
SPECIAL SERIES: Personality Autobiographies

Computers, Criminals, an Eccentric Billionaire, and APA: A Brief Autobiography

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In this invited autobiographical account, I sum up what life has been like for me personally and professionally. For most of the first 50 years of my life, I lived in Alabama. During my years at the University of Alabama, my professional activities included developing a computer-based system to interpret the MMPI (Hathaway & McKinley, 1943), managing a national and international continuing education program for psychologists, involvement in a class action suit that resulted in the deinstitutionalization of Alabama's mental hospitals, organizing a team of professionals to reclassify all of the inmates of Alabama's prison system, and conducting a psychological autopsy on Howard Hughes. I was the American Psychological Association (APA) president in 1988 and served from 1989 to 2003 as APA Chief Executive Officer. Since my time at APA, I have been engaged in work with international psychological organizations.

Writing an autobiography proved to be a more difficult task than I anticipated. Reviewing my 75 years on this planet brought a flood of memories. I felt a little trepidation about revealing, to my colleagues and other readers, more about myself and my experiences than I have ever done before; self-disclosure has never been one of my strong points. I procrastinated for months. Then, hours of writing were followed by more hours of self-editing until finally I decided just to let it flow. What follows is my best effort to sum up, in a limited number of pages, what life has been like for me, personally and professionally.

GROWING UP IN THE DEEP SOUTH

Jasper, Alabama, where I was born December 22, 1930, is a small town in the mountainous coal mining region in the north central part of the state. My ancestors came to Alabama from England and Ireland. They lived in South Carolina before making their way to Alabama early in the 1800s; my paternal family went to the northern part of the state and my maternal family to the south.

My father's family settled in Carbon Hill, near Jasper, where his father was first a coal miner and later operated a general store for miners and served for a time as mayor. Carbon Hill, as my father liked to tell it, was a little like the cattle towns in the old Western movies. The coal mines were located some distance from the town, and the miners lived in dormitories provided by the mining companies. After staying at the mines for prolonged periods of time, they would be given a few days off to go to town where they would drink and carouse and sometimes get into gun fights. My father described diving behind bales of hay at the store when bullets began flying.

My mother's family migrated from Charleston, South Carolina, to Southeast Alabama, then known as Indian Territory. According to family lore, great-great-grandfather Holloway Sanders packed his wife and 12 children into a mule-drawn wagon and headed south through Georgia, a 435-mile journey that would take years. When the money ran out, the family stopped off to farm for a season or two, and then moved on, sometimes leaving one or two of the older children who had decided to marry and settle down. By the time they reached the southeast corner of Alabama, only my great grandfather Joe, the youngest of the 12 children, was left. Joe was rejected when he tried to join the Confederate army at age 14 but was accepted in the cavalry 2 years later when he brought a mule along. After he returned from military ser-

vice, he settled down in Dothan, Alabama, where he became a successful businessman. My grandfather, one of Joe's five children, later operated a hardware store there.

My father's plan to be a lawyer was interrupted by the death of his father and the need to support his mother and four younger siblings. He managed the general store started by his father, took courses in business, and later became an accountant in the county tax office. My mother was teaching in Carbon Hill when they met, but by the traditions of the day could not teach after they married, apparently because of fears that children might be traumatized by the sight of a pregnant woman.

The Old South

In the 1930s, the South was not the Sunbelt or the New South. The South of my childhood was still deeply mired in the poverty that had followed the Civil War and had been greatly exacerbated by the Great Depression. It was a deeply segregated society in which African Americans, who had few economic opportunities, suffered the most, but almost everyone else was poor as well.

Unemployment, already high in Alabama, got much worse as the depression deepened. My father was laid off along with most of the other county employees and took the family to Florida in search of work. When it was apparent that the prospects were no better in Florida, he returned to Alabama and eventually found employment as an accountant in the office of the state treasurer.

I grew up without any sense that we were poor or any awareness that money was a problem for my parents. Since the families of most of the children I knew were no better off than we were, it was just the way things were. My father was assigned to do tax accounting in various parts of the state, so we lived in several cities, finally settling when I was 6 in Montgomery, where we stayed until I was 15.

My early memories are mostly pleasant. I got along well with my two younger sisters, Sandra and Betty, and we are still close today. We had warm relationships with our grandparents and other relatives, whom we visited as often as possible. I liked school from the first day, and that never changed. My teachers encouraged my excitement over learning and often gave me extra assignments to keep me interested. I maintained contact with some of my elementary school teachers for decades.

As I reflect on my childhood, it seems that I was always organizing things. I remember deciding in the first grade that our neighborhood needed a zoo, so my friends and I captured all of the neighborhood animals—dogs, cats, and a few chickens—and put them in cages with signs and charged the younger children a penny each to see these supposedly exotic animals from far away. Over the years, I organized dozens of clubs, teams, bands, and groups of all sorts, mostly for the fun of organizing things and bringing people together; my later organizational career had clear early roots.

My lifelong interest in politics began when I worked summers as a page in the State Legislature. I ran errands for the senators, sometimes bringing Coca Colas and boiled peanuts (a southern delicacy) or passing notes between them when they were conspiring on some contested piece of legislation. I read most of the bills, listened to the speeches pro and con, and made my own decisions about how I would vote. I suppose that prepared me well for my later years on the American Psychological Association (APA) Council of Representatives. George Wallace, later to become infamous for his segregationist views, was an aspiring young legislator at that time and known for views that were surprisingly liberal for Alabama, although they later turned racist.

Moving to Montevallo

My father, who had risen through the ranks to be the state budget officer, left that position to take a position as the business manager and treasurer of Alabama College for Women, a small college in Montevallo, near Birmingham. The move to a smaller town was good for me. As the new kid in a very small town, I was quickly absorbed into the activities of my age group. I played high school football (poorly) and played trumpet in the marching band (quickly changing uniforms at half time). I wrote for the school paper, edited the yearbook, organized a teen club for Saturday night parties, and started and organized a dance band to play for prom nights at other schools around the state.

Montevallo was small, and friendships were close and enduring. Fifty years after high school, five of my former classmates and I established contact by email, and we collaborated on a book, *Time Has Made a Change in Me: Growing up in Alabama* (Ward, 2000), although some of us had not seen each other in decades.

In high school, I decided that I wanted to be a college faculty member. Some of my friends were the children of fac-



FIGURE 1 High school photograph at age 15, 1946.

ulty members, and teaching looked like the life for me, although I had no idea what I wanted to teach.

DISCOVERING PSYCHOLOGY

Vanderbilt University

By my junior year, I had taken most of the courses available at our small high school, so I left high school without graduating and went to Vanderbilt University in Nashville, Tennessee. The tuition at Vanderbilt was a bit steep for my family's modest income, but Meredith Crawford, then a dean at Vanderbilt, befriended me and gave me a make-work job in his office that helped me get through the year. Meredith, an industrial/organizational psychologist, later founded the Human Resources Research Organization, a major psychologist-run Defense Department contractor. He was active in APA, and as Treasurer spearheaded the drive to build APA's first building. Much later, I followed Meredith as APA Treasurer. Still later, as APA Chief Executive Officer (CEO), I had the pleasure of dedicating the APA computer center in his honor to recognize his outstanding contributions to APA.

In my freshman year at Vanderbilt University, I liked almost every course and could easily imagine myself teaching English, Anthropology, Biology, or Chemistry. My roommate, a sophomore, was taking an introductory psychology course, which he found somewhat boring. When I idly picked up his text, I could hardly put it down. By the time I had finished a few chapters I knew that psychology was for me, so I registered for Psychology 101 the next quarter.

When I came home for Christmas vacation, a neighbor who was a psychology faculty member and director of the psychological clinic on campus was delighted to hear that I was interested in psychology. To encourage my interest, she gave me the keys to the psychology department clinic, which would be closed for the holidays, and I was off on a self-study course of how to be a psychologist. I discovered the Stanford-Binet (Terman, 1916), the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS; Wechsler, 1955), the Strong Vocational Inventory Blank (SVIB; Strong, 1927), and various other tests, taught myself to administer and score them, and at 17, set up my own miniassessment center to evaluate my friends. I am sure the neighbor never imagined that I would be setting up a practice in her absence. Fortunately, this was long before psychology licensing, so I didn't run afoul of the law. I don't think my assessments did any harm to my friends, who didn't take them very seriously anyway, although one, a prominent attorney, still asks me from time to time when he will get a report on his test results.

The following summer, I needed to raise additional tuition money, so I tried being a door-to-door Bible salesman. Bibles are big business in Tennessee, and college students were often recruited as salesmen. I sold quite a few Bibles along the back roads of Tennessee and North Carolina but

never enjoyed the work. It was a job for which the SVIB could have told me I was ill suited, but I found that out for myself. My job the following summer was driving a truck that delivered cases of Coca Cola to stores and service stations in rural Alabama. It was much more agreeable work, and loading and unloading hundreds of wooden cases of Coke every day was good exercise.

University of Alabama

When the tuition got to be more than I could handle, I transferred from Vanderbilt to the University of Alabama in 1950, after my sophomore year. The transfer turned out very well for me. The psychology department was small, but the faculty had high standards, and students received a lot of individual attention. I took every undergraduate psychology course available and was permitted to take some graduate courses, so I just drifted into the master's program. Getting into graduate schools was less complicated in those days.

I particularly enjoyed the assessment sequence, so I applied for an assistantship in the department's outpatient psychological clinic. My afternoons were filled with instruments—WAIS, Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (Wechsler, 1949), Stanford-Binet, Rorschach (Rorschach, 1942), and assorted other instruments of varying validity that were then in vogue including the Blacky (Blum, 1950) and the Szondi (Szondi, 1947).

I was fortunate in my graduate work at Alabama to acquire my first mentor: Margaret S. Quayle. She had been a Red Cross ambulance driver in France during World War I, and on her return decided to become a psychologist. She graduated from Teacher's College-Columbia and was one of the first women to receive a doctorate in clinical psychology. As part of her training, she returned to Paris for a training analysis by Otto Rank and met many of the major early figures in psychoanalysis including Alfred Adler but subsequently decided that psychoanalysis was not for her. Crusty, charismatic, and loveably absentminded, Margaret's life centered around her graduate students who were welcome in her home at any time for a quick meal or just conversation. She taught us assessment and psychotherapy, but mostly she taught us to be psychologists and helped us grow up. She became an important part of my life then and later.

Penn State

The University of Alabama did not offer a doctorate in psychology, so I applied to various doctoral programs, giving a high priority to departments with good graduate student support, which would be a necessity. Penn State was my first choice, and they offered a research assistantship in the Psychoacoustics Laboratory. I accepted the offer, packed up my old Ford, and headed north for the first time in my life. My psychology career was almost nipped in the bud by an automobile accident in the mountains of North Carolina. It

could have been fatal, but I escaped without injury. My old Ford was less fortunate.

The clinical program at Penn State was oriented toward Rogerian psychotherapy, thanks to the influence of William Snyder, an early Rogers student who taught and supervised the psychotherapy courses and became the second of my mentors. The director of clinical training was Robert Bernreuter whose test, the Bernreuter Personality Inventory (Bernreuter, 1931), was the first widely used self-report personality test and a precursor to the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI; Hathaway & McKinley, 1943). I was fortunate to have an assessment course with George Guthrie, a Minnesota PhD and early MMPI researcher who introduced me to the MMPI and later became my dissertation advisor.

During my first year at Penn State, Paul Meehl gave a colloquium titled *Wanted—A Good Cookbook* that was later published in the *American Psychologist* as his APA presidential address (Meehl, 1956). His presentation left me dazzled by the potential of actuarial prediction and the MMPI. That colloquium was a major turning point for me and significantly influenced my research interests throughout my academic career. I did not get to know Paul Meehl personally until many years later. When I told him how much he had influenced me he said, “I sort of suspected that.”

Internship

After my first year at Penn State, I interned at the Worcester State Hospital (WSH) in Worcester, Massachusetts. I chose WSH partly because both of my mentors, Margaret Quayle and Bill Snyder, had interned there and partly because of its distinguished history. Established in 1833, WSH was one of the nation’s first state mental hospitals and later had one of the first clinical psychology internships. Some of the early pioneers in clinical psychology were WSH staff members including Grace Kent, David Shakow, Elliott Rodnick, and Saul Rosenzweig.

In 1909, G. Stanley Hall, president of Clark University in Worcester and founding president of APA, invited Freud to Worcester for his only visit to the United States (Rosenzweig, 1992). Freud, accompanied by Carl Jung and Sandor Forenczi, gave a series of lectures at Clark University that were attended by most of the psychologists in the area including William James.

Leslie Phillips, chief psychologist and director of the internship program, had just published an advanced Rorschach text, and there was great enthusiasm for techniques like the Rorschach and Thematic Apperception Test (Murray, 1943) in the psychology department. Being in a psychoanalytically oriented program with emphasis on the Rorschach was a new experience for me and also for Charlie Spielberger, who was one of my fellow interns.

My internship was extended for 3 months to give me time to gather data for my dissertation, a Rorschach developmen-

tal study influenced by the Developmental Gestalt orientation at Clark University. I tested schizophrenic patients and homeless people who were socially isolated but not schizophrenic to determine if some of the Rorschach signs traditionally associated with schizophrenia might, in fact, be associated more generally with social isolation. The homeless men shared with the schizophrenic people the signs associated with social isolation but did not exhibit cognitive dysfunction.

Clinically, the men seemed to have little experience with relationships. Most had not married; those who had didn’t remain married. They usually answered in the affirmative when I asked them if they had had close friends in childhood. But when I asked them to remember a specific friend, a typical response was “I don’t remember anyone in particular, they were just guys who showed up to play baseball. I never knew their names.”

Once I came into a room in which two of the men were supposed to be taking the MMPI. One had stretched out on a table as if it were a psychoanalytic couch and the other was reading the items aloud to him and vigorously arguing with him when he disagreed with his responses (“Whadaya mean you read every editorial in the newspaper every day? You’ve never bought a newspaper in your life!”).

At the end of my internship, in August 1955, I married Nancy Allebach, a fellow graduate student at Penn State who was interning at nearby Connecticut State Hospital, and we returned to Penn State to do our dissertations.

BECOMING A PSYCHOLOGIST

Back to the University of Alabama

During my last year at Penn State, Rosa Parks made her famous decision in Montgomery not to give up her seat on the bus, and the civil rights movement began led by Martin Luther King, then a young Baptist minister in Montgomery. As an Alabamian who grew up in Montgomery, I was deeply moved by the idealism of Dr. King, and the courage and persistence of his long-suffering followers. I had not planned to return to Alabama, partly because of the racism that was so endemic there, but I found myself preoccupied with the growing civil rights movement and wanted to be involved in some way.

As I was finishing my dissertation and applying for faculty positions at various universities, I came to a fork in the road, and as Yogi Berra would have advised, I took it. Margaret Quayle, my mentor at Alabama and director of the psychological clinic, wrote to ask if I would be interested in coming back to the University of Alabama as assistant professor in the department and assistant director of the clinic. Returning to Alabama would give me the opportunity to work with faculty members I had known as a student, especially Margaret Quayle and Paul Siegel who had recently be-

come department head. I accepted an offer to come to the University of Alabama for 2 years with the idea of then moving on to a department with a doctoral program.

As it happened, the psychology department was approved to launch a doctoral program during the 2 years I had agreed to stay, and the idea of leaving was lost in the excitement of building the new program. It was also during that period that Margaret Quayle retired, and I was appointed director of the clinic. It was my first administrative experience, and I found that I liked it. For the next 45 years, I served in one administrative position or another.

My responsibilities in the graduate program consisted of teaching the assessment sequence, introduction to psychotherapy, and psychotherapy practicum. My clinic responsibilities included supervising the clinic staff and the graduate students in their clinical work with clients from the community and from the university. The clinic was available to university students and faculty, and it also served as a mental health facility for Tuscaloosa and several surrounding counties, so graduate students were exposed to a broad range of experience.

As an outpatient clinic serving a large catchment area with a small staff, we had a strong public health, prevention orientation. My first grant was a National Institute of Health (NIMH) funded pilot project to evaluate preschoolers before they entered the first grade. Considering the modest size of the project, I was taken aback when NIMH sent as site visitors two distinguished psychologists, Nicholas Hobbes and J. McV. Hunt, both of whom had, or would, serve as APA president. They were very generous with their time and helped me improve the design of the study. Nick Hobbes became one of my significant role models.

The purpose of the study was to reduce early school problems by identifying children who might need extra help or might not be ready for the first grade. The project gave graduate students some early hands-on experience in the community. It also created a lot of good will in the public schools, which made them more open to letting school children be research participants than they might otherwise have been. Parts of the program were continued by the schools after the completion of the pilot program.

As it turned out, Tuscaloosa was a good place for me personally and professionally. The transition from former student to colleague was made easy by the faculty. I enjoyed running the clinic and had close relationships with graduate students in the program. In 1957, our first child, Karen, was born, and Derek and Michael came along in 1958 and 1959.

My children attended schools newly integrated by *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). It was a time of great change in the Deep South, and I was glad to be a part of it. I got to know the local civil rights leaders and participated in their meetings and protest marches. I joined the Alabama Council on Human Relations, the first biracial group in Alabama dedicated to peaceful integration, and was elected vice president.

Some of my students—especially John Worsham and James Webb, both of whom are still close friends—became very much involved in the civil rights movement, and other students participated as well. Out-of-state students who came to Alabama to help register voters sometimes camped in our backyard. Sometimes I would have to go to the city jail to bail out students whose voter registration activities had offended the local police. When my youngest son's first-grade teacher asked him what his father did, he said "He gets his friends out of jail." When Governor George Wallace made his famous "stand in the school house door" to prevent the registration of the first two Black students, Vivian Malone and Jimmy Hood, I was observing from a few yards away. I got to know Vivian and Jimmy after they became students and deeply admired their courage.

COMPUTERS ENTER MY LIFE

Computer-Based MMPI Interpretation

Shortly before I came, the University had started giving the MMPI to all freshmen. Those whose profiles were suspect were referred to the clinic for an interview and possible follow-up. This experience revived my interest in the MMPI, and when I was asked in 1958 by the newly established Alabama Commission on Alcoholism to design an assessment program for new patients in the outpatient clinics they planned to open, the MMPI seemed a natural choice for personality evaluation.

When the first alcoholism clinic was opened in Birmingham, about 60 miles from Tuscaloosa, I was asked to evaluate the MMPIs on all new patients. A clinic staff member administered the MMPI to each incoming patient and sent the answer sheets to me for scoring and interpretation. Every Friday afternoon, I drove to the clinic to present my reports as part of a multidisciplinary staff meeting. I learned to write reports very fast but barely fast enough to keep up with the growing caseload.

When a second clinic opened and plans were made to open others, I realized I was approaching system overload. No other psychologists in the state had MMPI experience, so it was clear that I had to become more efficient.

At the 1962 APA convention, when Paul Meehl was president, I heard John Pearson and Wendell Swenson describe the automated MMPI screening system they and their colleagues had developed at the Mayo Clinic to identify incoming medical patients with emotional disorders. The Mayo program, the first operational system for producing automated MMPI reports, provided an efficient means of screening large numbers of medical patients who otherwise would have had no psychological assessment (Rome et al., 1962). I tried using the Mayo system with the alcoholism patients, but since it was a screening report, it was inappropriate for individual assessment in a clinical population. The staff wanted considerably more detailed and individualized reports. So I

set about trying to develop a system that would produce reports as similar as possible to those I wrote (Fowler, 1969, 1985, 1987b).

I spent many hours writing interpretive statements for various combinations of Validity and Clinical scales. I knew virtually nothing about computers, and as a matter of fact, the state of Alabama did not even have a computer at that early date, so I designed the system as a set of decision rules that could be followed by a secretary. For example, "If 2 and 7 are the highest clinical scales and both are between 70 and 80, choose statement # 86."

The system followed the usual report format: Validity scale patterns followed by 2- or 3-point codes, followed by other scale elevations, critical items, and later Content scales. The statements were written as complete sentences and worded so that they easily connected with other statements to produce a smooth narrative flow.

In the early months, I modified the automated reports to improve them or correct errors, and then changed the rules as appropriate. As the system evolved, it gradually began to produce reports as good as those I could write, and feedback from the clinical staff was positive.

By good fortune, the University acquired its first computer at about that time, and the director of the computer center offered to convert my manual system into a computer program, which added greatly to the efficiency of the service to the clinics. By that time, I had developed alternative interpretation systems for students, for medical patients, and for prisoners (Fowler, 1967, 1968, 1979, 1987a), and modifications were made in the basic clinical program to produce reports for those populations as well.

Roche Psychiatric Service Institute

When I gave a paper (Fowler, 1965) on the newly developed system at the 1965 APA convention, I was contacted by Marvin Miller, a representative of Roche Laboratories in New Jersey who had come to the convention to hear my paper and discuss a joint project. Roche was interested in providing services to mental health professionals to promote good will. Roche proposed to establish a center, later called the Roche Psychiatric Service Institute (RPSI) to provide MMPI interpretive reports to psychologists and psychiatrists and mental health facilities at a modest cost. The proposal appealed to me as a way of getting assessment services to clinicians who had no other access. At that time, there was a national shortage of competent assessment psychologists, particularly for the MMPI.

Roche also agreed to provide research and development funds to improve and validate the system and agreed to employ James Webb, my former student, to direct the center and conduct the research. During the years that Jim was with RPSI, a number of studies were conducted and the results published and made available to users of the service (see Webb, Miller, & Fowler, 1970; Webb, 1970).

The idea of computer-based interpretation of the MMPI alarmed some psychologists, and some angry complaints were heard. For a time, I wondered if computer-based interpretation would be accepted at all. Then Starke Hathaway, codeveloper of the MMPI, came to my rescue by writing a strongly supportive foreword to the manual I had written for users of the service. Hathaway concluded

Although the human brain is complicated and talented beyond the furthest reach of its imagination, the idiot savant computer exceeds the best of brains if the nature of the competition can be selected to favor the computer. In a few seconds a computer can provide an integrated print-out of interpretative material that may be both directly applied and indirectly used as a basis for further clinical evaluation.

Establishment of the RPSI by Roche Laboratories makes available a very creditable programmed MMPI interpretation under careful ethical and scientific control. To assure these virtues in their operations, they have provided for a competent advisory staff. Dr. Fowler's program is based upon a careful search of the MMPI literature to incorporate the interpretative data that seem likely to be useful to the clinician. The target population for the program is selected to represent the working clinician's clientele and the interpretations are shaped to be maximally useful. (Fowler, 1976, p. iii-iv)

The service was an immediate success. Several thousand clinicians subscribed to the service, and during the 17 years RPSI operated, over 1.5 million MMPI reports were generated. Approximately one fourth of the eligible mental health professionals in the country used the service at one time or another, many on a routine basis.

European MMPI Service

Noting the wide usage of the RPSI service in the United States, Hoffman-La Roche in Basel, Switzerland, parent company to Roche Laboratories in the United States, contacted me to propose that the system be taken international. A special research and development unit directed by Peter Blaser, a young Swiss psychologist, was set up to adapt the Fowler-Roche system for use in European countries (Fowler & Blaser, 1972; Fowler & Butcher, 1987).

The first issue was the availability of acceptable translations of the MMPI. Fortunately, acceptable translations into German, French, Italian, Spanish, and Dutch were already available and in use, some for over 20 years.

The next issue was the translation of the interpretive material for use in each of the countries. From 1968 to 1971, Peter Blaser and I worked with a group of European psychologists, psychiatrists, and MMPI researchers to translate and adapt the interpretive material into several European languages and check the accuracy of the translations by back translation. I wrote about that experience in my Southeastern Psychological Association (SEPA) presidential address titled *Around the World in 565 Items* (Fowler, 1972). My enthusiasm for

international work, which had its beginning with that project, continues today.

The next task was to generate studies to determine whether the reports were as accurate in other countries and other languages as the reports in the United States. Studies were conducted in Switzerland, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Belgium, England, and Australia (Fowler & Blaser, 1972). In 1971, the system became operational in Switzerland, where it was well accepted and operated for many years, but attempts to market the system in other countries was abandoned because of complications in operating within their national health systems.

Running Psychologists

In 1965, I moved from the position of clinic director to department head. It was a time of rapid growth in the department, and I enjoyed recruiting faculty and graduate students and negotiating federal grants to support doctoral programs on substance abuse, correctional psychology, and clinical mental retardation. I also realized that I was spending too much time sitting at a desk, and I needed some kind of regular exercise. I tried swimming and tennis for a while, but neither worked well with my travel schedule. Then, in 1977, while listening to a radio broadcast of the Boston Marathon, I decided that I would like to run the Boston Marathon the next year. I soon found myself addicted to running, and after a couple of local marathons, I qualified to run the Boston Marathon in 1978 as planned. Less than a mile from the finish, I hit the wall and said to my running partner "I can't keep up this pace." He said "I can't either; let's pick it up a little." That struck us as so funny that we both got a surge of energy and sprinted to the finish line laughing hard.

Since that time, running has been an important part of my life: 30,000+ miles and a number of marathons later, I am



FIGURE 2 Running first marathon in 1977.

still running but not as fast. At the 1997 APA convention, I gave an invited address about my running experience titled *Still Running After All These Years* (Fowler, 1997, 2003).

In 1979, I started a new organization called Running Psychologists to bring together APA members interested in sports psychology and in running for health and pleasure. We organized the first APA race at the 1979 convention in New York. The APA race has become an annual event at the convention, and when I retired from APA, my Running Psychologist friends surprised me by naming it Ray's Race. I still run in it every year, and in my age group, the competition has thinned out a lot.

FORENSIC WORK

I was not trained as a forensic psychologist, but I seemed to spend a lot of time with lawyers and judges. As a clinic director, I often testified on cases in the juvenile and family court, and I have been an expert witness in cases involving civil liberties and the right to treatment. A description of three cases in which I was involved follows.

Deinstitutionalization

Bryce Hospital, the main state mental hospital in Alabama, is located adjacent to the University. In November 1970, we began to hear rumors that budget deficits would require cutbacks at Bryce Hospital. The nature of the cutbacks would be determined by Dr. Stonewall Stickney, an Alabama born psychiatrist who practiced in Pittsburgh before being recruited to head Alabama's newly established Commission on Mental Health.

Stickney was a hearty, outgoing man whom I liked immediately. He had a progressive vision for Alabama's backward mental health system. His community orientation fit well with the orientation of our graduate training program, and he seemed eager for a close relationship with the psychology department, so I was astonished when I learned that his plan for cutting the budget was to dismiss most of the nonmedical professional staff. The rationale for the plan was that many of the functions of psychologists, social workers, and other nonmedical personnel could be carried out by paraprofessionals: psychiatric aides and attendants. Since many of these employees had less than a high school education, almost no training for their jobs, and not infrequently, criminal records, it seemed likely that the new strategy would be a disaster for the patients.

The impact on the University of Alabama Psychology Department was immediate. Bryce Hospital had long served as a practicum and internship facility for the department. The chief psychologist, D. A. R. Peyman, was a former faculty member in our department and still taught regularly as an adjunct professor. He and his senior staff, most of whom were our graduates, worked closely with our students.

But more importantly, thousands of patients who were already receiving the barest minimum of professional services would virtually cease to receive any at all except for medications prescribed by the medical staff. For 5,200 patients, Bryce Hospital had less than a dozen fully trained psychologists and social workers before the dismissal and would have almost none afterward.

I immediately wrote an urgent letter to Stickney expressing my concern and the concern of the department and asking him to reconsider the dismissal. He curtly informed me that the matter was none of my business. That evening, in complete frustration, I walked over to the house of my neighbors, Jay and Alberta Murphy, both attorneys and University of Alabama faculty members, to see if they had any advice from a legal perspective.

The Murphys and their guest, Montgomery attorney George Dean, were as shocked by Stickney's action as I was. We began to think through a legal strategy to prevent what we all believed would be a serious blow to the state's mental health program. Dean later said

We sat there, and I guess within ten or fifteen minutes, we had laid out a theory of the case that the Fourteenth Amendment says no state shall deprive its citizens of liberty without due process of law. How can you take away someone's liberty to give them treatment, and then take a way the treaters? (Bass, 1993, p. 282)

Further, Dean reasoned, the state is obligated to provide competent treatment in a healthy environment, and all of the state hospitals and mental retardation facilities were appallingly unsafe and filthy.

Dean, a veteran civil rights attorney who later became a close friend, agreed to represent the plaintiffs in a class action suit and traveled to Montgomery for a preliminary meeting with Federal District Judge Frank M. Johnson, Jr., who agreed to consider an argument that involuntarily committed patients had a constitutionally protected "right to treatment." Judge Johnson was already known for his determined efforts to force the state of Alabama to abide by the U.S. constitution. In his years on the District court, he aroused the hatred and resistance of many Alabamians by declaring segregated public transportation unconstitutional, requiring the integration of public facilities and public schools, blocking efforts to prevent Blacks from voting, and ordering Governor George Wallace to permit the civil rights march from Selma to Montgomery. Johnson called on the Justice Department to enter the case, which brought in U.S. Attorney Ira DeMent, an old college friend of mine and a law school colleague of George Dean.

The rationale of the case was straightforward: The state can only incarcerate individuals with mental disorders against their will if it does so to provide appropriate treatment to ameliorate the disorder. Otherwise, involuntary commitment amounts to imprisonment without due process.

The media began to focus on the state's neglected mental institutions, and horror stories began to come to light. Severely retarded residents were housed in dilapidated buildings with little supervision. As Johnson noted in an emergency order requiring additional staffing, one resident was scalded to death, another was found to have been restrained in a straight jacket for 9 years to prevent hand and finger sucking, and a resident died from the insertion by another resident of a hose into his rectum for 5 min (Bass, 1993).

When U.S. Attorney Ira DeMent, a Korean combat veteran and later a general in the reserves, made an inspection visit to the indescribably filthy mental retardation facility in Tuscaloosa, he became violently ill. He was touched when one of the residents tried to comfort him by patting him on the shoulder.

In the following months, I was deeply involved, as were some others in the psychology department, in consulting with the attorneys who were preparing the class action suit on behalf of the patients. A young man named Ricky Wyatt, whose name was listed first among the plaintiffs, provided the name for the class action suit, *Wyatt v. Stickney* (1971). This case became the nation's first major right to mental health treatment case and forever changed the mental institutions of the country.

The outcome was a ruling from the Federal District Judge Frank M. Johnson declaring that conditions in the state hospitals represented cruel and unusual punishment. He ordered major improvements in the Alabama state hospitals so extensive that they would have cost tens of millions. The state decided, instead, to release most of the patients into the community, thus effectively ending the warehousing of thousands of patients but leaving them with no access to adequate treatment in the community. This "dumping" was an unintended and unexpected consequence of the court order. Other states, anticipating similar court rulings, also chose to dump their patients to reduce their costs, thus setting the pattern for deinstitutionalization all over the country. Eventually, most states, including Alabama, established community mental health facilities that could provide follow-up and pharmacological treatment, so the outcome was generally positive. As noted by Bass (1993, p. 299) almost 6 years after *Wyatt* was first filed, Johnson reported that the number of patients in the three state institutions had fallen from 11,000 to 4,000, and the budget had increased from \$10 million to \$86 million.

Prison Reform

Conditions in Alabama's prison system were even worse than in the mental health facilities—filthy, overcrowded, and brutal. Soon after the conclusion of *Wyatt v. Stickney*, attention began to focus on conditions in the state prisons. One case, in which a prisoner named Newman complained that inmates were denied medication and medical care, particularly caught Judge Johnson's attention, and he asked Ira De-

Ment to bring the Justice Department into the case. An FBI investigation requested by DeMent revealed numerous cases of neglect and maltreatment including several deaths. DeMent concluded that there was sufficient evidence to proceed with charges that the conditions in the Alabama prison violated the Eighth Amendment, which banned cruel and unusual treatment. A trial was held in November 1972, and DeMent called me as his only witness. Larry Yackle (1989), a professor at the University of Alabama School of Law, described DeMent's examination as follows:

The testimony he elicited was powerful. Relying on national statistical studies, Fowler estimated that fully one-third of the inmates in the system were mentally retarded. One in ten prisoners was psychotic. Most others were depressed, emotionally disturbed and very likely in need of professional counseling. Fowler professed himself ready to help. (p. 37)

I offered the services of the University of Alabama Center for Correctional Psychology, which I had established with funding from the U.S. Department of Justice.

The Newman case was resolved by a court order requiring improved medical services to inmates, but broader complaints about prison conditions were received by the court over the next several years. As a part of sweeping orders requiring prison reform, Johnson declared that a rational classification system was essential to running a competent prison system and that there was no working classification system in the Alabama prisons. He called upon the Center for Correctional Psychology to develop a classification system and later asked the Center to implement it. We accepted the responsibility for evaluating all of the over 4,000 prisoners in the system, classifying them, and developing treatment and education plans to facilitate their rehabilitation.

To accomplish this, Stanley Brodsky, director of the psychology department's correctional psychology doctoral program, and I organized a group of faculty members, graduate students, and recent graduates, eventually numbering 70 participants. We designed an evaluation system that involved interviewing and testing every prisoner in the state prison system and developing plans for treatment, rehabilitation, and education as well as custody level.

On a July day in 1976, Stan and I along with another faculty member, Carl Clements, who had testified in some of the hearings, and a group of 30 students and other volunteers drove to Draper Prison near Montgomery to start what became known as the Prison Classification Project (PCP). Draper became the pilot project to develop the instruments that would later be used by PCP in all of the state prisons.

We were not welcomed by the prison commissioner, the warden, or the prison staff. Many Alabamians were deeply resentful of the federal intervention that had led to desegregation throughout the south. Judge Johnson was particularly

hated, and some of that resentment was directed toward us. We felt a great responsibility for the young staff members, mostly our graduate students, who spent much of their time among the prison population (where few outsiders, and particularly women, had ever been), and we worried that they might be assaulted. Fortunately, the prisoners quickly saw that our work was likely to improve their conditions and were very protective of us. We felt that we were at greater risk from the prison staff than from the prisoners.

As we examined the existing classification system, we found that it was often arbitrary. First offenders convicted for minor, nonviolent crimes were sometimes assigned to maximum custody, while dangerous, aggressive prisoners were allowed to range freely among the other prisoners, often assaulting, terrorizing, and raping more vulnerable prisoners. One small, frightened young prisoner who clearly did not qualify for maximum custody was scheduled to be sent to a maximum security prison where he had good reason to believe he probably would be assaulted and raped. He begged us not to allow him to be transferred, but the warden would not budge, so we took matters in our own hands and kept him overnight in our office area under what we referred to as "diplomatic immunity." The next day the warden grudgingly relented and agreed not to transfer him.

Our classification system established behavioral definitions for each custody level. For example, maximum security was assigned only to prisoners who were escape risks or who were a danger to other prisoners. In addition to the usual categories, we added a new category for prisoners who we judged to be able to function in the community under supervision. The new system resulted in the reclassification of most other inmates to less restrictive levels of security. One third of the inmates were assigned to community work-release and education-release programs, which allowed them to transition back into the community, and we identified the small number of violent and predatory prisoners who required maximum security custody.

The massive job of reclassification placed a considerable burden on the graduate students, who did most of the work, but most felt that the experience was invaluable. There was no housing available in the vicinity of Draper Prison, which, like most U.S. prisons, was located in a remote, rural area. Fortunately, a nearby lake had houses available for summer rental, and soon we were living in two lakeside houses bulging with graduate students who slept in beds, on couches, and on the floor when nothing else was available.

The intense—and tense—work situation and the close living arrangements resulted in a close bonding of the students with the faculty members and with each other, and many of us have maintained those friendships over the years. Two students, Taz Jones and Brad Fisher, devoted a full year of their lives to the project and in the process became skilled supervisors of other students and staff members. We completed the system-wide evaluation in 1 year despite obvious resis-

tance and noncooperation on the part of the prison staff including the psychologists.

A Psychological Autopsy of Howard Hughes

In 1976, just as the PCP was winding down, an event occurred that was to considerably affect my life. After years as a recluse, billionaire Howard R. Hughes, Jr., died, leaving no will and an aura of mystery about the circumstances of his life and his death. Once a very public celebrity, Hughes had become, in his later years, a shadowy figure who shunned publicity and avoided personal contacts. In the absence of reliable information, rumors flourished. Some believed that he was a shrewd financier who had control of vast resources; others believed he was a helpless, even psychotic, prisoner of his staff. Hughes's vast wealth and the mystery surrounding his life left a legal tangle.

George Dean, who had been the lead attorney for *Wyatt v. Stickney*, had an elderly client who asked him to represent her interests in litigation involving the estate of Howard Hughes who was her distant relative. At Dean's recommendation, the law firm representing the Hughes's estate retained me as an expert witness. I was asked to conduct a postmortem personality assessment, known as a psychological autopsy, to determine Hughes's mental status and level of functioning throughout his life span.

Fortunately for my work, Hughes's life since infancy was extensively documented. His overprotective mother kept notes on his childhood, especially his health, and during his years as a businessman, his staff recorded practically everything he did including transcripts of most of his personal and professional telephone calls. In addition, there were depositions from almost everyone who had known Hughes. The documentation was so extensive that I took a leave of ab-

sence to devote full time to the study. In addition to reviewing the documents, I interviewed people in Houston, Los Angeles, Las Vegas, New York, and London to get first-hand accounts. I consulted with dozens of psychologists and psychiatrists on diagnostic issues and spent hundreds of hours with the legal staff.

Doing a psychological autopsy was an interesting experience: a combination of detective work and psychological evaluation. Almost every day new clues would emerge to shed further light on Hughes's mental status at various periods of his life. The results revealed a man who from childhood was troubled by serious psychological problems that were later exacerbated by drug abuse and numerous head injuries from plane crashes and automobile accidents. He exhibited extremely compulsive behavior, severe addiction to prescription drugs, and at times, bizarre behavior. He had a series of three major breakdowns, and after the third, he had periods of rational behavior but was never able to resume a normal life.

My affidavits were used in legal actions that according to Dean protected the estate from frivolous lawsuits and saved millions of dollars. A synopsis of my findings was published in *Psychology Today* (Fowler, 1986, pp. 22–33). In addition, I enjoyed writing a review (Fowler, 2005) of the film *The Aviator* for *PsycCRITIQUES* edited by my friend Danny Wedding.

LEAVING ALABAMA

Nancy and I divorced in 1981, and in 1983, I concluded 18 years as department head and was rewarded with a sabbatical year and a 2-year leave of absence. I went to Washington, DC, to spend 2 years as a consultant to PsychSystems, a company that produced and sold test interpretation software and hardware to mental health facilities and practitioners. Michael Honaker, a former Alabama student who had been one of the PCP crew, joined me at PsychSystems and later at APA as Deputy CEO, a position he still holds.

In 1984, I married Sandra Mumford who had worked as a civilian research psychologist with the U.S. Navy in San Diego and had, fortunately for me, moved to Washington to run a program for Navy personnel designed to promote cross-cultural competence and awareness. We met through running and have run marathons together. We started with a blended family of five, adding Sandy's Jim and Monica to my Karen, Derek, and Michael. With the addition of spouses and five grandchildren, our family unit has grown steadily. My two decades with Sandy have been the best years of my life.

In 1986, I was designated as a Professor Emeritus at the University of Alabama, and in 1987, I was appointed head of the psychology department at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, a position I held until 1989 when we returned to Washington.



FIGURE 3 Artist's conception of Howard Hughes in his later years.



FIGURE 4 Ray Fowler and Sandy Fowler, 1990.

PSYCHOLOGICAL ORGANIZATIONS

Since graduate school, I have always been involved in psychology organizations. I joined the Alabama Psychological Association in 1956 when I came to the University and was president from 1962 to 1963. In 1971 to 1972, I was president of the Southeastern Psychological Association (SEPA).

SEPA Workshops

Charlie Spielberger, who followed me as SEPA president, asked me to develop a continuing education program for SEPA, and I organized SEPA Workshops to provide continuing education at the annual meetings. After several years, we expanded to sponsor continuing education tours in various parts of the world. In the 20 years that I directed SEPA Workshops, several thousand psychologists from around the country and overseas attended one or more workshop programs. Assessment workshops were particularly popular, and workshop leaders included such familiar figures as John Exner, Charlie Spielberger, Jim Butcher, and Carolyn Williams.

In 1984, SEPA Workshops chartered a Russian cruise ship for a tour to Cuba during one of the rare times when U.S. citizens were allowed to visit Cuba legally. Almost 200 U.S. participants attended the tour, the largest of any I conducted. We were greeted at the dock in Havana by the presidents of the Cuban psychological, psychiatric, and social work associations who seemed overwhelmed by the opportunity to interact with U.S. colleagues from whom they had been separated for so many years. We were treated with great respect and warmth and escorted on a tour to Cuba's major

mental health facility where we were hosted by the Secretary of Health who was one of Fidel Castro's original small band of revolutionaries and one of his closest associates.

The American Psychological Association

My career in APA governance began in 1965 when I was elected to the APA Council of Representatives to represent Alabama and a coalition of other southern states. I subsequently served two other terms on Council. In 1979, I was elected to the APA Board of Directors, and in 1983, I became treasurer. This was not a good time to become APA Treasurer. Minutes before my term began, the Council had made the fateful decision, over my objections, to purchase the magazine *Psychology Today* and operate it as an APA publication. During the next 5 years, I was engaged in trying to control the steady deterioration of APA's financial status as the costs of operating the magazine grew ever larger. In 1987, at the end of my term as treasurer, I was elected APA president-elect.

My term as APA president began in 1988—another case of bad timing. As president, I faced the task of mediating among factions with intense feelings for and against a major reorganization of APA, a conflict that pitted academics against practitioners and threatened the future of the organization. To make matters much worse, the Board of Directors and I learned that the finances of the organization, largely as a result of *Psychology Today* losses, had deteriorated so badly that APA was deeply in debt.

It was not a pleasant time to be president or, for that matter, a member of the Board of Directors. All of the usual activities of the Board had to be put on hold as we struggled to get control of APA's finances. Getting in the black again required reducing the staff, freezing salaries, and selling our three buildings and, thankfully, *Psychology Today*. By the end of the year, the financial picture had stabilized somewhat, and APA had begun to recover.

The CEO Years

In 1989, 4 months after my presidential year, I was elected APA Executive Vice President and CEO. My experience in APA governance and my years as an administrator gave me some degree of confidence in taking on the challenge, and a challenge it was. We had lost our buildings, the membership was angry and fragmented, the staff was discouraged and demoralized, and we were dangerously close to bankruptcy, with a net worth of minus \$3 million. The conventional wisdom was that APA would not survive until 2000.

The American Psychological Society (APS), founded after the rejection of reorganization by the membership, was founded with the goal of attracting APA's academic-research members, thus ending APA's traditional role as representative of all areas of psychology. Most major scientific and professional associations such as the American Medical

Association were fragmenting into specialty organizations and rapidly losing membership. APA's future seemed very much in doubt.

My years as CEO were exciting and no less challenging than I had anticipated. The staff, the governance, and the membership rallied to bring APA back from the brink. In a year or so, we had balanced the budget, started a new headquarters building, and begun to rebuild our reserves. The work of our chief financial officer, Jack McKay, contributed greatly to our recovery.

Responsibility for a workforce of 500 was a new experience, but one I enjoyed very much. Finding that employment in the higher categories was skewed toward White men, we undertook major efforts to recruit and promote minorities and women to achieve a fair and balanced work force. To improve the health awareness of the staff, we instituted annual health fairs to provide all staff with health evaluations and expert consultation on lifestyles and nutrition. Smoking cessation programs were arranged, and APA headquarters became a smoke-free workplace at a time when this was relatively rare.

In 1992, APA's centennial year, we occupied our new headquarters building near Capitol Hill and soon built another building nearby to provide income and, eventually, overflow space for staff offices. Some good investments in the stock market added to our net worth.

Our fears about losing our academic members to APS were unfounded. APS developed into a small but active organization devoted to psychological science, but most of APA's science-academic members remained in APA, and APA continued to expand its support for science and to recruit new members.

Since none of my predecessors had served more than one term, I had expected to return to academic life after completing one 5-year term, but there was more that I wanted to do, so I decided to stay longer. I was elected to serve a second and then a third 5-year term as CEO, but during my third term, I realized that the cumulative stress of a 24/7 job was beginning to take a toll on my health. My annual physical, which had always been excellent, confirmed my concerns. I had developed stress-related heart arrhythmias, and Kenneth Cooper, my physician, advised me to resign. I took a 6-month leave of absence, which helped, but when I returned, the resulting improvements began to diminish. At the Board of Directors meeting in December 2001, I realized that it was time to go, so I surprised everyone including myself by announcing my resignation effective in December 2002.

When I left APA at the end of 2002, I felt good about my time as CEO. With a stable membership and active divisions and state/provincial associations, APA seemed to be meeting many of the needs of its members and making positive contributions to public policy. Our income from publications, rentals, and investments helped to support an annual budget of over \$100 million, and our net worth was growing. I felt particularly proud of the APA Graduate Stu-



FIGURE 5 *Monitor* cover December 2002: “Ray Retires.” Copyright © 2002 by the American Psychological Association. Reproduced with permission. Photograph copyright © by Lloyd Wolf. Reproduced with permission.

dent organization (APAGS) that I had helped to organize during my presidential year. APAGS had grown to a membership of over 40,000 and was bringing in hundreds of new APA members each year. I felt that APA had developed the skills and resources to advocate effectively for psychology and to have a positive impact on public policy. A conservative estimate of APA's net worth—with two buildings, the publication program, and significant investments—was over \$200 million, enough to provide financial security for the future. The predictions of APA's impending death clearly had been exaggerated.

GOING INTERNATIONAL

My interest in international psychology that began with my MMPI work in 1968 led to one of my major initiatives as APA CEO, which was to move APA into more active participation in international affairs. When I was in graduate school in the 1950s, the conventional wisdom was that everything of importance in psychology happened in the United States, and psychology in other countries was of little interest. It wasn't true then, it was less true in the 1970s, and it is far less true today.

In the 1950s, most of the world was still recovering from World War II and the many wars and disturbances that preceded and followed that war. Psychology, and particularly professional psychology, blossomed in the United States after World War II, but there was no comparable growth in Asia and Europe. As recently as 1980, over two thirds of the

psychologists in the world were in the United States. Today, psychology is expanding rapidly around the world, and that percentage is probably closer to 20% and steadily shrinking. That means that much of what is going on in psychology is going on in other countries, and if we are ignorant of those developments, we miss much of the progress being made around the world.

Even today, with psychology expanding so rapidly in Europe and the rest of the world, most U.S. psychologists have never attended an international meeting or had opportunities to meet and interact with their international counterparts. Trying to correct that omission has been, for many years, a major goal of mine.

In 1979, my first year on the APA Board of Directors, I suggested to the Board that since President Nixon had recently initiated a resumption of diplomatic relations with China, it might be appropriate for us to initiate relations with Chinese psychologists by inviting the president of the Chinese Psychological Association to speak to the Council of Representatives at the 1979 APA convention in New York City. I was planning to attend the International Congress of Applied Psychology in Kyoto, Japan, so I was delegated to go to Beijing to extend the invitation personally.

Since tourism was just beginning in China in 1979, arranging a visit involved a lot of red tape, but obtaining a visa was facilitated by an official invitation from the Institute of Psychology of the Chinese Academy of Science, the first invitation to a U.S. psychologist.

The president of the Institute of Psychology was Professor Pan Shuh, a lively and gracious 84-year-old who spoke perfect English. A graduate of the University of Chicago in the 1920s, Pan Shuh had been president of the Chinese Psychological Society for 40 years, a measure of the respect his colleagues felt for him.

Pan Shuh was eager to reestablish the relationships with U.S. psychology that had been interrupted for 40 years because of political differences between our countries. Chinese psychology had suffered greatly from that separation, but individual psychologists had suffered as well. Pan Shuh was president of a university when the Cultural Revolution, led by the wife of Mao Tse Tung, began trying to eliminate what was left in China of class and education disparities. The Red Brigades, mostly uneducated young people from rural areas, rampaged through the country tearing down anything they thought inconsistent with the Cultural Revolution. They especially attacked universities, and psychologists were among their primary targets. Psychology was viewed as dangerous because it had the potential for changing people's way of thinking, and that, they believed, was the exclusive province of the Communist party.

Pan Shuh, a highly respected academician but not a Communist party member, was placed under house arrest for many years. His associates, younger psychologists at the Institute whom he had trained, fared even worse. They were stripped of their academic and Institute positions and sent to

communes where they were often assigned particularly unpleasant jobs such as cleaning pigpens. To be an educated person in China during the Cultural Revolution was considered to be almost a state crime, so higher education almost came to a standstill. The children of professors and many other educated people were denied an education as a way of equalizing their status with the status of the Chinese masses.

Pan Shuh greatly regretted that he would not be able to make the trip to New York because of his advanced age, but Professor Qicheng Jing attended as his representative and made a powerful impression on the Council of Representatives and all of the APA members he met. The following year, the Institute of Psychology invited me as part of a small group of psychologists including Neal Miller, Herbert Simon, and then-APA president Florence Denmark as their guests for a 2-week tour of educational and health facilities in various parts of China.

I have good memories of getting to know Herb Simon and Neal Miller whom I had admired since graduate school. I remember watching with amusement as Herb Simon practiced his rudimentary Chinese on a delighted group of small children who did not know they were giggling at a Nobel Prize Laureate. Neal Miller, always the scientist, suggested to a psychiatrist demonstrating acupuncture that it would be interesting to compare two groups: one getting stimulated in the designated acupuncture points and the other getting random stimulation. Neal laughed when the acupuncturist said "We did that 5000 years ago."

Those visits to China, and the friendships I developed with Pan Shuh, Professor Jing, and others, brought me back to China many times in the subsequent years, most recently as a member of the advisory committee for the 2002 meeting of the International Congress of Psychology in Beijing, China's first international psychology meeting. In 1982 and again in 1983, I brought large groups of psychologists to China to meet with members of the Chinese Psychological Society



FIGURE 6 Delegation to China, 1979: from left, Ray Fowler, Neal Miller, Florence Denmark, Herbert Simon.

and visit health and mental health facilities. For all of the U.S. participants, it was their first visit to China, and for many of the Chinese psychologists, it was their first contact with American psychologists, so it was a powerful experience for both groups.

The trips to Cuba and China were the most memorable of the SEPA Workshop tours, but there were many others that brought U.S. psychologists to other countries including Norway, Greece, Mexico, Egypt, Israel, Australia, the Caribbean, and England where we were hosted by Hans Eysenck. On each tour, we arranged meetings between the participants and local psychologists, some of whom participated in our workshops.

LIFE AFTER APA

Teaching and learning in other countries has been an important part of my professional life, and it has become even more so in my post-APA years. I have a small international consulting practice, but most of my time is devoted to pro bono work with international professional associations. From 1998 to 2006, I was Treasurer of the International Association of Applied Psychology (IAAP), one of five officers who serve as IAAP's executive committee. My IAAP work has given me an opportunity to help facilitate cooperation among international organizations and to promote the growth of psychology in developing nations. In addition to my work in China, I have participated in meetings in India, Thailand, and South Africa where I am an honorary life member of the Psychological Society of South Africa. I have recently been involved in the establishment of a new organization, the Asian Psychological Association, and I am serving on its founding Board of Directors. To recognize psychologists who have contributed to trans-Atlantic collaboration, I funded the Wilhelm Wundt-William James Prize, which is awarded at the biennial congresses of the European Federation of Psychological Associations.

Our children joke that they are much more likely to locate us outside of the country than inside, and that is not far from true. In 2005, we spent time in England, Germany, Spain, Brazil, Japan, and Thailand. In 2006, we will be in India, Bali, Greece, Hong Kong (as external examiner for the Chinese University of Hong Kong), and perhaps others as things develop.

How long will these activities continue? I don't know. A lot depends on health—and luck. At 75, I am healthy and energetic, and I love what I am doing. My workdays are now about as long as they have ever been, but not being office-bound gives me the freedom to be where I want to be including visits with our children and grandchildren who are scattered about the country. In spare moments, I am an avid bread baker and cook. My exercise program includes running, swimming, biking, hiking, and workouts at the gym. Unlike most people, I enjoy everything about traveling, even overseas flights and long airport layovers. I don't think I will give

travel up soon. In July 2006, I was elected president-elect of IAAP, a presidency cycle that continues until 2018 when I will be 87. I plan to serve out my term, if my luck holds out. Then—who knows—I may really retire.

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