the literature (154 references) and points to the dangers of encouraging emotional experience in the absence of acquisition of a new response to the emotion-evoking material. The paper supplements the discussion by the Cochrane group (Wessely et al., 1999) about the reasons for ineffectiveness of one-session psychological debriefing after accidents.


Simonet, S., & Wilde, G. J. S. (1997). Risk: perception, acceptance and homeostasis. Applied Psychology: An International Review, 46, 235–52. Presents the basic features of risk homeostasis theory and explains how this theory may help to understand the causation of the accident rate and how it may be used to develop an effective accident prevention strategy.


Ulrik E. Malt

ACCULTURATION. See Culture; Cultural Disintegration; Ethnic and Racial Identity, article on Ethnic Identity; and Marginalization.

ACH. NARZISS (1871–1946), German psychologist. As a member of Oswald Külpe’s Würzburg School, Ach became recognized for his introspective experiments on mental processes including concept formation, determining tendency, volition, and awareness. Ach’s experiments were conceived in opposition to associationism, as he did not believe that mental processes could be conceptualized adequately in terms of connections among sensations, and also in contrast to the work of Wilhelm Wundt, as Ach emphasized the notion of imageless thought.

From a methodological point of view, Ach (1935) advocated systematic experimental introspection, which should take place during the time immediately following the completion of an experimental task. Ach argued that in order to achieve a complete picture of a subject’s experiences, introspection must be systematic, with replicable results, and accompanied by interviews that supplement the subject’s report and explore the subject’s experiences. To control and assess the power of suggestion in the interview process, protocols must be taken and included in their entirety in publications (Ach, 1935).

Ach coined the term determining tendency to denote the idea that mental processes tend to be determined consciously or unconsciously by intended ends and not by associations. For example, a subject may be asked to add two numbers (Ach, 1935). If an experimenter shows the subject a card with the numbers 6 and 2,
the number 8, referring to the intended end of addition, enters the subject’s awareness. Yet, if a subject is shown the same card after being told to subtract, the number 4 comes into awareness. The same stimulus leads to different thoughts as intended ends determine what the mind does with two numbers. Ach (1921, 1935) performed a variety of experiments to demonstrate the power of this concept and worked with hypnotic suggestion (Ach, 1905/1951) in order to study the unconscious dimensions of the determining tendency.

In his psychology of volition (Wille), Ach (1935) argued that the determining tendency is a necessary but not sufficient condition of volition. Will refers to a specific psychological dimension that cannot be reduced to other forms of human experience. To assess volition Ach developed sophisticated experiments. For example, subjects had to learn nonsense pairs of syllables. After associations were learned, and the first syllable automatically elicited the second syllable of the pair, Ach asked the subject to no longer produce the learned second syllable but a syllable that rhymes with the first syllable. Depending on the number of learning trials, it took more or less volition or willfulness (Vorsatz) for the subject to suppress the associated syllable and produce the rhymed syllable. Thus Ach was able to compare experimentally and through introspection the effect of volition against the power of learned habit (association).

Ach (1935) also introduced the idea of determining emotions, an effect found more strongly in extraverts than in introverts. Late in his career, Ach also supported National Socialism, and his ideological usage of the psychology of volition (Geuter, 1984/1992) raised questions about the relationship between political beliefs and psychological research.

Bibliography


ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION. The achievement motive, a desire to perform well and attain success, clearly plays an important role in individual and societal accomplishments. Henry Alexander Murray, Jr. introduced the term into personality psychology, as one of 20 fundamental human “needs” or motives. Although many personality tests contain a scale designed to measure achievement motivation, the term was popularized in personality psychology by the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) content analysis scoring system developed by McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953; see also Smith, 1992, chaps. 9–10). Based on the effects in TAT stories of several different kinds of experimental arousal of achievement motivation, McClelland and colleagues defined the achievement motive as involving a concern for excellence—specifically, images of positive and negative anticipations, instrumental activity, explicitly stated desire or need, and goal satisfaction. The TAT measure of achievement motivation can also be applied to other verbal material, such as interviews, speeches, or literature.

In fact, the thematic apperceptive (or implicit) and questionnaire (direct or conscious) measures of achievement motivation do not correlate; moreover, they show different patterns of associated actions and life outcomes. Spangler’s (1992) analysis suggests that the TAT achievement motivation measure involves sensitivity to intrinsic, task-related achievement incentives; whereas the questionnaire measures reflect a sensitivity to social incentives associated with achievement. These considerations suggest that implicit and conscious achievement motives are embedded in two fundamentally different motivational systems (McClelland, Koestner, & Weinberger, 1989).

People who score high in TAT achievement motivation prefer and work hardest under conditions of moderate and realistic (versus extremely high or low) risk, especially when they have some control over results. They are restless and innovative. They seek and use new information, advice from experts (versus friends), and feedback about their previous performance. They can delay gratification, perhaps because they experience time as moving fast, and display a subdued, somber personal style. They bargain rationally and cooperatively, and get along well with other people. Nevertheless, they are prone to cheat and use illegal (or even revolutionary) tactics when necessary (McClelland, 1985, chap. 7; Smith, 1992, chap. 9; Winter, 1996, chap. 5). They show a facilitating attributional pattern in the domain of achievement tasks, such that they explain their success as due to ability or effort but view their failures as the result of external circumstances or luck (Weiner, 1985). Not surprisingly, therefore, such people tend to be successful in business, especially in small “entrepreneurial” businesses, in sales, or in larger companies that are “open” and achievement oriented. They also show upward occupational mobility.

In a landmark interdisciplinary study, McClelland...