

MEASUREMENT FORUM

Volume 1 Number 1
Fall, 1995

A Newsletter for the Promotion of Excellence
in Measurement Instruction

Prepared for use with *Psychological Testing and Assessment*, Third Edition,
by Ronald Jay Cohen, Mark E. Swerdlik, and Suzanne M. Phillips.

Welcome to the inaugural issue of the *Measurement Forum* newsletter!

To our knowledge, this is the first and only publication designed to provide teaching tips and tools for instructors who teach courses in measurement and evaluation. In these pages you will find information in columns such as Classroom Demonstration (projects, activities, and teaching tips), Measurement in the News (current events that may be relevant to classroom discussion), Research Sampler (synopses of recent measurement-related research), Historical Perspective (recounting of some historical fact or a biography of some famous personage), and Book Review (much as its name implies).

To the extent that it is possible, we hope this newsletter will be interactive. This means that we would like to hear from you about what we present in this first issue as well as what you would like to see presented in future issues. We will also publish written comments and rejoinders. Most importantly, we want to hear from you regarding the methods and techniques you have found to be most successful in teaching psychological testing and assessment. We all have teaching tips, experiences, or insights that might be of interest to fellow measurement instructors; this is the place for sharing them.

The current plan is to publish this newsletter semi-annually and distribute it at no cost to qualified subscribers (that is, people who teach a course in psychological or educational measurement). If reader response warrants it, the periodicity of publication may increase. On the other hand, if reader response is flat, that too will influence periodicity. So, if you believe in the concept of a newsletter on teaching tips, please let us hear from you soon. Correspondence expressing an opinion, a teaching tip, an article, a willingness to contribute to this newsletter in some other capacity (such as by volunteering to serve as a book reviewer) would be greatly appreciated. Also, if you know of a measurement instructor who would like to receive this publication but is not on our mailing list, let us know that too and we will rectify the problem as soon as possible.

Welcome once again. We look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Mark E. Swerdlik
Ronald Jay Cohen
Editors

EDITORS:

Mark E. Swerdlik, Illinois State University
Ronald Jay Cohen, St. John's University

CONTRIBUTING EDITORS:

Classroom Demonstrations

Jeffrey B. Brookings, Wittenberg University

Research Sampler

Jayne Bucy, Illinois State University

Measurement in the News

Gloria C. Maccow, Illinois State University

Please address all correspondence to:

Mark E. Swerdlik
Department of Psychology
Campus Box 4620
Illinois State University
Normal, IL 61790-4620
(309) 438-4720
Fax: (309) 438-5789
E-mail: meswerd@rs6000.cmp.ilstu.edu

For additional copies of the *Measurement Forum* or for more information about the new third edition of *Psychological Testing and Assessment*, call Mayfield Publishing Company, 800-433-1279 or 74111.670@compuserve.com.



“OBJECTIVE” SCORING OF PROJECTIVE TESTS: A Laboratory Exercise Using the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)

Jeffrey B. Brookings, Wittenberg University

Projective test stimuli (e.g., inkblots, figure drawings) have long been a “show-and-tell” favorite of psychology instructors. Unfortunately, such presentations rarely go beyond show-and-tell, even in upper-level courses, due in part to the complexity of projective stimuli and the content-analytic scoring and interpretation systems. As a result, students are left with the impression that scoring is hopelessly unreliable and that the test’s diagnostic value (i.e., predictive validity) is nil.

To address these problems, I developed a laboratory exercise for the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) based on a scoring system developed by Richard Dana. (Those who wish to use this exercise will need a set of TAT plates and a copy of Dana’s scoring “manual,” published in 1959 as a Monograph Supplement in *Perceptual and Motor Skills*.) The exercise involves having students generate and score their own TAT stories. Subsequent discussion of the results helps them develop a more sophisticated understanding of projective tests, in part by disabusing them of the notion that using such tests requires commitment to psychoanalysis or some derivative “depth” approach. The entire exercise takes two to three hours, depending upon the length of the discussion, and takes place the day after an introductory lecture on projective techniques.

Rationale for the Scoring System

Dana argues that scoring the TAT “. . . should be simple, objective, employ the stimulus properties of the TAT cards, and be related to personality theory. . .” (p. 28). He views TAT pictures as miniature life situations, and the ways individuals perceive and respond to them are reflective of how they perceive and respond to situations in their everyday lives. The primary dimensions of this process are: 1) Perceptual Organization (PO), the extent to which the person is able to follow the standard TAT instructions to create a story; 2) Perceptual Range (PR), reflecting the presence in stories of card content included by 90% or more of “normal” respondents in their stories; and 3) Perceptual Personalization (PP), representing extreme digressions (e.g., *non sequiturs*, parenthetical comments) from the central task, which is to tell a story.

Procedure

1. I tell the students that they will write stories to five TAT cards (Dana uses cards 2, 3BM, 4, 6BM, and 7 for males; 2, 3GF, 4, 6GF, and 7 for females), which I will display on a screen—one at a time—using an overhead projector. (With the help of a student assistant, I have male and female students view the cards and write their stories in separate rooms.) I emphasize that they are not taking the TAT under standard conditions (e.g., they write stories to only 5 of the 20 TAT cards; the time allowed for each story is arbitrarily limited), and that clinical interpretation of their test scores is unwarranted. In addition, I assure them that their responses are anonymous.

2. I present the first TAT card (card 2), read the standard TAT instructions, and allow the students 10 minutes to write the first story. This process continues until they have written all five stories and usually takes an hour, including short breaks between each story.

3. I distribute handouts that include: (a) the scoring instructions for PO, PR, and PP; (b) examples from Dana’s monograph; and (c) a grid with spaces for recording scores on the three dimensions for each story and total scores on the three dimensions across all five stories.

4. The students score their stories. As they do so, I circulate among them, answering individual and more general questions about the procedure. This part of the exercise takes 15-30 minutes.*

5. At this point, I present some of Dana’s findings on the interscorer reliabilities for each of the three categories, PO, PR, and PP. Typically, students’ protocols produce extremely low scores (Mode = 0) on PP; this allows discussion of range restriction and its effects on reliability estimates.

6. I display some of the normative data reported by Dana for groups of neurotic patients, psychotic patients, and “normal” subjects, and analyses of the predictive validity of PO, PR, and PP.

7. Finally, we discuss the strengths and weaknesses of an “objective” approach to scoring projective tests, relative to the traditional content-based systems. Typically,

* On one occasion, with the students’ permission, I had them assign confidential codes to their protocols and hand them in to me at the conclusion of the lab. Then I had them typed and, during the next period, handed them out to be scored a second time, making sure that students were not rescored their own protocols. This allowed calculation of our own reliability data, which were generally consistent with Dana’s. I have not used this procedure since, primarily because it requires using at least a portion of an additional lab period and because one student was concerned that other students might be able to identify her from her stories.

clinically oriented students criticize the objective system on the grounds that it does not use what is to them the most interesting and useful information gained from the TAT, namely the content of the stories and what that content might tell one about the inner workings of the psyche. On the other side is a (smaller) group of measurement-oriented students who are impressed by the psychometric properties of the system compared to the wholistic and—to them—cumbersome systems based on the “projective hypothesis” (i.e., the assumption that open-ended responses to ambiguous stimuli reflect projections of covert personality dynamics).

Student comments about this laboratory are consistently positive.



BOOK REVIEW

*Integration with
Text: Ch. 8*

THE BELL CURVE AS A TEACHING TOOL

Steven R. Shaw, Illinois State University

Ask any introductory class in assessment if intelligence tests are biased. About one-half will support that statement, some quite strongly and emotionally. The other half of the class is wary of a trick question or is not paying attention. Those students who believe that tests are biased will inevitably cite the scathing reviews of the book, *The Bell Curve*. Yet few people have read *The Bell Curve*, although nearly everyone has an opinion about the book. I notice that people with the strongest opinions on these writings are the least likely to have read them.

Next ask students if intelligence tests predict academic and economic success with accuracy. Few if any students will support this statement. Every popular press article or story on intelligence tests makes the point that IQ is not the only predictor of success in life. Often a secondary point is that IQ must not be important if it cannot accurately predict all types of social success. The importance of intelligence, as measured by intelligence tests, cannot be overestimated. It is the single best predictor of success in school and later life. On the other hand, correlations between intelligence test scores and

later success are modest at best. By way of analogy, when one goes to the doctor, the first thing that happens is that the nurse takes a blood pressure reading. Will blood pressure tell the doctor everything about general health? Of course not. However, no one argues that because blood pressure readings do not perfectly predict general health, physicians should do away with that test. There are many other predictors that must be considered before making any statement concerning future achievement with any level of confidence.

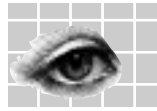
Classes can always be spiced up by a discussion of genetics and intelligence. Genetics and intelligence are issues that result in heated classroom discussions every time. *The Bell Curve* creates more heat than light because Herrnstein and Murray make the fundamental error of equating heritability with immutability. In other words, if a trait is primarily due to heredity, then efforts to change that trait are doomed to failure. This is ridiculous. Most studies put the heritability of intelligence for most populations at about 80%. Herrnstein and Murray assume a conservative 60%. Conceptually, this means that if environment were held constant, variance between individuals would be about 80% of what it is now; and, conversely, if genetics were held constant, variance between individuals would be about 20% of what it is now. Heritability cannot be useful for discussion of individuals; it is a population trait. Even if 100% of the variance between individuals were due to genetics, there would still be good reason to provide the best opportunities and environment possible. As an analogy, the heritability of the height of oak trees is 1.0—meaning 100% of the variance between trees is due to genetic influences. However, trees deprived of water, nutrition, protection from hostile elements, and good soil will certainly be shorter than they could have been. The difference in the heights of a well-nourished tree and a maltreated tree will be enormous. In other words, even when heritability equals 1.0, environment is still essential to achievement or phenotypic expressions of intelligence. The mixture of social policy and the genetics of intelligence is a flammable combination—worthy of entertaining, if not especially informative, shouting matches on *Geraldo*, *Oprah*, and in my classroom.

The problem with using *The Bell Curve* too extensively in classes is that the book clearly has a political agenda. As is typical in psychology, sound research is stretched, bent, and molded to someone's world view, usually going well beyond sound science and entering fiction (e.g., the self-esteem movement, utopian societies, multiple personality syndromes, repressed memories). Herrnstein and Murray's stretching concerns the thesis that individual differences in intelligence are rea-

son to fund social programs such as Head Start, job training, workfare, and the like. This is an enormous leap, one not supported by any data of which I am aware. Although the media coverage of *The Bell Curve* is dominated by disbelief and accusations of race-based quackery, this book presents no data that scholars in the field of intelligence would find offensive. The lay public and many graduate students believe that intelligence tests are biased against minority groups, invalid, unreliable, and useless. Herrnstein and Murray remind us that not only are these points untrue, these issues have been resolved and debunked decades ago. Craig Frisby (1995) wrote an excellent article in *School Psychology Review* discussing the clash between scientific data and political orthodoxy. Whether an argument is considered reasonable depends on the world view one holds. However, whether an argument is robust—that is (a) parsimonious, (b) explains a wide variety of phenomena, and (c) makes accurate predictions—is a far better criterion for judging the worth of a scientific argument than is adherence to orthodoxy. Personal beliefs, political opinions, personal experiences, and even clinical judgment all serve to reduce the validity of assessment and treatment. Accurate assessment and quality research require scientific data to take precedence over orthodoxy.

References

- Frisby, C. L. (1995). When facts and orthodoxy collide: *The Bell Curve* and the robustness criterion. *School Psychology Review*, 24, 12–19.
- Herrnstein, R., & Murray, C. (1994). *The Bell Curve*. New York: Free Press.



MEASUREMENT IN THE NEWS

*Integration with
Text: Chs. 8, 10,
16, or 17*

USING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EQ) AS A PREDICTOR OF SUCCESS

Gloria C. Maccow, Illinois State University

Just as educators and psychologists were becoming comfortable with IQ as a predictor of success, we learn there may be something even better. Recent articles in *Time* (Gibbs, Oct. 2, 1995) and *USA Weekend* (Sept. 8–10, 1995) tell us that emotional intelligence, reflected in one's EQ, is perhaps a more important predictor of success than is IQ. If this is indeed the case, it is important for educators and psychologists, as well as statisticians, researchers, and test developers, to understand the concept of EQ. This understanding would facilitate measurement of the construct which in turn would aid in decision-making regarding selection and placement.

According to Gibbs (Oct. 2, 1995), the phrase "emotional intelligence" was introduced five years ago by Peter Salovey, a psychologist at Yale University, and John Mayer from the University of New Hampshire. They conceptualized emotional intelligence as the ability of individuals to understand their own feelings and those of others and to regulate their emotions (*ibid.*). Thus, individuals who are high in emotional intelligence are caring and cooperative in interpersonal interactions and display a great degree of self-discipline in accomplishing tasks and in managing their own feelings. These individuals are able to put others at ease and are well liked by peers. In earlier days, an individual with these qualities would be said to have character. According to Goleman, author of *Emotional Intelligence* (1995), the qualities of mind or character are perhaps more important in predicting success than brainpower as measured by IQ and standardized achievement tests. While there are societal implications of emotionally intelligent behaviors such as delaying gratification and reducing impulsivity, one's EQ could also be an important factor in decision-making about eligibility, placement, hiring, and promotion.

Scores on tests of intelligence and achievement have long been used in making predictions about who would be successful in college, who would benefit from specialized services, and who would be hired or promoted in employment settings. These two measures are considered relatively good predictors of success, but professionals may be able to enhance their predictions based on data on emotional intelligence.

The measurement of IQ has evolved over several decades, and even now there is no one definition of intellectual ability. Several researchers have theorized that intelligence is a global factor, while others contend that individuals could have several distinct intelligences or abilities. Still other theorists have posited that intelligence should be conceptualized not as the ability to complete specific tasks but according to the way in which individuals process information. These differing theoretical conceptualizations have resulted in the development of several tests of intelligence. Similar discussions about how to conceptualize emotional intelligence have already begun.

In describing intellectual ability, we often use a single number. However, Goleman and others are concerned about using this procedure in measuring character because the average of one's emotional ability may be much less meaningful than the average of intellect (Gibbs, Oct. 2, 1995). It would appear, therefore, that conceptualizations of emotional intelligence should be guided by factor-analytic models, where each emotion is defined as a separate construct. For example, in regulating emotions, one individual may handle anger well but have more difficulty dealing with fear. A single score would ignore such intraindividual variation and produce data with limited utility.

However, while a factor-analytic approach would allow the identification of emotional strengths and weaknesses, it does not consider the interrelated nature of emotion and intellectual ability. Not only is there a reciprocal interaction between emotions and performance on tests of intelligence and achievement, there is also a strong relationship between EQ and IQ. The children in Lewis Terman's longitudinal study had high IQs and were emotionally stable and self-sufficient. They had good interpersonal relationships, and many were social leaders. In addition, these students were superior in their concern about moral and ethical issues. Nevertheless, a number of children with high IQs would have low EQs, as indicated in 1942 in a classic study by Leta Stetter Hollingworth. For these reasons, professionals making decisions about an individual would benefit from having data on both IQ and EQ. Such an approach to assessment is consistent with the multifaceted conceptualization of intelligence provided by the American Association on Mental Retardation (AAMR: Hallahan & Kauffman, 1994). For while an individual's ability to solve problems related to academic activities is predictive of future success, the accuracy of our predictions will be increased if we have information on social and emotional intelligence.

References

- Gibbs, N. (1995, Oct. 2). The EQ factor. *Time*, 60–68.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Hallahan, D.P., & Kauffman, J.M. (1994). *Exceptional Children: Introduction to Special Education*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Hollingworth, L. S. (1942). *Children Above 180 IQ, Stanford-Binet: Origin and Development*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, NY: World Book Company.
- Terman, L .M., & Oden, M.H. (1959). *The Gifted Group at Midlife*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- "The new thinking on smarts." (1995, Sept. 8–10). *USA Weekend*, p. 4–7.



RESEARCH SAMPLER

*Integration with
Text: Ch. 9 & 10*

INTELLECTUAL ASSESSMENT OF PRESCHOOLERS

Jayne Bucy, Illinois State University

The intellectual assessment of preschoolers is a challenge for both child and evaluator, often leaving the latter (and perhaps the former) wondering if the effort was worth the outcome. But, since the implementation of Public Law 94-142, children between 3 and 5 years of age who are suspected of having a disability must undergo assessment of cognitive functioning in an effort to determine eligibility for services. Two recently published articles address the concerns of many regarding standardized intellectual assessment of young children. These are sure to provoke discussion and represent potential supplementary readings and/or lecture material for a course in psychological testing and assessment (Flanagan & Alfonso, 1995; Bagnato & Neisworth, 1994).

As new instruments for assessing intelligence in preschool children are developed and others are revised, preschool psychologists must make informed decisions as to which test to administer to a particular child. An article recently appearing in the *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment* provides a useful summary of the psychometric properties of standardized intelligence tests for early childhood. Flanagan and Alfonso (1995) offer a comprehensive and critical review of both the new and revised tests, including the Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence-Revised,

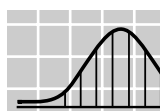
Differential Abilities Scale, Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale: Fourth Edition, Woodcock-Johnson Psychoeducational Battery-Revised, and Bayley Scales of Infant Development-II. In addition to reliability and validity, Flanagan and Alfonso evaluated the adequacy of test floor (subtest and total score) and item gradients. These factors are particularly useful when selecting an instrument to assess children at the lower end of the age range whose development is delayed.

Unfortunately, having selected a standardized instrument and subsequently finding oneself seated in a miniature chair at a knee-high desk trying to convince a three-year-old that defining words is fun, many preschool psychologists are reminded of the restrictions and limitations of traditional assessment. These frustrations were documented by a recently published national survey of psychologists who test infants, toddlers and preschoolers. Bagnato and Neisworth (1994) documented practitioner concerns for the use of standardized assessment of intellectual ability in early childhood. The authors surveyed 185 psychologists who tested an estimated 7,223 infants and preschoolers to assess the utility of early childhood intelligence tests for eligibility and treatment planning (treatment validity) and importance and acceptability to families, psychologists, and other associated professionals (social validity).

Survey respondents endorsed a checklist of 13 child variables and instrument limitations that explained a reported 43% of children declared “untestable” with standardized intelligence measures. Despite these difficulties, almost 92% of the so-called “untestable” children were determined eligible for services. Bagnato and Neisworth (1994) acknowledged that no child is “untestable,” though for the purpose of this study, “untestable” was defined as “failure to establish any of the following: a basal or floor level; complete scores on all necessary subtests or subdomains; clearly scorable responses in a sufficient number of individual assessment tasks; interpretable standard scores without the necessity of ‘creatively’ (clinical approach) altering scoring procedures, modifying the administration procedures of tasks, stimulus properties of items, or accommodating the child’s unique response modes” (p. 87). Alternative assessment practices such as parent interviews, observation, and play-based and curriculum-based techniques were cited as offering useful information to facilitated eligibility determination and program planning. In conclusion, Bagnato and Neisworth (1994) called upon preschool psychologists to abandon preschool intellectual assessment in favor of procedures which are “. . . team-based; multidimensional; curriculum-linked; functional; sensitive; developmentally-appropriate; ecological; and especially family-friendly” (p. 99).

References

- Bagnato, S.J., & Neisworth, J.T. (1994). A national study of the social and treatment “invalidity” of intelligence testing for early intervention. *School Psychology Quarterly, 9*(2), 81–102.
- Flanagan, D.P., & Alfonso, V.C. (1995). A critical review of the technical characteristics of new and recently revised intelligence tests for preschool children. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment, 13*, 66–90.



ABSTRACTS

This is a sampling of research abstracts from the current literature that may be of interest to instructors who teach a course in psychological measurement. Articles were abstracted by the staff of the *Measurement Forum* newsletter and are grouped by alphabetical order of first author’s name under each subject area. Note that subject area listing is somewhat arbitrary as abstracted articles in many cases may have been listed under alternative subject headings.

*Integration with
Text: Ch. 1*

USE OF TESTS AND MEASURES

Strawn, C. (1994). Beyond the buzz word: Empowerment in community outreach and education. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 30*, 159–174.

Reports a program evaluation study of an empowerment program that employed as tools of assessment participant observation, ethnographic interviews with clients, and analysis of program documents. Problems with the program that could be detrimental to its participants were noted, as were problems that could undermine public goals.

Watkins, C. E., Campbell, V. L., Nieberding, R., & Hallmark, R. (1995). Contemporary practice of psychological assessment by clinical psychologists. *Professional Psychology: Research & Practice, 26*, 54–60.

Based on the survey responses of 412 clinicians, the authors conclude that psychological assessment is practiced much as it was about 30 years ago, with a certain select group of tests, including projectives, being most frequently employed.



HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES

*Integration with
Text: Ch. 13*

Robert G. Bernreuter (1901–1995) developed the Bernreuter Personality Inventory over five decades ago. His work, which represented his first serious research effort and resulted in his doctoral dissertation, earned him a lasting place in the history of psychological measurement in the area of personality assessment.

The Bernreuter Personality Inventory represents an objective self-report measure of personality that assesses four dimensions, including Neuroticism, Self-Sufficiency, Introversion, and Dominancy. Items were written as questions to express the experiences of respondents in which they respond to problems of everyday living (e.g., Are you easily moved to tears?).

The scales have over 450 references investigating the tests' reliability and validity for a variety of purposes. However, the Inventory is plagued by a problem that affects all self-report measures, the tendency for the test-taker to report only favorable characteristics (response bias).

However, it is unique that Bernreuter avoided another problem that affects many self-report measures of personality, that of culturally dated items. Despite the fact that his inventory was developed over 50 years ago, items remain relevant (both socially and personally). Items from Dr. Bernreuter's Inventory never required revision due to changing cultural and/or social values.

ABSTRACTS *continued*

CULTURE

Integration with Text: Ch. 8

Geisinger, K.F. (1994). Cross-cultural normative assessment: Translation and adaptation issues influencing the normative interpretation of assessment instruments. *Psychological Assessment, 6*, 304–312.

Reviews issues of test construction, test norming, and validity as these issues relate to translated tests.

Okazaki, S., & Sue, S. (1995). Methodological issues in assessment research with ethnic minorities. *Psychological Assessment, 7*, 367–375.

Reviews several potential problems attendant to research with ethnic minorities, including issues related to the definition of terms such as race, and sampling-related research, issues related to establishing equivalence of measures, the method of assessment used in the research, and the potential of bias in interpretation of data. Six guidelines for considering ethnicity and related variables in assessment research are presented.

TRUE SCORE MODEL

Integration with Text: Ch. 5

Hsu, L. M. (1995). Regression toward the mean associated with measurement error and the identification of improvement and deterioration in psychotherapy. *Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology, 63*, 141–144.

Reviews problems with true score model in psychotherapy outcome research and suggests that post-therapy scores may, in contrast to pretherapy scores, regress toward a group mean.

VALIDITY

Integration with Text: Ch. 6

Guthrie, J. P., Ash, R. A., & Bendapudi, V. (1995). Additional validity evidence for a measure of morningness. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*, 186–190.

Cites validity evidence for a measure designed to quantify preference for morning versus evening activities. Can the night people be far behind with their measure?

Due to space limitations, several abstracts were omitted. For a complete list of abstracts, write to Marketing Department, Mayfield Publishing Company, 1280 Villa Street, Mountain View, CA 94041, or to 74111.670@compuserve.com.



MEASUREMENT MEETINGS

.....

Scheduled meetings/conferences related to the measurement and/or teaching of psychology include the following:

Annual Conference on Teaching of Psychology

held on March 20–22, 1996. For information contact Dr. Eugene Indendaum, Department of Psychology, State University of New York, College of Technology at Farmingdale, NY 11735 (516/420-2656).

Annual Psychology Teaching Institute sponsored by APS prior to their annual convention held on June 29, 1996, in San Francisco, CA. For more information, contact Ann at 202/783-2077, ext. 3017.

Mid-America Conference of Teaching of Psychology held on October 11–12, 1996. For information contact Dr. Joseph Palladino, Department of Psychology, University of Southern Indiana, 8600 University Boulevard, Evansville, IN 47712 (812/464-1952).

National Institute on Teaching of Psychology

held on January 3–6, 1996, in St. Petersburg Beach, Florida. For more information contact Dr. Douglas A. Bernstein, Department of Psychology, University of Illinois, 603 East Daniel Street, Champaign, IL 61820 (217/333-4731).

Northeast Conference on Teaching of Psychology

held on October 11–12, 1996. For information contact Dr. Bernard C. Beins, Department of Psychology, Ithaca College, Ithaca, NY 14850 (607/274-3512).

Mid-Winter Meeting of Society for Personality

Assessment held on March 6–10, 1996, in Denver, Colorado. For more information, contact Society for Personality Assessment, 750 First Street NE, Washington, DC 20002-4241 (202/336-6192).



MAYFIELD PUBLISHING COMPANY
1280 Villa Street
Mountain View, CA 94041

Bulk Rate US Postage Paid Permit No. 529 Fremont, CA
--