Positive Psychology: Theory and Application

☙ Society of Counseling Psychology's Section on Positive Psychology
of the American Psychological Association Newsletter ❧

In This Issue!

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News from the Chair
Rhea Owens, Ph.D.

Rhea Owens, Ph.D. is the Chair of the Positive Psychology Section and an Assistant Professor of Counselling Psychology at the University of British Columbia. She received her M.S. and Ph.D. in Counseling Psychology from the University of Kansas. Her research interests include positive psychological interventions and the assessment and development of strengths, particularly with child and youth populations.

Greetings from the Section on Positive Psychology!

It's been an exciting year and we have many updates to share!

APA Recap

We had an amazing time at the American Psychological Association Convention with an outstanding turnout for all of our programs! Our Roundtable, *Expanding the Reach of Positive Psychology*, had such an excellent turnout we couldn't fit around the table! Students and professionals joined us for the social, which was a lot of fun. The Section Collaborative Symposium: *Applications of Positive Psychology Across Diverse Contexts*, discussed positive psychology assessment approaches, as well as a gratitude intervention for college students. Finally, our business meeting was quite productive. We discussed the criteria for our Student Campus Representative positions, how to disseminate resources to our membership, and potentially pursuing a Section journal and expanding our Section to Division status.

Student Leadership Opportunities

In the future, if students are looking for leadership opportunities, there are several available options. On the Executive Board, students can apply for the Student Representative, Practice Representative, Teaching Representative, and Research Representative positions. These are two-year positions that begin in August at the APA convention. An email is typically sent out through our listserv in the Spring regarding applications and deadlines.

Another leadership opportunity available includes the Student Campus Representative positions. We accept applications for these positions on an on-going basis and ask students to participate for approximately one year; however, involvement can extend beyond one year. This position involves increasing knowledge about and engagement in positive psychology at the Student Campus Representatives' universities. If you are interested in applying, please go to our website: http://www.div17pospsych.com/student-campus-rep-application/. Our Student Representative will then contact you.

Featured Members

Beginning in 2015, the Section began featuring some of our amazing members on a monthly basis. These highlights, including an interview with each member, are sent out through our listserv and also shared on our website: http://www.div17pospsych.com/memberspotlight/

Past featured student members included: Rebecca Kinsey (Ball State University), Beatriz Bello (University of California, Santa Barbara), Shu-Yi Wang (Indiana University Bloomington), Dominika Borowa (Texas Tech Univeristy), and Blake Allan (University of Florida; now Assistant Professor at Purdue University).

Past featured professional members included: Donnie Davis (Georgia State University), Hang-Shim Lee (Oklahoma State University), Brian Dik (Colorado State University), Christine Robitschek (Texas Tech University), Jennifer Teramoto Pedrotti (Cal Poly State University), Jeana Magyar-Moe (University of Wisconsin – Stevens Point), and Michael Scheel (University of Nebraska-Lincoln).

Become a Member

We're a fun group! And it's free to join!

To join, please go to:
http://www.div17pospsych.com/join-the-section/

Section Awards

Each year, the Section gives out two awards—the Student Award for Distinguished Contributions in Positive Psychology and the Shane J. Lopez Award for Professional Contribution in Positive Psychology. Information about the awards and application process can be found here: http://www.div17pospsych.com/nomination-information/

We are very excited to announce this year's award winners:

Student Award for Distinguished Contributions in Positive Psychology: **Hanna Suh** (University of Florida)
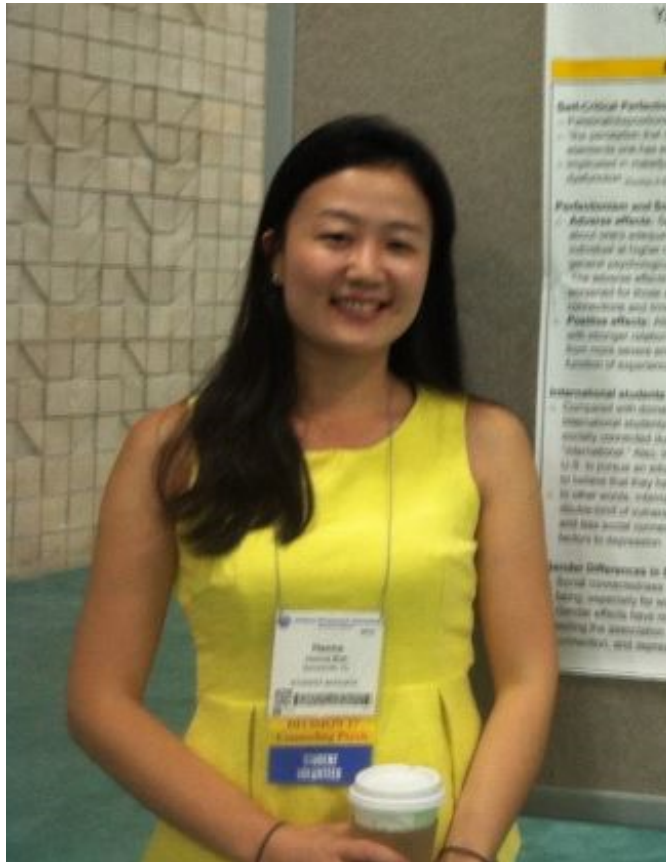
Hanna Suh was born in Seoul, South Korea and received her undergraduate and master's degree in psychology at Yonsei University, South Korea. She obtained her Ph.D. in counseling psychology at the University of Florida and completed her doctoral internship at the University of Pennsylvania Counseling and Psychological Services. Her research generally falls under positive psychology, focusing on how resilience can be built through mindfulness and self-compassion interventions.

Information about the awards and application process can be found here:

http://www.div17pospsych.com/nomination-information/

Shane J. Lopez Award for Professional Contribution in Positive Psychology: **Joel Wong, Ph.D.**

Dr. Joel Wong is an Associate Professor in Counseling/Counselor Education and Counseling Psychology at Indiana University Bloomington. He is also an affiliated faculty member with the Asian American Studies Program and the Center for Research on Race and Ethnicity in Society. Dr. Wong specializes in Asian/Asian American mental health, the psychology of men and masculinities, positive psychology, and cross-cultural counseling. Dr. Wong is a fellow of APA and an associate editor for the *Journal of Counseling Psychology* and the *Psychology of Men and Masculinity*.

Application of Micro-affirmations to Advising and Mentoring International Students in the U.S.

Hang-Shim Lee, Ph.D. is an assistant professor in the APA-accredited Counseling Psychology Program at Oklahoma State University. She received her Ph.D. in Counseling Psychology from the University of Missouri and her M.A. in Psychology from Ewha Womans University in Seoul, South Korea. Her main research interest involves multicultural vocational psychology within a positive psychology framework. She is currently conducting several research projects on the positive academic adjustment of international students in the U.S. and gender/ethnic minority engineering students ' academic persistence and psychological well-being. She may be reached by email: hangshim.lee@okstate.edu

     According to the annual report of the Institute of International Education (Open Doors, 2015), a total of 974,926 international students were enrolled in U.S. college and universities in the 2014-15 academic year, which represents a 10% increase from the previous academic year. International students are often at a greater risk of experiencing psychological and academic problems than their domestic counterparts due to unique challenges such as language barriers and a lack of social support and connectedness (Misra & Castilio, 2004; Olivas & Li, 2006). Even though international offices in the U.S. universities provide basic

5

resources and information to support international students' adjustment through orientations, there is a lack of guidelines for faculty and academic advisors on how to advise international students and help their academic success in the U.S. When we think about guidelines or strategies to support international students' academic success in the U.S., many people may think about large-scale interventions such as special workshops, orientations, or seminars. However, small, but daily interactions between faculty and international students can be more powerful to enhance international students' positive academic adjustment in the U.S., rather than one-time workshops or orientations. Thus, this brief article aims to introduce the concept of micro-affirmation and provide ideas on how academic advisors and faculty in the U.S. universities could utilize this concept when they advise international students through daily interactions.

The Concept of Micro-affirmations

The concept of micro-affirmations was originally developed with reference to gender inequality in workplace settings (Rowe, 1974). Micro-affirmations refer to small and subtle acts facilitating welcoming, comforting, and inclusive atmosphere for underrepresented individuals or groups who may feel invisible in the working environments (Rowe, 2008). While Rowe described that micro-affirmations might be "unintentional, unconscious, and subtle acts," she also highlighted that micro-affirmations can become "intentional, conscious, and practicable acts." She mentioned that micro-affirmations can be very hard to recognize but can be very powerful to help an individual or groups to succeed. Rowe (2008) explained that individuals who receive micro-affirmations from co-workers or supervisors are more

likely to be productive and perform better in the working settings than others.

In terms of applying micro-affirmations in educational settings, Powell, Demetriou, and Fisher (2013) suggested that practice of micro-affirmations could foster students' academic satisfaction, self-efficacy, resiliency, and a sense of belonging by increasing students' persistence levels when students experience academic changes. A qualitative study of diverse graduate students' experience related to micro-affirmation also supported the positive outcomes by reporting that students who experience micro-affirmations are more likely to feel empowerment, positive emotions, connectedness, and wellness (Kock, Loche, Loche, & Knutson, 2015). These results suggest that it could be useful for educators to pay attention to the positive impact of micro-affirmations and application of micro-affirmations in the educational setting.

Application of Micro-affirmations to International Students

There are various ways that faculty and academic advisors can be micro-affirmative in the educational settings. The following sections discuss ideas on how faculty and academic advisors can be micro-affirmative in their daily interactions with international students through examples.

Acknowledge international students' unique cultural background. The definition of acknowledgement is the act of admitting the existence or truth of something. Faculty can be micro-affirmative by acknowledging international students' cultural background, such as their origin of nation and unique cultural heritage (e.g., celebrating the Lunar New Year or Fall Full Moon Festival holidays). Faculty who are working with international students might be able to ask questions such as, "I heard that

you have a Lunar New Year in February. How do your family and friends back home celebrate Lunar New Year holidays?" International students who are asked those questions by academic faculty might feel being cared for, especially during the time of their big cultural holidays and events that they might miss in the U.S. These are small and simple questions, but those can reduce the feeling of cultural loss among international students who are not able to celebrate these big holidays with their family.

Recognize international students' strengths beyond language barriers. It is important for the faculty to understand and recognize that international students are more likely to focus on their deficits due to their language barriers and lack of cultural confidence in a new cultural context that is different from their home culture. Micro-affirmative acts from faculty may help international students recognize their own strengths and empower them to further develop their strengths rather than focusing on their language barriers or lack of cultural confidence. An example would be to say, "Even though your English is not perfect, you are still a good student. While I am working with you, I notice that you have a lot of brilliant ideas on this topic and you are very good at organizing ideas. I think these are your big strengths." This micro-affirmative recognition of international students' strengths coming from a faculty member might boost international students' self-efficacy and academic interests. These small and tiny recognitions of international students' strengths from faculty daily-based observations may play a big role in enhancing the academic motivation of international students.

Normalize international students' challenging experience. Although international students report feeling satisfied with their overall educational experience in the U.S., most international students experience cultural, social, financial, and psychological challenges beyond academic challenges (Gulgoz, 2001; Sam, 2001; Yeh & Inose, 2003). Some academic challenges are commonly shared by both American students and international students, such as giving a public presentation to a large audience. However, international students may tend to more easily internalize those challenges as their fault or attribute them as their individual problem. It would be important for advisors to help international students understand that these challenges could be common to everyone, by using micro-affirmative communication. An example of this type of helpful advising might be, "It is natural that you feel anxious about your presentation. Speaking in front of a big audience might be scary for anyone, not only for you."

Conclusion

So far, a considerable amount of research has been primarily focused on examining factors that influence academic stress, mental health issues, and acculturation stress of international students in the U.S. (Mori, 2000; Zhang & Goodson, 2011). However, the factors that support international students' flourishing and thriving in U.S. educational settings have been largely ignored in the current literature (Tseng & Newton, 2002). To help international students to thrive in their academic work, faculty and academic mentors may start with very small acts, such as warm eye contact, asking how to pronounce their name correctly and about their cultural background, with micro-affirmative attitude and communication skills. A macro-impact on positive adjustment of international students ironically may start from the very tiny everyday interactions.

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Understanding the Relationship Between Gratitude and Emotion Regulation Self-Efficacy

Rebecca Kinsey, MA is a doctoral student in the Counseling Psychology department at Ball State University. Her research interests include positive psychology applied to vocational behavior, gratitude and savoring, and scale development and evaluation.

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Gratitude is conceptualized as an affective trait (i.e., disposition) and is defined as "a generalized tendency to recognize and respond with grateful emotion to the roles of other people's benevolence in the positive experiences and outcomes that one obtains" (McCullough, Emmons, & Tsang, 2002, p. 112). Gratitude interventions have yielded a number of positive outcomes including higher satisfaction with life and environmental mastery (Carson et al., 2010); positive affect (Chan, 2010); decreased stress and depressive symptoms (Cheng, Tsui, & Lam, 2015); and better sleep (Digdon & Koble, 2011).

Researchers have found that gratitude interventions can lead to positive benefits for participants. One study (Carson et al., 2010) found increasing one's gratitude also increased one's sense of self-efficacy. However, after reviewing the literature, it appears researchers have not investigated the relationship between gratitude and *emotion regulation* self-efficacy. Caprera et al. (2008) described self-efficacy in regulating negative affect as the "beliefs regarding one's capability to ameliorate negative emotional states once they are aroused in response to adversity or frustrating events and to avoid being overcome by emotions such as anger, irritation, despondency, and discouragement" (p. 228). Self-efficacy in expressing positive emotions refers to "beliefs in one's capability to experience or to allow oneself to express positive emotions, such as joy, enthusiasm, and pride, in response to success or pleasant events" (p. 228). Perhaps if a person learns how to express and cultivate gratitude, s/he may feel as though s/he is better able to express positive emotions and regulate negative emotions. Thus, the researchers hypothesized that grateful disposition and experiences of of grateful emotions (e.g., thankfulness) would predict positive and negative affect and emotion regulation self-efficacy.

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited from undergraduate counseling psychology courses. The sample consisted of 158 participants (*male* = 16; *female* = 141, *other* = 1). Because there was a large disparity between the number of females and other genders, the researchers excluded participants who identified as male or other. As a result, the total sample consisted of 141 female participants with the average age of 21.15. The ethnicity for the sample was as follows: 83.1% identified as White, 12% identified as African American, 4.2% identified as Latino, and 4.2% identified as another ethnicity (Asian, Native American, or Other).

Measures

Participants completed the Gratitude Questionnaire-6 (GQ-6; McCullough et al., 2002), three affective gratitude items (Emmons & McCullough, 2003), the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), and the Regulatory Emotional Self-Efficacy Scale (RESES; Caprara et al., 2008).

Gratitude. Dispositional gratitude was measured by the GQ-6 (McCullough et al., 2002). The GQ-6 is a six-item measure that assesses dispositional gratitude. Participants answered questions on a 7-point Likert scale (*1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree).* Sample items include: "I have so much in life to be thankful for" and "I am grateful to a wide variety of people." The GQ-6 has shown to have good internal consistency with an alpha ranging between .82 to .90 (Emmons & Kneezel, 2005; McCullough et al., 2002). Higher scores indicate greater degrees of dispositional gratitude. The internal consistency reliability estimate for the GQ-6 in this study was .77.

Affective Gratitude. Following the research of Emmons and McCullough (2003), affective gratitude was measured by three affective states: grateful, appreciative, and thankful. Participants answered how often they felt these emotions over a few weeks on a 5-point Likert scale (*1 = very slightly or not at all; 5 = extremely).* Higher scores indicate experiencing a high degree of grateful emotions over the last few weeks. Internal consistency reliability estimate for the affective gratitude questions in this study was .84.

PANAS. The PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) is a 20-item scale that measures positive and negative affect. Through exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, the measure has shown to have two factors: positive affect and negative affect. Participants respond to questions regarding how often they have experienced each emotion over the last two weeks on a 5-point Likert scale (*1 = very slightly or not at all; 5 = extremely).* The PANAS has shown to have good internal consistency with alphas at .88 for the Positive Affect scale and .87 for the Negative Affect scale (Watson et al., 1988). Higher scores indicate more positive or negative affect. Internal consistency reliability estimates for the Positive Affect Scale in this study was .84 and .89 for the Negative Affect Scale.

RESES. The RESES (Caprara et al., 2008) is a 12-item scale that measures participants' ability to regulate their negative emotions including distress and anger/irritation and their perceived ability to express positive emotions. Participants answer on a 5-point Likert scale (*1 = not well at all; 5 = very well).* Sample items include, "How well can you rejoice over your successes?" and "How well can you keep from getting discouraged in the face of difficulties?"

The RESES consists of two factors: positive and negative emotional regulation self-efficacy. The "positive" factor consists of questions related to respondents' ability to express their positive emotions. The "negative" factor consists of questions related to respondents' ability to regulate their distress and anger/irritation. Scores are obtained by averaging the responses on the subscales. Internal consistency reliability estimates for the negative emotion regulation self-efficacy scale was .87 and .71 for the positive emotion regulation self-efficacy scale.

Procedure

After approval from the university's Institutional Review Board, questionnaires were posted online through Qualtrics. The researchers sent out an email to the counseling psychology department requesting participation in the study. Instructors informed their students of the opportunity. Participants were rewarded research credit upon completion of the surveys. Participants completed the measures in counterbalanced order through Qualtrics.

Results

All scores on the measures were significantly related to each other at the .05 level. Multicollinearity was assessed and was not an issue as evidenced by Tolerance values above .20 ($M = .63$) and VIF values well below 10 and close to 1 ($M = 1.58$; Field, 2009). The mean for gratitude disposition was 37.11 ($SD = 4.31$), the mean for gratitude affect was 12.49 ($SD = 1.99$), the mean for positive affect was 34.82 ($SD = 6.36$), the mean for negative affect was 24.15 ($SD = 8.01$), the mean for self-efficacy in positive emotion expression was 4.27 ($SD = .59$), and the mean for negative emotion regulation was 3.03 ($SD = .77$).

The researcher conducted a multivariate regression analysis in R version 3.2.3 to evaluate how well dispositional and affective gratitude predicted affect and emotion regulation self-efficacy. All scores on the subscales were standardized. Scores on the positive emotion regulation subscale, negative emotion regulation subscale, positive affect subscale, and negative affect subscale served as the criterion variables, and scores on the gratitude disposition scale and gratitude affect scale served as the predictor variables. The MANOVA indicated the relationship between the predictor variables and dispositional gratitude was significant, $F(4, 133) = 13.27$, $p < .001$, and between the predictor variables and affective gratitude was significant, $F(4, 133) = 7.98$, $p < .001$. The significant multivariate regression analysis was followed-up with individual multiple regression analyses.

There was a significant positive relationship between positive affect and affective gratitude, $b = .49$, $p < .001$, such that higher affective gratitude predicted higher positive affect. The relationship between positive affect and dispositional gratitude was nonsignificant, $p = .33$. There was a significant negative relationship between negative affect and dispositional gratitude, $b = -.29$, $p = .006$, such that higher dispositional gratitude predicted lower negative affect. There was a significant positive relationship between positive emotion regulation self-efficacy and dispositional gratitude, $b = .22$, $p = .024$, and between affective gratitude, $b = .26$, $p = .01$. In other words, higher dispositional gratitude and affective gratitude predicted positive emotion regulation self-efficacy.

The relationship between negative emotion regulation self-efficacy and dispositional gratitude was significant, $b =.23$, $p = .0257$, and the relationship between negative emotion regulation self-efficacy and affective gratitude was nonsignificant, $p = .22$. In other words, higher dispositional gratitude predicted negative emotion regulation self-efficacy.

Discussion and Limitations

The results from this study partially supported the hypothesis. The findings indicated that dispositional and affective gratitude had some predictive value for affect and emotion regulation self-efficacy. In the current sample, participants who had a more grateful disposition were less likely to experience negative affect. Further, participants who had a more grateful disposition and experienced more grateful emotions felt as though they were better able to express their positive emotions. Additionally, participants who had a grateful disposition believed they were better able to regulate their negative emotions.

Gratitude interventions have yielded a number of positive benefits including increased well-being (Lyubomirsky, Dickerhoof, Boehm, & Sheldon, 2011; Toepfer, Chichy, & Peters, 2012; Watkins, Uhder, & Pichinevskiy; 2015) and happiness (Seligman, Steen, Park, & Peterson, 2005), and decreased depression (Lambert, Finchham, & Stillman, 2012; Seligman, et al., 2005). Perhaps researchers are finding that teaching people how to reflect upon their grateful experiences is beneficial because it is teaching participants ways in which to cultivate positive emotions, which may in turn decrease negative emotions (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). In other words, it is teaching people emotion regulation skills, which entails individuals increasing positive

emotions and reducing the impact of negative emotions (Linehan, 1993). If people feel as though they have emotion regulation skills, they will most likely also feel as though they have the self-efficacy to engage in emotion regulation. Future researchers should determine if emotion regulation self-efficacy is a potential mechanism by which gratitude leads to positive outcomes. Further, because the results from the current study support the notion that gratitude predicts one's ability to express positive emotions, future researchers should determine if implementing a gratitude intervention actually increases individuals' sense of self-efficacy for expressing their positive emotions, as a gratitude intervention would theoretically teach individuals how to express gratitude (i.e., a positive emotion). In fact, Watkins, Uhder, and Pichinevskiy (2015) proposed that individuals who partake in gratitude interventions may actually be trained to process future experiences gratefully, which may address their self-efficacy in expressing positive emotions.

Although the study was novel such that it investigated the relation between gratitude and emotion regulation self-efficacy, it does have a number of limitations. First, the sample was quite homogenous, which impacts the generalizability of the findings. Because the researchers had substantially more females than males in the study, males were excluded from the analyses. Thus, the findings from the present study only apply to females' reported gratitude, affect, and emotion regulation self-efficacy. Unfortunately, as a result, the researchers cannot draw conclusions about males' experiences or gender differences. Further the sample consisted mostly of undergraduate students who identified as Caucasian, which again limits the generalizability of these findings to other

ethnic groups. The RESES has been validated with various cultural groups (e.g., American, Italian, German; Caprara et al., 2008), and thus, future researchers may want to study cross-cultural differences in emotion regulation self-efficacy. Regardless, this study contributes to psychologists' knowledge of emotion regulation self-efficacy in undergraduate, Caucasian females, an area that is lacking in research. Finally, the study was cross-sectional in nature and therefore no causal implications can be made. However, the researchers hope that this study serves as a catalyst for future experimental research in which researchers investigate outcomes, specifically emotion regulation self-efficacy, of gratitude interventions over time.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the results from the present study found that dispositional and affective gratitude predict some positive outcomes. In the current sample, more grateful participants reported being able to express their positive emotions, regulate negative emotions, and experience less negative affect compared to less grateful participants. The results from this study are similar to what other researchers have found regarding gratitude such that it is inversely related to negative affect (Emmons & McCullough, 2003). Further, this study examined the relationship between gratitude and emotion regulation self-efficacy such that gratitude predicted emotion regulation self-efficacy. Future researchers should try to create interventions that cultivate gratitude to determine if it leads to participants' having an increased sense of emotion regulation self-efficacy. The findings from this study contribute to the understanding of gratitude and how it may impact individuals' beliefs about their efficacy in regulating and expressing emotions. There is a dearth of research regarding emotion regulation self-efficacy, and thus it is hoped that this study will stimulate research in how it may relate to other positive psychological constructs (e.g., forgiveness, optimism). As psychologists gain a better understanding of emotion regulation self-efficacy, they may be able to develop these beliefs through intervention, perhaps through positive psychology interventions. Therefore, more research needs to be conducted in this area in order to determine if certain interventions (e.g., gratitude) can cause increases in emotion regulation self-efficacy.

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Goal Focused Positive Psychotherapy in a High School Dropout Prevention Program

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Collie W. Conoley is Director of the Carol Ackerman Positive Psychology Center at University of California, Santa Barbara and a professor in Department of Counseling, Clinical and School Psychology at the University of California, Santa Barbara. His research interests include positive psychology, process and outcome research, multicultural psychology and family psychology. Collie received his doctorate from the University of Texas at Austin.

Kendal Cassidy is a second-year counseling psychology doctoral student at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

Zoe Chen graduated with a master's degree in community counseling from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln and currently is a research assistant in the psychology department of Beijing Normal University.

Alexandra Dahl is a first-year counseling psychology doctoral student at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

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Goal Focused Positive Psychotherapy (GFPP) is a comprehensive, stand-alone therapy approach based on major tenets of positive psychology. Conoley and Scheel (2015) have developed the GFPP psychotherapy model with the flexibility to be applied across a wide range of therapy contexts and problems that include working with adolescents in schools. The overall aims of GFPP are to help people lead happier and more fulfilling lives through increased well-being. Heightened well-being equips individuals to withstand life stressors, persevere through the inevitable problems of life, overcome psychological disorders, and build on existing strengths and resources. GFPP is presented here as integrated into the Building Bridges high school dropout prevention program for ninth grade students identified as at-risk for school failure and dropping out. Building Bridges uses the GFPP counseling approach to work with ninth graders who have had little success in school, and lack academic engagement, motivation, or self-efficacy. The GFPP approach is different from previous school efforts to motivate the students referred to Building Bridges, because rather than focusing on the problems of school failure, inconsistent school attendance, and lack of cooperation, emphasis is placed on identifying strengths, creating positive emotions and experiences, and forming approach goals rather than avoidance goals.

The GFPP model offers a psychological metaphor for human change in contrast to a physical science metaphor traditional to most psychotherapy treatment. Consistent with the physical science metaphor, psychotherapy has historically been dependent on forming accurate diagnoses as a basis of treatment. Taking an example from the physical science world, if a car engine stops running it is important to understand the problem or cause. If the

problem were correctly diagnosed as a lack of gasoline, the solution would of course be to fill up the gas tank. With human beings it is not as simple. An effective treatment is not clearly evident when, for example, a student diagnosed with ADHD is failing in school. In contrast to the physical science change metaphor, a psychological change can occur without dependency on accurate diagnosis. GFPP and the psychological metaphor for human change are grounded in the premise that human beings can overcome problems by learning to live more meaningful lives; by gaining supportive and caring relationships; by building self efficacy; by focusing on desired goals; and by frequently experiencing positive emotions. In GFPP, psychotherapy is emphasized as a process of helping people to attain these conditions, thereby using psychological means to withstand mental disorders and human problems.

The change process of GFPP is described through Fredrickson's (1998; 2000) Broaden and Build theory of positive emotions. GFPP is geared toward the creation and amplification of client positive emotions and experiences. Research has demonstrated support for Broaden and Build and the power of positive emotions. Findings demonstrate that individuals recover faster from stress-induced situations measured by cardiovascular responses when they are exposed to positively affective stimuli (Fredrickson, Mancuso, Branigan, & Tugade, 2000). The positive feelings of curiosity, joy, gratitude, optimism, support, and pride among others act to broaden individuals to be creative, to be open to change, and to engage in new ideas and new perspectives. Over time through multiple experiences with positive emotions, individuals build resources to draw from when they experience stressors and problems. The new resources built through positive emotions provide new pathways to goals, new or stronger relationships, new coping strategies, and new

knowledge. Individuals during brief experiences of positive emotions are apt to problem solve, explore, experiment, play, and be creative. Occurrences of positive emotions over time create an upward spiral increasing broad-minded coping and emotional well-being (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002). Frequently occurring positive emotions has been found to be more impactful than the magnitude of a singular emotional experience (Diener, Sandvik, & Pavot, 2009). In the Building Bridges dropout prevention program, counselors strive frequently and persistently to find ways to trigger, foster, and suggest experiences of positive emotions and experiences with their clients.

The undoing hypothesis of Broaden and Build suggests that problems, negative emotions, or states can be undone through broadening (Fredrickson, 2001). The client that focuses on what he or she is grateful for or likes or perceives as a strength can indirectly undo negative feelings or states. The high school students referred to Building Bridges have seldom experienced positive feelings toward school or reflected in optimistic ways about their academic experiences. To the contrary, most students coming into Building Bridges have long histories of failure in school reinforced often by adults in the school and parents. The emphasis of Building Bridges counselors in their application of GFPP is to make a shift away from past failures toward student successes (even small ones), individual strengths, and positive relationships. The expected student response when focus is shifted to the positives should be broadening the student to new ways of approaching school tasks, becoming more academically motivated, and developing competence as a student.

Building Bridges (Byrom, Scheel, & Wachira, 2015; Conoley & Scheel, 2014;

Scheel, 2016) has been implemented at three urban high schools in a large Midwestern school district. Counselors are counseling psychology graduate students trained in the GFPP model. They promote the four hallmarks of the GFPP approach: (a) experiencing positive emotions; (b) identifying personal strengths; (c) forming approach goals; and (d) instilling hope. Next, methods of promoting the four hallmarks in work with the ninth grade Building Bridges clients are described. After that, case examples are used to demonstrate the application of GFPP in the Building Bridges program.

Experiencing Positive Emotions

Activities used to promote positive emotions include gratitude exercises (Emmons & McCullough, 2003), planning pleasurable times, savoring positive experiences, capitalizing on successes (Conoley, Vasquez, Bello, et al. 2015; Reis, Smith, Carmichael, 2010), performing acts of kindness (Otake et al., 2006), and practicing self compassion (Neff, 2012). When Building Bridges clients experience positive emotions as a result of the planned activities or in interactions with their counselor, counselors work to capitalize on each experience by celebrating it with the client, encouraging clients to savor the positive feelings using mindfulness techniques, and suggesting ways clients can expand on positive experiences.

Identifying Personal Strengths

Each Building Bridges student completes the VIA-IS (Park & Peterson, 2006) to identify the student's top five character strengths. The counselor encourages them to apply their strengths at school on a weekly basis. Successes in using strengths are capitalized on in counseling sessions. Counselors also listen intently for and

capitalize on embedded strengths within client messages. The embedded strengths may take the form of active coping; accomplishing a worthy task; pointing out a healthy activity that has given the client enjoyment and meaning; referring to a good relationship or positive feelings toward someone; pointing to an ability of the client; or identifying desired states or goals of the client.

Forming Approach Goals

Students are asked to form three approach goals each semester. Initially, when asked to identify goals, students typically respond with avoidance goals such as "I don't want to fail my classes." The counselor works with the student using a technique called positive empathy (Conoley & Conoley, 2009) to identify the desired state that might be embedded in the initial avoidance goal. An approach goal is designed to facilitate growth by increasing motivation, persistence, optimism, and commitment to learn or do new things (Elliot, Gable, & Mapes, 2006). Research findings indicate that avoidance goals, oriented toward evading aversive outcomes, are associated with worse therapy outcomes and decreased well-being (Elliot & Church, 2002; Elliot & Sheldon, 1998). Thus an avoidance goal of not failing might be reframed as an approach goal of wanting to be successful in classes. The counselor will then expand on the approach goal by helping the student to form approach pathways such as "come to class feeling optimistic and hopeful" or "be open to feedback and help from the teacher so that improvements in schoolwork can be realized."

Instilling Hope

Counselors must realize that, as Frank and Frank (1991) noted, clients come to counseling feeling demoralized. Building Bridges clients are extremely demoralized as students, having little hope of success. They need to experience a process of remoralization (i.e., instillation of hope) toward their future and school. As Snyder (2002) points out, hope is instilled through the formation of goals accompanied by pathway and agency thinking. The Best Possible Self activity (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007) is used to help students visualize a positive and successful future. Counselors authentically convey hope for their clients, no matter how dire the student's situation is at school or home. Scaling questions are used to help the client realize small gains. The counselor in a genuine and hopeful way uses encouragement as a technique to model hopefulness.

Case Examples

Two case examples demonstrate GFPP in Building Bridges. The adolescent clients were seen individually on a weekly basis throughout one academic school year. Problem descriptions, approach goals formed, identified strengths, positive emotions, and outcomes are delineated. Identifying characteristics of each client have been altered to protect anonymity.

Case 1. The client initially had concerns about feeling lonely with few friends, being bullied at school, having low grades, and familial stress due to an episode of childhood sexual abuse. Approach goals were formulated of being more social, speaking up in class more often, and getting better grades. Counselor and client processed feelings related to the client's family. The counselor pointed out resiliency and that the client was a caring and loving person as client strengths. They discussed ways the client can be kind to herself and practice self-compassion.

Case 2. The client started counseling reporting a "messed up life" as a result of several adults the client strongly mistrusted. Often the client would act out in school embellishing situations to gain reactions from adults. The counselor identified client strengths of valuing friendship, being creative and humorous, and resiliency. The counselor also capitalized on a song written by the client, celebrating it and using it as a metaphor for how the client can positively interact in the world. Trusting the counselor was also identified as a strength. Approach goals included feeling loved and cared for and feeling more purposeful in how the client expressed her needs to others. An intervention included a counseling session with the client and her mother to encourage positive communication, and capitalize on the positive feelings the client and mother felt toward each other. The client ended the school year more directly communicating personal needs and feeling more in control of how she expressed her feelings toward peers and teachers. The client also achieved more consistency at school, attributing this change to heightened self-awareness.

Conclusion

GFPP was implemented through the Building Bridges program. Positive emotions, approach goals, identifying of strengths, and instilling hope were consistently included in the therapeutic approach drawing emphases away from problems and shortcomings and to strengths and positive experiences. Undoing of problems was evident as broadening occurred through generalization of positive changes realized in therapy.

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Positive Psychology and Trauma: Understanding and Enhancing Posttraumatic Growth

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The literature regarding responses to traumatic events has largely examined the negative psychological consequences—namely, posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD). However, focusing only on the negative sequelae of trauma and adversity can lead to a biased understanding of posttraumatic reactions (Linley & Joseph, 2004). The term posttraumatic growth (PTG), which refers to "the experience of positive psychological change experienced as a result of the struggle with highly challenging life circumstances" (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 2004, p. 1), is a positive psychology construct that may facilitate a more holistic understanding of individuals' responses to traumatic experiences. In fact, while PTSD has a lifetime prevalence of 3.5% (APA, 2013), as many as 70% of individuals who experience trauma also report positive change and growth coming out of the traumatic experience (Joseph & Butler, 2010), emphasizing a need to better understand PTG and how it can be enhanced through therapeutic interventions. Thus, the purpose of this article is to (a) provide an understanding of how posttraumatic growth has been conceptualized and (b) review guidelines for enhancing posttraumatic growth in the therapeutic context.

The Recent Scientific Emergence of Posttraumatic Growth

The idea that positive personal changes can develop out of suffering has existed throughout human history and has even been inadvertently discussed by psychologists in the 20th century (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 2004); however, it is only within the last 25 years that the empirical literature in psychology has focused on the possibility of growth from the struggle with trauma. Research has found, for instance, that PTG has been reported by survivors of serious medical illnesses (e.g., cancer, bone marrow transplantation, HIV/AIDS, multiple sclerosis, rheumatoid arthritis, heart attack, chemical dependency), acquired brain injury, spinal cord injury, rape, assault, intimate partner violence, childhood sexual abuse, natural disasters, war, terrorism, car accidents, and in bereaved individuals, college students, former refugees, amputees, caregivers of ill persons, and combat veterans (Calhoun & Tedeschi, 1999; Lechner, Tennen, & Affleck, 2009; Linley & Joseph, 2004; Tsai et al., 2015). PTG has been operationalized by five major domains of positive change that manifest in the trauma-exposed

individual: (a) improved interpersonal relationships, (b) openness to new possibilities, (c) a greater appreciation of life, (d) an increased sense of personal strength, and (e) spiritual development (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1995). PTG has numerous benefits, some of which include lower levels of PTSD and higher levels of emotional maturity (Aldwin & Levenson, 2004), reduction in suicidal ideation (Bush, Skopp, McCann, & Luxton, 2011), as well as a preparedness or resilience for future events that may otherwise be traumatic (Calhoun & Tedeschi, 2006; Meichenbaum, 2006). The protective component of PTG highlights a need to better understand this complex construct and how it can be facilitated among trauma survivors.

Conceptualization of Posttraumatic Growth

Janoff-Bulman (2006) developed a model to better understand the process of PTG, which depicts three different processes and perspectives on trauma survivors' positive changes: (a) strength through suffering, (b) existential reevaluation, and (c) psychological preparedness. The first process, strength through suffering, suggests that it is deemed a prerequisite for a trauma survivor to first experience distress in the aftermath of trauma—described by Janoff-Bulman (2006) as a shattering of one's pre-trauma assumptive world or core belief system—in order to thereby experience growth. This process of reconstructing one's shattered beliefs serves as a foundation for recognizing personal strengths and new possibilities. In fact, several studies have supported this theory in demonstrating that individuals who experienced more core belief disruption experienced greater PTG (Cann et al., 2010; Roepke & Seligman, 2015). When coupled with survivors' reconstructed assumptive world, their greater appreciation for and recognition of the value of life becomes a foundation for committed action and thus leads to an increased appreciation of life, improved interpersonal relationships, and spiritual growth—this comprises the existential reevaluation process (Janoff-Bulman, 2006). As a result of survivors' reconstructed fundamental assumptions is a state of psychological preparedness, characterized by a reduced risk of psychological breakdown, degeneration, and shock in the face of any future adversity (Janoff-Bulman, 2006). This is a different form of PTG such that, instead of being reflected in positive changes reported by survivors, it is more akin to a psychological state in which survivors have built an immunity and resiliency against future traumatization. This form of PTG has been supported by various researchers who have found that PTG provides protective elements in the face of future adverse circumstances (Calhoun & Tedeschi, 2006; Moran, Burker, & Schmidt, 2013; Meichenbaum, 2006; Tedeschi & Calhoun, 2004).

Guidelines for Enhancing Posttraumatic Growth

Berger (2015) suggested that the process of facilitating PTG in trauma survivors involves several steps, emphasizing that "throughout the process, it is important to emphasize that growth is a result of the way in which one chooses to respond to the traumatic event rather than the event itself" (p. 152). He stated that it is important for clinicians not to expect that every trauma-exposed client is going to experience growth and that some may only experience growth in some domains but not in others. Berger also added that as part of the process, the clinician teaches the client breathing exercises, imagery that is controlled by the client instead of being guided by the practitioner, and strategies for managing external distractions. As a first step, the clinician must help identify clues for impending floods of uncontrollable sensations.

Second, the clinician should provide psychoeducation to the client regarding normal trauma reactions, effective ways to shift from intrusive to deliberate rumination, and skills for emotion regulation. Third, clinicians should help clients explore the following: (a) which parts of clients' fundamental assumptions (i.e., core beliefs) should be modified given their traumatic experience(s), (b) how to replace these no-longer-helpful assumptions in such a way that they are living life in a meaningful way, and (c) how to make necessary behavioral changes.

Moran, Burker, and Schmidt (2012) indicated that no specific therapies have been developed which focus exclusively on enhancing PTG. However, they emphasized three key elements that are necessary in the facilitation of PTG: (a) development of positive coping and rumination styles, (b) schema and narrative change, and (c) social support and the therapeutic alliance. Positive reappraisal, acceptance coping, and religious coping, for instance, have been cited as the most effective coping mechanisms for facilitating PTG (Prati & Pietrantoni, 2009). Furthermore, the coping mechanisms employed by the trauma survivor has a more profound effect on the development of PTG than social support and pre-existing personality variables (Prati & Pietrantoni, 2009). Mindfulness has been linked to PTG (Chopko & Shwartz, 2009; Garland et al., 2007; Hanley, Peterson, Canto, & Garland, 2015; Mackenzie et al., 2007). Mindfulness practices can help clients develop a better understanding of their current coping and rumination styles (Dimidjian, Martell, Addis, & Herman-Dunn, 2008) and thus may be a helpful starting point for clinicians working with trauma survivors who would benefit from more adaptive rumination and coping styles. Once clinicians have helped trauma-exposed clients in developing positive coping strategies, they can begin to help clients

modify their shattered assumptive world described earlier in reviewing Janoff-Bulman's (2006) conceptualization of PTG. Moran, Burker, and Schmidt (2012) outlined a number of clinical methods that can facilitate the schema and narrative change element. These include therapeutic journaling of painful episodes, verbalizing one's narrative in group and individual therapy, and narrating the trauma from the third person. Tedeschi and McNally (2011) further emphasized the importance of helping clients create a trauma narrative within PTG domains such that they are able to see the trauma as a catalyst or turning point that ultimately enhanced their personal strength, interpersonal connections, appreciation for life, spirituality, and openness to new possibilities in life (i.e., the five facets of PTG).

The process of rebuilding the life narrative involves a great amount of disclosure about the trauma and new core beliefs, which underlines the importance of social support and a strong therapeutic alliance on the receiving end of the disclosure (Moran, Burker, & Schmidt, 2012). Tedeschi and Calhoun (1995) highlighted the positive effects social support can have on facilitating survivors' successful coping and change in the initial stages toward enhancing PTG. Thus, they suggested incorporating close family and friends into therapy, particularly during the narrative reconstruction process in which survivors can practice verbalizing their narratives. Finally, they indicated the importance of incorporating other supports in therapy, particularly by including trauma survivors who have successfully recovered to facilitate normalization of their emotional experiences and provide exemplars for successful coping and overall positive expectancy of reaching PTG (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1995). In general, the gold standard treatments for PTSD involve detailed, repeated exposure to traumatic material and

the modification of maladaptive beliefs about events, behaviors, or symptoms (Sharpless & Barber, 2011). As previously described, enhancement of PTG involves modifying existing fundamental assumptions as well as developing positive coping strategies (Berger, 2015; Prati & Pietrantoni, 2009). Detailed, repeated exposure aligns with the confrontational nature of reconstruction of core beliefs, and the modification of maladaptive beliefs fits well with this as well as the development of positive coping strategies, indicating that PTG is likely already facilitated in the currently accepted therapies for PTSD. However, while cognitive behavioral interventions such as exposure and cognitive processing therapies are empirically validated treatments for PTSD, they are merely aimed to promote recovery and thus return trauma-exposed clients to their pre-trauma baseline (Lyons, 2008). Additionally, it has been estimated that between a third and a half of patients receiving empirically supported treatments for PTSD do not fully respond to treatment, at least on some measures (Schottenbauer et al., 2008); similarly, the average drop-out rate in trials of exposure-based and cognitive interventions for PTSD is in the 20% to 25% range (Hembree et al., 2003). Taken together, this suggests that these existing treatment approaches may not meet the needs of every individual with PTSD who seeks services. Therefore, additional strategies may be warranted to expand treatment opportunities and, especially, maximize growth which would aid trauma survivors in exceeding their pre-trauma baseline. Although guidelines for enhancing PTG in trauma survivors have been provided (e.g., Berger, 2015; Moran, Burker, & Schmidt, 2012; Tedeschi & McNally, 2011), empirical studies of PTG interventions are lacking, indicating an important direction of further research in this area.

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A Situated Approach to Chinese Well-being: Research and Application

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One common goal that psychotherapists strive for is to make clients feel better. However, what is often overlooked is the fact that "feeling good," or in a more academic term, subjective well-being (SWB), could mean very different things to different people. Because an agreed upon goal between the therapist and the client is considered one of the dimensions in a solid working alliance (Bordin, 1979), ascertaining the client's unique construal of well-being and purposefully selecting a corresponding intervention are critical for the treatment to be effective. In this article, I call for a situated approach to the research of well-being, particularly focusing on the diverse conceptions of well-being salient in Chinese culture. Practical implications will also be discussed.

Although a number of definitions of SWB have been proposed, a widely accepted operationalization of SWB includes both cognitive and affective aspects. The cognitive component involves a general evaluation of the degree to which an individual is satisfied with his or her life as a whole. The affective component refers to the frequency of positive versus negative feelings that an individual experiences over a period of time (Diener, 1984). Although this definition of SWB intends to be value neutral, researchers have raised criticisms on the basis that it reflects Western individualistic ideology and neglects cultural forces in molding meanings of and ways to achieve SWB (Christopher, 1999; Lu & Gilmour, 2006). Cross-cultural psychologists, therefore, advocate that while SWB is an experientially desirable state, it is a diverse construct with different cultures prescribing distinct elements that constitute well-being (Elliot et al., 2012; Lu & Gilmour, 2006; Uchida & Kitayama, 2009). Simply put, well-being is defined and experienced distinctly in different cultural contexts because it is intertwined with the states or values that a particular culture endorses. For example, if autonomy is considered important in a

culture, people with perceived freedom in making life choices are likely to report high levels of SWB. Furthermore, studies have shown that Chinese people tend to appreciate low-arousal positive emotions more than their American counterparts, presumably due to the Chinese belief in harmony and interdependence (Lee, Lin, Huang, & Fredrickson, 2013; Tsai, Knutson, & Fung, 2006).

Against this backdrop, scholars have devoted considerable attention to cultural differences in SWB, usually comparing people from the United Stated and East Asian countries with an emphasis on the ways in which self-construal may shape SWB. This line of research generally suggested that because of the Confucian heritage, members of East Asia are inclined to think of themselves as interdependent with close others, and thus their experiences of SWB are more socially-oriented as opposed to an individualistic SWB often found in Western cultural contexts (Heine, 2001; Lu & Gilmour, 2006). However, Confucianism is not the only philosophy that permeates Chinese people's mind. Of equal importance is the teaching from two other far-reaching philosophical traditions: Taoism and Buddhism (Huang, 2009). Therefore, to accurately capture Chinese well-being, one needs to take into consideration the impact of Taoism and Buddhism.

A Situated Approach to Study Chinese Well-Being

Recently, my colleagues and I conducted a study investigating the well-being constructs forwarded by these three philosophical traditions and provided evidence that each notion of well-being contributed uniquely to different dimensions of mental health (Wang, Wong, & Yeh, 2016). Specifically, for Confucianism, interpersonal harmony, the ability to maintain harmony in close relationships, is believed to be the key to happiness due to the Confucian emphasis on human relationships and interpersonal virtues. With regard to Taoism, dialectical thinking is at the core of its teaching. Peng and Nisbett (1999) summarized three principles of dialectical thinking: contradiction, change, and holism. We argued that the application of these principles to cope with adversities in life (i.e., "dialectical coping") represents a Taoist well-being construct. That is, dialectical thinkers see setbacks as temporary (change), as an opportunity to grow (contradiction), and as an inherent part of life (holism). Lastly, Buddhist ideas caution against fixation on any particular states of mind or objects, contending that happiness resides in the state of nonattachment, a balanced mentality that is not affected by either external or internal stimuli.

The results showed that the three constructs indeed predicted different aspects of mental health. First, relationship harmony (Confucian conception of well-being) was negatively related to psychological distress and positively associated with meaning in life and happiness. Second, dialectical coping (a Taoist well-being construct) significantly predicted higher levels of positive affect and meaning in life, whereas nonattachment (a Buddhist vision of well-being) was the only and strongest protective factor against negative affect and psychological distress among the three constructs. Overall, nonattachment demonstrated the most adaptive effects on mental health variables included in our study. Interestingly, we also discovered that these well-being constructs could interact with one another. To be more precise, moderation effects were observed between dialectical coping and nonattachment on self-esteem, psychological distress, and happiness. A profile of high levels of dialectical coping and nonattachment was conducive to self-esteem.

However, the same combination turned out to be linked to higher psychological distress and lower happiness. These interaction effects suggest that more is not necessarily better. By situating well-being in indigenous philosophical traditions, we were able to depict a comprehensive picture of Chinese well-being and further shed light on the unique and collective influences of these constructs on mental health outcomes.

Practical Implications

Some important practical implications can be gleaned for clinicians working with Chinese people. First, the contributions of nonattachment to psychological adjustment indicate that more attention needs to be given to interventions that may cultivate clients' nonattachment. For instance, psychotherapies that incorporate Eastern mindfulness principles, such as acceptance and commitment therapy (ACT; Hayes, Strosahl, & Wilson, 1999) and mindfulness-based cognitive therapy (MBCT; Segal, Williams, & Teasdale, 2002), are especially suitable to clients who endorse nonattachment as a worldview. Second, clinicians are encouraged to explore with clients how they construe well-being because such lay beliefs may vary greatly from one culture to another. For example, an intervention that solely aims to increase positive emotions may be incompatible with clients who subscribe to Buddhist teachings. Last but not least, psychotherapists have to keep in mind that relationships among CIWB constructs are intricate. Given the findings of our interaction effects, there is a possibility that well-being constructs may collide with one another and undermine clients' well-being. In sum, clinicians need to apply their multicultural competence when working with clients from diverse backgrounds because well-being does not exist in a vacuum. Rather, it is closely tied to the culture or philosophy clients identify with.

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Division 17 Section on Positive Psychology: A Student Representative's View

Adam Fishel, M.S. is a doctoral candidate at the University of Memphis. He is interested in gratitude, amplifying strengths, the intersection of health and positive psychology, optimism and interventions that promote positive health behaviors.

My name is Adam Fishel and for the past two years I have been fortunate enough to serve as the Student Representative for the Section on Positive Psychology. Since the inception of the Student Campus Representative program, many brilliant students have joined, serving as liaisons for the Section on Positive Psychology at their respective universities. Campus representatives have been a vital part of our growing section and have shown what it truly means to be inspired and involved in the field of positive psychology. Many of these campus representatives have indicated that the opportunity has not only allowed them to present and share information with many new people, but also provide them with new ideas and opportunities within the field itself.

Campus representatives have gone above and beyond in spreading information about the section as well as the larger field of positive psychology. They have given lectures, held groups, handed out flyers, worked with respective campuses' societies and shared information with many new people along the way. The representatives have indicated that they have really enjoyed the flexibility and creativity in their position. One of the benefits of becoming a campus representative is that you really can choose in how you connect and share your message about the section and the field.

One of the newer aspects that many campus representatives have enjoyed is the creation of individualized lectures on a positive psychology topic that is made available for all campus representatives to use. In this way, representatives' individual interests and research is made accessible to the group as a whole and can be presented to interested parties around the country. I believe this kind of sharing and open collaboration is a valuable and positive step in moving the field forward.

It truly has been a pleasure being a part of a group of such encouraging, brilliant and fun people. Yet, perhaps the most satisfying aspect of serving as Student Representative is my own increased knowledgebase of positive psychology and an inclination to practice more of the techniques I've learned throughout the journey. I would encourage anyone looking to learn more about the field or anyone that simply enjoys sharing their interest in positive psychology to take the next step and apply to be a campus representative today!

31

Meet the Executive Board

Chair: Rhea Owens, Ph.D. (University of British Columbia; 2017)

Chair-Elect & Webmaster: Brian Cole, Ph.D. (University of Kansas; 2017)

Past Chair: Danny Singley, Ph.D. (The Center for Men's Excellence; 2017)

Communications Officer: TBD

Treasurer: Ingrid Weigold, Ph.D. (University of Akron; 2018)

Research Representative: Blake Allan, Ph.D. (Purdue University; 2017)

Teaching Representative: Patricia Cabrera (The University at Albany, State University of New York; 2017)

Practice Representative: Deborah Pardue (Indiana University, Bloomington; 2018)

Student Representative: Julia Cawthra (Indiana University, Bloomington; 2018) and Sarah Milam (West Virginia University; 2018)

*Year represents when their term ends

Call for Communications Officer Position

The Section on Positive Psychology is still looking for applicants for our Communications Officer position. We are working on moving our newsletter towards a more formal publication outlet and the person in this role would be a large contributor to that goal. This is a two-year position, and journal reviewer experience would be helpful. Please see the position responsibilities below.

Communications Officer (Open to Full members of APA)

The Communications Officer shall keep the records of the Section (including but not limited to minutes of meetings of the Section and the Executive Committee), conduct the official correspondence of the Section, and keep membership informed about the activities of the Section through coordinating, putting together, and distributing the Section newsletter. The Communications Officer will also maintain an updated membership roster of the Section. In addition to the specific duties outlined above, all individuals holding leadership positions in the Section participate in quarterly conference calls and ideally attend the business meeting at the annual APA convention.

If you would like to apply, please email your CV along with a 500 word statement of interest by **September 9th** to **Rhea Owens (rhea.owens@ubc.ca).**

Meet the Student Campus Representatives

Bobby Byrom	University of Nebraska Lincoln
Rebecca Kinsey	Ball State University
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Shu-Yi Wang	Indiana University Bloomington
Shao Li	Indiana University Bloomington
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