements of marital life...and takes us well beyond existing knowledge....This is a book that will have a wide appeal and constitute a major contribution to the understanding of the continuities of daily life that make up the whole experience of belonging to a partnership.”

- **Steve Duck, University of Iowa** -

Love and money are important aspects of the everyday lives of couples. This book focuses on the daily routines of disagreement, conflict and joint decisions on these, and other issues such as work, leisure and children, create in the household.

Central to the authors' research is a unique diary study of forty couples, who kept a daily record of their joint decisions over the course of a year. The diaries show how challenging, varied and complex the conflicts and decision making of normal everyday life can be and reveal that goals frequently change during the decision-making process with the result that the final outcome often achieves a goal distinct from the original intention. Furthermore, the dynamics of decision making differ with the problem at stake, the decision-making history of the couple, and the quality of the partnership. The results of the diary study are discussed within the overall context of current research in the field as a whole, including discussion of joint decision-making case studies, close relationships, decision-making research in general and special research

methods. Numerous results of psychological, sociological, economic and consumer behaviour studies are summarised and integrated into a model of household decision making.

This book will be primarily of interest to students and researchers in social psychology and economic psychology but its interdisciplinary and applied nature will make it of relevance to professionals working in the fields of family therapy and consumer behaviour.

*Shared Beliefs in a Society: Social Psychological Analysis.*

**Daniel Bar-Tal** (Tel Aviv University)

Thousand Oakes, CA: Sage, August 2000 pp. 232, cloth £ 35, paper 16.99 £

What kind of shared beliefs in a society are of importance to social systems? What functions do they fulfill? How are they informed and disseminated? What are the societal consequences of shared beliefs? All of these questions are addressed in this book, in which Daniel Bar-Tal develops the notion of societal psychology, which he states can contribute a social psychological perspective to the study of a wide range of social problems in a society. He shows how societal psychology can fulfill the promise of early social psychologists by directing attention to the societal and cultural contexts in which individuals live and by examining the reciprocal influence between these contexts and individuals.

In this comprehensive volume, four themes of societal beliefs – patriotism, security, siege mentality, and deligitimization – are examined through well-defined examples and systematic analysis. Researchers, students, and practitioners in social psychology, sociology, political science, and anthropology will be stimulated and engaged by this important contribution to the field.

*Cooperation in Modern Society: Promoting the Welfare of Communities, States, and Organizations*

Edited by **Mark van Vugt** (University of Southampton), **Mark Snyder** (University of Minnesota), **Tom Tyler** (New York University), and **Anders Biel** (Goteborg University).

London: Routledge, ISBN 0-415-21758-X

Why do so many people volunteer to help others in need in society today? What makes people give up the convenience of driving their car to benefit a better environment? And why are citizens, in general, quite prepared to pay taxes to ensure adequate health care, unemployment and elderly support? These are examples of a more fundamental question addressed in this book: Why do people cooperate for the welfare of their community, state, or organization?

This book contains a unique collection of contributions from internationally reputed scholars in the social sciences. In each of the chapters, field experts analyze a particular example of cooperation in modern society (e.g., volunteering, resource management, tax paying, political participation). These analyses are based upon the most recent theoretical and research developments.

Together these contributions present quite an optimistic view of men's ability to solve the problems facing society in the 21st century and beyond. The book is a must to read for students of social problems in all social science disciplines and for those professionally involved in solving these issues (policy-analysts and policy-makers).

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## Reports of Previous Meetings

### Small Group Meeting

#### On the Role and Nature of Cognitive Resources in Social Cognition

At Carcavelos, Portugal, 2<sup>nd</sup>-6<sup>th</sup> May, 2000

Organized by Leonel and Teresa Garcia-Marques

#### Science is Joy in Carcavelos

The scenic beauty of western Portugal is perhaps an unlikely setting for a productive scientific meeting. After all, it might prove to be rather difficult to focus one's attention on complex theoretical arguments and elaborate data analyses when thoughts of sand and surf (not to mention fine wine and food) beckon insistently. Yet the participants in the recent Small Group Meeting in Carcavelos, Portugal, successfully managed the requirements of this potentially daunting dual-task situation. Through the excellent organizational efforts of Leonel and Teresa Garcia-Marques, we somehow managed to squeeze a series of exciting scientific talks into a broader context of five stimulating and fun-filled days of informal collegial interactions.

The dual tasks of science and recreation (and we leave it to the reader to infer which was the primary task and which was the secondary one) provided an especially apt challenge for a conference focusing on the role and nature of cognitive resources in social cognition. The conference opened with a session addressing emerging theoretical insights in this domain. Dan Gilbert got us off to a provocative start by asserting that when it comes to theories of how the mind works, nothing is true. Or was it that everything is true? It definitely had something to do with Coke machines... Actually, Dan argued convincingly that there are inevitably many plausible ways of modeling the cognitive determinants of

behavior, and cognitive resources may play quite differing roles in different models. Progress is only to be had by finding evidence to eliminate the erroneous models. Eliot Smith examined the notion of cognitive resources from a connectionist perspective, and Neil Macrae & Jason Mitchell explored the insights offered by a cognitive neuroscience approach to understanding the nature of the executive functions of the mind. Dave Hamilton and Leonel Garcia-Marques presented new evidence concerning the differential determinants and consequences of heuristic versus exhaustive retrieval processes in social judgment and memory. Finally, Jeff Sherman rounded out the opening session with a talk revisiting the enduring question of what role resources play in reliance upon schematic knowledge structures.

The second session concerned stereotyping and mental economy. Intriguing perspectives were offered on a diverse set of issues, including basic theoretical assumptions relevant to resource dependency (Anne-Marie de la Haye), suppression and rebound effects (Ernestine Gordijn as well as Adam Galinsky & Gordon Moskowitz), the importance of power structures in stereotyping (Rosa Rodriguez-Bailón & Miguel Morales), the role of practice in stereotype avoidance (Kerry Kawakami), stereotype threat (Michel Désert), and spontaneous trait inferences concerning the members of stereotyped groups (Daniël Wigboldus). As a reward for our diligence in keeping to this ambitious agenda, the stereotyping session was followed by an excursion to several scenic destinations, including the medieval town of Sintra, the spectacular cliffs of Cabo da Roca (the westernmost point of continental Europe), and the Boca do Inferno (the “mouth of hell”), followed by a sumptuous feast of Portuguese cuisine at a seaside restaurant near the resort town of Cascais.

We recommenced the next day with a third session, which examined the role of cognitive resources in attribution and covariation detection. Roos Vonk started things off with a consideration of the possible differences between online versus memory-based corrections to automatic correspondent inferences. After her talk, the session took a decidedly Belgian turn. Frank Van Overwalle described a connectionist model of discounting and augmentation effects in causal attribution, Dirk Van Rooy provided a connectionist model of illusory correlation, and Bert Timmermans presented some very interesting findings concerning the

effects of cognitive load on situational attributions. A short fourth session followed, addressing the resource-dependency of context effects in social judgment. Galen Bodenhausen described some unexpected results concerning the role of multiple category memberships as background cues in visual perception and in social induction. Thomas Mussweiler examined the different bases for and consequences of social comparisons based on social categories versus individual exemplars.

After this busy day, conferees headed into Lisbon to the “Parque das Nações,” the site of the 1998 World Expo, which offered a diverse array of museums, amusements, shops, and cafés, as well as a wonderful restaurant for dinner. Inhibitions were quickly dispelled with some particularly potent cocktails, and before long Anne-Marie de la Haye was leading the group in a song especially composed for the occasion, “Science is Joy When Shared in Carcavelos.” Thanks to the remarkable organizational skills and incomparable hospitality of our Portuguese hosts, this was certainly a sentiment that was shared by even the most melodically-challenged members of the group.

The final session of the conference focused on the relationship between cognitive resources and subjective experiences. Jacques-Philippe Leyens & Stephanie Demoulin presented some intriguing evidence regarding the tendency to attribute complex secondary emotions (“sentiment”) to the ingroup much more than to the outgroup. Next, perhaps because of his recent visit to the mouth of hell, Ap Dijksterhuis provided the theological highlight of the meeting in his talk on illusions of agency. By priming participants with subliminal representations of God, Dijksterhuis and colleagues were able to significantly reduce illusions of agency among religious participants. It remains to be seen whether such Divine priming will typically produce heavenly (e.g., charitable donations) or hellish (e.g., burnings at the stake) automatic behavior, but this research obviously opens new and uncharted vistas of subliminal priming. The session continued with a talk by Teresa Garcia-Marques concerning the role of affective cues in producing false memories. Finally, the conference concluded with an excellent presentation on the role of cognitive resources in accounting for the cognitive symptoms seen in mild depression by Grzegorz Sedek.

Exhausted but sated, conferees returned to their home institutions with new ideas and new professional friendships, as well as with abundant gratitude to Tammy and Leonel for their tireless efforts to make this conference the unqualified success that it was.

Thomas Mussweiler & Galen van Bodenhausen

### Small Group Meeting

#### On the Social Identity Processes in Organizations

At Amsterdam, 5<sup>th</sup>–8<sup>th</sup> July, 2000

Organized by Daan van Knippenberg and Michael Hogg

The last five years have witnessed a rapid increase in research at the interface of organizational psychology and social identity research. Whereas organizational psychologists have been employing social identity theory in organizational contexts for over 10 years, social identity researchers have traditionally focused on intergroup relations and larger scale social categories and have, with some exceptions, only recently examined organizational contexts. This new interdisciplinary development has enormous potential for both the development of the social identity perspective and for organizational psychology. A small group meeting was held in Amsterdam to provide a focus for this emerging field.

There were 22 presentations from delegates from six countries: Rachael Eggins, Alex Haslam, Michael Hogg, Robin Martin, Anne O'Brien, and Michael Platow from Australia; Genevieve Barrette from Canada; Rolf van Dick from Germany; David de Cremer, Naomi Ellemers, Sjoerd Goslinga, Aukje Nauta, Tom Postmes, Ale Smidts, Barbara van Knippenberg, Daan van Knippenberg and Esther van Leeuwen from The Netherlands; Dominic Abrams from the UK; and Nyla Branscombe, Richard Moreland, Michael Pratt, and Tom Tyler from the United States.

The presentations covered a range of topics and themes, which included leadership, diversity, group socialization, communication, mergers and organizational change, group structure, interdependence and cooperation, and organizational commitment and identification. In addition, there was some discussion about the contextual salience of various social identities in organizations. It was a very successful meeting that has produced a number of new collaborative research links, and will produce a special issue of the journal *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations* to appear during the second half of 2001. It was also a very enjoyable meeting in the lovely setting of central Amsterdam, with many opportunities for informal interaction in the many nearby cafes and restaurants.

Social identity processes in organizational contexts is quite clearly a burgeoning new research area for social psychologist. The meeting was extraordinarily timely in capturing this development. In addition to the special issue, there is a number of forthcoming publications on this topic: A text by Haslam and a monograph by Tyler and Blader, both due later in 2000; and two edited volumes due in 2001, by Hogg & Terry, and by Haslam, van Knippenberg, Platow and Ellemers. There is also a relevant special issue of the *Academy of Management Review* on organizational identification, published in 2000.

Daan van Knippenberg

Michael Hogg

### Small Group Meeting

**On Attitudes Research in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century**

**At Gregynog, Wales, 25<sup>th</sup>-28<sup>th</sup> July 2000**

**Organized by Gregory R. Maio and Geoffrey Haddock**

Starting with Gordon Allport in the 1930s, many influential social psychologists have argued that the attitude concept is an indispensable construct within social psychology. Now, as a new century begins, it is clear that this valued concept is undergoing a metamorphosis. Thus, the

aim of the meeting at Gregynog was to integrate the advances in recent knowledge about the mental structure of attitudes and the motivations underlying attitudes.

The meeting brought together over 20 attitudes researchers from different parts of the world, with talks taking place over three days. Day One included three sets of talks. The meeting began with a provocative session on the topic of attitudinal ambivalence (Steven Breckler, Joseph Priester, Chris Armitage, and Mark Connor). Ambivalence is said to exist when an individual's attitude includes conflicting positive and negative elements. There is growing interest in the antecedents and consequences of this conflict, and the presentations reinforced the importance of this variable. The next pair of talks examined political attitudes, a domain that has traditionally attracted abundant attention from attitudes researchers. Howard Lavine's data revealed interesting effects of ambivalence in political attitudes, and Geoff Haddock's research revealed how political party attitudes are differentially affected by the context in which the party leader is primed. The third set of talks discussed the role of motives and self-regulation in the performance of attitude-congruent behaviour. Sheina Orbell, Paschal Sheeran, and Marco Perugini gave interesting presentations on this important topic, highlighting the roles of habit, salient goals, and desire. At the end of the day, there was a provocative hour-long discussion about the roles of attitude ambivalence and self-regulation processes in attitude theory.

Day Two featured two sets of presentations. First, Tilmann Betsch, Yaacov Schul, Patrick Vargas, Richard Petty, and Pablo Briñol gave insightful presentations on the role of implicit attitudes, processing complexity, and meta-cognitive processes in attitude formation and change. Second, Greg Maio and Arie Kruglanski each discussed the roles of basic motives in the maintenance of attitudes, with Maio focusing on emotional needs and Kruglanski focusing on epistemic needs. The day concluded with sight-seeing trips to Lake Vyrny and Powys Castle.

Day Three included two sets of presentations. The first set focused on the role of groups in attitudinal processes, with Wendy Wood, Monique Fleming, and Alice Eagly each presenting interesting data on the manner in which group status predicts differences in attitudes and the processes of attitude change. The second set of presentations focused on

contemporary mental models of attitudes. Charlie Lord discussed attitude representation theory, which attempts to simultaneously account for attitude stability and the effect of context on attitudes; Frank van Overwalle, Karen Jordens, & Dick Eiser gave presentations on the usefulness of connectionist theory for modelling attitudes. Finally, there was an interesting hour-long discussion on the roles of implicit processes, meta-cognition, groups, and connectionism in attitude theory.

Overall, the presentations described many different perspectives on the motivational and cognitive interface in attitude maintenance and change. The speakers informally noted that this conference presented a unique and valuable opportunity to collect individuals who would not otherwise see each other often. Moreover, the resulting “think-tank” aided everyone’s perspective on the field, while adding to their enthusiasm. As a result, everyone agreed that a small group meeting on attitudes research should become a regular event.

We would like to thank the EAESP, Cardiff University, the University of Bristol, and the University of Exeter for their support of the meeting.

Geoff Haddock  
University of Bristol

Greg Maio  
Cardiff University

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**Patrizia Milesi, Catholic University of Milano, Italy  
(postgraduate travel grant)**

Last March I boarded a plane to Toulouse for a stay at the laboratory *Dynamiques Sociocognitives et Vie Politique* of Toulouse Le Mirail University, France, where Prof. Denis Hilton works. At the laboratory, where I stayed for about one month and a half, I had the opportunity to meet also Prof. Ahogni N'Gbala, from Ivory Coast, who was visiting Toulouse Le Mirail University at the time. Main purpose of my stay was to further study counterfactual thinking, that is the thinking of what might have been if only something in the past had been different, as it is used in the process of events explanation in natural language. On the one hand, I could discuss with Professor Hilton and with other researchers and graduate students who work at the laboratory, about pragmatic factors that may influence counterfactuals expression in different social contexts, where the speakers may have different motivations and goals in assigning blame and responsibility, and may be constrained by different role – based expectations. Pragmatic factors may explain why the counterfactuals expressed in public vs. private contexts are different, and may also be useful to investigate the strategic deployment of counterfactuals in contexts where persuasion is at stake (e.g. courts, political debates etc.). Such discussions were very fruitful since they both gave me hints about new projects to be developed and offered me a deeper understanding of the studies I had run that far. On the other hand, a collaboration with Prof. N'Gbala started about a project dealing with norms involved in

counterfactual thinking: in fact, according to norm theory (Kahneman & Miller, 1986), in counterfactual thinking real events are compared with post-computed norms. The purpose of the project is to investigate counterfactual thoughts generated after events that can be mentally compared with different kinds of norms. The collaboration turned out to be very productive: after running a couple of studies in France and Italy, a project has been developed to be carried out in the next months in order to investigate, first the relative weight of different norms in counterfactuals generation, second the link between counterfactuals generated in comparisons to different norms and blame and compensation assignments in victimisation situations.

During this stage, I also had the opportunity to participate to small group discussions about issues related to causal attribution, like the notions of causes vs. reasons, intention and controllability, which were very interesting, and stimulated me to further readings in this domain.

My stay at Toulouse Le Mirail University turned out to be very lively and involving: all the people at the laboratory were very welcoming, and often arranged social meetings and trips. Spending so much time in direct and continuous contact with leading professors and other students in Social Psychology offered me the opportunity to learn a lot about project planning and running: I could experience new ways of developing hypothesis on the basis of previous researches, and learn new instruments to be used, and new ways of analysing the data, all in a very pleasant way. Actually, not only I profited from this stay a great deal under the scientific research respect, and do hope that the contacts established will develop in further collaboration, but also I enjoyed it very much: Toulouse is a lovely city to live, rich with interesting museums and cathedrals to visit and with social and cultural happenings for all tastes, while other wonderful small ancient towns are at one-day trip distance. Prof. Hilton also helped me with finding an affordable and really agreeable accommodation at the International House in Toulouse, where you could happen to meet other PhD students working in other scientific fields and coming from different countries. I do thank very much the EAESP for giving me the opportunity to enjoy such a great experience.

## Announcements

### Widening Awareness of Social Psychology in Different Regions of Europe

Data recently published by Anne Maass & Paola Casotti (*Gender gaps in EAESP: numerical distribution and scientific productivity of women and men*, EBSP, 2, 2000) clearly show the differences in number of publications by authors from the East and South Europe comparing with those from the West Europe. This probably contributes to a general lack of awareness of developments in social psychological theory and research in many parts of Europe. Access to this information is also restricted due to language barriers, the small number of representatives of some countries in the Association, and finally, the decades of political isolation psychology has suffered in many European countries.

Colleagues from less well represented countries are invited to prepare short articles about social psychology in their own countries. We suggest that articles should be between 1000 and 2000 words, and should focus on all or some of the following issues relevant to social psychology in their country:

- (1) The main concepts, theories and methods that have tended to dominate in the past and currently.
- (2) How social psychology has developed in the light of social and political changes (e.g. reflected in sources of funding for research, government priorities for research, etc.)
- (3) Systems and scope of the teaching of social psychology at undergraduate and graduate level.

Maria Jarymowicz will invite colleagues from the Eastern Europe to prepare such notes as soon as possible with the aim of publishing a series of articles in successive issues of the Bulletin. Colleagues from other parts of Europe are also welcome to contribute articles. If you would like to write an article on this theme please contact Maria Jarymowicz (mariaj@sci.psych.uw.edu.pl). The deadline for the next issue of the Bulletin is December 10<sup>th</sup> 2000.

**CALL FOR PAPERS**

Medium Size Meeting on *Cognitive and Motivational Approaches to Intergroup Relations* (4th Jena Workshop on Intergroup Processes)  
27 June to 1 July 2001, Castle Kochberg, Germany

The analysis of intergroup relations has been in the focus of social psychological research for many decades. Apart from its theoretical interest in the effects of intergroup relations on individual behaviour, this research domain has dealt with everyday problems, such as stereotype formation, intergroup discrimination, ethnic conflict, etc. Thus, for both scientific and societal reasons, the analysis of intergroup relations has attracted remarkable research efforts. Moreover, different approaches to explain intergroup processes have developed. Whereas some researchers focus on *motivational* sources of intergroup behaviour, such as striving for positive distinctness of one's ingroup and maintaining or improving relative group status, other researchers emphasize *cognitive* determinants of social categorization and discrimination, such as mental representations of social groups or memory processes and biases. The main objective of the Medium Size Meeting therefore is to discuss in depth cognitive and motivational approaches to the analysis of intergroup relations and to show potential integrations in theory development and experimental research. Thereby, the meeting may bridge the gap between as yet separate fields of research.

The meeting will take place from 27 June (arrival in the afternoon) until 1 July 2001 (end at lunchtime) at Castle Kochberg/Germany. Castle Kochberg is a picturesque historical castle close to Jena and Weimar. The meeting will be organized by the Department of Social Psychology of Jena University and aims at bringing together about 40 researchers, including postgraduates, young researchers and senior scholars. We appreciate sponsoring by the European Association of Experimental Social Psychology and by the Thuringian Ministry of Higher Education. Conference fees will amount to about 80.00 DM (i.e., about 40 Euro) for postgraduate students and to about 160.00 DM (i.e., about 80 Euro) for other participants. These fees include participation in the meeting and full accommodation during your stay at Kochberg. In principle, we will not be able to reimburse travelling costs. However, we are currently applying for some additional funds to cover at least part of the travelling expenses for postgraduate

students. At the moment, the outcome of this effort is still open.

#### GUIDELINES FOR ABSTRACT SUBMISSIONS

Please send abstracts of one page (400 words at maximum) electronically to: [thorsten.meiser@uni-jena.de](mailto:thorsten.meiser@uni-jena.de)

As one of the main goals is to have postgraduate students and young researchers present their current projects to an international audience of distinguished researchers, submissions from postgraduate students and young researchers are especially encouraged. Together with your abstract, please provide us with the full postal address and the email address of the presenter/first author. Also, please indicate the academic status of the presenter/first author (i.e., postgraduate student, postdoc, or senior researcher). **Deadline for abstract submissions is 20 December 2000.**

Inquiries concerning the meeting or abstract submissions should be directed to Thorsten Meiser ([thorsten.meiser@uni-jena.de](mailto:thorsten.meiser@uni-jena.de)) or Amélie Mummendey ([amelie.mummendey@uni-jena.de](mailto:amelie.mummendey@uni-jena.de)).

With kind regards,

Thorsten and Amélie

### **Eighth Annual Brisbane Symposium on Social Identity August 5, 2000**

Inaugurated in 1992 as a broad based international forum for theory and research on, and framed by, social identity theory, the Brisbane symposium series on social identity theory capitalizes on the large and active social identity presence in Australia, and in particular in the greater Brisbane area of south east Queensland. The series is organized by Michael Hogg as a core function of the Centre for Research on Group Processes, at the University of Queensland, Brisbane. The meetings are timed to involve relevant international visitors to Australia, and always draw in delegates from around Australia. We are particularly focused on involving graduate students and new faculty. Typically there are 40 to 45 invited delegates and five to six presentations.

The Eighth annual meeting, hosted by the Centre for Research on Group Processes, University of Queensland, was held at the School of Psychology at the University of Queensland on 5 August 2000. This year the lead organizer was Joanne Smith, assisted by Paul Grieve, Michael Hogg and Katy White. There were 50 invited delegates from around Australia, and from the University of Kansas and the University of Porto. The six presenters were Nyla Branscombe (University of Kansas, USA), Scott Reid (University of Queensland, Australia), Janet Tweedie (Australian National University), Kelly Fielding (University of Queensland, Australia), Miguel Cameira (University of Porto, Portugal), and Robin Martin (University of Queensland, Australia), who presented work on disadvantaged groups, uncertainty reduction motivation, affect and stereotyping, deviance, implicit norms, and leadership. The social program included lunch under the palms at a nearby outdoor café, and a pizza, sushi and drinks party at Katy White's house in down-town Brisbane.

For information about the Brisbane Social Identity Conference series contact Michael Hogg ([m.hogg@psy.uq.edu.au](mailto:m.hogg@psy.uq.edu.au)). We are particularly keen to hear from social identity researchers who might be visiting Australia next year - we try to schedule the conference to fit in with visitors' schedules.

Michael Hogg

Brisbane, August 2000

#### DEADLINES FOR CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Please make sure that applications for meetings and applications for membership are received by the Administrative Secretary by **March, 1<sup>st</sup>, 2001** latest. Applications for personal grants and for the International Teaching Fellowship Scheme can be received at any time. The deadline for the next issue of the Bulletin is December 10<sup>th</sup> 2000.

## News about Members

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#### NEW MEMBERS OF THE ASSOCIATION

The following applications for membership were approved by the Executive Committee at its meeting in October, 2000. If the Secretary does not receive objections from any member within one month of publication of this issue of the Bulletin, these persons will become members of the Association in the grades indicated. Names of members providing letters of support are in parentheses:

*FULL MEMBERSHIP*

Dr. Manuela **BARRETO**  
Leiden, The Netherlands  
(E. van Dijk, N. Ellemers)

Dr. Ekaterina **DOUBOVSKAYA**  
Moscow, Russia  
(G. Andreeva, K. Helkama)

Dr. Ewa **DROZDA SENKOWSKA**  
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(J.-P. Leyens, F. Askevis-  
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Dr. Noëlle **LIDVAN**  
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Sonja **UTZ**  
Amsterdam, The Netherlands  
(P.A.M. van Lange, K. Jonas)

*AFFILIATE MEMBERSHIP*

Ahogni **N'GABALA**  
Abidjan, Ivory Coast  
(D. Hilton, D. Mandel)

*POSTGRADUATE MEMBERSHIP*

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### RESIGNATIONS

Dr. Annie Beckers, Leuven, Belgium  
Carien Görts, Amsterdam, The Netherlands  
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Ulrike Weber, Jena, Germany  
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