From the Editor

George Ronan

So Long and Thanks for All the Help

George Ronan, Central Michigan University

As my term as tBT editor comes to a close, I think back over these past years of AABT service: 6 volumes and over 400 submitted manuscripts. These 6 years have reinforced my belief that AABT is a magnet for very bright, articulate, and productive scholars. I am grateful that I have had the opportunity to become acquainted with so many AABT members and the organization staff through my work on the Behavior Therapist.

First off, I want to thank the members of AABT. We don’t poll who does and does not read which AABT publication, but there is considerable indirect evidence that tBT gets at least a once-over by many subscribers. My appreciation goes to the tBT reading membership because without you there is little point to this periodical. I also want to thank the authors for sharing their ideas and endeavors with the AABT membership. Reading, reviewing, and editing your high-quality submissions has always been a worthwhile aspect of my job. I am indebted to each of you who took the time to submit your work.

I extend my heartfelt appreciation to the AABT members who have served on the editorial team over the past 6 years. You guys put in the time and effort, and I would like to formally recognize your role in tBT (in alphabetical order): Andrea Seidner Burling, Kurt H. Dermen, Ann L. Date, Laura E. Dreer, Mitchell S. Earleywine, John P. Forsyth, Martin E. Franklin, David J. Hansen, James D. Herbert, Gayle Y. Iwamasa, Jason R. Kilmer, Jeffrey M. Lohr, Kelly McClure, Fugen A. Neziroglu, Elizabeth A. Meadows, J. Scott Mizes, Christine M. Nezu, Joseph J. Plaud, Saul D. Raw, Donna W. Ronan, Matthew R. Sanders, Tamara Penix Sbraga, Jennifer A. Slezak,
and Michael A. Tompkins. Thanks again—I couldn’t have done it without you!

I am indebted to the AABT Publications Committee, the group that meets (at least) annually to review the status of each AABT publication and to discuss publication policies. I have deep regard for those committee members who freely shared their considerable expertise and provided invaluable guidance and assistance throughout my tenure as tBT editor. Thank you, Publication Committee members.

Finally, words cannot express the esteem and affection (and everlasting gratitude) I have for the AABT Director of Publications, David Teisler, and the Managing Editor, Stephanie Schwartz. The talent, vibrant energy, and sense of purpose they bring to the job are essential to the success of each of the AABT publications. And best of luck to Dave Reitman, the incoming tBT editor. May your submission in-box always be full! AABT members, you can contact the new editor about developing your ideas for tBT submissions at:

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Fort Lauderdale, FL 33314
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It Begins and Ends
With AABT

Renew your membership before January 15 and avoid the late fee!
The Air Force supports three revolutionary clinical psychology internships, one of which was awarded the "Outstanding Training Program Award" by AABT in 2002. Consultants have suggested that the Air Force may offer better preparation for psychology careers than more traditional routes into the profession. By taking a revolutionary approach, we are integrating clinical psychology into primary care practice. We have the setting, the faculty and the support to offer superb preparation for a career as a psychologist. To be part of this prestigious program, to earn a competitive salary and benefits and to have a guaranteed job after the program’s completion, please call 1-800-423-USAF or log on to AIRFORCE.COM for more information.
Defining the Independent Variables and Ensuring Treatment Integrity: A Comparison Across Journals of Different Theoretical Orientations

Daniel A. Sass, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Michael P. Twohig, University of Nevada, and W. Hobart Davies, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee

We reviewed Behavior Therapy (BT), Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis (JABA), and the Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology (JCCP) for the inclusion a clear independent variable definition and treatment integrity information. A clear explanation of the manner in which the independent variable is measured or manipulated is vital for several reasons. Perhaps most important, a comprehensive independent variable description allows other researchers adequate information to interpret and replicate the findings. Replication is essential to assess threats of experimental validity, enhance experiment generalizability, and establish whether the results occurred by chance (Kazdin, 2003). Replication is of particular importance in clinical psychology given that results often have applied implications. Lastly, a detailed description of the independent variable allows for “accuracy checks” or treatment integrity assurance that the independent variable was manipulated as intended (Peterson, Homer, & Wonderlich, 1982).

Treatment integrity has been operationally defined as the “degree to which treatments are implemented as intended” (Gresham, 1996, p. 93). The measurement and reporting of treatment integrity is essential, because this information is a threat to a study’s internal validity, external validity, and construct validity (Gresham, 1996). Without reporting such data, one cannot adequately conclude that a given independent variable had a specific effect on a dependent variable, because it is unclear if the independent variable was actually implemented or manipulated as intended.

Not only is treatment integrity data necessary to assist in interpretation and reduce threats to validity, but the APA Division 12 Task Force on Promotion and Dissemination of Psychological Procedures requires that “experiments be conducted with treatment manuals” (Chambless et al., 1998, p. 9). Although treatment manuals do not guarantee treatment integrity, a detailed manual appears to be a necessary precursor. According to the Division 12 Task Force, studies that do not include treatment manuals cannot be considered when determining whether or not a given treatment can be deemed “well-established” (Chambless et al., 1998).

Peterson et al. (1982) found that JABA adequately defined the independent variable in most studies but only 20% of JABA’s published empirical studies from 1968 to 1980 reported treatment integrity data. Further, Moncher and Prinz (1991) reviewed several mainstream clinical psychology journals (JABA was excluded) and found that only 18% reported treatment integrity checks. Moncher and Prinz (1991) did, however, evaluate BT and JCCP and found that these journals reported treatment integrity measures more frequently compared to the other journals reviewed, although specific measures of treatment integrity were reported only between 16% and 38% of the time.

The purpose of this report is to determine if there has been recent change in the collection and reporting of treatment integrity data within two leading behavioral journals (JABA and BT), and to compare this to the frequency of reporting of such information in a high-quality journal not associated with a particular theoretical orientation (JCCP).

### Table 1

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<tr>
<th>Description of Variable</th>
<th>Interrater Reliability for Coded Variables %</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IV: Can the experiment be replicated with the information provided in the procedure section or is a treatment manual, reference to another article, or other source provided?</td>
<td>87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TI: Was there some form of measurement to ensure the experiment was implemented as described in the procedure section?</td>
<td>97%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recorded/Observed: Experiment was recorded/observed to determine whether it was carried out as described in the procedure section.</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scored: Scored the recorded or observed experiment to ensure they were carried out as described in the procedure section.</td>
<td>98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision: Another researcher/therapist observed the experiment and gave feedback to the experimenter, in order to assist in having the experiment carried out as described in the procedure section or some other source.</td>
<td>96%</td>
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Note. IV = independent variable; TI = treatment integrity. Cohen’s kappa was not used due to lack of symmetry (see Schuster, 2001).
Training Procedure for Coders

Each study was coded for the following variables: (1) independent variable, defined as reference to another article or a treatment manual or the inclusion of enough information in the article that would allow for experimental replication, and (2) treatment integrity, defined as presence or absence of some form of measurement to ensure the independent variable was implemented as described in the procedure section of the article. When treatment integrity data were reported, additional data were collected to determine how the integrity of the independent variable was measured. Specifically, it was established whether the independent variable implementation was recorded (audiotaped, videotaped), directly observed, or collected but not described. Finally, data were also collected on whether or not the implementation of the independent variable was supervised.

Training occurred during a 2-hour session that consisted of a comprehensive discussion of inclusion criteria and coded variables. Operational definitions were discussed in detail and potential coding problems were resolved. Following the initial training session, eight articles were coded, two as a group and six independently, to provide practice and to verify consistent coding procedures.

A graduate student and a bachelor’s-level research assistant independently read the titles, abstracts, and methods sections of all published articles to determine whether they met inclusion criteria. If inclusion criteria were met, the article was coded and entered into a database. A third coder, a second-year graduate student, read every fifth article to assess the reliability of the inclusion criteria and coded variables.

Interrater Reliability

For each variable, interrater reliability was calculated by taking the number of agreements, divided by the number of total ratings, and then multiplied by 100. Table 2 presents interrater reliability and a brief operational definition of each variable coded variable. Interrater reliability for article inclusion yielded a 94% agreement.

Results/Discussion

As stated earlier, the reporting of a well-defined independent variable is a necessary precursor to measure treatment integrity. To evaluate whether journals differed on the frequency of independent variables reported and the inclusion of treatment integrity data, two likelihood ratio $\chi^2$ using SAS GENMOD were conducted. The likelihood ratio $\chi^2$ revealed significant differences between the journals for the independent variable description, $\chi^2 = 44.87, df = 2, p < .0001$, and inclusion of treatment integrity data, $\chi^2 = 53.96, df = 2, p < .0001$. To further examine these significant findings, follow-up contrasts were conducted to examine journal differences. An alpha level was set at .017 (.05/3) to correct for multiple comparisons.

Generally, the journals reviewed provided an acceptable definition of the independent variable. Of the articles reviewed, adequate definitions of the independent variable were provided by BT (73.4%) and JCCP (50.3%).

<table>
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<th>TABLE 2</th>
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<tr>
<td>Treatment Integrity Data Across Journal</td>
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<td>JABA</td>
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<tr>
<td>Percent reporting integrity data*</td>
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<tr>
<td>How integrity was determined</td>
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<tr>
<td>Videotaped</td>
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<tr>
<td>Audiotaped</td>
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<td>Live observation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Did not report method</td>
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<tr>
<td>Percent reporting supervision/third party review of treatment</td>
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*All journals differed significantly from one another at the .007 level.
Open Forum

Recent Trends in the Research-Oriented Clinical Psychology Academic Job Market

David C. Schwebel, University of Alabama at Birmingham, and Marc S. Karver, University of South Florida

A scattering of publications geared toward academic psychology jobs seeking (Brems, Lampman, & Johnson, 1999; Darley & Zanna, 1979; Iacono, 1981; Kleges, Sanchez, & Stanton, 1982; Linehan, 1983; Nelson, 1983; Ng, 1997; Phillips, 1982; Plante, 1996; Rohsenow, 1983; Sheehan, McDevitt, & Ross, 1998), plus broader guides that span disciplines (Kronenfeld & Whicker, 1997) and academic careers (Darley, Zanna, & Roediger, 2004), serve as the primary aids for academic job-seekers in clinical psychology and related fields. Although many aspects of these publications ring true today, some advice has become dated. This article updates the academic job-searching literature, and is designed to assist applicants, educate hirers, and provide anecdotal observations about recent trends in the job-search process. The focus is on positions filled by research-oriented clinical psychologists, positions in which the hired individual devotes at least 50% effort to research and smaller portions of time to teaching, clinical practice, and/or service. Most, but not all, of such positions are located in psychology departments at Research 1 universities.

This article is organized into two sections. In the first, six recent trends in the job-searching market are identified and discussed: (a) increasing competition, (b) the Internet, (c) applicant-position match, (d) publishing and funding potential, (e) postdocs, and (f) the hiring window. Discussion of each trend is followed by a brief segment outlining implications of that trend for job applicants. The second section of the article integrates recent trends into a discussion of the steps required to search for and obtain a research-oriented academic clinical psychology position.

References


Trend 1: Increasing Competition

In 1970, 1,890 doctorates were awarded in psychology. By 2001, that figure had doubled to 3,623 (Kohout, 2003). Within the subfield of clinical psychology, the growth has occurred most dramatically within the last 15 years. Across the years 1987 to 1989, an average of 1,189 clinical psychology doctorates were awarded annually in the United States. By 1999–2001, the most recent data available, the annual average had grown to 1,351 (Hoffer et al., 2002; Sanderson & Dugoni, 1999). A large proportion of clinical psychology doctoral recipients desire careers in private practice (44% of 1999 psychology doctorate recipients reported primary full-time positions in practice-oriented settings; APA Research Office, 1999), but a sizable portion seeks jobs in the academic arena (29% of 1999 graduates; APA Research Office, 1999).

The trend for universities to award more Ph.D.s in clinical psychology is particularly troubling to job seekers because financially strapped universities have simultaneously limited hiring of tenure-track assistant professors in recent years (J. Kohout, personal communication, July 22, 2002; Wood, 1998). Over the past decade, the number of new academic appointments has remained stable despite the increase in graduates seeking jobs (J. Kohout, personal communi-
Implications for Applicants

With increased competition for limited positions, today's clinical psychology job applicants frequently seek postdoctoral experience (Trend 5) to increase their publication rate and grant-writing potential (Trend 4) before applying to jobs. They also use the Internet (Trend 2) to increase their preparedness and locate more positions to apply to.

Trend 2: Internet Use

The Internet has transformed academia over the past decade, so it is not surprising that one of the most significant changes in the academic job market over the past decade is the use of the Internet in the job-seeking process. This trend, touched upon in recent publications (e.g., Darley & Zanna, 2004), but missing from the bulk of dated job-seeking resources, begins with job advertisements. Numerous listservs (e.g., New Psychologist listserv run by APAGS and Yahoo groups) and Web sites (e.g., APA, Chronicle of Higher Education) advertise positions. The APA PsychCareers Web site permits categorized searching for jobs by psychological subspecialty and geographic location.

The Internet also provides a wealth of resources for applicants preparing applications. Among the resources available are step-by-step guides to obtain a job, lists of possible interview questions, and examples of how to prepare teaching and research statements, cover letters, and CVs. Further, the Internet affords careful study of universities, departments, and faculty. Whereas previously candidates were expected to learn details about a department during an interview, today most of that information is available on faculty, departmental and university Web sites, and through computerized literature searches of faculty member publications. Therefore, candidates generally know basic information about the faculty, department, and university before arriving to interview. In fact, combined with the trend for increasing competition (Trend 1), the availability of Internet resources at departmental Web sites has transformed interview experiences from the bidirectional fact-finding sessions described in existing resources into more formal unidirectional evaluations of applicants by hiring departments.

Implications for Applicants

Most of today's applicants are highly familiar with and adept at using e-mail and the Internet, and they use these skills to their advantage. In particular, applicants use the Internet to (a) ensure they have applied to all relevant jobs, (b) educate themselves thoroughly about departments before going on interviews, and (c) communicate electronically with department chairs and search committees. Because applicants are expected to use the Internet to study departments they apply to, there is added expectation during interviews that applicants ask sophisticated questions to demonstrate their knowledge of and interest in the hiring department.

Trend 3: Applicant-Position Match

Concomitant with the increasing size of the applicant pool for entry-level academic positions (Trend 1), the importance of applicant-position match has grown dramatically. Existing job-seeking resources omit this topic. Most departments have particular strengths they hope to complement with future hires. For example, a behaviorally oriented department is unlikely to hire a psychodynamic thinker. A department driven by theoretical approaches to psychopathology might be hesitant to recruit a more applied researcher. Further, most departments have specific niches to fill (e.g., a teacher for the graduate-level child psychopathology course or a biologically oriented clinician to serve as a consultant on existing funded research projects). Since the supply-demand balance favors the hirers, top programs readily dismiss good applicants in favor of good candidates who also fill niches.

Implications for Applicants

Identification of the applicant-position match that departments desire is frequently challenging and sometimes impossible for applicants prior to applying. In some cases, the department has multiple niches to fill and there is internal debate over which are the top priorities. In other cases, the department has a clear niche to fill, but if they receive a particularly extraordinary application in a different area, they might consider that individual anyway (and therefore keep recruitment advertisements purposely vague).

Most applicants choose a two-pronged conservative approach. First, they attempt to identify departmental needs (through Internet searches, careful readings of recruitment advertisements, and personal connections to faculty in hiring departments), and if possible emphasize in their applications how they might help to satisfy identified needs. Second, most applicants apply widely, anticipating that some applications will be quickly rejected by hiring departments who recognize a poor match. Recent data from nearly 100 job applicants for academic psychology positions suggest the correlation between job applications sent and job offers received is \( r(89) = .28 \) \((p < .05)\) and that 50% of applicants do not receive any offers, frequently because they did not send enough applications to land a good “match” (Todd & Orthmann, 2004).

Trend 4: Publishing and Funding Potential

Hiring departments have long emphasized applicants' publishing potential (Quereshi, Buckley & Fadden, 1981), and existing job-searching resources emphasize this fact prominently. Recently, a related trend has emerged. Publishing history and potential has been surpassed, or at least equalized, by a second factor in a job candidate's portfolio: grant-writing potential (Ng, 1997). An applicant without a good record of publications—including a coherent research program evidenced by first-authored publications in prestigious peer-reviewed journals—is unlikely to land a position in a research-oriented academic department. But an applicant with a good publication record and no history or promise of extramural funding is also unlikely to land a position in that department. Financially strapped departments and universities are increasingly dependent on external funds, and therefore recruit faculty members who will contribute to their financial coffers through extramural funding.

Implications for Applicants

To be successful, applicants must: (a) develop a coherent research program that demonstrates an interest in one research area through graduate school and a postdoc, (b) publish that research widely, largely through first-authored publications in prestigious peer-reviewed journals, (c) show the ability to receive grants by funding dissertation or postdoc research through small (or even large) extramural grants, and (d) demonstrate plans for a research program that will soon be fundable through extramural grants.
Call for Award Nominations

This is an OPEN CALL to the AABT membership to provide nominations for the following awards, to be presented at the 2005 convention in Washington, DC.

On a rotating annual basis, one of the following three types of distinguished contributions by an individual member of AABT will be recognized at the Annual Convention: research, clinical, or educational/training. For 2005, we seek nominations from AABT members for outstanding clinical contributions.

Distinguished/Outstanding Contribution by an Individual for Clinical Activities

Eligible candidates for this award should be members of AABT in good standing who have provided significant contributions to clinical work in cognitive and/or behavioral modalities. Applications should include a letter of nomination, three letters of support, and a curriculum vitae of the nominee. Past recipients of this award include Marvin Goldfried, Albert Ellis, and Marsha Linehan. Please complete an on-line nomination by visiting www.aabt.org, and completing the appropriate application forms. Then, e-mail the completed forms to aabt@hofstra.edu. Also, mail a hard copy of your submission to AABT, Outstanding Clinical Award, 305 Seventh Ave., New York, NY 10001.

Outstanding Training Program

This award will be given to a training program that has made a significant contribution to training behavior therapists and/or promoting behavior therapy. Training programs can include graduate (doctoral or master’s), predoctoral internship, postdoctoral programs, institutes, or continuing education initiatives. Past recipients of this award include Binghamton University Clinical Psychology Program, University of Washington Clinical Ph.D. Program, and the Psychology Internship and Postdoctoral Programs at Wilford Hall Medical Center. Nominations for outstanding educational/training programs should be accompanied by a summary of information in support of the program, as well as other supporting materials essential for reviewing the program. Please complete an on-line nomination by visiting www.aabt.org, and completing the appropriate application forms. Then, e-mail the completed forms to aabt@hofstra.edu. Also, mail a hard copy of your submission to AABT, Outstanding Training Program Award, 305 Seventh Ave., New York, NY 10001.

Virginia A. Roswell Student Dissertation Award

This award will be given to a student based on his or her doctoral dissertation proposal. The research should be relevant to behavior therapy. Accompanying this honor will be a $1,000 award to be used in support of research (e.g., to pay participants, to purchase testing equipment) and/or to facilitate travel to the AABT convention. Eligible candidates for this award should be student members who have already had their dissertation proposal approved and are investigating an area of direct relevance to behavior therapy, broadly defined. A student’s dissertation mentor should complete the nomination. Please complete an on-line nomination by visiting www.aabt.org, and completing the appropriate application forms. Then, e-mail the
completed forms to aabt@hofstra.edu. Also, mail a hard copy of your submission to AABT, Virginia A. Roswell Dissertation Award, 305 Seventh Ave., New York, NY 10001.

For the first time, the Awards and Recognition Committee proudly opens the nominations for the following awards to the AABT membership at large:

**Career/Lifetime Achievement**

Eligible candidates for this award should be members of AABT in good standing who have made significant contributions over a number of years to cognitive and/or behavior therapy. Applications should include a letter of nomination, three letters of support, and a curriculum vitae of the nominee. Past recipients of this award include Leonard Ullman, David Barlow, and Leonard Krasner. Please complete an on-line nomination by visiting www.aabt.org, and completing the appropriate application forms. Then, e-mail the completed forms to aabt@hofstra.edu. Also, mail a hard copy of your submission to AABT, Career/Lifetime Achievement Award, 305 Seventh Ave., New York, NY 10001.

**Distinguished Friend to Behavior Therapy**

Eligible candidates for this award should NOT be members of AABT, but are individuals who have promoted the mission of cognitive and/or behavioral work outside of our organization. Applications should include a letter of nomination, three letters of support, and a curriculum vitae of the nominee. Past recipients of this award include Nora Volkow, John Allen, and Anne Fletcher. Please complete an on-line nomination by visiting www.aabt.org, and completing the appropriate application forms. Then, e-mail the completed forms to aabt@hofstra.edu. Also, mail a hard copy of your submission to AABT, Distinguished Friend to AABT Award, 305 Seventh Ave., New York, NY 10001.

Nominations for the following award are solicited from members of the AABT governance:

**Outstanding Service to AABT**

Members of the governance, please complete an on-line nomination by visiting www.aabt.org, and completing the appropriate application forms. Then, e-mail the completed forms to aabt@hofstra.edu. Also, mail a hard copy of your submission to AABT, Outstanding Service to AABT Award, 305 Seventh Ave., New York, NY 10001.

To make this a successful program, we need your help. Please complete an on-line nomination by visiting www.aabt.org and completing the appropriate application forms. Then, e-mail the completed forms to aabt@hofstra.edu. Also, mail a hard copy of your submission to AABT, 305 Seventh Ave., New York, NY 10001.

General suggestions about the annual AABT awards program are appreciated. Please forward your suggestions to AABT, 305 Seventh Ave., New York, NY 10001.

**Deadline for all nominations:**

MONDAY, APRIL 4, 2005
Trend 5: Postdoctoral Experience

Clinical psychology is moving in the direction of neuroscience and other fields: postdocs are expected prior to a tenure-track appointment. This is not yet absolute but is a trend for at least three reasons. First, because they have spent a few years postgraduate school, applicants with postdocs often have publishing and grant-writing records that better demonstrate a cohesive and dedicated program of research (Trend 4). Second, postdoc experience expedites clinical licensing. Although laws vary somewhat, most North American jurisdictions require postdoctoral clinical training before licensing. Junior faculty who are able to supervise clinical work by graduate students and/or conduct clinical work as part of their job responsibilities are generally preferable to applicants who still require postdoctoral supervised clinical hours before licensing.

A third reason for obtaining postdoc experience is due to other activities applicants complete during the postdoctoral years. Most research-oriented academic positions require teaching. A postdoctoral teaching position provides valuable teaching experience and course preparation.

Implications for Applicants

Although it is possible to obtain an academic job immediately following the clinical internship, it is increasingly difficult. Research-oriented Ph.D. graduates with solid publication and funding records often send both job and postdoc applications simultaneously during the fall and winter of their clinical internship year. Without an established research program, research-oriented Ph.D. graduates generally seek a 1- to 3-year research-oriented postdoc before applying to jobs.

Trend 6: The Hiring Window

Contrary to indications from existing resources, the timing of applications for research-oriented academic jobs is far wider than that of graduate programs or clinical internships. In fact, the job market window has widened considerably over the past decade. Some departments advertise, interview, and offer jobs early in the fall, with application deadlines as early as mid-September. Other hiring departments wait until late winter, with deadlines in late February or even early March. Why the breadth? To some extent, it is due to competition: early-advertising departments hope to “grab” top applicants before they get other offers. Funding is also a factor. Some departments do not get funding approval from their universities until late in the season, and advertise then, hoping to draw from the wide and talented pool of applicants still remaining.

Implications for Applicants

Many of today’s job applicants discover they have job offers — and concomitant pressure to accept — while still sending new applications. In some cases, applicants will be stuck and must make difficult decisions. To the extent possible, applicants should clump interviews in January and February, delay job offers, and advise late-advertisers of existing offers.

Job Application Steps

Applying for an academic job in clinical psychology takes monumental amounts of time, but is eased through careful organization and planning. Below is a sketch of the steps involved. Candidates should consult other resources (e.g., Darley & Zanna, 1979; Iacono, 1981) to supplement this brief review designed to update the field.

Step 1 involves building the foundation. Ideally, the applicant starts preparing for an academic career while in graduate school (Trend 5). Applicants should identify a “burning question” and conduct a series of research projects on that topic to build a research program that produces publications and funding (Trend 4).

Step 2 is preparation of the job application. The hiring window has moved earlier (Trend 6), and applicants must start the process sooner. As early as winter of the year before applying, applicants should identify three or four individuals who will write enthusiastic letters of recommendation; explore departments by Internet (Trend 2); consult with peers and mentors for advice; and prepare materials for an academic career (Trend 5). Applicants should begin a “job talk” list that includes names of faculty and postdoc supervisors.

Step 3 involves searching for job advertisements and sending applications. As detailed elsewhere (e.g., Darley & Zanna, 1979, 2004; Iacono, 1981), applications generally include six pieces: a cover letter, a CV, a teaching statement, a research statement, relevant reprints, and three to four letters of recommendation.

Because the hiring window has inched earlier (Trend 6), applicants should begin glancing at advertisements in May and search carefully from August through the following March. Many resources are available, but most research-oriented jobs are listed in the APA Monitor, the APS Observer, and/or the Chronicle of Higher Education. The Internet (Trend 2) offers numerous advertisements through psychology and behavior science e-mail listservs and Web sites. Applicants should look and apply widely (Trend 1): although clinical psychology positions in psychology departments are likely most familiar, clinical psychologists also land academic jobs in school, counseling, or developmental psychology and in departments or schools of medicine, education, nursing, public health, social work, and other disciplines (e.g., Milling & Walker, 1991).

Successful applicants often contact programs judiciously by e-mail (Trend 2) to learn more about advertised or soon-to-be-advertised positions. In addition, applicants should conduct careful searches on the Internet on the departments they apply to so that application statements and cover letters can be tailored to match the needs of the position and program (Trend 3).

Step 4 frequently co-occurs with Step 3. Departments make initial phone contact to elicit applicants’ continuing interest and investigate applicant-department match (Trend 6). This can occur as early as October. Successful applicants prepare for such phone calls by gathering materials from the Internet on each department (Trend 2). In particular, if applicants have a notion of the match being sought (Trend 3), this is the time to emphasize it: during phone calls most departments seek to narrow their pool from a short list to an interview list. Of course, applicants should not lie to create matches. Accepting a position where a match does not exist could result in the applicant being unhappy with the job and the department being unhappy with the applicant; such unhappiness often leads to negative tenure decisions a few years later.

Step 5 is the interview. Because of the earlier hiring window (Trend 6), this can occur as early as November and is typically a 2-day affair paid for by the hiring institution. Most departments interview one to four applicants for a single position. Applicants should prepare to take time off from internships or postdocs and have a job talk prepared well in advance. The job talk, given as a colloquium to the hiring department, is among the most critical parts of the entire process and should be prepared, practiced, and critiqued meticulously. Interviews and job talks provide an opportunity for the hiring department to evaluate applicants for publishing and funding potential and for match (Trends 3 and 4). They also provide, to a lesser degree, an opportunity...
for applicants to evaluate the department. As detailed elsewhere (e.g., Linehan, 1983; Rohsenow, 1985), successful applicants prepare a series of questions to ask at interviews, consider their answers to a range of potential interview questions well in advance, and mail/e-mail thank-you notes expressing continuing interest and emphasizing match soon after visits.

Step 6 is negotiating the offer. Formal job offers typically occur 1 to 8 weeks after an interview. During interviews, applicants may be asked about start-up research budget. To prepare, applicants should discuss needs with recently hired faculty and mentors. Once an offer is extended, the applicant suddenly has the upper hand and can negotiate requests: a second evaluative visit, perhaps with a spouse/partner; start-up money and supplies (computers, software, equipment, pilot study funds, graduate student assistants); reduced course loads; higher salary; summer salary; laboratory assistants; reduced course loads; fewer students; equipment, pilot study funds, graduate student assistants; reduced course loads; higher salary; summer salary; laboratory space or resources; moving expenses; and so on. The applicant can also delay, to some extent, the decision time in order to determine status at other universities (Trend 6). Details are available elsewhere (e.g., Darley & Zanna, 1979, 2004; Iacono, 1981).

Conclusion

Application to academic jobs in clinical psychology is an evolving process. Six recent trends, lacking in dated resources, have been identified. Combined with other resources (e.g., Brems et al., 1995; Darley & Zanna, 1979, 2004; Iacono, 1981), both applicants and hirers should feel up-to-date on the academic clinical psychology job market.

References


Milling, L., & Walker, C. E. (1991). Psychologists and theory on the applications of transcendental meditation (TM) in offender rehabilitation as well as school-based and community-based crime prevention. Behavior therapists and others are becoming increasingly interested in mediation as an adjunct to therapy, as a component in multimodal therapies such as Dialectical Behavior Therapy and Acceptance and Commitment Therapy, and as a stand-alone treatment for a variety of health problems. However, radical behaviorists and cognitive-behavioral therapists alike may have a difficult time with this book's focus on meditation as a spiritual practice that purportedly has the power to transform practitioners' lives through the achievement of "higher states of consciousness." In our review, we will first describe the TM technique and then offer our summary and critique of the book.

TM, perhaps the world's most popular meditation form, is a technique of consciousness-based practice originating in the Vedic tradition of India and taught internationally since 1957 by Maharishi Mahesh Yogi. The TM technique is described on page 236 of the book as:

"A simple mental procedure for systematically gaining the experience of pure transcendental consciousness and bringing the ordinariness of this state into daily life. The technique involves no concentration or contemplation. It is taught in a uniform way around the..."
world, and to date more than 5 million people from different cultures and professions have been instructed in the practice. The technique works on the basis of innate capabilities of the human nervous system and, therefore, requires no change in lifestyle or belief. It is not a religion, nor does it involve any religious practices. As long as one follows the simple instructions, it is not even necessary to believe in the effectiveness of the practice to gain its benefits.

This book was conceived and organized by its lead editor, Charles N. Alexander. It features his contribution to a lifespan model of human development and several original research papers, and is a testament to his lifelong interest in the application of TM in the fields of offender rehabilitation and crime prevention. The volume also serves as a posthumous tribute to Dr. Alexander, who died in 1998. An "In Memoriam" essay by colleague and friend Gerald T. Geer of the Maharishi University of Management in Fairfield, Iowa, follows the foreword to the book.

The Introduction and Overview of the book describes the main features of the Maharishi's consciousness-based approach to offender rehabilitation by summarizing the origin and nature of the TM techniques. This chapter then provides a review of Alexander's synthesis of developmental theories that includes higher states of consciousness as delineated in Maharishi Vedic Science. Finally, the chapter concludes with an overview of the volume's contents.

As described in the Introduction and Overview, the TM technique is designed to allow the practitioner to achieve a fourth state of consciousness, distinct from waking, dreaming, or sleeping, called (in the Vedic tradition) transcendental consciousness. Physiological research over the past 30 years is cited by the authors in support of the notion that the state of consciousness created by practicing the TM technique is distinct from mere eyes-closed rest and is characterized by a "restful alertness" in which the mind is alert while the body is in a state of deep relaxation. Instruction in the TM technique consists of two introductory lectures, a brief personal interview, individualized personal instruction, and at least three follow-up group sessions. Practice of the technique does not involve adopting any religious beliefs, particular philosophy of life, or set of prescribed behaviors. The TM technique is, however, taught for a fee, which (for example) at the time of this writing was $2,500 in Seattle, Washington.

Section One of the book, "Theory and Review," follows the Introduction and Overview chapter and a Highlight section, entitled "A Community-Based Sentencing Program for Probationers," that describes a TM program for probationers which was pioneered in St. Louis, Missouri. Section One includes two chapters; the first is a narrative review of the effectiveness of the TM program in criminal rehabilitation and substance abuse recovery. Mark Hawkins reviews 15 studies on the TM program and criminal rehabilitation and 25 studies on the TM program and substance use. The section on criminal rehabilitation begins with a thoughtful and contemporary review of the literature on risk and protective factors associated with crime, coming to the conclusion (shared by many researchers) that stress combined with vulnerability created by both the chronic effects of exposure to stress and inadequate coping ability are key factors in both substance use and criminal conduct (Zamble & Porporino, 1990). Hawkins concludes that the TM program reduces both substance abuse and crime because it heals the effects of chronic stress and fosters personal growth that increases effective coping with stress.

Research on the impact of the TM technique on offenders and substance abuse clients is briefly described. In two tables (one for each population) the author presents a citation, a brief study description, and a summary of the results, limitations, and implications of the study. Unfortunately, it is very difficult to determine the methodological rigor of these studies from the sparse information provided. However, in both areas of inquiry, the research designs were more often case studies, cross-sectional correlational designs, or quasi-experiments than true experiments. When randomized controlled trials were attempted, random assignment to conditions rarely was achieved. Most of the studies suffered from self-selection bias in both subject recruitment and, in cases where a comparison group was used, assignment to conditions. Measurement reliability and validity were problematic, and statistical methods used often were dated or nonstandard. Most of the studies were not published in refereed journals and were authored by faculty at the Maharishi University of Management in Fairfield, Iowa, or by others associated with the TM program. It also is not clear how and by whom the studies were funded. If the studies had been of uniformly high quality, one might agree with the author's conclusion that the existing body of research supports the usefulness of the TM technique in the treatment of criminal offenders and substance abusers (p. 65). However, given the methodological limitations, a more accurate claim would be that the evidence to date is encouraging, and that more controlled studies, funded by impartial third parties, using more rigorous methods and more sophisticated statistical tests, and conducted by independent investigators not associated with the TM program, seem warranted.

Section One of the book concludes with a chapter reviewing "Effects of the Transcendental Meditation Program on Neuroendocrine Abnormalities Associated with Aggression and Crime." Authors Walton and Levitsky review studies supporting the link between abnormal neuroendocrine functioning and anxiety, depression, hostility, and aggression. They then focus on the relationship between stress-induced abnormalities in the neuroendocrine system and crime and on how the TM technique reduces offending by reversing these stress-induced abnormalities and increasing health. Although the research on stress and its effect on disease, substance abuse and aggression is convincing (see Goeders, 2004, for a recent review), and the research demonstrating effects of the TM technique in reversing stress-induced neuroendocrine abnormalities is more rigorous than the studies on substance abuse and crime, the research does not demonstrate what the authors claim is a direct connection between changes in offender physiology and criminal behaviors.

Section Two of the book is entitled Original Research on Rehabilitation and contains reports of six studies conducted in four prison systems. The first chapter, by Orme-Johnson, Kiehlbauch, and Moore, is entitled "First Prison Study Using the Transcendental Meditation Program: La Tuna Federal Penitentiary, 1971." The authors of the study claim that "the Transcendental Meditation program improves integrated function of the frontal lobes of the brain in a manner useful in rehabilitating offenders" (p. 89, 90). Methodological limitations such as a small sample (n = 17), selection bias, and nonrandom assignment to condition should temper acceptance of this claim.

The next three chapters report on research by Alexander, submitted as his dissertation to Harvard. The first of these chapters is entitled "Walpole Study of the Transcendental Meditation Program in Maximum Security Prisoners 1: Cross-Sectional Differences in Development and Psychopathology." The authors conclude...
that inmates who had practiced the program for an average of 20 months had higher levels of ‘development’ and ‘consciousness’ and lower psychopathology compared to control groups, controlling for demographics. The following chapter is entitled “Walpole Study of the Transcendental Meditation Program in Maximum Security Prisoners II: Longitudinal Study of Development and Psychopathology.” This study of changes in self-development and psychopathology over a 15.7 month period post-release showed that only the regular participants in the TM program changed significantly from pretest to posttest; more advanced TM members, who were regular in their practice, increased more than one step in Loevinger’s ego development scale. The next chapter is entitled “Walpole Study of the Transcendental Meditation Program in Maximum Security Prisoners III: Reduced Recidivism.” This study was a retrospective investigation of recidivism in 286 prisoners released from the Walpole prison and followed up for up to 59 months post-release. Statistical tests indicated that recidivism rates among inmates instructed in the TM program were significantly lower than in the comparison groups. Proportionately, over the follow-up period as a whole, the reincarceration rate was 33% lower in the TM group than in the combined sample from the four other prison programs” (p. 172). Together, these three chapters present data from a doctoral thesis over 20 years old that has never been subject to peer review. Although the authors describe strengths and weaknesses of the studies, questions pertaining to methodological rigor remain for all three reports, especially with regard to self-selection bias, nonrandom assignment to conditions, measurement reliability and validity, and statistical methods.

The fifth chapter in Section Two, entitled “Effects of the Transcendental Meditation Program on Recidivism Among Former Inmates of Folsom Prison: Survival Analysis of 15-Year Follow-Up Data,” presents original research by Rainforth, Alexander, and Cavanaugh. This study used a matched-control design to compare the long-term recidivism rates of 153 male inmates at Folsom Prison, who learned the TM technique from 1975 to 1982 and had been paroled by October 1982, with the recidivism rates of 128 control subjects matched on 22 demographic and criminal history variables. The authors report that the TM group had a 46.7% recidivism rate during the follow-up period (M = 12.2 years) compared to 66.7% for the controls (p. 181). Self-selection, nonrandom assignment to conditions, and measurement issues again cast doubt on the conclusions drawn from this study.

The sixth and final chapter in Section Two, entitled “Consciousness-Based Rehabilitation in Inmates in the Netherlands Antilles: Psychosocial and Cognitive Changes,” presents original research by Hawkins, Alexander, Travis, Camela, Walfon, Dorchol, and Rainforth. The research was conducted at the federal prison on the island of Curacao from August 1994 to June 1995 and involved 300 male subjects (experimental group = 149, control group = 151) who completed a series of questionnaires measuring cognition and general well-being. The authors report some trends and significant findings supporting the ability of the TM program to decrease cognitive distortion and increase field independence, but the study is limited by the same methodological problems as have been noted with regard to the previous studies reviewed.

Section Three of the book, “Preventing Crime and Violence,” begins with a chapter entitled “Attacking Crime at Its Source: Consciousness-Based Education in the Prevention of Violence and Antisocial Behavior,” by Jones, Clayborne, Grant, and Rutherford. This chapter reviews research similar in design to that presented above, conducted in secondary and post-secondary educational settings, where the TM program is claimed to aid in the development of protective factors and to decrease risk factors associated with violence in schools as well as to foster improvements in learning capacity, creativity, and harmonious interpersonal relationships in students, faculty, and administrators who are TM practitioners. The consciousness-based education program included three elements: (1) the Science of Creative Intelligence, an interdisciplinary curriculum based on Vedic Science, (2) a prevention-oriented health education program, and (3) a Consciousness-Based faculty development program. As with other studies in the book, results are mainly correlational and are subject to alternative interpretations.

The next chapter in Section Three, by Orme-Johnson, is entitled “Preventing Crime Through the Maharishi Effect” and reviews 15 studies, conducted on city, state, national, and international levels, testing the claim that reduced crime and increased quality of life are caused when the TM technique is practiced by at least 1% of the population. Further data are reported showing similar results when just the square root of 1% of a population (which would equal, for example, 20 individuals in a community of 40,000) practices the more powerful TM-Sidhi program together in one place, causing what is termed the “Extended Maharishi Effect.” The data reported to support these claims are correlational, and little information is provided regarding how matched control communities were selected. Additional flaws in the study are related to measurement and statistical issues regarding the operational definitions of crime and quality of life.

The last chapter in Section Three, by Orme-Johnson, Dillbeck, and Alexander, is entitled, “Preventing Terrorism and International Conflict: Effects of Large Assemblies of Participants in the Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi Programs.” This chapter presents research testing the hypothesis that the simultaneous group practice of TM and the TM-Sidhi program by the square root of 1% of the earth’s population globally reduces terrorism and international conflict. Data on terrorism and international conflict were derived from major newspaper reports and correlated with three large assemblies of TM and TM-Sidhi practitioners held from 1983–1985. Data are presented showing a 72% drop in terrorism and a 32% drop in international conflict, on average, during the assemblies. These correlational findings are open to a variety of interpretations other than that offered by the authors, and the study’s measures of terrorism and international conflict are of questionable reliability and validity.

Section Four, Transcendental Meditation in Prisons and Prison Systems, begins with a case study entitled “The Transcendental Meditation Program in the Senegalese Penitentiary System,” by Anklesaria and King. The study reports on a large implementation of the TM program from 1987 to 1989 that included more than 11,000 inmates and 900 correctional officers and prison administrators in 31 of the 34 prisons in the West African nation of Senegal. Because of the absence of any controls for threats to internal validity, the results showing decreased rule infractions, a 70% decrease in medical expenses, and a 90% drop in recidivism cannot be clearly attributed to the effects of TM.

The last chapter in the book, by Magill, is entitled “Cost Savings from Teaching the Transcendental Meditation Program in Prisons” and attempts to use the results of the previously reviewed studies on offender rehabilitation to estimate the cost savings to correctional systems and to society that
would result from implementing the TM program in prisons. This study assumes that the results of the TM prison studies are accurate and that conclusions drawn from the research are sound. Given problems with the methodological rigor of this research, any calculations of cost savings are built on shaky ground at best. Therefore, the author’s conclusion that “instructing a substantial fraction of the 6 million people under criminal justice supervision in the United States would lead to a savings in the tens of billions of dollars” does not seem justified, since these savings are dependent on questionable results claiming that the TM program causes reduced infractions of rules in the prison, lower medical costs, and reduced recidivism.

Although we have expressed reservations about the conclusions expressed in the book concerning TM’s effectiveness to prevent or reduce crime, we ourselves have conducted research supporting the efficacy of TM in reducing alcohol consumption and have examined the impact of Vipassana meditation on criminal recidivism and post-release alcohol and drug use. Regarding TM, Marlatt, Pagano, Rose, and Marques (1984) evaluated the efficacy of three interventions (a mantra meditation modeled after TM, progressive muscle relaxation, and bibliotherapy) in reducing alcohol use and associated consequences among male college students who were identified as heavy social drinkers. All three experimental groups showed significantly reduced drinking at the 6-week follow-up assessment as well as increases in internal locus of control, compared to an assessment-only control group.

Subsequently, Murphy, Pagano, and Marlatt (1986) compared TM-like mantra meditation training to aerobic exercise in a similar sample of young heavy drinkers and found significant reductions in daily alcohol use in both groups compared to an assessment-only control group. Study results further indicated that for those in the meditation condition, level of compliance with the meditation practice protocol was significantly associated with drinking rates; subjects who were moderately to highly compliant in their practice of meditation showed a 60% reduction in drinking compared to those who were minimally compliant, who showed only a 24% reduction in drinking. These two randomized controlled trials of a mantra meditation program similar to TM lend support to arguments of its efficacy in reducing alcohol use in young adult drinkers.

Most recently, we have completed a study of the effects of Vipassana meditation, a Buddhist mindfulness practice, on recidivism and post-release alcohol and drug use in a county jail correctional sample. Although recidivism rates at 3 and 6 months after release from jail did not differ between the experimental and case-matched comparison groups, the results did show that 3 months following release, when compared to the control group, Vipassana meditation course participants were significantly lower on alcohol-related negative consequences, marijuana use, and both powder cocaine and crack cocaine use (Marlatt et al., 2004).

In sum, despite exaggerated claims made by the authors of this book regarding TM, we feel that both mantra and mindfulness meditation practices show considerable promise as psychological interventions, and that a mindfulness component added to more traditional cognitive-behavioral therapy for addictive behaviors could increase utilization by those seeking spiritual approaches to addressing their alcohol or drug problems and might improve the efficacy of the treatment. Therefore, we are in the process of developing a mindfulness-based relapse prevention for addictive behavior problems and comparing its impact on alcohol and drug use with that of standard cognitive-behavioral relapse-prevention therapy (Witkiewitz, Marlatt, & Walker, in press).

References


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Candidates should have completed an APA-accredited Ph.D. program and internship and be licensed or license-eligible in order to supervise graduate practice. Teaching at the graduate and undergraduate levels and supervision in core-clinical areas of the graduate training program are expected. Opportunities to collaborate in establishing centers of excellence with current faculty are available. The ability to establish and fund a program of clinically relevant research and provide services to the community within the Psychology Research and Services Center is desirable. Focus on developmental psychopathology or evidence-based practices in child assessment and intervention as well as research interests that complement current faculty research on childhood trauma, adolescent psychopathology, domestic violence, forensic psychology, and the impact of family conflict on children would be especially desirable.

Candidates should demonstrate a record predictive of future scholarly productivity, potential and commitment to develop a nationally competitive program of research, and the ability to contribute to undergraduate and doctoral programs. See: http://www.psychology.uh.edu for information on the department’s graduate and undergraduate programs, faculty, and affiliated research centers. Additional information on the University is available at http://www.uh.edu. The University of Houston is an Equal Opportunity/Affirmative-Action employer. Minorities, women, veterans, and persons with disabilities are encouraged to apply.

Review of candidates for each position will begin in November 2004 and will continue until the position is filled. Interested candidates should send a cover letter describing teaching and research interests, curriculum vita, representative recent reprints and preprints of publications, and three reference letters to the Chair of search committee. For further information or to apply, please contact: John P. Vincent, Ph.D., Chair, Child-Clinical Search Committee, Department of Psychology, University of Houston, Houston, TX 77204-5022, (713-743-8503, jpvincen@uh.edu).

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