

Essays from E-xcellence in Teaching 2000-2001

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Introduction

The Society for the Teaching of Psychology (STP, Division 2 of the American Psychological Association) launched its Internet electronic discussion list, PsychTeacher™ in late 1998. Since February of 2000, a regular feature of this list has been a monthly column called “E-xcellence in Teaching.” The column features monthly essays on high school, college, and university teaching in general and on the teaching of psychology in particular. The essays take the form of lessons learned, advice and hints on particular aspects of teaching, lore regarding teaching, book reviews, and reflections on our roles as teachers of psychology. In general, though, the primary focus of the column is to provide a forum for discussing and promoting effective teaching.

This book, STP’s second Web publication, represents the compilation of the first 20 E-xcellence in Teaching essays (February 2000 through December 2001). Future volumes of this book will be published electronically in the spring of each year and will contain the previous year’s essays.

We thank the authors of these essays for the time and effort they diverted away from other professional obligations and family life to contribute to the burgeoning literature on the “scholarship of teaching and pedagogy.” Their work represents no small contribution to this literature and to STP. We also thank members of the Society’s leadership over the past three years for their complete and total support for the idea of an electronic column dedicated solely to teaching. In particular, we thank Jane Halonen (James Madison University) for her insightful ideas that helped shape the column in its early stages. It is to her that we dedicate this book.

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Reflections on Teaching

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly "E-xcellence in Teaching" e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for February 2000).

In "Teaching: Have Your Cake and Eat it Too?" (*American Psychologist*, April 1951), Claude Buxton implored psychologists to value teaching as much as research. Educators mostly ignored his exhortation, but we recently addressed certain issues that he raised (i.e., Division 2's involvement with the project on Redefining Scholarship; see Halpern et al., *American Psychologist*, December 1998).

Research need not be detrimental to teaching. Research can improve teaching and teaching can improve research, if they appropriately complement each other. Also, people who are primarily teachers should not be less knowledgeable about the history, methodology, and substantive content of psychology. Jerome Bruner was right when he said that "it takes no elaborate research to know that communicating knowledge depends in enormous measure upon one's mastery of the knowledge to be communicated." Some outstanding researchers are masterful teachers, but most of us cannot "have our cake and eat it too." Despite recent lip service being paid to teaching in research universities, teaching has not attained equal status with research in psychology.

Aside from research, I now want to talk about teaching. My perspective on this topic comes from having taught in liberal arts colleges for almost 40 years. Be forewarned that my comments are not constrained by one scintilla of empirical evidence. I will mention 10 things that beginning teachers should hear. Readers who are not neophytes can stop here or read on.

Number 1

Be clear about your educational goals and ensure that your students are clear about them. Beginning teachers' notions about their academic objectives may be murky, but how can teachers know what to do until they know what they want to do? If you do not know where you are going, the likelihood that you will get there borders on randomness.

Number 2

Know the relevant facts, but go beyond them. Stress concepts and principles that have wider applicability than isolated facts. Facts fade fast, and most students will not remember them for the final examination; if they do, they will not remember them 2 weeks later. Emphasize that "everything is related to everything else."

Number 3

Be willing to say "I don't know," but strive to decrease the frequency with which you must do so. Samuel Butler observed that "a little knowledge is a dangerous thing, but a little lack of knowledge is also a dangerous thing." With more experience, you will understand Hal Borland's point that "facts are not answers, but only tools with which to fashion more questions" and James Thurber's wise observation that "it's better to ask some questions than to know all the answers." For every complex question, there is a simple answer—and it is wrong.

Number 4

In speaking and writing, strive for clarity, conciseness, and felicity of expression. Coleridge insisted that "preciseness in the use of terms is required, and the test is whether you can translate the phrase adequately into simpler terms, regard being had for the feeling of the whole passage." Strunk and White echoed the same sentiment even more succinctly when they advised writers not to be tempted "by a twenty-dollar word when there is a ten-center handy, ready, and able." (Their wonderful little book, *Elements of Style*, is now in its 4th edition—Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 2000.) In speaking and writing, as in almost every other endeavor, it is a simple task to make things complex, but a complex task to make things simple. Heed Thoreau's advice and "simplify, simplify, simplify." Also, learn to recognize what Oscar Wilde called "the precise psychological moment when to say nothing."

Number 5

Develop a passion for teaching that approaches religious fervor. If you are not passionate about what you are doing, your students will not be excited about what you want them to do. I am convinced that passion is the chief ingredient that distinguishes adequate from exceptional teachers. Ralph Waldo Emerson insisted that "nothing great was ever achieved without enthusiasm," and he was right.

Number 6

Be friendly and fair with all students but familiar with none. Benjamin Franklin made a similar point when he said: "Be civil to all; sociable to many; familiar with few." Recognize that you will not like some students as much as you like others. I prefer capable students who work hard to learn the facts, concepts, and principles that they should know. Do you favor certain kinds of students?

Number 7

Maintain rigorous academic standards, despite grade inflation that is a national travesty. Emerson knew whereof he spoke when he remarked that "our chief want in life is someone to make us do what we can." Do not expect instant perfection from your students but strive for steady improvement. A common problem with beginning teachers is their intense need to be liked or loved by students. Being respected is more important. I

do not know any esteemed teachers whose classes are flooded with mediocre students who get high grades without doing any serious academic work.

Number 8

Cherish colleagues of all ages. From older ones, you will learn about historical perspective. From younger ones, you will learn to avoid intellectual flabbiness and to have a healthy skepticism for traditional ways of doing things. When you agree with all your colleagues, you should probably change your mind.

Number 9

Stan Ericksen said that "the most important influence the teacher can have on students is to help them learn how to learn independently." This point can be threatening to young teachers, who may believe that students cannot learn anything that they are not taught. The best teachers are those who have no students, because the students have learned how to learn without their teachers.

Number 10

Samuel Johnson remarked that "praise, like gold and diamonds, owes its value to its scarcity." Teachers must be willing to work for intangible rewards that may not come until many years after students graduate, which gives new meaning to the "delay of reinforcement gradient." Henry Brooks Adams was right when he said that teachers affect eternity; they never know where their influence stops. But you must learn to be patient with your students and especially with yourself. One of the most frustrating things about teaching is that you never know what you are doing. I sometimes hope to be a house painter or a bricklayer in my next incarnation, because they can more easily quantify the results of their work.

Conclusion

One of the most important and rewarding aspects of teaching is that it is more fun than bipeds should have. After almost 40 years of having more fun than I deserve in teaching, I simply cannot imagine doing anything else! (Please don't tell my Dean, but I would probably pay Furman to let me do what Furman pays me to do.)

But the real reason for teaching is to make a difference—to be honorable, to be competent, to be responsible, to be productive, and to be unselfish but proud. Teaching is not a profession; teaching is a calling—delightful, invigorating, mysterious, frustrating, passionate, precious, and sacred. Good teachers stretch the mind and they stretch the heart. I hope that the world will be a better place because we teachers make a difference to our students.

Teaching with Style -- Your Style

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly "E-xcellence in Teaching" e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for March 2000).

If you plan a career in teaching, you will need to develop a teaching style that you and your students enjoy. Lacking a consistent and satisfying teaching style will greatly minimize your effectiveness as a teacher. Early in my career I often wished for someone to give me some guidance; unfortunately, guidance and support were nonexistent. My first teaching assignment came at the end of my first semester as a doctoral student. The Department chair asked how my semester had gone. "Excellent," I said. "Good. This summer you will be teaching Statistics I as your fellowship assignment," he said. The summer session started the next day.

A satisfying and comfortable teaching style ultimately rests on a foundation of good teaching practices. If you read the first contribution to this series, "Reflections on Teaching," then you are already well on your way to having a good foundation. I know of no better advice than the guidelines proposed by Charles Brewer; if you have not read them, I encourage you to do so soon.

However, developing a sound foundation for your teaching does not guarantee that you will also have a satisfying style. Here are several additional points I would suggest that you also keep in mind as you develop your teaching style.

1. Do not try to be the best teacher you ever had. It is tempting for neophyte teachers to think that the quickest or best route to success is to emulate, as closely as possible, the best teacher they have ever had. They may go so far as to copy the exact mannerisms, style of dress, and classroom practices and policies of their idol. Although emulating success may be a viable strategy in the business arena, it rarely works in academia. A more realistic and potentially more effective strategy is to learn from all the best teachers you have had. Learn from their best attributes, but do not try to duplicate them.

2. Let your self shine through. Because we are all different, each teacher brings a unique set of experiences, viewpoints, and personality to the classroom. If you want your students to have a meaningful experience in your class, then it is important for them to get to know you. Early in their careers, many teachers find going into the classroom to be a daunting and even anxiety producing experience. Some teachers defend against this anxiety by putting on their "teaching persona" or creating a "teaching facade." The result can be a class that is technically quite good, but lacks spontaneity, interest, and vitality.

You want your students to feel and experience the enthusiasm and zest that you have for psychology and teaching.

Harry Kirke Wolfe was a teacher who conveyed enthusiasm to his students. In addition to being Wilhelm Wundt's second American doctoral student in psychology, Harry Kirke Wolfe was a master teacher who shared a great deal of his self with his students. According to Benjamin (1991), Hartley Alexander, Chair of the Department of Philosophy at the University of Nebraska and Wolfe's colleague, said at Wolfe's funeral "[His classes were] notoriously difficult; there was no room for the slacker there; but there never was an uninteresting lecture hour, and year after year the students filed in, willing to venture the work for the sake of the zest." (p.132)

The more you are willing to let your true self be part of the classroom experience, the more your students will come to share the sentiments of Wolfe's students. Although a class of 35, 50, 100, or 200 people may appear formidable, don't forget that most students are there to learn and you are in a position to facilitate that learning. By investing some of your self, you help create a class that is more satisfying to both you and the students.

3. Develop your own philosophy of teaching. Contemplate what it is that attracts you to this profession and why you become energized when you are in the classroom. Perlman and McCann (1999) offer some excellent advice to guide the development of a teaching philosophy. They stress the need for understanding in three areas: (a) a general overview of yourself as a teacher, (b) what you do when you teach, and (c) self-evaluation. With regard to the general overview, they suggest that you answer such questions as the following: Why do you teach? What is rewarding about teaching? What principles underlie your teaching? What is effective teaching? As a teacher what do you do that is unique? What do you expect from your students? Perlman and McCann recommend that you answer the following questions to begin to draw conclusions about your teaching. Are you teaching what you want, in the way you want? Are you satisfied with yourself and your students? What still remains to be accomplished? Once you have dealt with these three areas, you are ready to assemble a one- to two-page teaching philosophy. Learn from it; let it help shape your teaching style.

4. Determine what your teaching goals are. Perlman and McCann (1999) believe you should address the following issues in order to clarify your teaching goals. What do you want your students to learn: knowledge of facts, excitement about the subject matter, applicability of course content to their everyday lives, material that will assist them in subsequent courses? Within what context do you teach: liberal arts emphasis, preprofessional training, both? What other skills do you teach: writing, ethics, critical thinking, scientific method, etc.? What are your standards: very high, high, average, low? Are you satisfied with your teaching goals? Why? Why not? Do you want to change your teaching goals? Why? Why not? Your teaching style will reflect your teaching goals.

5. You should also consider the value of feedback provided by student evaluations. Several years ago I was dismayed by the following comment from a junior colleague. "I teach to the evaluation, that's where the money is." The pressure to get good evaluations is understandable, especially in those instances where evaluations are tied directly to such important events as tenure, promotion, and salary increases.

Although the practice of teaching to enhance your evaluations may be appealing, it will prove fickle in the long run. At the very least you will be an unhappy teacher because this practice will undermine all of the good things you may have attempted to accomplish. It has been my experience that if you concentrate on the issues I raised above, the evaluations will take care of themselves. On the other hand, student evaluations can (and should) be used positively to guide the development and refinement of your teaching style. Obviously, you cannot make changes for each and every student comment and desire; however, general themes from a number of students are food for thought and potential change.

The potential importance of these suggestions notwithstanding, you may be left wondering how to convert your good intentions into concrete actions. It is beyond the scope of this presentation to delineate every possible action you might take. Here are suggestions from two talented beginning psychology teachers. Hopefully their approaches will spark some ideas that you can follow.

I like the idea of setting goals or developing an 'ideal teaching self.' But, you can be led astray from meeting these goals. There always are temptations to not do your best, but you need to do your best anyway. For example, the administration may not look favorably on your giving low grades to students. You must maintain your own goals and standards.

Drew Christopher, Anderson College

I operate directly from my philosophy of teaching. One of the biggest parts of my philosophy is enthusiasm. I love teaching—it is my passion—it is my joy!

Holly Stroder, St. Louis University

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Teaching about Teaching

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly “E-xcellence in Teaching” e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for April 2000).

In a recent survey of 261 Graduate Teaching Assistants, almost one half “felt that they received either barely adequate or inadequate teacher training prior to beginning their teaching...” and about 90% “felt that training specifically relating to teaching issues should be required before assuming any teaching duties” (Branstetter & Handelsman, 2000, p. 34). Can you imagine students in clinical training, with little or no preparation, being given therapy clients? Good teaching is at least as difficult as good therapy and the outcomes are just as significant.

I can hear someone say, “well, so what? Good teachers are born, not made. You’ve taken enough courses to know what to do when you have to teach one.” Unfortunately we have only a little research to refute those claims. A few years ago I interviewed about 25 college teachers, most of whom had won teaching awards. More than half described their first teaching experiences as negative: “I was awful.” “I just wanted it to end.” But they did learn how to teach. Bill McKeachie has worked with hundreds of graduate students in teaching seminars and said that he found only two who could not become good teachers. I have seen amazing changes in many of the graduate students I have worked with and in young faculty. People can learn about teaching and there is a lot to know. I anticipate two general audiences for these words: those who are just beginning their teaching and others who are “seniors.” Together we are a community and our task is to help each other to master what Parker Palmer (1997) called, “this occult art – harder to divine than tea leaves and impossible for mortals to do even passably well!” I am going to present four approaches to teaching about teaching; two will be extremes and two seem to be more reasonable.

Minimalism

Buy McKeachie’s (2002) *Teaching Tips*. Read it. Do what it says. That’s one extreme and it’s not bad advice. Of course, someone has to tell the new teacher that books like that exist.

The Ideal

At the other extreme is a complete program during graduate study. I know of only one place, the University of New Hampshire, that has done this (Benassi & Fernald, 1993). During the 5-6 years of doctoral study, students combine the learning of a specialty area and their research with course work on teaching and extensive teaching experience. A

few years ago I proposed that we begin to establish post-doctoral positions in teaching. This ideal graduate program is similar to the clinical scientist-practitioner model.

Special Ed

What happens in many research doctoral programs is that one person takes on the role of champion of teachers. This person offers a course on teaching and is the one graduate students go to when they want help with their teaching. Usually it is only the Teaching Assistants (TAs) who work with this person; the Research Assistants have other things to do, even though they too may wind up taking teaching jobs. If a course is offered, it may be required only for TAs, or it may be voluntary for all graduate students, as it is in my department.

Teaching Institute

What is there for teachers who do not or did not have these special opportunities? Regional and national teaching conferences offer a way to enter the community of teachers for advice and inspiration. You always get useful hints to take home, as well as after-dinner anecdotes about the teaching life. Perhaps some big names in research will summarize a content area. All those things are valuable, but we should provide more for the person whose preparation for teaching has been “inadequate.”

Early last month Steve Davis, Tom McGovern, Barbara Nodine, and I met in St. Louis to develop a plan for a teaching institute. We wanted to provide a program that would cover most aspects of teaching with an emphasis on experiential learning, that is, not just talking about teaching but doing it and reflecting on the experience. Doing this well might take anywhere from a few days to a few weeks. Clearly there are issues of costs, logistics, and timing, but we thought these problems seemed solvable if we could meet an important need.

Rather than forging ahead with plans for a full institute, we agreed to begin by planning a shorter workshop. The staff of the APA Education Directorate and the APA graduate student association encouraged us to offer this as a pre-convention workshop this coming August. The four of us accepted the challenge of finding a way to teach about teaching in a day and a half. We will start early in the afternoon on the first day by working with participants to compose a draft of their teaching philosophy. Then we will use case study materials to examine course planning, assessment of student learning, evaluation strategies, and continuing professional development. Lecturing with demonstrations, managing discussions, and active learning methods will be modeled in the delivery of the workshop. Participants will be asked to identify the strengths and limitations of these approaches. We will begin the process of building a teaching portfolio for use in job applications and for self evaluation of development as a teacher.

The results of this workshop should show us if we are on the right track. Then we will look for opportunities to offer a more extensive institute over a five to ten day period.

Eventually we hope that other experienced teachers may use our work as a model for developing their own teaching institutes.

Of course, it would be impossible to learn all about teaching in a day and a half, or five days, or five weeks. This is a life-long task. Bill McKeachie said that after more than fifty years he still is learning new things about teaching. Sometimes I think I am pretty good, but then go into the classroom and stumble around like a drunk on a trampoline. Then I ask a colleague for help. Perhaps that is the best way to teach about teaching; we should talk with each other about it as often as possible and give each other tips, resources, and, most of all, support. I have found the community of teachers to be extremely generous. If you are reading this you are part of that community and you can teach others about teaching by linking them through the PsychTeacher electronic discussion list. I also encourage you to respond with your ideas about how best to help others develop as teachers.

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When Students Teach Students: A Graduate Student's Perspective

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly "E-xcellence in Teaching" e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for May 2000).

"Put your feet on your desk and your hands on the floor!" was the cry of a first-grade teacher to her students on her first day of class in her first year of teaching. Her face turned red with embarrassment as she realized what she had just said. The nervous parents observing from the back of the room did not make things any easier, either. This example represents why obtaining teaching experience as a graduate student is helpful—if only to help relieve the anxiety of facing a large group of students on your own for the first time.

My first teaching assignment, other than teaching SPSS and Statistica to our new graduate students in their Quantitative Methods lab, was for a summer session of Psychology of Adjustment. I received my assignment thirty minutes before the class was to begin for the session. Fortunately, I had just completed a semester-long course on the "Teaching of Psychology." I had learned the basics of sound teaching such as preparing a syllabus and writing exams. I was also assigned a mentor to help me through my own teaching. Although this type of training and support is invaluable, nothing can truly prepare you for what is to come.

Most of the issues that are faced by graduate student teachers are the same as those faced by the faculty. However, graduate student teachers face some special issues due to their limited academic backgrounds and inexperience as teachers. This and past semesters have brought some of these issues to the forefront for me.

Short Lead Time on a New Prep

Since faculty are given first priority in assignment of courses, graduate students may not know that they will be teaching a course until a week or even a few hours before the class begins. Not only are we struggling to prepare new lectures (which, for novices, takes much longer to prepare), but we are also struggling to keep up with our own coursework and research. To lighten this task, I have designed a Teaching Resource Library in WebCT. The library includes an icon for each undergraduate course taught with links to helpful resources as well as links to the psychology portion of the publisher's sites and links to other teaching of psychology materials. The library reduces time spent hunting down ideas for class lectures, films, and so on. For those who do not have this type of resource readily available, teaming up with an experienced faculty member who has

previously taught the course is useful idea. Each course has a little different flavor to the type of students with whom you will be dealing (e.g., majors versus non-majors) and expert guidance is helpful to learn the level at which the material should be presented, as well as how much time it will likely take to teach one concept versus another.

Pre-selected Course Textbook

Because many graduate students are given their teaching assignment at the last minute, they may be unable to select the textbook for the course. Often, the text has been selected for them by the faculty member who was originally supposed to teach the course. Faculty members often select texts that reflect their own personal preferences and theoretical positions. For example, in teaching a course on development, the course may be taught topically or chronologically and the text usually follows one of these two approaches. Or, in an experimental course, the faculty member and text may place more or less focus on animal research or statistical calculations. It is difficult to teach from a text that differs from your own personal style. Thus, it is important to identify those graduate students who may be teaching a course in the future to obtain their views on the adoption of a particular text. If this is not possible, the graduate student teacher may either adapt to the style of the book and teach in a different manner than they might prefer, or do what I have done: assign readings from the text that follow my preferences of order and focus more closely. I have seen other graduate student teachers simply following the book exactly from Chapter One through the end with no additional information than that which is presented in the book. This is a fairly mundane and unchallenging approach both for the instructor and the students.

Boundaries Among Students

Most graduate students are going to be closer in age to the undergraduates than are the faculty. Although this may be advantageous in that we are facing some of the same general issues (e. g., working and studying) as are undergraduates, there is also a boundary to the camaraderie that may be felt. For example, it is possible that graduate students may be teaching an advanced student in a class only to find that they are fellow students in another class. This can be uncomfortable for both parties unless there are some very clear professional boundaries that are discussed right from the start of the semester. You may become friends in the class you share together and then have to turn around and assign him or her a grade in the class that you are teaching. It is of paramount importance that graduate student teachers are trained in such boundary issues.

Having to Say "I Don't Know"

One of the most common fears faced by graduate student teachers is being posed a question that they cannot answer. It is very difficult to say "I don't know." Although as a graduate student teacher you are in charge of the class, you are still a student yourself. You want your students to see you as a knowledgeable instructor and not the uninformed

student you may sometimes feel like. What has worked very well for me is to tell students that they have raised a very interesting question and that I will be happy to find out the answer and share it with them at the next class meeting. Of course, you must know the material well enough to keep this to a minimum in order not to lose credibility.

Difficult Students

Probably one of the most arduous problems that graduate student teachers face is the difficult student, whether it be talking in class, plagiarism, or as one of my students this semester said on an exam day, "Did you ever have the experience of walking in to an exam and not know that there was an exam that day?" Of course, he also walked into the exam twenty minutes late. It is difficult to know what to do in these types of situations. As graduate students, our teaching evaluations are important to being given graduate teaching assignments in the future and to obtaining a faculty position, but this point must not get in the way of being an effective teacher. It is all too easy to give the student what he or she is demanding (e.g., a make-up exam) in hope that he or she will then rate you highly at the end of the semester. However, the graduate student teacher should not let this type of student intimidate him or her. It is imperative for graduate student teachers to have a mentor to guide them through these difficult issues and to support them when they have to make difficult decisions.

For me, teaching has been challenging in large part because it is tricky balancing teaching, research, taking courses, other leadership roles, and having a home life. Nonetheless, I recently told my Chair that I am having so much fun teaching I would do it for free, as the rewards for overcoming such obstacles and becoming an effective teacher are great. For example, having that student who has put off taking Experimental Methods to the very last possible semester get excited about research or the student who had no plans to get involved in research and is now a McNair scholar completing her own research project or the students who come to "Brown Bag" lectures outside of class time just because they are excited about psychology. This is what teaching is all about and is what makes all those trying times worth overcoming. I highly recommend that those of you who are graduate students take advantage of the opportunity to become involved in teaching your own classes. It provides an excellent training ground for you as future faculty in working through some of these issues.

The Teachers's Good Judgment

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"Does the teacher use good judgment?" is rarely a component of teaching evaluations and is unlikely to figure in self or peer appraisals of our teaching. The question seems vague, somehow incomplete—good judgment about what?

References to a teacher's judgment are more predictable in situations where students, administrators, or both are calling one's teaching performance into question, that is, where the issue is bad judgment. I cite two instances of this sort from my 20-plus years of university teaching. Both involved Honors teaching, once when I assigned Milan Kundera's novel *Immortality* and the other when students were invited to view Lasse Hallstrom's "My Life As a Dog" (edited for the University's foreign film series). In each case the administration's letter of censure referred to my possibly poor judgment and reported parents' complaints about their child's exposure to sexually explicit material and the coarsening and indelible effects thereof. While explicitness may be considered relative, in the eye of the beholder (certainly I did not consider the material sexually explicit nor did most of my students), the incidents can reasonably be considered lapses of my good judgment in not properly assessing the risks associated with what I asked students to do.

The teacher's good judgment is usually defined in the negative sense, much like the intuitive, negative sense of freedom defined by Isaiah Berlin—freedom **from** rather than freedom **to**, a matter of don'ts rather than do's. To have good judgment as a teacher means that you refrain from, that you do nothing foolish, nothing humiliating or demeaning, nothing intemperate, illegal, or illicit. No one gets hurt. Of course, since teaching (and learning, too) is inherently probabilistic, we can never be certain about the consequences of what we say or otherwise do in the classroom or in other teaching venues. Innocently, inadvertently we may be the agents of offense, reduction, or harm where none is intended.

Given such vulnerability, are there precautions by which teachers can reduce their exposure? Are there specific rules for promoting teachers' good judgment? Answers to these questions depend on one's concept of teaching. To the extent that the concept centers on the dissemination of information, good judgment is a fairly simple matter. It can be secured by assuring the accuracy and appropriateness of (i) the information and (ii) the means for detecting its installation in one's students. Simply put: tell them then

test them. Neat, predictable, safe. The tidy closure that epitomizes teaching for information breeds a reputation for good judgment and does so within a semester: most every student (who isn't a miscreant) makes it through and is accounted for. Grade variance is straightforwardly ascribable to variance in remembering.

To take a quite different tack, such as one that favors teaching as the never-finished project of understanding, necessarily complicates the achievement of good judgment. Teaching for understanding is nondeterminative and vagabond. It can be messy and insecure. It is also hopelessly liberal, since it has to leave the door open to the different, even the strange. To teach on the premise that "anything goes" ideationally, that any idea has a place in the conversation, means being at a chronic loss to know quite what to do before the fact, except to be open. Teaching with this end is ripe with risk. It is a wrestle. Things can go wrong by day and by night (such as in the frenzied late-night call or e-mail from the student who is freaked because "I'm really stuck and can't figure out how to get my ideas to fit together and this paper is due in the morning").

In this case, the teacher's reputation for good judgment is as much a matter of luck as anything, since there is so much that can go bad. While there is certainly a place for emphasis on information, it is hardly unquestioned. One can never be quite sure about the adequacy or accuracy of information, even if the teacher or the textbook is the source. Furthermore, what one thinks is openly susceptible to question: "Why do you . . .", "How is it you . . .", "Where did you . . .", and so on. Problems evolve and solutions shift as better grounds for one's assertions are realized. What was thought to be settled has the troubling tendency to morph into an array of alternatives, often complex. One trembles before the prospect of never knowing for sure. Similarly, trusting one's fate to one's fellows in collaborative efforts at understanding may well prompt dread if not loathing. "Aarrgghh" becomes the operative exclamation and the end of the semester the occasion for demonizing: "That was the worst . . .", "I will never, ever take . . .", "Who does he think he . . .", and so on. The landscape of the course has become soaked with intellectual sweat and sometimes real tears, and there is a palpable sense of having survived.

In time the verdict may be kinder as students realize that they are better for what took place. Indeed, the good judgment of the teacher who taught for understanding may only be evidenced in retrospect, even at a remove of several years. What once felt oppressive, violating, painful, exhausting, and pointless may now be appreciated as integral to maturity and wisdom. Life's lessons in the meantime may have underscored the unreliability of information, the invalidity of sureness, the virtue of openness, the headiness of the play of alternative views. In this way, the teacher's reputation for good judgment will be slower coming and harder won.

Others', especially students', perceptions of teachers' good judgment may be formed both in the short term as well as in the longer term. It would not be surprising for perceptions to change over time, for what was earlier viewed as good judgment to be later questioned and recognized as ultimately working against the student's best interest.

Conversely, what was previously viewed as poor judgment on the teacher's part may be redeemed by subsequent developments in the student's life. As a teacher whose judgment has been questioned at regular points and whose aspirations are to teaching for understanding, I offer the following calculated advice, that is, calculated to establish a reputation for good judgment in the long run:

1. Avoid posturing, particularly as one who knows it all;
2. Never take advantage of your students' usually naïve trust;
3. Eschew dogmatism (which I state undogmatically);
4. Provide your students with liberally-minded caveats in advance;
5. Do what you can to develop an "in this together" approachability, availability, and succor;
6. Be ever-learning.

In response to the concerns about *Immortality*, I wrote to each student in the subsequent semester and reiterated the rationale by which I selected the text in the first place, including what I hoped it would eventually mean to them. I invited each to contact me for further discussion. Some did. In the case of "My Life As a Dog," I wrote to each concerned parent in a similar vein, pointing out parallels between the young protagonist's coming of age and the dilemmas incident to making one's way in college. None wrote back. Nor is it the case that my letter-writing efforts ever prompted an appellation of "good judgment" from the administrators who were aware of them. Perhaps it is still too early.

Courses on Careers for Psychology Majors

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Over the past 10 years, courses on careers for psychology majors have made a debut in the undergraduate curriculum. Why such courses, and why now? Consider the following points: (a) the current undergraduate population includes many students who are uncertain about why they are in college, but who assume that a college degree will guarantee them an interesting and well-paying job; (b) the psychology major, like other liberal arts and sciences majors, is general in scope and not intended to develop skills directly and obviously tied to specific jobs; (c) relatively few psychology majors enter graduate school and only a small proportion of this group goes on in psychology; (d) for those who elect graduate study, the graduate school application process is a complicated one.

Thus, for many reasons, today's students need assistance if they are to become strong candidates for jobs or graduate school. "Careers" courses are helping to meet that need. Such courses are typically of two types: introductory and "capstone." The latter courses, geared toward seniors, are usually designed to help students clarify their career goals and to prepare them for the job search or the graduate school application process. Courses aimed at first- and second-year students cover these issues as well, but also inform students about important aspects of the major (sequencing of courses, independent study options, etc.), identify useful minor and elective courses, and spell out things to do—inside and outside the classroom—to enhance students' chances for entry-level jobs and slots in graduate schools.

Both types of courses have their advantages. In junior-senior-level courses, students are better informed about the discipline, more mature and focused, and more interested in course issues because the job market or graduate school is looming. In first- and second-year courses, students still have time to schedule courses they might not have considered taking and to get involved in career-relevant volunteer work and student activities. Such courses can also help students decide whether psychology is the right major for them in time to change majors without jeopardizing their graduation date. In addition, introductory-level careers courses convey, early on, the value of high grades, high GRE scores, and good letters of recommendation.

Critical Elements of a "Careers" Course

In my view, there are two critical things "careers" courses should teach students. First, students need to learn the importance of becoming "free agents"—i.e., assuming an active role in their post-baccalaureate success (Carney & Wells, 1999). This process involves

electing courses and taking part in activities and volunteer work to ensure they will have the knowledge and skills required to gain entry to the workforce or graduate school and skillfully "marketing" themselves to prospective employers or admissions committees (Carney & Wells, 1999). Second, these courses should help students bridge the gap between the major and the marketplace (or graduate school). Thus, faculty need to inform students about the knowledge and skills that employers and graduate schools seek and identify courses in the core curriculum, psychology major, and minor and elective courses that will help students develop such knowledge and skills.

An Introductory-level "Careers" Course

At Georgia Southern, psychology majors are required to take Careers in Psychology. This one-credit course is graded on a pass/fail basis and is typically taken in the sophomore year. Among other things, the course aims to help students clarify their academic and career goals and to familiarize them with the application process for both jobs and graduate school.

Lecture topics in a typical semester include the following: entry-level jobs for psychology majors; skills employers seek and ways to develop these skills; exploring abilities, interests, skills, and values; graduate school options and considerations; what's involved in applying to graduate school; preparing résumés and cover letters; Internet resources; and campus and departmental resources. Three additional class sessions are devoted to speakers on selected careers—e.g., psychotherapy, corrections, and business.

In addition to reading course-pack materials and *Psychology: Careers for the Twenty-first Century* (APA, 1996), students complete a number of in-class exercises and out-of-class assignments. The assignments include: (a) writing a career-related autobiography, (b) developing an academic plan, (c) computing a projected GPA upon graduation, (d) taking Holland's (1994) Self-Directed Search and identifying relevant academic major and career options, (e) conducting an informational interview, (f) writing a résumé and cover letter, and (g) compiling a course portfolio consisting of course notes, hand-outs, and completed assignments for later use.

A copy of a recent course syllabus is available at *OTRP-Online* via the web portal for the Society for the Teaching of Psychology: <http://www.teachpsych.org>.

Course Outcomes

In recent years, many psychology departments have instituted career development courses to supplement advising programs (Ware, 1992). Several such courses have been described in the literature. For example, Buckalew and Lewis (1982) described a broadly focused, upper-division senior seminar that covered such topics as psychology's problems and future, ethical issues in psychology, career opportunities, résumés and business letters, personal development, financial investment, and money management. Also, Davis

(1988) has written about a one-credit academic course that stresses graduate school preparation.

Several well-controlled evaluations of career development courses have been reported. In a for-credit, elective course, Ware (1988) found increases in students' information about themselves, the world of work, and job search skills, as well as decreases in career-related anxiety, fear, and guilt. More recently, Dodson, Chastain, and Landrum (1996) described and evaluated a three-credit, upper-division, pass-fail elective that emphasizes opportunities in and preparation for graduate school. Based on a survey of 42 students at the first and last class meetings, Dodson et al. (1996) reported lowered expectations about graduate plans (from doctoral to master's degree) and very favorable ratings of the course.

Key Issues in Developing a "Careers" Course

In developing such a course, here are some key questions to consider:

1. What are the objectives of the course (introductory or "capstone")? Course objectives will guide how the course will be titled.
2. In what year should students take the course?
3. What readings will be required (books, hand-outs, course-packs, etc.)?
4. What assignments will help students develop the insights and skills they need?
5. How many credits will the course be awarded (how many meetings, how long will the class sessions be, and what will be the nature of the workload)?
6. Will the course be required or optional?
7. Will grades be pass/fail or academic ("A," "B," "C," "D," "F")? This decision will impact how you grade assignments and the degree of "control" you have over the quality of students' work.
8. What is the optimal class size? (I know of courses ranging from 18 to 200—the latter utilizes graduate students to lead smaller break-out sections.)
9. Are there any scheduling considerations--e.g., scheduling multiple sections at the same time with access to a large room in order to share the same speaker?

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Should It Matter Who the Teacher Is?
A Review of Parker Palmer's The Courage to Teach

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly "E-xcellence in Teaching" e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for October 2000).

The curious belief that it makes a difference who the teacher is raises a troubling question: what about the teacher ought to affect educational outcomes? To what extent are we each effective or ineffective teachers as a function of our knowledge of the subject matter and thoughtfulness about it, our hairstyles and body shapes, discussion leadership skills, class preparation, social identities and personalities, uses of technological wizardry or apt cartoons, story-telling abilities, or participation in teaching conferences and conscientious readings of *Teaching Tips*? What we assume matters matters, does it not? For example, our beliefs may influence our self-esteem as teachers as we experience success and failure, how we evaluate aspiring and veteran colleagues, and how we strive to improve our teaching. (Should I get that haircut now, read *Teaching of Psychology*, spend the hour in therapy, or go to the lab?) More importantly, perhaps, our beliefs about what should matter may influence our goals as educators, that is, what we take for ourselves and communicate to students as worthy attitudes to bring to learning, what we strive to teach about what ought to matter in education.

Parker Palmer, a nationally-known education writer, teacher, and workshop leader (and graduate of an odd little liberal arts college in Northfield, Minnesota), stakes out a sharp and thoughtful claim about what matters in education in his 1998 book *The Courage to Teach: Exploring the Inner Landscape of a Teacher's Life* (Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers). Palmer believes, first of all, that teachers matter and attempts to reset a balance that has, arguably, swung too strongly of late in the direction of "student learning." (Neither Palmer nor anyone else is opposed to students' learning, of course. The issue of balance concerns how significant teachers are thought to be in envisioning what ought to be achieved in education and in acting to bring about those ends.) What about teachers matters? At the heart of Palmer's view is his belief that the person who teaches matters, that "good teaching cannot be reduced to technique; good teaching comes from the identity and integrity of the teacher" (p. 10). What is Palmer arguing here? How also might his position stimulate our thinking about alternative conceptions of what matters? And what, ultimately, matters (in teaching, of course)? These are the questions that structure this review.

Palmer begins by suggesting it isn't how we teach (i.e., the methods we use in teaching) that most requires the attention of teachers (or educational reformers or organizations for

teachers like the one that sponsors this discussion list). Thus, the expectation that education will be sustained or markedly improved by some new teaching method or approach (e.g., assessing outcomes, service learning, inquiry-based learning, or even lecturing as colorful electronic projections dance by overhead) is chimerical. Palmer isn't against innovative or traditional methods of teaching; rather, he believes that we pay far too much attention to and show far too much faith in methodological fixes for education.

It's unfortunate that here, as elsewhere throughout *The Courage to Teach*, Palmer provides little in the way of convincing evidence in support of his assertions. He pays scant attention to systematic research results and much prefers to cite his own experiences and reflections, as well as anecdotes and informal findings from his workshops and talks with students and teachers. Still, his ideas and observations are highly provocative. In the current instance, Palmer notes that when students talk about their best teachers, those teachers turn out to employ no substantially common teaching method. In his view (and mine, also), great teachers can be histrionic classroom performers or gentle discussion facilitators, highly sensitive supporters of students or their frightful critics, and focused research mentors or unfettered intellectual wildcatters. But if this is so, what then matters in teaching?

For Palmer, it's that the teacher's work as an educator and student of a discipline is strongly and obviously tied to that teacher's sense of self. It is our deeply wrought personal commitment to teaching, stemming from our curiosities, values, experiences, and emotions in life that may make education possible. It is that one person—a teacher—can be aware of the personal meaning and pleasure of his or her intellectual commitment and, especially, of the limitations and insecurities associated with that commitment. It is that such a person can appreciate the nascent struggles and aspirations of students and can help create conditions in a classroom or laboratory that may connect students and faculty to a field of knowledge and inquiry. It is study as an authentic expression of self.

Palmer's claim is that many teachers lose personal connectedness to their work as they defend against threats to the self of the teacher. We are subject, for example, to the seeming indifference or occasional hostility of students, colleagues, and administrators. We experience inevitable failure in teaching; as Palmer notes, "the same person who teaches brilliantly one day can be an utter flop the next" (p. 67). (My personal testimony is even sharper: the same person who teaches with success in one section of a course can experience abject failure in another section of the very same course on the very same day!) Most importantly, in Palmer's view, we have internalized an academic—in his terms, "objectivist"—bias against selfhood, and we don't want to behave unprofessionally by acknowledging our personal stake and vulnerabilities in studying and representing a subject matter. Finally, we fear the unmasking of illusions and the upheaval of habits that may result from an open encounter with students' diverse realities. Of course, these are our students' fears as well, but do we allow ourselves to appreciate that? Palmer thinks not: "we cannot see the fear in our students until we see the fear in ourselves" (p. 47).

If all of this sounds vaguely familiar to psychologists, it may be because there's more than a faint echo of Carl Rogers in Parker Palmer (although Rogers is not mentioned in the book). What matters most in Palmer's scheme is the apparent authenticity of the teacher's commitment to his or her vocation and role. Inauthentic teaching reflects a turn from the deep personal valuing of the self toward, largely, the conditions of worth specified by the norms of contemporary "objectivist" culture. What results leads the teacher to distort his or her experience of self and others, and to shun true encounters with students and colleagues. Thankfully, Palmer doesn't recommend mass non-directive therapy for teachers, but he does encourage teachers to become more personally reflective about what initially drew them to the life of the mind and to teaching. For example, he suggests that we think about our mentors in academia and, more pointedly, (and I'm paraphrasing Palmer here) about what it was in us that allowed that mentoring to succeed. "By remembering our mentors, we remember ourselves—and by remembering ourselves, we remember our students" (p. 24). Similarly, Palmer would have us reconsider how our fields of study elicited and nurtured aspects of self we barely knew existed within us. What he hopes to rekindle is the teacher's "subjective engagement" with learning and personal commitment to teaching not as a scripted role but as a deeply human quest for understanding and meaning.

Effective teachers embrace what Palmer calls "the principle of paradox." If I understand his point, it is that teaching needs to be energized rather than intimidated by tensions inherent in apparent conflicts in education (e.g., self vs. technique, objective knowledge vs. subjective engagement, intellect vs. emotion). Doing so—and I am paraphrasing Palmer again (p. 74)—might allow teachers to design classes, for example, that are both bounded and open, welcome both silence and speech, and honor the "little" stories of the students and the "big" stories of the disciplines and tradition. Palmer continues: "the place where paradoxes are held together is in the teacher's heart, and our inability to hold them is less a failure of technique than a gap in our inner lives" (p. 83).

Given the principle of paradox, it isn't surprising that Palmer himself embraces the creative tension between the teacher's inner life and the role of community in knowing, teaching, learning, and stewardship of our educational institutions. In addition, under the rubric of "community," the latter half of *The Courage to Teach* manages to challenge—smartly, I might add—a number of the sacred cows of seemingly progressive innovation in American higher education, including the assessment movement (pp. 93-94) and the reorientation of teaching around student learning (p. 116, for example). Parker also manages to fit a wonderful discussion of what he calls "teaching from the microcosm" under the banner of community. What it's doing there isn't clear, but I hope to remember his call to teachers to forego covering the field and to replace that with an intensive focus on judiciously selected exemplars of a discipline when I fail once again to address the full body of material under a topic heading.

Should it matter to teaching if the teacher courageously confronts the kinds of personal-professional issues Palmer identifies? I believe there are reasons to question Palmer's

view. First, let's give due respect to the null hypothesis, that, given some basic levels of disciplinary competence and communicative skill, teachers don't matter at all. I know the possibility is heretical, but don't we teach our students about the fundamental attribution error and other psychological tendencies that might inflate our sense of our own importance? The null is worth pondering here, for it directs our attention to external factors that may affect education more significantly than Palmer's teaching self. The null is also humbling. It reminds us of our doubtful significance, and, consequently, allows us to appreciate anew the courage it takes to stand against the current to generate ripples of thoughtful skepticism, knowledge, clarity, and discovery. I like a point made by James O'Donnell in *Avatars of the Word: From Papyrus to Cyberspace* (1998, p. 123): "we teachers do not automatically deserve a future. We must earn it by the skill with which we disorient our students, energize them, and inculcate in them a taste for the hard disciplines of seeing and thinking."

Even if the apparent sincerity and passion of the teacher do affect educational outcomes, as both research on social influence and the history of demagoguery suggest they might, shouldn't we help students to approach messages so adorned quite cautiously? In other words, is it a good thing for students to be swayed by the teacher's self? There is an argument to be made for educational goals opposite those implicit in *The Courage to Teach*. In this alternative, heartless vision of education, students would learn to be more critical of what is seemingly authentic and more attentive to what is superficially tedious. (I am reminded in the latter regard of the routine manner in which Andrew Wiles supposedly presented and concluded his momentous talk solving Fermat's Last Theorem!) If we are successful as teachers, wouldn't our students learn how and why to seek meaning in dry communications, whether in the classroom or journal articles? If we are successful as teachers, wouldn't our students become more willing to employ the intellectual values of the discipline because of what those values yield in the world rather than what they mean to the person who teaches?

"Just tell me about the new continent. I don't give a damn what you've discovered about yourself." That's the caption of a wonderful cartoon in the October 18/25, 1999 issue of *The New Yorker* in which a king is shown speaking to his returned explorer. (That's a line I'd like to append to every paper assignment I give my students from now on!) Transposed to our current concerns, the cartoon reminds us to take our discipline seriously rather than ourselves (although, of course, the king isn't simply interested in the new world out of idle curiosity). Palmer comes to a similar conclusion about the importance of a field when he promotes a "subject-centered education" within "a community of truth," but for him the teacher's personal relationship with a field signals that potential value. In contrast, I am suggesting that a teacher ought to let the discipline speak for itself and to offer an informed, thoughtful, and open rendition of the character, accomplishments, and limitations of that discipline for students' potential appreciation.

In sum, the relationships between the personal self of the teacher, the professional self of the teacher, the selves of our students, and the meaning of a discipline in life may be far

more variegated than those depicted in Palmer's portrait. Ultimately, arguably, what matters in teaching is that the teacher is able to craft a class experience that allows students to discover or identify ways in which a discipline—its epistemological values and claims to knowledge—may have meaning in life. Part of this may involve helping students to find personal meaning in the discipline, and part of that may be inspired by the teacher's complex example of same. However, helping students to see beyond themselves, to recognize and respect the possibilities of meaning in a discipline to others and even to times in history outside our own, remains one of the fundamental challenges of teaching. In that regard, it just might matter who the teacher is.

Academic Partnerships: Old Friends and New Beginnings

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly “E-xcellence in Teaching” e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for November 2000).

On August 3, 2000, 67 psychology teachers from high schools, community colleges, 4-year colleges and universities and graduate programs met in Washington, D.C. to renew friendships and celebrate the successful partnerships and work that had begun the year before at the National Forum on Psychology Partnerships. The forum was the centerpiece of the American Psychological Association Education Directorate’s Psychology Partnerships Project: Academic Partnerships to Meet the Teaching and Learning Needs of the 21st Century (P3). This reunion of more than half of the forum’s participants highlighted P3’s success as a model for establishing local, regional, national, and international partnerships among teachers at all academic levels. The impact of P3 extends beyond these new partnerships, though. P3 also underscored the importance of these partnerships in meeting the challenges that confront educators in the new century.

What has set P3 apart from previous national conferences on the teaching of psychology is the emphasis on partnerships as a way to enhance psychology education. In this new century, the needs and demands of students, faculty, legislators, and the public and the recent pedagogic, demographic, societal, economic, and technological changes pose profound challenges to teachers. In fact, Dolence and Norris (1995) and Katz and Associates (1999), among others, argued that educators must prepare for a paradigm shift if they are to deal effectively with the transformations of the “information age.” The issues before us transcend the boundaries of academic levels. Consequently, I believe that to develop effective solutions to these challenges we must establish partnerships with our colleagues within and across academic levels. Here are just a few of the challenges before us that illustrate the need for increased collaboration among teachers at all academic levels.

1. The number of students enrolled in psychology courses at the high school, community college, 4-year college/university, and graduate levels and the number of students graduating with psychology degrees are growing rapidly (Ernst & Petrossian, 1996; McGovern & Reich, 1996; National Center for Education Statistics, 1999). Projections over the next 20 years reveal that psychology will be second only to business as the most popular undergraduate major (Murray, 1996). How will we teach, advise, mentor, and supervise large numbers of students in a cost-effective manner without sacrificing academic integrity? Through partnerships we can share scarce resources and help each other to develop creative strategies and pedagogical techniques to teach larger classes in

ways that still foster the development of important skills such as critical thinking, active learning, and analytical writing. Coordinating advising resources across academic levels could provide another opportunity to control the growing number of psychology majors. While we want to welcome students into our discipline, we must also be sure that they understand the diverse nature of the field and have realistic expectations about the education and career options that lie ahead.

2. The increasing mobility of students poses new challenges. Approximately 50% of all freshmen and sophomores begin their college education at community colleges (Hansen, 1998; McClenney, 1998; McGovern & Reich, 1996) and a large percentage of these students transfer to other institutions. Additionally, students are demanding greater freedom to access the growing number of online courses offered by an increasing number of academic and non-academic institutions (Dolence & Norris, 1995; Duderstadt, 1999). How do we prepare students for these transitions and multiple enrollments? It will require a concerted collaborative effort to develop a more seamless and coordinated curriculum that will facilitate these transitions and maximize the continuity and quality of their education and advising across institutions and academic levels.

3. Data from 1993 and 1997 show that ethnic minorities are underrepresented in psychology and this underrepresentation increases as one moves through the continuum from baccalaureate degree, master's degree, doctoral degree, and finally, faculty positions in psychology (American Psychological Association, 1999; Holliday et al., 1997). At the same time, U.S. Census Bureau (1999) projections indicate the U.S. population will be much more culturally diverse by 2050. What can we do to increase the recruitment and retention of culturally diverse students in psychology and what can we do in our courses to prepare our students to live and work in a more culturally diverse country with a more global orientation? One solution would involve colleges forming partnerships with high school psychology classes and developing a pipeline to recruit these culturally diverse students into psychology at the college level. These partnerships would also allow all of us to benefit from the experiences and knowledge of high school and community college teachers who typically work with a more culturally diverse student body and help us to incorporate cross-cultural perspectives into our psychology courses.

4. Employers are increasingly demanding that in addition to good critical thinking, problem solving, communication, interpersonal, and leadership skills, graduates have real-world experience in applying their knowledge (Dolen & Norris, 1995; Oblinger & Verville, 1998). How can we increase the practicum, internship, and service learning opportunities available to students even as the number of students in psychology continues to grow? Local partnerships among teachers in high schools, community colleges, and universities and among these teachers and professionals in the community could be one effective way to increase the number of potential sites for applied learning. Another benefit of these local partnerships is that they provide opportunities for shared supervision of students in the field to accommodate a greater number of students.

5. New technologies, including the Internet, have revolutionized opportunities for innovative and collaborative teaching and research at local, regional, national, and international levels. How can we make the most of these opportunities? Deliberate and sustained efforts are required to harness the power of these new technologies to form partnerships across academic levels and thereby increase communication and collaboration among teachers and the sharing of resources and professional development opportunities.

There are many other ways that academic partnerships could benefit psychology teachers and students. For example, partnerships also have the potential to

- give teachers opportunities to learn about the academic culture of other schools,
- provide a more inclusive network of colleagues to serve as resource people,
- provide opportunities for schools to expand course offerings with limited new resources,
- facilitate the development of assessment strategies that transcend or can be adapted for different academic levels,
- increase opportunities for joint grant proposals for external funds,
- increase recruitment opportunities for undergraduate and graduate programs, and
- provide models of teamwork and collaboration for students.

Of course, the process of building and maintaining partnerships across academic levels is not necessarily easy. Real partnerships across academic levels are collaborative efforts among colleagues who share a common vision and common goals, respect and value one another's expertise and contributions, view each other as equals with shared responsibilities and authority, and recognize the mutual benefits that can accrue from the partnership. Here are a few suggestions to facilitate the development of successful partnerships across academic levels.

Do not be afraid to contact teachers in other academic settings. It may seem like a daunting task but most teachers welcome the opportunity to talk with other people who are as passionate about teaching as they are.

Take the time to nurture the partnership, establish trust, and identify a shared vision and shared goals.

Make an effort to learn about the academic culture at your partner's workplace. Good communication is key to maintaining a successful partnership. To facilitate communication it is critical that partners know the vocabulary, methodologies, governance structure, and practical concerns of others in the partnership (Bullough & Kauchak, 1997; Corl, Harlow, Macián & Saunders (1996).

Remember that the pace of work in a partnership may be slower than anticipated. Be prepared for this and be patient with the process and with your partners.

Partnerships are more likely to continue over the long term if they are integrated into the structure of the institution or a professional organization. This decreases the likelihood that the partnership is dependent on the energy and initiative of just one or two people and also helps to increase the continuity of commitment to the partnership.

We are entering a new era in psychology education in which partnerships among high school, community college, 4-year college and university, and graduate teachers play a crucial role in the success of the discipline and the quality of our teaching and our students' learning. Participants in P3 have been leaders in establishing many of these partnerships. I encourage readers to share their own partnership experiences through the PsychTeacher electronic discussion list so they can serve as additional models for the discipline.

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The Importance of Communication Among High School Psychology Educators

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly "E-xcellence in Teaching" e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for December 2000).

"I am not a psychology major." This statement was racing through my head even as I was accepting the position of Advanced Placement Psychology teacher. I was awash in insecurity and doubt considering my own lack of background and expertise in this content area. I now realize from my many conversations with fellow high school educators that I am not isolated in this experience. Although the number of high school psychology students continues to grow (Ernst & Petrossian, 1996) it is not unusual for a high school psychology teacher to be the sole member of the "psychology department" in his or her school, usually nestled in the "Social Studies" department and usually teaching in more than one content area. So where does someone in this position go for support?

Soon after I accepted my current position, I met with my principal to discuss my teaching assignment. He wisely suggested that I contact a master psychology teacher in my school district. Desperate for direction, I quickly set about contacting her. This single act of reaching out to a colleague was a critical first step in shaping my psychology courses and in motivating the many activities in which I am currently involved. For new and experienced teachers alike, my advice is to break out of isolation! Find ways and find time to communicate with others. You will find your efforts will benefit your professional development and ultimately your students as well.

The following are some suggestions to establish lines of communication with other psychology educators.

Find Out Who's Out There

I recommend starting small. Find out who else is teaching psychology at your school. Find times where you can meet and map out what is being taught. Coordinate and share activities, topics, videos, and other projects. Start a psychology club together and consider planning a "Psychology Awareness" Week for your school. By working together you can develop a solid and exciting psychology program that will attract students.

If you are a "lone wolf" at your school, call neighboring schools in your district and reach out to who is there. One of the projects we have implemented in our district in an In-service class for psychology teachers. We meet monthly to discuss recent successes,

lesson ideas, and resources. These meetings are invaluable for experienced and novice teachers alike.

In addition, try to attend all conferences that are available and suitable for high school psychology teachers. Such meetings allow you to network with colleagues not only within your state but also with teachers throughout the country at all educational levels. One of my most valuable experiences was attending the NSF Psychology Institute, directed by Dr. Ludy Benjamin, at Texas A & M University. I also recommend attending the Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools (TOPSS) and Advanced Placement Conferences offered in your area. If you can afford to attend, the APA Convention and the National Institute for Teaching of Psychology (NITOP) are valuable as well.

If no such conferences are offered in your area or if the conferences mentioned are not an option, consider organizing one. It doesn't have to be on such a large scale. Start by inviting local teachers to your room after school and work from there. Contact your local university or state college to see if someone there is interested in working with you. Also, try contacting your state psychological association. Your efforts to build such networks with other psychology educators will not only benefit you but psychology education in your area.

Join TOPSS

I remember when I first learned of TOPSS at an Advanced Placement Conference. I was so excited to learn that the American Psychological Association had an organization devoted to the needs of the high school psychology teacher. I have found that the materials TOPSS provides, such as lesson plans, the "Psychology Teacher Network," the "The Monitor," to be very useful in my classroom.

A number of years ago I was asked to serve as the State Coordinator for TOPSS in Utah to spread the word about this valuable organization in my state and to increase communication among our teachers. In this role I have been able to meet and work with many psychology educators from different academic levels. Through this coordination we have created our own state organization called UTOPSS (Utah Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools). Many other states such as Nebraska, Kansas, Indiana, and Iowa have also created or are in the process of creating organizations such as ours. If your state does not have a local organization or if you are unsure if one exists or if you would like to get involved in the creation of such a group in your state, contact Rob McEntarffer, Member at Large for TOPSS. He manages the State Coordinator program. His email: rmcenta@lps.org. Rob would be happy to give you information.

UTOPSS' big project is a Fall Institute at the University of Utah. With the assistance of Dr. Irwin Altman, Distinguished Professor of Psychology at the University of Utah, and Dr. Robert Hill, Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Utah and Member at Large for the Utah Psychological Association, and other members of

UTOPSS, we have been able to offer very worthwhile experiences. Our participants have had opportunities to tour psychology laboratories at the University of Utah, meet with distinguished researchers, share teaching ideas and resources with master teachers, and collect materials that are immediately useful in the classroom. By far, however, the most valuable aspect of the conference is the chance to meet and network with other educators.

Last year UTOPSS experimented with a new method of communication. With the help of the Utah Educational Network (UEN), we formed a UTOPSS electronic discussion list. The list is designed to be an on-line, ongoing discussion group where teachers can ask questions, find lesson ideas and resources. There are many electronic discussion lists available for psychology educators. PsychNews and TIPS are an excellent way to contact educators across the country.

This year, UTOPSS launched its own website to promote communication among psychology educators. Teachers can access TOPSS resources, the National Standards for the Teaching of Introductory Psychology, information about ours and other available electronic discussion lists, and numerous online links for additional resources and information teachers can implement in their classroom. This page also includes links to websites from other high school psychology teachers. (Access page at: www.utopss.org)

The Challenge: Get Involved!

High School teachers are extremely busy people. Not only are teachers busy with planning, instruction, and management of a class (often with 30+ teenagers per class), they also spend a great deal of time with extracurricular responsibilities, committee assignments, and community and parental responsibilities. Balancing school work with home responsibilities often leaves little time for anything else. Even so, I encourage high school educators to find time to get involved. Don't be afraid to contact other teachers, go to available institutes or organize one of your own, join some electronic discussion lists, get online, and participate in TOPSS and other psychological associations. Such involvement can only benefit you. Thus even though you may not be "a psychology major," there are many available avenues to increase your communication with others in your profession and ultimately improve psychology education.

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What We Need to Know About Teaching and Teachers

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly "E-xcellence in Teaching" e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for January 2001).

It is critical that we learn all we can about undergraduate teaching both for ourselves and our students. Better understanding of the phenomenology and complexities of college teaching will help faculty, both new and senior alike, and administrators, maintain and improve pedagogy, faculty vitality, and faculty commitment to a teaching career.

There has been serious thought and voluminous attention paid to teaching over the years. A recent handout on some, but not all, books about teaching and higher education (Perlman, 2001) was 38 pages long! As a result of our work as editors of the Teaching Tips column that appears regularly in the *APS Observer*, our attendance at the annual National Institute of the Teaching of Psychology and other teaching-related conferences, and our ongoing research into teaching, we have given considerable thought to what we do not know about teaching. What is it we do not know about teaching and teachers, but should? What follows are some examples of ideas on teaching that need further exploration and attention, though we are sure the list is incomplete.

The Prosaic

Sometimes the simple, but important, day-to-day activities escape our scrutiny.

Efficient Ways to Survive As Teachers. Despite McKeachie's *Teaching Tips* (2002) our own *Lessons Learned* (1998), and a host of other practical books on pedagogy, we cannot find an archive of simple survival tips for teachers. We are talking about simple things faculty do that help them avoid problems and increase the time and attention they can pay to other matters. For example, when teaching a large class always have a pad of paper to keep track of students who need to make-up an exam, make an appointment to talk, or who are concerned about performance. This real-time record allows a faculty to personalize a larger class and keep track of a myriad of details in a minimum amount of time. We are presently in the early stages of gathering efficiency tips from faculty to share with others, especially new colleagues.

Lecture Preparation. Robert M. Arkin at The Ohio State University approached us with an idea for a Teaching Tips column. He could find a great deal of information on the practice of lecturing, but almost nothing on the composition of lectures. All teachers prepare lectures, and spend a lot of time doing so. What advice can we offer colleagues on the how-tos of lecture preparation?

Course Level. How do first year courses differ from second year, or sophomore from junior? What distinguishes an upper level course from a lower level one? Do students know more about course level and difficulty than faculty? How do faculty correctly place courses into their proper curricular level?

Make-up exams. All faculty have students who miss exams, and many structure their courses so these exams must be made up. We do not know what make-up procedures are most widely used by faculty nor how well they work. Make-up exams are a good example of an ongoing teaching activity we deal with regularly, but as with many such facets of teaching, we have little data regarding how best to do it. We are presently gathering data on this question.

Classroom Issues

Despite the superb writings of teachers such as Stephen Brookfield and Parker Palmer, there is still much that occurs in a classroom about which we need to learn more. For example:

Teachable Moments. All faculty know what teachable moments are, sort of, and all want more of them. They occur when the class is truly involved with the material, when because of good teaching, good examples, good rapport, or a host of other reasons, time stops. Students hang on every word of the lecture or discussion, material is accurately and clearly perceived, and the affective miasma in the room, whether intensity, interest, or enjoyment, enhance the learning experience. Can teachers plan for such moments? How often do they occur in a course? Have they been described from various perspectives? We do not know the answers.

Rapport. Everyone knows what rapport is, a sense of mutual trust and emotional affinity, and everyone agrees that good rapport between teacher and students is desirable. The outcomes of rapport should be better learning, more student discussion and participation, and simply a more pleasant experience throughout the course. When the editor this e-column, Bill Buskist approached us about writing a Teaching Tips column on rapport we readily agreed. But the more we all looked, the less we could find, the murkier the concept seemed, and the more work we had to do to understand the concept. That which we take for granted may be poorly understood.

Ending a Course. There is quite a bit written and data gathered on the first day of class and starting a class, but all courses also end. We cannot find useful information on good ways to end courses, ways that summarize and pull together both the intellectual work that occurred and capture the spirit of collaborative learning, accomplishment, and time well spent. Students' perceptions on the course ending experiences they found effective and interesting would be useful. Our guess is that many faculty spend little time ending a course, perhaps as little as a few minutes, and this is a valuable teaching moment lost.

Teaching the Science of Psychology by Doing. The most important goal of undergraduate education in psychology is generally agreed to be students' learning about the science of our discipline. How often in a major are students required to or, as an elective, can they pursue laboratory work? How much of this work is hands on, how much canned experiments or virtual ones on a computer? What aspects of science do students learn in these experiences? This is a question we intend to pursue in the months ahead.

Bigger Issues

Beyond the prosaic and classroom and laboratory experiences lies the larger landscape of faculty development and careers.

Continuities in Teaching. What continuities exist in teaching and what changes over time for faculty? Why do some aspects of teaching remain unaltered while others develop, and what influences change or continuity?

What Losses and Gains in Teaching Accrue Over Time? Lifespan developmental models posit both gains and losses as development progresses. We can find little data that address the question of losses as faculty members' teaching careers progress. As we gain experience and maturity as teachers, what do we lose? We also know little about how faculty conceptualize perceived gains in experience and expertise in teaching undergraduates.

The Influence of Tenure On Teaching. How does receiving tenure affect how faculty define the responsibilities of teaching? Do teachers slack off, emphasize scholarship and have fewer concerns for student learning? Our own experiences argue the opposite. We can find no data on this question.

The Emotional Dimension in Undergraduate Teaching. Somewhat unexpected in our current longitudinal research (Perlman, McFadden, McCann, & Kunzer, 2000) was the importance faculty placed on the emotional dimension of undergraduate teaching, both for faculty themselves and students (e.g., appreciating, liking, and enjoying the subject matter). For example, enthusiasm is critically important to our cohort of faculty. However, we are unclear (a) exactly how it is defined, or (b) why it is so important to undergraduate teaching.

What Does Having an Interpersonal Connection With Students Mean to Faculty? Our present research points to interpersonal relationships with students as a critical dimension of undergraduate teaching. Given its apparent importance, we need to learn how faculty define such a connection, whether it has multiple dimensions, and what those dimensions are.

How Do Gender, Race, Age, or Ethnicity Affect Teaching and the Definition of Good Teaching? Menges (1999) presented experiences of newly hired men and women, and perspectives of faculty of color for all phases of academic responsibilities. Tierney and Bensimon (1996) also addressed issues of socialization for untenured faculty, particularly women and minorities. Neither specifically addresses how these matters affect teaching. Qualitative studies are needed to inform us about the influence of individual differences on teaching (Bland & Bergquist, 1997).

How Do Student Characteristics Influence Teaching? Students are one of the most important influences on teaching. Rojstaczer (1999) discusses changes in his course goals and content at Duke, partially in response to changing student preparation and expectations. More data are needed, especially for faculty at teaching institutions. How do changes in such characteristics over the years interact with teaching and faculty satisfaction with it, and faculty expectations for student performance?

What Metaphor Best Captures Faculty Teaching? How long do metaphors, once adopted by faculty, influence teaching, and how is it faculty adopt different pedagogical metaphors? (For example, the business world uses metaphors, such as referring to managers as Atilla the Hun or cat herders.) Metaphors are powerful ways of understanding and knowing, and to understand something metaphorically provides an intuitive grasp of situations. Metaphors provide depth and shades of meaning that rational arguments and empirical data do not. Paradoxically, we may best understand teaching by describing it as something else.

Conclusion

One conclusion we have reached over time is that many of the things we know or accept as true about teaching, are, upon investigation, opinions based on accepted wisdom rather than hard data. We should be worried about not only about what we do not know about teaching, but also skeptical about the things we believe we do know.

We are sure there are many other teaching-related issues and phenomena that need systematic study and thought. Please let us know what ideas you have for such research and writing (perlman@uwosh.edu). Thank you.

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A Course, A Course, My Kingdom for a Course

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly "E-xcellence in Teaching" e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for February 2001).

I disagree emphatically with George Bernard Shaw's polemic, "he who can does. He who cannot, teaches." Indeed, I embrace the opposite view: "he who can, teaches" (Benjamin, 1998). However, I am also persuaded by the wisdom of B.F. Skinner (1964), which may be awkward for some teachers, that "education is what survives when what has been learnt has been forgotten." Thus, our challenge as teachers is clear—at a minimum we must guarantee that the fundamentals of psychology survive in our students' memories long after the curricular specifics have faded. We accomplish this end, I believe, through a passion for, rather than mere knowledge of, our discipline, and a respect and fondness for our students. In this column, I will consider a number of questions to show how these attributes might be nurtured.

What Does and Doesn't Work in the Classroom?

In preparing these remarks, I have discovered that it is one thing to do what one does in the classroom and quite another to describe and understand what one does. This conundrum notwithstanding, I believe what works in the classroom varies from teacher to teacher and will largely reflect the answer to a more fundamental if rhetorical question that any teacher must attempt to answer: "What do I want my classroom legacy to be?"

My response has two components. First, I would hope there is absolutely no doubt in my students' minds about my total enthusiasm for psychology. Second, I would like students to remember my respect and affection for them.

Fortunately, most of us do like students, and this is half the battle, but there are a few "tricks of the trade" that can buttress one's natural affection. For example, I try very hard to learn my students' names—students appreciate being called by name, and it keeps them on their toes. I also like to speak about former students who have earned a Ph.D., suggesting by extension that I think current students too are capable of great things. Another notion that guides me personally in terms of a respectful and affectionate attitude is that I continually try not to forget what it was like to be a student, from both an academic and an adjustment standpoint. For instance, I urge my students not to equate their self worth with their grades, pointing out that bad marks sometimes happen to good people.

Is Less (Content) More?

I am not in favor of a “Psychology’s Greatest Hits” approach—that is cheap and irresponsible—but neither do I recommend that one try to cover everything on the curriculum in class, for two reasons. First, from a practical standpoint, it is simply not possible to cover everything. Second, and more important, years later students don’t seem to remember a great deal of what we taught them, so perhaps we can be more relaxed about the “curricular specifics,” that is, increase the amount they will remember by doing less but doing it well.

How Best to Evaluate Students?

Because I have for years felt guilty about my unavoidable emphasis on multiple-choice questions in large classes, I take great comfort in Bridgeman and Morgan’s (1996) demonstration that more than 90% of students obtain comparable marks on essay and multiple-choice tests. In other words, students may prefer one form of assessment over the other, but most handle both equally well.

Another common component of evaluation is attendance. Dillon (1998) reported that despite the fact that faculty found three-quarters of student excuses for missing classes to be unacceptable, fewer than 40% said they would confront their students about the legitimacy of those excuses, because of concerns about the negative effect of confrontation on teaching evaluations (now so significant in hiring, promotion, tenure, and merit pay decisions), and, even worse, fear of reprisal (perhaps not unreasonable, given the increasing number of shooting incidents in North American high schools of late). While this nightmarish specter is perhaps beyond the purview of these remarks, it does speak eloquently to the importance of a congenial classroom atmosphere for effective teaching, and, at a more practical level, to the issue of attendance. If students know they are not going to be challenged for missing class, or about their outlandish excuses, their attendance will decline.

Though many students who do not attend class attempt to cover the missed material by borrowing notes from someone who did attend, these notes may be of doubtful usefulness. Baker and Lombardi (1985) found that most students included in their notes fewer than a quarter of the propositions judged worthy of inclusion and only 50% of the targeted main ideas.

What Should Be the Role of Humor in Teaching?

Buskist (1998) concluded that the use of humor is not only one of the characteristics of master teachers but also an indication of a second virtue, namely, enthusiasm. Certainly I have always hoped that my use of humor reflects an underlying dynamic, to wit, my enjoyment of what I am doing and what I am teaching.

Teacher humor should be neither excessive nor gratuitous, but judicious. It must satisfy what I call “the criterion of pedagogical purpose,” that is, it should be intended to make students’ learning more enjoyable—and, as a result, more memorable. As the lyric line in an old music hall tune (Peel Me a Grape) puts it, “amuse me or lose me!”

In my experience, the most effective humor is relevant, personal, and self-deprecating. Students love hearing teachers tell tales on themselves. For example, during my treatment of the effects of parental rejection, my students love hearing about my father’s frequent reminder to me, “Nickie”—he called me “Nickie” when he was angry with me, which was only when he was awake—“ never forget that your brother is an only child.”

In a related (if controversial) context, I am of the view that humor has its place not only in classes but also on exams. Anecdotal evidence from my students is overwhelming. My personal favorite student remark: “I look forward to your exams, Dr. Skinner.” Empirically, my own research has convinced me that humor on exams is beneficial. For example, in groups equated for ambient anxiety levels, students given a multiple-choice exam containing approximately 50% humorous questions scored on average between 3 to 4% higher than matched students writing a conventional (humorless) form of the same exam (Skinner, 1992). Oscar Wilde was correct—life is too important to be taken seriously!

Should We Trust Professorial Folk Wisdom?

Much of my teaching-related research reflects a long-held conviction that the “folk wisdom” of professors and students should not be accepted uncritically. For example, skeptical of Joubert’s (1983) report that undergraduates with unusual first names were significantly less likely to graduate with honors than those with common names, I found that there was no significant difference in the percentage of female or male students with common names versus unique names obtaining averages of 80% or higher (in a sample of more than 500 introductory psychology students; Skinner, 1984).

For years I followed the advice of a respected senior colleague to put a number of easy questions at the beginning of a multiple-choice examination “to get students off on the right foot.” However, empirical examination of this piece of professorial folk wisdom revealed that students doing difficult items first obtained a mean score of 85% on later easy items, whereas students doing those same easy questions in the first half of the test averaged about 70%, lending support to the suggestion that an initial setback may have a salutary effect on subsequent performance (Skinner, 1999).

Finally, though each new generation of students seems to be the beneficiary of the advice, unquestionably passed on by senior students (and I think by many professors as well), “don’t change your first answer to a multiple-choice question because it’s probably correct,” on average about 50% of changes go from wrong to right (e.g., Benjamin, 1984;

Skinner, 1996). Clearly, teachers need to convince students of the relative efficacy of answer changing.

How Much Should Research Inform Our Teaching?

Though I am opposed to research at the expense of teaching, I am very much in favor of teachers doing research, because that research can greatly benefit their teaching. One of the things that made my best teachers so effective was precisely that they could bring their own research to bear on illustrating general principles. They invariably became more enthused when talking about their research, and this enthusiasm was not only infectious but made the general principles more memorable.

In combination, my classroom experience and research into teaching have led me to the view that the most effective teachers are, as the saying goes, “to the manner born.” In other words, “the characteristics of effective teachers are more likely to be the products of biology than teacher training programs” (Skinner, 1999, p. 71). Truly great teachers are successful in very large part because they are “doing what comes naturally” rather than trying to emulate their own best teachers, which Steve Davis recently warned against in this very column (Davis, 2000).

Conclusion

Clearly, only a few will be “great” teachers, but this should not deter us mere mortals because, as McKeachie (2002) points out, “[in the final analysis] teaching effectiveness depends not on what the teacher does, but rather on what the student does” (p. 6). Effective teachers are those who will require their students to inquire—to find out actively the answers to their own questions, rather than osmotically accepting and “... repeating what someone else says is true” (Postman and Weingartner, 1969, p. 19). The good news is that one does not have to be a charismatic inspirationalist—anyone who takes seriously the maxim, “teach me how to do it myself,” can teach effectively.

In closing, let me recall a line from Robert Bolt’s powerful 1961 play, *A Man for All Seasons*. The venerable and wise Sir Thomas More is urging a youthful protégé to consider a life in the classroom, because, More assures him, he will be an outstanding teacher. “But if I were,” demurs the young man, “who would know it?” Replied the great author and statesman, “you, your friends, your students, God. Not a bad audience, that.” Not a bad audience indeed!

[*Editors' Note:* An expanded version of this article may be found in Skinner, N. F. (2001). A course, a course, my kingdom for a course: Reflections of an unrepentant teacher. *Canadian Psychology*, 42, 49-60.]

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Psychology Teachers Shaping Psychology

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Teaching is about learning. The most effective teachers assist students in becoming more able learners and are willing to guide students in taking advantage of learning opportunities. Teachers of psychology shape the field of psychology through their students. More often than not, a teacher of psychology has only a single opportunity to influence students' knowledge of psychology. Unfortunately, most of what is known about psychology in our society appears to have been gleaned from the media and pop literature. Teachers of psychology at least have a chance to help their students in distinguishing between pop psychology and scientifically based psychology, thus greatly improving what is understood about psychology in the public domain.

What is the psychology that teachers should teach if it is to be best understood? Is psychology well presented in the typical introductory text, where students learn that it is represented by a dozen or so chapters with different titles? No. The traditional introductory textbook fragments psychology. All too often the psychology curriculum is comprised of a collection of courses that are no more than elaborated versions of chapters in the introductory text. Are we offering an integrated discipline? Again, no. Irwin Altman (as cited in Murray, 1999) asserted that psychologists will continue teaching psychology in fragmented ways even at the risk of its withering away. Others (e.g., Bevan, 1982, 1991; Kimble, 1984; Spence, 1987) have expressed concern that psychology's increasing diverseness portends its total fragmentation.

The psychology of the last half century is vastly different from the psychology of the first half of the century. With minor exceptions during psychology's early years, the relatively small number of psychologists in the United States were engaged in teaching and research in the academy. Social changes in the aftermath of World War II led to dramatic variations in psychology and in opportunities for psychologists. Contrary to their predecessors, post-WW II psychologists were more interested in and had more opportunities in applied work, and their numbers grew. More psychologists joined college and university faculties as there were more programs and students, and more graduates moved into applied positions. Organized psychology deemed it prudent to set up educational and training criteria.

From one committee studying these issues came the scientist-practitioner model, an effort designed to assure that those in applied graduate study were well grounded in scientific psychology. This model remains prevalent in traditional graduate programs in psychology, although less so in specialty graduate programs. Whether the model had the

intended impact on graduate programs and their products is open to conjecture. Nevertheless, big changes began to occur in psychology and the organizations that represent psychology. The education and training of psychologists now varies significantly within and between graduate units with many psychologists sharing little similarity in education, training, interests, and work with other psychologists.

Today's psychology is a diverse field whose members share the name but often have little else in common. To the extent that psychology is fragmented, some credit can be assigned to the vast differences found among its participants. Diverseness within an individual, as reflected in breadth and depth of interests, knowledge, and abilities strengthens the discipline and is typically not construed to reflect fragmentation. Sternberg and Grigorenko (1999) referred to individualized diverseness as “dilettantism,” and noted that this attribute has characterized outstanding psychological scientists, and I would add, outstanding teachers. A discipline whose members possess such an attribute and whose members share mutual interests would be one of promise and productivity. On the other hand, it seems to me that a field whose diversity is found in varied and narrower interests, knowledge, and abilities among its members would be more a collective than a discipline.

I believe, as do others (e.g., Kimble, 1984, 1994; Staats, 1998), that psychology needs to expend considerable of its substantial resources in developing an integrative, multilevel theory that provides the fundamentals—the foundation—for psychology, the discipline. A proposal by Kimble (1999) represents a step in that direction, setting forth a multilevel conceptual scheme outlining how those who work under the rubric of a scientific psychology, whether investigative or applied, can apply their efforts in a systematic context.

In the meantime, what is the psychology student to be taught? I submit that it must be an integrated approach to the discipline and one whose base is in scientific psychology. In that most traditional introductory textbooks present psychology in a fragmented manner, wise and able teachers must meet the challenge of portraying psychology as an integrative whole. Senior faculty may be best prepared to assist in learning an integrated psychology. However, junior faculty with the appropriate knowledge base and scientific perspective can do the job under adequate mentoring.

I believe it important both to psychology and society that psychologists be grounded in systematic principles—the fundamentals of science. Psychology is a field that has implications for understanding the cognitive, emotional, biological, and behavioral aspects of all people. However, if it is to be a discipline rather than a fragmented field, teachers of psychology must shape it in that direction. Teachers of psychology can enhance the process by helping students to know what science is and what it is not, how scientific evidence is gleaned, and how science contributes to knowledge. Further, teachers of psychology can assist students in understanding that not all phenomena important to people are amenable to scientific inquiry and why this is the case. Students

can be taught to learn the differences between beliefs and scientific evidence and how their values, perceptions, thoughts, feelings, and perspectives are influenced by each. Students can be aided in becoming aware of important contributions by psychologists and why they are important to understanding human nature. This task can be accomplished using the content, conceptions, and processes fundamental to the science of psychology. Psychology is not, if it is to be a viable discipline, represented by dozen or so chapters in an introductory text. Yet that is often how our students are taught to know our field. I have long advocated that psychology be taught from a developmental perspective. Such approach would demonstrate a continuity of development and serve to integrate what students may all too often perceive as disjointed parts.

If we hope to have a systematic discipline, we cannot leave it to our students to integrate the field on their own. Students need our assistance; we must serve as models of integrative thinking. Teachers who achieve and practice dilettanism—those who have and use breadth and depth of knowledge (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 1999), will be able to assist their students in gaining a meaningful perspective on psychology.

Being an effective teacher of psychology requires a perspective of the discipline as a systematic enterprise, an extensive knowledge of the content and processes of psychology, and a passion for sharing these with students in the belief that the qualities of their lives will be enhanced as a result. Thus, we will shape psychology in important directions and increase it's likelihood of continuation as a viable discipline.

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Fighting the Surf: Lessons Learned in My First Year of College Teaching

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly “E-xcellence in Teaching” e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for April 2001).

I once heard a story of a man who viewed his life as a series of battles to be conquered. He approached the world as if he were standing in the ocean, with the brutal surf crashing all about him. He believed that the only way to survive was to use his strength, determination, and fury to resist the relentless onslaught of waves, even though each one threatened to bowl him over. There was little peace in this man’s life; everyday brought a new struggle. It was no wonder that he often felt depleted, exhausted, and hopeless. Rather than stepping out of the water to observe his circumstance, or easing past the breakers to allow the tide to carry him where it may, he chose to fight the surf, looking to conquer wave after wave.

In many ways, this story parallels my first semester of teaching. In the beginning, I focused all my energies on trying to “fight” my way into being an effective teacher. Armed with airtight schedules, strict policies, and firm deadlines, I worked tirelessly to “get through” all of the material. I was determined to cover every chapter of the text and to review every important concept. When the futility of this goal began to emerge (the students just weren’t keeping up!), I began to transform my lectures into PowerPoint handouts that I would distribute at the beginning of class. With these handouts, I would not have to wait for students to write their notes; I could lecture more and lecture faster. Although I did utilize in-class activities and film clips, I viewed them as luxuries, as addenda.

I felt certain that my extraordinary organization and “command” would engender student interest and learning. What I began to notice, however, was quite the opposite. Many of my students remained withdrawn. When I would make time for discussion, they stayed silent. When I asked them to reflect, they appeared uninspired. Here I was teaching what I thought were some of the most compelling and personally relevant courses in psychology, and yet their disconnectedness was all too evident. As the semester progressed, I began to lose my own energy and enthusiasm. I was getting tired. I was getting bored. I felt trapped by those stupid PowerPoint handouts.

Although I still believe that efficiency and organization are essential to effective teaching, I quickly learned that they, alone, are insufficient. Rather than “fighting” against time, I am learning to step out of the surf and onto the shore to reflect on what students need to learn and to grow. Rather than trying only to master the content, I am learning to ease past the waves and allow myself to be influenced and carried by

students' needs and interests. Although I consider every day an experiment in my own learning (which is progress in and of itself), these early experiences have taught me valuable lessons.

Lesson 1: Pick Only the Most Important Ideas and Then Hit Them From All Angles

Rather than covering many concepts superficially, I now cover fewer topics in much more meaningful ways. For instance, rather than spending one day in General Psychology discussing brain functioning, I now spend almost three days on this topic. Students first watch a film on the brain that illustrates the wonder of this amazing organ. They then work in groups to complete a brain map. The next day, students make a model of the brain with different colored play-dough. In groups, they rank-order the importance of each part of the brain and label them accordingly. On the last day, we discuss the impact of disease, stroke, and head injury through the case study method. Students contribute by disclosing their personal accounts of friends and family members who have struggled with these sorts of experiences.

Lesson 2: Use Lecture to Supplement, not Supplant, In-Class Learning Activities

Certainly there are topics that need explanation and elaboration. However, I have found that students remember “doing” more than they remember “reviewing.” In my Counseling Theories class, I could talk about the components of active listening and empathy for hours. I am convinced, though, that the real learning takes place when I ask students to do things such as conduct role-plays, watch and evaluate themselves on video, and provide feedback to their classmates through peer supervision groups.

Lesson 3: Make Room for Student Involvement

I have learned that if I want students to be engaged, I must give them the opportunity to be so. Although I used to fill every minute of class with my own agenda, I now try to plan for only three-quarters of the class period. This way, students are guaranteed the opportunity to ask questions, complete a note-check with peers, and bring up related topics. In some classes, I ask students to bring at least one video clip, advertisement, or article related to the course at some point during the semester. This activity not only invites students to relate the course content to their real lives, it also provides them with the opportunity to contribute to the class in meaningful ways. I also designate a handful of days throughout the semester as “Hot Topic” days. On these days, we have the opportunity to follow-up on topics of student interest that were noted in earlier discussions.

Lesson 4: Practice Flexibility

Although I still try to develop a well-planned framework for each course, I strive to be flexible within that framework. I now consider all schedules tentative, and I give myself

permission to make changes. This approach allows me to respond to students' needs and interests by spending more (or less) time on certain topics. This sounds simple, but it is something I am just now learning how to do! Without allowing myself the flexibility to make changes, many of the most rewarding experiences of this semester (such as several guest speakers and class discussions) would not have emerged.

Lesson 5: Strive for “Good-Enough” Teaching

D. W. Winnicott proposed that when parents are able to create an adequate “holding” environment, children are able to develop their “true selves.” Winnicott applied his theories on “good-enough” mothering to the relationship between therapist and client. I think this theory can also be extended to teaching. I try to remind myself that my goal as a teacher is not to perfect, but to foster and support the natural interests, enthusiasm, and needs of the students through “good-enough” teaching. Although self-doubt and anxiety are an inherent part of the process, I am working to recognize that as long as my intentions are in the right place and I stay open to feedback, everything will work out.

Conclusion

I have come to realize that my early approach to teaching was much like the man fighting against the surf. In the beginning, I was more focused on trying to conquer and control, than in trusting that—together—my students and I would get where we needed to go. By learning to be more reflective, as well as learning to be able to go with the flow, my teaching has not only become more effective (as measured by student participation and written feedback), but I find that I am more energetic and enthusiastic about being in the classroom.

On the Occasion of My Retirement

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(This essay originally appeared as a special invited essay in the “E-xcellence in Teaching” e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for April 2001).

I appreciate Bill Buskist’s invitation to write a few words on the occasion of my retirement. To put this piece in some sort of context, I should tell you something about my career. However, I promise not to dwell on the details; that is not the purpose of this piece.

I received my B.A. and M.A. degrees from Southern Methodist University and my Ph.D. in general experimental psychology from Texas Christian University. I have spent my 35-year teaching career at three institutions: King College (Bristol, TN; enrollment 325), Austin Peay State University (Clarksville, TN; enrollment 5,500), and Emporia State University (Emporia, KS; enrollment 5,500).

I exited my doctoral program a hard-core rat runner who was thoroughly trained in the Hull-Spence tradition and studied olfactory communication. Fortunately, I was able to attract several students to help with these projects and several co-authored presentations and publications resulted from these efforts. However, as additional students became involved with my lab group, I found that not all of them shared my burning passion to investigate olfactory communication in animal maze learning. In fact, a few of my assistants began to propose some of the “strangest” (at least to an old-time rat runner) research I could imagine. Among the proposed topics were “personality characteristics of civilian and military policemen,” “an analysis of the size of human figure drawings and level of self-esteem in school-age children,” “the Type A behavior pattern and level of self-esteem,” and “death anxiety in military couples.”

Thankfully, I had the presence of mind not to just dismiss these, and similar, research ideas. So, well over 30 years ago, I found my research focus shifting. To the dismay of my dissertation director, all of those hours invested in teaching me the importance of programmatic research seemed wasted. In some ways he probably was right; I came to the realization that my laboratory and professional interests did not exist for any specific type of research; they existed for the training of quality students. In short, I have not been content to conduct programmatic research; rather, my research and most of my professional activities have been student driven and rather eclectic. From my perspective, the trip has been superb! So, here’s my first bit of advice. (I couldn’t resist throwing in some advice here and there. If it makes sense, use it; if it doesn’t work for you, that’s fine, too.) Don’t turn students and their research ideas away just because they aren’t “in

your area.” Remember “diversity is the spice of life”—your students are more than capable of providing the spice if you will let them.

So, at age 59, what has prompted early retirement? To me, “retirement” simply means that I am taking control of my own time. Professionally, there still are many places to go, things to do, and students to teach; I just intend to do them on my own schedule. (I do not intend to sit on the front porch and rock and drool!) Another driving force in this decision to retire was a realization that currently I am physically able to do certain things (e.g., work on a Habitat for Humanity project or take hiking trips) that may be beyond my capabilities in the future. I don’t want to miss out on some of these activities.

Here’s my second bit of advice. Think and plan; take charge and do what’s best for you and your own unique circumstances. In my case, early retirement fits my needs and personal circumstances. For example, a life-threatening operation that my wife underwent nearly two years ago put things in a very different perspective and quickly convinced me that I needed to spend more time with my family. Also, I consciously have opted not to do a phased-retirement program; they usually involve as much work as a full-time appointment. The opportunity to teach on a part-time or adjunct basis will satisfy my need to be in the classroom and fit my time schedule perfectly.

Clearly, you may have to do a bit of soul searching. What really is important in your life—what are your priorities? Thus, my third bit of advice is to do a “priorities inventory” periodically throughout your career. In short, know what you are doing and why you are doing it; don’t just let retirement “happen” to you.

I suspect that one reason that Bill asked me to do this feature is that he may have looked around at the attendees at various teaching conferences and Society for the Teaching of Psychology sessions at the APA Convention and had reality smack him firmly in the face. Let’s face it, many of our number are showing some signs of aging and a substantial number will be joining me “out in the pasture” in the near future. In an era when teaching is finally being recognized and valued, we need to be cognizant that our number may dwindle in the coming years. What can (should) be done about this situation? From my perspective, the answer lies in encouraging our younger colleagues to become more actively involved in the multitude of teaching-related opportunities that are currently available to them. What are some of these opportunities? Some possibilities, although not a complete list, appear below. Although I am suggesting these possibilities for the younger faculty, it’s never too late to get involved. If you are already engaged in some of these activities, that is great: keep up the good work and see if you can expand your horizons a bit!

- Attend regional and national teaching conferences and teaching sessions at regional conventions.

- Present at the teaching conferences and teaching sessions.
- Serve as a reviewer for *Teaching of Psychology*. (You may have to volunteer for this assignment. Don't be hesitant; volunteering is encouraged.)
- Join the Society for the Teaching of Psychology (STP).
- Become active in STP programs and activities. (You will read about STP activities in *Teaching of Psychology*. Some opportunities, such as serving on committees, may require volunteering. Again, do not be hesitant; the STP folks are a great group with whom to work!)

The real task before the “seasoned veterans” is to find ways to encourage greater numbers of younger faculty to become involved in the teaching of psychology. In turn, younger faculty must rise to the challenges inherent in these opportunities. Only in this way will the academic and scholarly values that we cherish be passed along and flourish in the next generation of psychology teachers.

My final bit of advice comes from my friend, the late Mike Best. Mike was never without a supply of ornately engraved business cards that said “Learning is a Grim and Serious Business.” If you knew Mike, you know that this slogan was the antithesis of his true feelings. I wholeheartedly endorse Mike's approach to being a psychologist. Have fun with your career, enjoy the journey as you are taking it, and don't take yourself too seriously.

Reflections on Teaching and Scholarship

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly "E-xcellence in Teaching" e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for May 2001).

In *The Idea of a University*, Newman asserted that "to discover and to teach are distinct functions; they are also distinct gifts, and are not commonly found united in the same person. He, too, who spends his day in dispensing his existing knowledge to all comers is unlikely to have either leisure or energy to acquire new [knowledge]" (1853, p. 10).

The extent to which teaching and scholarship co-occur has been at issue for some time, and beliefs have varied widely. At one end of the spectrum are those who hold that there is a positive or synergistic relationship. At the other end are those who argue that the two activities actively interfere with each other. Hattie and Marsh (1996) published a meta-analysis of the relationship between teaching and research. Their review and discussion are quite comprehensive; their analyses carefully attempted to tease out a host of contributing factors. Nonetheless, they chose to answer directly the big question on everyone's mind in the second sentence of the abstract. Bluntly, the "meta-analysis of 58 studies demonstrates that the relationship is zero" (p. 507). One may quibble over the more molecular findings of their analysis (e.g., in the social sciences the relationship is described as greater than zero, as it reaches about .10), but the molar picture is quite clear and not inconsistent with other investigations. Even when statistical significance can be demonstrated, it would be irresponsible to view these low-order relationships as terribly meaningful.

Newman's words, coupled with the findings of Hattie and Marsh and others, suggest that teaching and research (traditionally conceived as the scholarship of discovery) are not obvious bedfellows. With respect to research about teaching itself, Weimer (1993) observed that among the 50 or so discipline-specific journals on pedagogy, most are regarded as "weak siblings of the favored and prestigious research journals" (p. 44) and that publications in these journals have been largely disregarded when it comes to evaluating scholarship. Over the last few years, however, several writers opined that teaching has grown in its reputation as a bona fide field of inquiry (e.g., Halpern et al., 1998; Hutchings & Shulman, 1999; McKeachie, 1999). We find ourselves, perhaps, in the midst of a paradigm shift.

In *The Courage to Teach*, Parker Palmer described his entry into his third decade of teaching, which began with his approaching his class that day "grateful for another chance to teach." Later, he returned home, "convinced once again that I will never master this baffling vocation," believing that he "must be very boring to anesthetize, so quickly, these young people who only moments earlier had been alive with hallway chatter" (1999, p. 9). Teaching is hard, and does not seem to get much easier even after many years of practice.

Self-doubts seem to run rampant among teachers, even those recognized and lauded as experts. By our own construction of events, then, imperfect teaching abounds.

Ironically, for those engaged in the scholarship of pedagogy, the existence of teaching imperfections or “problems” is essential. If not actually good things, problems are a necessity for scholars. Persons interested in the scholarship of teaching would lose the grist in their collective mill if teaching problems were absent or completely and permanently surmountable, as problems form the basis of scholarship and research (Bass as cited in Hutchings & Shulman, 1999). Of course we should strive to gain the upper hand with respect to understanding teaching and learning problems, but we certainly should not expect to eradicate teaching imperfections altogether.

Many components of teaching contain problems that lend themselves to systematic inquiry. However, elements of teaching that might lend themselves to scientific investigations do not comprise scholarship in and of themselves. Allowing that “good teaching involves much scholarly activity” (McKeachie, 1999, p. 5) does not suggest to me that the two are synonymous. Truly excellent teaching is more apt to be viewed as, or confused with, scholarship, because excellent teaching reflects current information, regularly involves or invokes scholarly works, often is accompanied by creative instructional materials or activities, typically is delivered with verve, and invariably produces student learning. Similar features characterize scholarship.

I echo Hutchings and Shulman (1999) in asserting that excellent teaching and a scholarship of teaching are not the same thing. “A scholarship of teaching . . . requires a kind of ‘going meta,’ in which faculty frame and systematically investigate questions related to student learning . . . with an eye not only to improving their own classroom but to advancing practice beyond it” (p. 13). In my opinion, this transcendence is central for teaching-related acts to be regarded as scholarship, as it demonstrates the kind of “reaching beyond” that characterizes our traditional understanding of scholarship.

Among the features of scholarship promoted by Diamond and Adams (1995), peer review is considered essential. In the case of teaching, teaching portfolios, peer visitation, and team teaching may provide vehicles through which critical reviews may occur (Halpern et al., 1998). The idea that one’s work “can be” reviewed by one’s peers or is “available for peer review and commentary” (Hutchings & Shulman, 1999, p. 13), however, seems to fall short of expectations for scholarly works. Many expect that scholarly works necessarily will be scrutinized by peers with expertise in the area, prior to a more complete public airing. Assembling a teaching portfolio, replete with syllabi, tests, student papers and so forth does not, *de facto*, become scholarship simply by virtue of its being assembled and made accessible to one’s colleagues. Peer review consists of more than passive observation of materials, whether the materials are pages from a manuscript or documents contained in a teaching portfolio. It involves truly critical evaluation of another’s work followed by formative and, sometimes, summative feedback. This process ensures that the revised work is meritorious and accomplishes the other things scholarly work encompasses (e.g., breaks

new ground, is appropriately documented, is replicable, and so on). These same standards should apply to all forms of scholarship.

Hattie and Marsh (1996) concluded that teaching and research are loosely coupled, at best, and attempted to address the seeming intractability of the myth that they are more strongly related than that. They suggested as one reason for the perpetuation of this belief that we faculty would like it to be so. Even in the face of their clear findings, however, Hattie and Marsh were careful to note that it “would be folly to conclude that teaching . . . should not be based on research,” but equally fallacious would be the notion that “only those who partake in research can be effective communicators of this research” (p. 533). So, it seems reasonable to purport that good teachers depend on scholarship to stay on top—they either do it, or incorporate it into their pedagogical activities, or both.

Webster’s (1970) dictionary defines pedagogy as “the profession . . . of a teacher.” A second meaning is “the art or science of teaching.” Webster’s defines scholarship as “systematized knowledge . . . exhibiting accuracy, critical ability, and thoroughness.” Within academic contexts, the terms may have additional meanings to those embodied in the lay definitions—additional but not contradictory.

Cautious optimism would hold that systematizing knowledge about the art and/or science of teaching in a way that is accurate, robust, and thorough is being recognized and valued as scholarship and that teaching is more often believed to be an appropriate subject matter for empirical inquiry. Some are more forcefully optimistic in asserting that “[t]here are, in short, now faculty—lots of them—who are eager to engage in sustained inquiry into their teaching practice and their students’ learning and who are well positioned to do so in ways that contribute to practice beyond their own classrooms” (Hutchings & Shulman, 1999, p. 12).

As time passes, it will become easier to assess whether this time truly represents the early stages of a paradigm shift as far as our views on teaching and scholarship. Indeed we may have turned a corner, but just barely.

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Building a Strong Undergraduate Program in Psychology: Nurturing Community

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What constitutes an effective undergraduate department in psychology? This question, along with the myriad of plausible answers, generates strong emotionally-laden responses from those of us committed to the teaching of psychology. Numerous resources offer administrative guidance for departmental efficiency. Perhaps the best source is the *Handbook for Enhancing Undergraduate Education in Psychology*, which was produced as a result of the St. Mary's Conference (McGovern, 1993). *The Handbook* offers principles for quality undergraduate programs in psychology that emphasize the importance of students, faculty, and curriculum. Objectively evaluating the effectiveness of a department is difficult, yet essential.

Approximately two years ago, a STP task force (Ellsworth, Hill, Korn, McCarthy, & Scott-Johnson, 2000) met to develop standards of good practice for designing and conducting a self-study of undergraduate programs in psychology. Establishing universal principles for a self-study was more difficult than we had imagined. Uniform criteria that would help to identify exceptional departments needed to be balanced against autonomy and individual institutional systems. However, four important areas emerged from our discussions: faculty, students, curriculum, and community. Three of these components (i.e., faculty, students, and curriculum) naturally evolved from earlier work (McGovern, 1993). Evaluation criteria for specific curricular requirements, faculty evaluation techniques, and student outcomes have been debated elsewhere at length (e.g., Banta, Lund, Black, & Oblander, 1996; Braskamp & Ory, 1994); therefore, I would like to focus on the issue of community in this essay.

The community of an undergraduate department of psychology is a microcosm of the larger university culture and encompasses students, faculty, and curriculum. Community is influenced by this larger environment and its shared sense of commitment toward a common set of beliefs and goals.

The core of any academic discipline shapes the experience of the undergraduate and this curricular framework can act as one cornerstone of a community in which scholarly challenges are encouraged. Disagreement and discussion can be healthy and valuable, although allowances must be made for a diversity of opinions. Amidst these discussions we are united by common goals that serve as points of agreement that allow faculty to work together objectively despite differences in philosophical perspectives. Hence, a

strong undergraduate program must be open to balancing the need for change against protection of the integrity of the discipline within the curriculum.

Students are central to the departmental community and they should be involved as collaborators in shaping virtually every aspect of the department. Students can share in discussion of the many important decisions that enhance the departmental community. It may therefore be useful to appoint student representatives to committees and invite them to departmental meetings. Similarly, faculty should collaborate to nurture the cognitive and emotional development of students in a mutually respectful atmosphere. Informally sharing information about psychology with students is often critical to students' decisions about future professional endeavors. This means that student events, such as Psi Chi activities, department picnics, and student research symposia are shared with faculty rather than just attended by faculty.

Faculty set the tone or at least shoulder the largest portion of the responsibility for nurturing a positive student community. Actions within our community are directed at both colleagues and students. Therefore, creation of a sense of community should begin with welcoming new faculty as they enter the department. Although tenure criteria are provided to each new faculty member, subtle, unspoken tenure criteria must also be communicated. Offering friendly collegial support is critical for building a sense of community. One mechanism for building community is to attend to the single goal of teaching students. If we can remain attentive to this goal, it may allow us to remain objective and to make decisions that will produce positive outcomes. For example, budgetary constraints frequently impose difficult decisions. Funding priorities and resource allocation should advance the curricular priorities rather than individual agendas. This perspective requires challenging the status quo with a willingness to compromise for the purpose of advancing departmental goals.

A strong sense of community is embodied through the collective efforts of the faculty. Thus, the individual efforts of faculty are critical to development of community. When I consider what makes a good teacher, in addition to the essential knowledge, several affective traits seem to be important: respect, humor, and passion. Students are usually capable of independently studying and learning basic factual information gleaned from attendance in a course. Truly exceptional students are distinguished from average students by their active involvement with the discipline. Students become so involved largely through faculty mentorship. These students have been mentored by faculty who are passionate about their subject matter and respectful of their students. Mentorship can only occur if faculty are open and willing to share their passion for the discipline of psychology with their students. Halonen perhaps best captured this teaching philosophy in her APA 2000 address entitled "The Alchemy of Teaching." She likened passion for teaching to magic! Magic occurs when students are provided with safe and intellectually nurturant environments. I have found that humorous anecdotes, with linkages to the appropriate content, provide students with specific examples that help them to learn and to understand complex concepts.

Similarly, the magic of learning occurs when faculty are available to talk with students about informal aspects of psychology. Ultimately, the atmosphere of the academic department must provide faculty with the freedom, encouragement and acceptance that will result in the spontaneous exploration of teaching and learning. An environment that nurtures diversity and encourages development of intellectual pursuits allows for intellectual and personal growth of the faculty. Although a department must be cohesive collectively, a healthy environment requires opportunities for individual growth.

Community, as an essential component of an undergraduate program in psychology, is critical for a strong undergraduate program. This perspective is embodied by the emerging field of positive psychology that includes the subjective experience of both individuals and groups. The departmental environment can be influential in moving individuals toward their optimal abilities through responsibility, nurturance, altruism, civility, moderation, and tolerance (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Psychology departments should consider the key role of their departmental communities in shaping the undergraduate experience and do all that they can to nurture and grow their communities in ways that reflect the very best of what psychology has to offer as a science and practice.

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Psi Chi and Teaching with Our Mouths Shut

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly "E-xcellence in Teaching" e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for September 2001).

This summer I read a terrific book on teaching. The book, entitled *Teaching With Your Mouth Shut* by the late Donald Finkel of Evergreen State College, was an absorbing read. Finkel, a skilled writer, draws on the ideas of Dewey, Piaget, and Rousseau to argue that students learn through experiences that put them in direct contact with ideas and concepts. He does not criticize any particular method of teaching, though he is wary of an exclusive 'teacher as teller' approach. Rather, he describes ways to shape classroom experiences to put students and ideas, not the teacher, at the center of the learning activity. The chapters include titles like "Let the Books Do the Talking," "Let the Students Do the Talking," and "Let Us Inquire Together." The book rests on the assumption that, as Dewey once said, "no thought, no idea, can possibly be conveyed as an idea from one person to another." Thus, the classroom (and beyond) becomes an environment where the teacher's task is to let activities and assignments do the talking.

Finkel's ideas are certainly not the last word on how to teach. If there was a perfect solution to our pedagogical puzzles, it would have been discovered long ago and we could read about it on cave walls. However, this book stimulated me to think anew about our work as teachers both inside and outside the classroom.

As I read Finkel's book, I could not help but think about Psi Chi, The National Honor Society in Psychology, and the role it plays in student learning and personal development. It would be natural to add a chapter to Finkel's book called "Let Psi Chi Do the Talking." Psi Chi activities and opportunities are, I believe, at the heart of teaching with our mouths shut. Teaching and learning, as we all know, do not happen just within the walls of the classroom. Students learn a lot when we are nowhere in sight, though hopefully we play an important role in initiating and facilitating the process. Think about your own experiences as a student. Didn't some of your "aha" experiences, moments of intellectual connection, or personal development come when your teachers were not around?

Let me suggest five ways that lead me to the conclusion that Psi Chi provides great opportunities for students to learn while keeping our mouths shut. Of course, Psi Chi is not the only place where students might gain these experiences, but a Psi Chi chapter is certainly a good place to start.

First, Psi Chi underscores the value of an empirical approach to psychological knowledge. Part of our work as psychology educators is to help our students understand that the

subject matter of our discipline, even the most slippery constructs, can be studied scientifically. Because of Psi Chi's emphasis on science, it is no accident that the organization provides many opportunities to support student research activities. If you have not done so in a while, go to the Psi Chi Web site at www.psichi.org. At the site, you will read about research award and research grant opportunities for Psi Chi students. Psi Chi's quarterly newsletter, *Eye on Psi Chi*, also has information on these research opportunities. In addition, the *Psi Chi Journal of Undergraduate Research* is a publication outlet for undergraduate research projects. There is no better way for students to learn our science than by doing it.

Second, Psi Chi teaches leadership skills and supports professional growth. At the 2001 Eastern Psychological Association meeting in Washington, DC, I had the privilege of sitting in on a presentation by the Lehman College, City University of New York chapter advised by Dr. Vincent Prohaska. The Lehman chapter is the 2000-2001 recipient of the Cousin's National Chapter Award. The energy and enthusiasm coming from the Lehman officers, who presented about chapter vitality, was inspiring. These officers unmistakably exhibited the leadership skills necessary to run an organization. They had vision for their chapter, they planned and executed activities, they tweaked these activities to make them better, they raised money and spent money for students, they invited speakers, and they worked together to make it all happen. This type of experience is invaluable and will pay dividends in their careers and personal lives after they graduate. As Psi Chi advisors know, not all chapter officers are as capable and motivated as this group from Lehman. However, given adequate support and encouragement, most officers rise to the occasion and effectively lead their chapters, learning skills that will last a lifetime.

Third, Psi Chi emphasizes teamwork and the value of group accomplishment. This aspect of Psi Chi is related to leadership, but it expands the idea to capture the group's synergy. Psi Chi officers, like teachers, create an environment for action, but ultimately the officers must step out of the way as events unfold. Kelly Voss is the current Psi Chi Chapter President at my institution. She is energetic and intelligent, and I am very enthusiastic about the year ahead with her at the helm. However, Kelly knows that, as President, she cannot do everything herself. Ultimately, the teamwork of officers and students is what leads to the accomplishments of the chapter. Students do not learn these lessons by reading about them in books. They learn them by immersion in the experiences of the group.

Fourth, Psi Chi teaches the importance of planning and preparation. Psi Chi advisors know that Psi Chi chapters, officers, and members are "works in progress," and sometimes the best lessons are learned, if not from failures, then from less-than-optimal outcomes. I will never forget one of our Psi Chi members who attended a local psychology conference and presented his research in poster format. This student, let's call him Bob (not his real name), was bright and capable, a psychologist in the making. At the conference, Bob methodically put up his poster and a few moments later, just before the poster session was to start, a colleague and I walked by to take a look. Looking with a sense of satisfaction at the poster, we all had the same realization at about the same time: there was no Method

section. We all looked at each other and started to laugh. There it was in all its empirical glory, a poster with an Introduction, Results, and Discussion section, but no Method. I think we all learned something from this situation, and the story has become part of the folklore in our department—"don't forget the Method!" we tell students in preparation for poster sessions. Bob went on to earn his Ph.D. in clinical psychology from an excellent program and is now Dr. Bob. The lesson was learned outside the classroom, however.

Finally, Psi Chi teaches the value of effort and perseverance. Sometimes the things that mean the most to us are those that initially elude us. Over the years, I have seen students work extremely hard to become eligible for membership in Psi Chi. The goal of membership served as an impetus for their academic achievement. I hope I have communicated to these students how much I admire their effort. Some students have worked for several years to bring their GPAs up and have been inducted during their last semester in school. Truthfully, though, the greatest gain in this context is not their membership in Psi Chi. It is experiencing the value of sustained effort to reach a desired goal. Twenty years from now, I imagine they will forget the details of our Psi Chi chapter, its activities, and members. However, they will not forget their accomplishment and the effort that led to it.

Psi Chi presents a number of opportunities for us to teach with our mouths shut. I am indebted to Donald Finkel for this excellent idea. With 402,536 Psi Chi members and 990 chapters, the organization has nurtured many students over the years. Certainly, there are other situations that allow students to grow academically, professionally, and personally: Psi Chi is not the only show in town to help students learn important skills and lessons. However, Psi Chi provides an ever-expanding (check the Web site!) range of opportunities for us to work with our students. Psi Chi weaves together the scientific and the professional, the individual and the group, the local and the national, the classroom and the department. In these contexts, we can keep our mouths shut and watch our students develop.

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Reflections on the First Month: Struggles of a Brand New Faculty Member

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About six weeks ago, I began my first tenure-track position. About seven weeks ago, I was a graduate student. The transition has been a much-anticipated one, but it has not come without some level of distress.

If a graduate program does its job correctly, graduate students should acquire a set of skills that prepares them for the career they choose. For academicians, these skills may include the ability to think critically, to conduct research soundly, to publish in peer-reviewed journals, to teach effectively, to be collegial and supportive of other faculty, to manage time effectively, and so forth.

A great deal of incidental learning occurs during graduate school as well. For example, one thing that graduate students often learn is that, in comparison to research, teaching is of low priority. It becomes painfully clear to graduate students that the many courses that are offered to train them in the conduct of psychological research are not commensurate in number to those designed for developing and refining teaching skills, although most research-oriented academicians report that teaching encompasses about one-half of their academic workloads (Rasmussen, Lawyer, & Buskist, in press). Indeed, as few as two-thirds of graduate programs in psychology offer any kind of formal training by way of a course in the teaching of psychology (Buskist, Tears, Davis, & Rodrigue, in press; Myers & Prieto, 2000).

Graduate students also learn the place of teaching within academia through seemingly innocent interactions with their advisors. As a student, I recall some of my professors suggesting that I spend less time teaching. I never had a professor tell me I spent too much time conducting research, although I spent far more time collecting and analyzing data than I did teaching. Many first-time faculty members feel less prepared for classroom management and teaching than they do for independently conducting research (Myers, Reid, & Quina, 1998), and this may be due to the heavy emphasis on research in graduate school.

Even a graduate student with substantial teaching experience may feel a little uncomfortable. At Auburn University, I had a relative wealth of teaching experience—I served as a graduate teaching assistant (GTA) for six different courses, some lower-level and some upper-level, over the course of six years. I soon learned, though, that even a sizable amount of GTA experience did not completely prepare me for full-time college

teaching. In many cases, the graduate teaching assistant's tasks are to lecture one to three times a week, grade papers, and enter scores in a spreadsheet. However, there are many things that may be absent from the repertoire of a new professor, such as knowing how to write a syllabus, choose a textbook, make decisions about unique student problems, and essentially being completely responsible for students' learning of the subject matter.

As a new assistant professor, I was (and still am) overwhelmed with thoughts like, "I, and I alone, am responsible for all of these students learning!" From my first day of class as a member of the academy, I could no longer deflect blame toward my GTA supervisor—the professor-in-charge—when my students failed to learn all that was stated in the course objectives. Now I am the professor-in-charge! It was a compelling feeling, and it changed my complete outlook on my responsibilities as a teacher. It was like the first time that I drove a car as a teenager. I remember feeling the power of that 1979 Toyota LandCruiser with its souped-up V-6 engine—a power that could take me places or destroy almost anything in its path. The power that a professor holds in a classroom holds a similar force—it can take the student places intellectually, or it can abruptly halt the learning process dead in its path.

It is my contention that there are too few didactic systems in place to teach graduate students how to teach (e.g., courses on teaching, teaching experiences), although this is not a new sentiment. It is also my contention that those teaching systems that exist have some room for improvement. I believe that an ideal program would be one in which teaching responsibilities are slowly faded into graduate student life. Perhaps the first semester of teaching should include grading papers and delivering one lecture a week with a substantial amount of feedback from a faculty mentor or senior graduate student. More responsibility should follow a second-year student, such as more lecturing, and perhaps some experience in test-writing. A senior graduate student should be able to teach a class independently and confidently, but with the backup of a faculty member for periodic advisement, much like a driver's education instructor. Someone needs to be present to press gently (or not so gently) on the brakes, just in case a problem develops.

Although GTA training should include systematic training in effective teaching, it also might benefit graduate students in the long run if they were to receive information and training in other aspects of academic life. Aside from feeling a bit overwhelmed as a professor, I feel that new faculty, if they are anything like me, feel disoriented by the transition from student to professor because they have little understanding of the unwritten rules of academia. For example, some new faculty might experience what I like to call "learned silence"—a spin-off from "learned helplessness." Graduate students are accustomed to having very little in terms of resources. In general, they gladly accept what is offered them. They also generally learn not to ask for resources, such as money, teaching opportunities, and space, because the request is usually rejected. First-year faculty members may not be aware of what they deserve. They may accept the salary and startup-costs they are offered with little, if any, thought of negotiating for more (Caplan, 1995; Caplan argues that this is especially true for women, though I am unsure of this.)

After all, when the salary is three to four times the amount they made as graduate students, they may feel very fortunate. New faculty members also may accept gladly the teaching load, office space, and research space that are offered, although these resources may not be adequate for what they hope to accomplish in their work as college professors. New faculty members do not want to be perceived as being demanding or pushy, so they may not request additional resources that may help them to become better academics.

In some institutions, like the College of Charleston, senior faculty serve as faculty mentors and help new assistant professors adjust to the rigors of academic life. I am fortunate that this system is in place, for I have been told that not all institutions assist new assistant professors in this way. Nonetheless, I believe that the skills needed to recognize and request resources are not taught in graduate school, but should be. I recommend that major professors sit down with their senior graduate students and explain to them what academic life is all about. Perhaps an "Academic Seminar" might be given that would include topics such as the unwritten rules about professional distance with colleagues, making contributions to faculty meetings (learning to speak with diplomacy), what comprises committee work, how to request money, advising students, negotiating teaching loads, and negotiating space. I also believe that graduate students would benefit if they and their mentors engaged in role-play exercises, in which the student could practice negotiating skills in a safe environment in which constructive feedback may be given.

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What I Have Learned Teaching Teaching of Psychology

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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly "E-xcellence in Teaching" e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for November 2001).

Several years ago I served as coordinator of our five MA level programs in psychology. During that time I noticed that our graduate teaching assistants (GTAs), who served as "instructors of record" for many of our General Psychology sections, seemed either to teach pretty well or do well in their own coursework—but seldom both. Our faculty often expressed concern about the quality of instruction in General Psychology, a gateway for the infusion of majors into the Department of Psychology. To address these concerns and to provide GTAs support for their teaching responsibilities, I developed our Teaching of Psychology (TOP) course. The one credit TOP course is now required of first-year graduate students before they can apply to teach and is repeated by GTAs during subsequent teaching assignments. Although I could answer the question "What have you learned from teaching TOP?" in a variety of ways, I have chosen to emphasize what I have found to be most beneficial in helping GTAs succeed with their teaching. These insights include:

Organization

Early on I developed a detailed questionnaire for undergraduates to evaluate their GTAs who taught General Psychology. These undergraduate respondents most frequently indicated concern with lack of organization, preparation, and confidence on the part of their GTAs. As a result of the evaluation, the spring semester TOP class requires future GTAs to utilize organizational strategies as they practice teaching in a relatively safe environment. Subsequently, when GTAs become "instructors of record," I provide an outline of issues (including organization) that they should address as they teach and over which they will be evaluated. GTAs are asked to begin each class by summarizing the main points from their last class and to relate these concepts to what will be covered that day [what Ausubel (1968) referred to as "comparative organizers"]. Expository (graphic) organizers are also used at the start of class to illustrate the relationships among the day's concepts. Each class ends with a summary of the main points by the GTA and a glimpse at the next topic. The end of class may also include a "minute paper" that allows undergraduates to summarize what they believe to be the highlights of the lesson or to request clarification or further elaboration of the presentation. I caution the GTAs to use transparencies and power point presentations judiciously. Undergraduates tend to copy down everything they see, even material redundant with the text. With transparencies, I ask that GTAs uncover only what is being presented at the moment. These precautions seem to facilitate a smoothly flowing presentation. As a result of the use of these

strategies, GTA ratings on organization, confidence, and preparedness by their General Psychology students have risen dramatically.

Shaping and Scaffolding GTA Behavior

Related to the issue of building confidence, GTAs tend to value a gradual and supportive [which Vygotsky (1997) described as "scaffolding"] introduction to the teaching experience. Before being selected to teach, first-year graduate students make presentations in the spring semester TOP class based on chapters from McKeachie's (1999) text. They are asked to visit and provide written evaluations of two current GTA classes and discuss their observations in the TOP class. Toward the end of the semester, TOP students are asked to teach one class for a current GTA. They provide a written description of the experience (including their lesson plans), discuss their performance with the GTAs (who provide a written evaluation), and discuss the experience in the TOP class. By semester's end, each potential GTA has developed a syllabus for the following semester. In the fall semester, GTA "instructors of record" meet to discuss pedagogical issues and share classroom experiences and tribulations as they are encountered in their classrooms. A process of formative evaluation and constructive feedback for the GTAs begins after four weeks of teaching. At that time, undergraduates complete an informal evaluation of their GTAs, which is followed at midterm with the completion of the more formal undergraduate questionnaire as well as my classroom visitations. The GTAs then meet with me individually to review their progress, to set semester goals, and to discuss strategies for improvement.

GTAs as Mentors

I am confident that the most valuable contribution to the TOP class derives from the requirement that current GTAs attend each spring semester TOP class. Each class begins with a presentation by the GTAs on activities they use to bring the subject matter of two text chapters to life. They conduct demonstrations (often of their own design) and provide handouts relative to the topics. GTAs describe what works for them and what does not. As the TOP students present McKeachie chapters, the GTAs contribute relevant insights drawn from their own experiences. Taking advantage of the "teachable moment," the GTAs discuss issues of academic integrity, test anxiety, disruptive students, and other issues as they are encountered in their classes. Together we brainstorm solutions to those specific problems, and GTAs subsequently provide feedback relative to the outcome. Additionally, the GTAs expound on such issues as the experience of their first day of teaching, their student evaluations, and changes they found prudent to make in their syllabi for their second semester of teaching.

Varying Instructional Strategies

The TOP class meets for two hours on alternate weeks. Both the instructor and the students feel that the time just flies by. I believe that breaking each TOP class meeting

into several segments (e.g., GTA presentations relative to the text, TOP student presentations, syllabus development, discussion of critical issues, etc.) helps create the experience of “flying time.” I urge TOP students to develop lesson plans that include a variety of strategies as well. I encourage modest use of lecture, as well as demonstrations, discussion, role-playing, and writing experiences within each class.

I have learned that several precautions need to be addressed regarding alternatives to lecturing. For example, classroom demonstrations and discussion groups must be more than fun and merely breaks from lecture. Perhaps due to the excitement of the moment, GTAs occasionally neglect to reiterate and emphasize the point that they were demonstrating or discussing. I also suggest that discussion groups be brief. GTAs are encouraged to allow sufficient time for students to get involved with an issue and then initiate inter-group sharing. Undergraduates seem to become bored or get off track if groups meet for too long. I suggest that GTAs convene groups to discuss a question when the GTA becomes uncomfortable with pregnant pauses and blank looks on the faces of their undergraduates. These groups also encourage active class participation. Finally, I advocate the use of brief discussion groups that allow the undergraduates to explore experimental strategies requisite for answering perplexing questions they ask of GTAs in class. This procedure helps undergraduates appreciate the empirical underpinnings of psychology.

Overall, the GTAs are doing quite well. While our energetic young faculty ($N = 28$) earned a mean rating of 4.4 from their students on our departmental 5-point faculty evaluation instrument last semester, our GTAs ($N = 12$) earned an equally impressive mean rating of 4.5 (ranging from 4.0 to 4.9).

As twelve hundred words have silently slipped beneath my fingers, I close by wishing I had addressed so many other issues. For example, with so much emphasis on organization, am I violating a legitimate warning by Bjork (2000) that students retain and apply information more effectively when they must actively organize material within a lecture themselves? Also, relative to the theme of this essay, I find it difficult to distinguish what I have learned through teaching the TOP course from what I have learned through observation of, and discourse with, my colleagues.

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Taking Risks as a Teacher
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(This essay originally appeared as the monthly “E-xcellence in Teaching” e-column in the *PsychTeacher Electronic Discussion List* for December 2001).

When I was a graduate student, I was told a story about the famous psychologist Ernst Dallenbach. The story goes that Dallenbach would teach his classes by reading from yellowed pages of notes. One day Dallenbach’s class sat in stunned silence when he repeated, word for word, the exact same lecture from the previous class meeting. The simple moral of the story is that professors should update their notes, but I would like to broaden that idea. The theme of this column is that we should change how we teach even if what already do seems to be working.

There are two reasons why I think we should continually try new things. First, even if we are doing a good job, it would be surprising if we were doing the best possible job. Second is a piece of advice that I picked up at a workshop given by Doug Bernstein: Do something fun in class every day. How can we do a good job of teaching if we aren’t excited about what we are doing? How can we be excited about doing the same thing every time, class after class? As intimidated and bored as Dallenbach’s students were, I can only imagine how dull those classes must have been for Dallenbach himself.

The Risk of Not Lecturing

Lecturing is comfortable because it is what most of us were exposed to when we were students. We can make sure that we include everything in the lecture that we want students to learn. If we do something else, we won’t have time to cover everything in the lecture.

Those are the risks of not lecturing, but what are the risks of continuing to lecture? One risk is that, as brilliant and entertaining as we may be as lecturers, students may not be learning well—or at all. In my opinion, the biggest risk is that we will lose the sense of excitement that comes from trying new things. A teacher without a sense of excitement is likely to have students who lack excitement.

The Risk of Trusting Students

When we make students responsible for their own learning, we risk having them learn nothing, or even worse, learn the wrong things. What if the students are not motivated? What if they are not capable of learning on their own? What if the responsibility makes them uncomfortable?

After teaching a graduate statistics course for several years I felt that I was teaching the material very effectively. Then, while working with a student on her thesis, I realized that I had not taught her anything about communicating statistics. It dawned on me that my explaining the material was not enough, and so I abandoned the old format and placed the responsibility on the students to learn the material from the textbook, discuss it with each other, and ask me when they were not able to understand it. It is too soon to tell whether this approach is working, but it is exciting to observe the students talking about statistics rather than listening to my well-practiced lectures.

The Risk of Being Funny

When I began as an assistant professor, I had a reputation for being a very serious person. Some students commented that I seemed unapproachable, and some said they couldn't "read me" because my facial expressions never changed. Well, we are who we are and there is a risk in trying to have a different personality in the classroom.

On the other hand, I realized that students were tuning me out because I was—in a word—boring. I made a conscious effort to loosen up and to use humor to make points. In my Research Design & Analysis classes, I introduced a feature called the Stupid Statistics Joke of the Day, which uniformly resulted in groans.

These efforts might have been a waste of valuable class time. Students might have taken me less seriously, assumed that I would be less rigorous in my expectations, and become less motivated.

These things did not happen. Instead I am having more fun and my students pay more attention in class. The most frequent comment in my evaluations for Research Design & Analysis is along the lines of "I really appreciated the Stupid Statistics Joke of the Day."

The Risk of Class Activities

Every time I do a class activity or demonstration there is a possibility that something will go wrong, especially if I have never tried it "live" before. One day I brought a stack of magazines to my General Psychology class and had groups of students analyze advertisements in terms of classical and/or operant conditioning. Most of the groups had great difficulty with this, and I realized when the class period was over that I had ended up analyzing most of the ads for the students, so they hadn't really done much active learning after all. The next time I taught the course, I wrote short scenarios involving behavior change and asked the groups to tell me how they would modify the behavior. I'll never forget the student who, in the middle of describing how he would condition a child to stop throwing fits at Wal-Mart, realized that he had been reinforcing his own son's misbehavior.

Obviously, numerous factors can affect how well a class activity works. Reading publications such as *Teaching of Psychology* and attending conferences where people share teaching methods can increase the chances you will discover methods that will work for you. However, if you don't try the method yourself, in your own class, you won't know whether it will be a success or a flop. When an activity does flop, or the joke you tell just isn't as funny to your students as it is to you, take the time to learn from the experience. Every time an activity doesn't go well, I make notes about how I might try it differently the next time. I have also discovered that students have learned from activities that I thought were disasters and that, after groaning at my jokes in class, students have repeated the jokes to their friends.

The Risk of Using Technology

Technology doesn't always work, and even when it does it may not accomplish what we had in mind. Once our department acquired a digital projector, I made PowerPoint slides for every class I taught. It sure beat sifting through transparencies and writing things on the board. Students loved the fact that they could get copies of the slides in advance so that they didn't have to write everything down. On the other hand, they got sleepy because I had to have the lights in the room low in order for the slides to show up clearly on the screen. Then there was the day that the digital projector cart literally went up in smoke just as I was getting ready to start class.

It would be easier if we just didn't try technologies until all of the bugs were worked out. Of course, that will never happen. More importantly, we shouldn't be afraid either to use a technology or to stop using a technology based on what works best to help learning happen.

The Risk of Not Having Fun

There is something invigorating about an environment where both the teacher and the student are trying to learn. If I am not trying to learn anything, then my part of that equation dissipates. I doubt that I could continue to enjoy teaching without going out on a limb sometimes to try new methods and even new courses. Not enjoying what we're doing may be the greatest risk of all.

Biographical Notes on Individual Contributors

Charles Brewer graduated from Hendrix College in 1954 and received his Ph.D. in experimental psychology from the University of Arkansas in 1965. He has taught at The College of Wooster and Elmira College and is now the Kenan Professor of Psychology at Furman University. After serving 12 years as editor of *Teaching of Psychology*, he was named Editor Emeritus in 1996. Author of numerous articles and book chapters, he is coeditor of *Teaching Psychology in America: A History* and of handbooks for teachers of introductory psychology and of statistics and research methods. He was president of Divisions 1 (General) and 2 (Teaching) of the American Psychological Association (APA) and is a Fellow of the APA and a Charter Fellow of the American Psychological Society. He received the American Psychological Foundation's Distinguished Teaching Award in 1989 and the American Psychological Association's Distinguished Career Contributions to Education and Training Award for 1995.

Janet F. Carlson graduated from Union College in Schenectady, NY, in 1979 and received her Ph.D. in clinical psychology from Fordham University in 1987. She has held full-time academic appointments since 1988 at Fordham University, Fairfield University, Le Moyne College, and at the State University of New York at Oswego. Currently, she is Department Head of the Department of General Academics at Texas A&M University at Galveston. Her first solo publication was in *Teaching of Psychology*, having been submitted during her first semester of full-time teaching. Since then, she has reviewed numerous manuscripts and has served as a consulting editor for the journal. Presently, she serves the Society for the Teaching of Psychology as Director of the Office of Teaching Resources in Psychology. The most welcome compliments from her students end with the phrase, “. . . but I learned so much.”

Until his retirement in 2001, **Stephen F. Davis** was a Roe R. Cross Distinguished Professor of Psychology at Emporia State University. In addition to his own teaching duties, he supervised graduate teaching assistants who teach introductory and developmental psychology. Dr. Davis received his Ph.D. in General Experimental Psychology from Texas Christian University. He taught at King College (Bristol, TN), and Austin Peay State University (Clarksville, TN) before joining the Emporia State faculty. Dr. Davis's research interests include academic dishonesty, student professional development, student responsibility, conditioned taste aversion learning, and olfactory communication in animal maze learning. Since 1966 he has published nearly 250 articles and textbooks and presented over 770 professional papers; the vast majority of these publications and presentations include undergraduate and graduate student co-authors. Dr. Davis has served as the President of APA Division 2 (the Society for the Teaching of Psychology), the Southern Society for Philosophy and Psychology, the Southwestern Psychological Association, and Psi Chi (the National Honor Society in Psychology). In

1987 Dr. Davis received the first annual Psi Chi/Florence L. Denmark National Faculty Advisor. In 1988 he received the American Psychological Foundation Distinguished Teaching in Psychology Award, and in 1989 he received the APA Division 2 Teaching Excellence Award. Dr. Davis is a Fellow of APA Divisions 1 (General), 2 (Society for the Teaching of Psychology), and 6 (Behavioral Neuroscience and Comparative Psychology).

Paul A. Fox is a member of the Appalachian State University Department of Psychology faculty. He earned his Ph.D. in experimental psychology from Southern Illinois University. In 1971, he received the first Outstanding Teacher Award presented by Appalachian State. He served on the North Carolina State Testing Commission (public schools) for nine years and directed a National Teacher Corps Program for two years. Dr. Fox has taught a PSI course in educational psychology since the mid 1970s and mentors students conducting attribute-treatment interaction (ATI) research in the lab associated with that course. He also teaches Forensic Psychology and Behavioral Therapy. In 1987, The North Carolina Bureau for Public Policy Research named his teaching of psychology course one of two outstanding programs in the state for the training of GTAs. It became a template for the development of a legislative mandate governing the training of GTAs in the state of North Carolina.

Peter J. Giordano tries to teach with his mouth shut, but it is difficult. He has been on the faculty at Belmont University since 1989 and is currently Professor of Psychology and in the second year of a three-year appointment as Director of Belmont's Teaching Center, an office devoted to instructional and faculty development. He established the Psi Chi Charter at Belmont in 1991 and has been faculty advisor or co-advisor for the chapter since then. He received his B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. (Clinical) from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. He is currently National President of Psi Chi and serves as the Methods and Techniques Editor for *Teaching of Psychology*. He is the husband of Jan and the father of two fine sons, Nicholas and Michael, who are growing up way too fast. He loves to teach his sons (with his mouth wide open) to cheer tirelessly for North Carolina basketball.

Marky Lloyd is Professor of Psychology at Georgia Southern University, where she teaches social psychology, personality psychology, psychology of adjustment, psychology of gender, and careers in psychology. She has taught for 29 years, including 13 years' experience as a department chair (at GSU and Suffolk University). She is the co-author (with Wayne Weiten) of *Psychology Applied to Modern Life* and maintains a web site on careers in psychology (<http://www.psywww.com/careers>). She is a past President of the Society for the Teaching of Psychology and former Executive Director of the Society's Office of Teaching Resources in Psychology. She is a member of APA's Board of Educational Affairs and the BEA Task Force on Undergraduate Psychology

Major Competencies. She is a recipient of GSU's Award for Excellence for Contributions to Instruction. She received her B.A. in psychology from the University of Denver and her M.A. and Ph.D. in psychology from the University of Arizona.

Neil Lutsky has taught psychology (and the liberal arts) at Carleton College for over 25 years. His primary teaching responsibilities (and loves) include introductory psychology, statistics, social psychology, personality, London Theatre, and a seminar on the psychology of endings (of, e.g., therapy, conversations, relationships, films, and lives). His research, writing, and presentations have addressed the teaching of psychology, the psychology of endings, the Milgram studies of authority influence, the cross-situational consistency of behavior, and social gerontology. In 1998-99 he served as President of the Society for the Teaching of Psychology, a group of teachers he believes does matter to education. Lutsky has developed a number of laboratory projects for use in teaching and was the principal investigator on a recent NSF ILI Grant, "Enhancing Scientific Reasoning in a General Psychology Laboratory." He received his B.S. in Economics from the Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania and his M.A. and Ph.D. degrees from Harvard University. He enjoys daily games of basketball, monthly games of chance, an occasional glass of good port, and the seasonal picking of raspberries and production of raspberry jam with his crew of child laborers. He suspects, however, that these last components of his identity are only marginally related to his failures and successes as a teacher.

Harold L. Miller, Jr. is Professor of Psychology at Brigham Young University (Provo, Utah), where he joined the faculty fresh out of graduate school in 1975. He has typically taught at least four courses per semester in the interim, mostly in psychology and in the Honors program. He is a former dean of Honors and General Education at the university. His published research has ranged widely: distributed choice theory, instructional control, human sociobiology, integrated learning systems and school reform, and most recently, self-control. He is also an educational consultant and spent the 1998-99 academic year in Guangzhou, China, assisting with the development of a new private school. He and his wife JeNeal have eight children and five grandchildren.

James H. Korn is Professor of Psychology at Saint Louis University. He received his Ph.D. from Carnegie Tech (now Carnegie-Mellon University) in 1965. At "Tech" he was in the forefront of the rear guard: while Simon and Newell were simulating human thought at the beginning of the alleged cognitive revolution, Jim was involved in research on classical conditioning, paired associate learning, Amsel's frustration effect in rats, and psycho-endocrinology. In spite of that, he was hired as an Assistant Professor at CMU. The events of the late 60s led him out of the rat lab, into his commitment to teaching, and a new life in St. Louis in 1974. His scholarly work now is in the areas of teaching, history

of psychology, and research ethics. He has served as President of Division 2, and is a Fellow of that Division and of Division 1 (General).

David S. Kreiner is Professor of Psychology and Assistant Dean of the Graduate School at Central Missouri State University, where he has been teaching since 1990. After earning his Ph.D. in human experimental psychology at the University of Texas-Austin, he began teaching courses such as general psychology, research design and analysis, undergraduate and graduate statistics, sensation and perception, cognitive psychology, and psychology of language. He has worked with graduate teaching assistants and with new faculty as a teaching mentor, and does research on a variety of topics such as spelling ability, memory, and teaching methods. Recently, he developed an on-line statistics course but then decided that it wasn't as much fun as being in the classroom. He has an 11-year-old daughter and a 14-year-old cat, and in his spare time enjoys swimming, tennis, and reading.

Virginia Andreoli Mathie is a professor of psychology at James Madison University, where she has taught introductory psychology, psychological statistics, experimental psychology and social psychology since 1975. Her recent interests include the use of active learning strategies and instructional technology to enhance teaching and learning. She chaired the APA Board of Educational Affairs Miniconvention on Education and Technology that was held at the 1999 APA meetings. For the past five years she chaired the APA/BEA Psychology Partnerships Project. At JMU, Dr. Mathie has served as Coordinator of the Undergraduate Program, Coordinator of the General Psychology Master's Program and Department Head of Psychology. She was President of the Virginia Academy of Academic Psychologists and President of the Society for the Teaching of Psychology. She is completing her service on the APA Board of Educational Affairs. She received an APA 1999 Presidential Citation for her leadership of P3 and was the 2000 APA Harry Kirke Wolfe Lecturer. She is a Fellow of APA Division 2.

Lee I. McCann received his Ph.D. in experimental psychology from Iowa State University. He is a Professor of Psychology at the University of Wisconsin Oshkosh, where he has served as Department Chair and Associate Vice Chancellor. His research interests include the social communication of dietary preference in rats, implicit learning in humans, psychology curricula, and new faculty training and career development. He is a consulting editor for the journal *Teaching of Psychology*, coeditor of *Lessons Learned: Practical Advice for the Teaching of Psychology* (1999, APS), and the Teaching Tips column in the APS Observer. He is coauthor of *Recruiting Good College Faculty: Practical Advice for a Successful Search* (1996, Anker), and a training manual, *Peer Review of Teaching*. With Baron Perlman, he has recently published two articles in

Teaching of Psychology reporting a national study of undergraduate psychology curricula supported by a grant from the APA.

Maureen McCarthy is an Associate Professor at Austin Peay State University where she teaches courses in statistics, research methods, and assessment, and serves as coordinator of the School Psychology program. She received her Ph.D. in Research and Evaluation from Oklahoma State University and is currently pursuing post-doctoral training in counseling psychology. She currently serves as coordinator of the Society's Consultant Service, which provides referrals for departments requesting an external review of their undergraduate program.

Kayce L. Meginnis-Payne is an Assistant Professor of Psychology at Peace College, a women's college in Raleigh, North Carolina. She teaches general psychology, abnormal psychology, counseling theories and techniques, and human sexuality. She also coordinates the psychology internship program. Kayce received a B.A. in psychology and women's studies from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill and a Ph.D. in clinical psychology from the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Her scholarship focuses on women's issues and feminist therapy. She just bought her first house with her husband, John, and can't wait to start growing flowers and vegetables in the back yard.

Harold Moon is professor emeritus at Augusta State University where for 25 years he was professor of psychology with stints in various administrative positions. Earlier, he was an assistant and associate professor at Auburn University for eight years. His scholarly interests include teaching, history of psychology, ethics, learning, and developmental psychology. Harold received the B.S. degree from Auburn University in 1956 and the Ph.D. degree from Florida State University in 1962. He served one year as a clinical intern at the University of Tennessee Medical School and two years as a clinical psychologist in a community mental health center in Alabama. Harold has been a member of numerous professional organizations, serving as president of several at the local level and also of the Alabama Psychological Association, the Southeastern Psychological Association, and Psi Chi. He is a fellow in APA and a charter member of the APS.

Baron Perlman received his Ph.D. in clinical psychology from Michigan State University in 1974. He is a Rosebush and University Professor in the Department of Psychology at the UW Oshkosh and a Fellow in APA's Society for the Teaching of Psychology. He has authored *The Academic Intrapreneur* (with Jim Gueths and Don Weber, 1988, Praeger), *Organizational Entrepreneurship* (with Jeffrey R. Cornwall, 1990, Irwin), and *Recruiting Good College Faculty: Practical Advice for a Successful Search* (with Lee McCann, 1996, Anker). He is coeditor of Teaching Tips in the APS

Observer. The columns were published in book form, *Lessons Learned: Practical Advice for the Teaching of Psychology* (Perlman, McCann, & McFadden, Eds., 1999, APS). His research studies the preparation and development of teaching faculty. He also studies the psychology curriculum. He has presented workshops on various teaching elements including teaching portfolios and peer review of teaching at regional teaching conferences, and at the National Institute on the Teaching of Psychology.

Patti Price is a Ph.D. candidate in the developmental track of the experimental program at the University of North Texas. She has taught undergraduate courses in research methods, developmental psychology, psychology of adjustment, and history and systems of psychology. Ms. Price's research interests include adoptive family relationships and resilience in post-institutionalized children, as well as cultural issues. She is currently chairing the Graduate Student and New Faculty Relations Task Force for the Society for the Teaching of Psychology as well as serving as a member of the Preparing Future Faculty Task Force. Ms. Price serves on the Board of Directors for FRUA (Families for Russian and Ukrainian Adoption), a national parent support group.

Erin Rasmussen is Assistant Professor of Psychology at the College of Charleston in Charleston, South Carolina, where she teaches conditioning and learning, learning laboratory, drugs and behavior, and introductory psychology. She received her M.S. and Ph.D. in the experimental analysis of behavior, with a minor in behavioral pharmacology and behavioral toxicology, from Auburn University. She continues to study the effects of environmental contaminants on behavior, and currently is examining how environmental enrichment plays a role in modulating the effects of prenatal methylmercury exposure. She is also interested in exploring the teacher-researcher distinction in academia.

A graduate of the University of Alberta, Professor **Nicholas F. Skinner** has been teaching Psychology at King's College (an undergraduate affiliate of The University of Western Ontario in London, Ontario) since 1972. He presently teaches full-year courses in human adjustment, educational psychology, and two sections of his favorite course, introductory psychology (with respect to which, having taught it upwards of 40 times, he says he thinks he is in danger of "starting to 'get it right', sort of"). In addition to an interest in personality (particularly Machiavellianism and adaption-innovation), his primary research foci—characteristics of effective teachers, and variables that affect academic performance—have yielded several dozen published articles and many more professional papers. He appears perennially on the Dean's Honour Roll of Teaching Excellence, and was awarded the King's College Award for Excellence in Teaching in 1997 (its inaugural year). Dr. Skinner is the long-time Chair of the Section on Teaching of Psychology of the Canadian Psychological Association (CPA), and last year received the CPA 2000 Education and Training Award. He and his wife Wendy Anne (also a teacher) have two adult children.

Kristin Whitlock teaches Advanced Placement Psychology at Viewmont High School in Bountiful, Utah. Kristin has served on the TOPSS Executive Board as Member at Large and currently serves as the TOPSS Utah State Coordinator. She is also a founding member of the Utah Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools (UTOPSS). Kristin currently serves as a High School representative on the Working Group for the National Standards for the Teaching of High School Psychology and participates in the Psychology Partnerships Project (P3) as a member of the "Assessment All-Stars." Kristin's course disclosure was included in the Teachers Guide for AP Psychology published by The College Board. In addition to her work in psychology education, Kristin is busy with her young sons, Chandler and James, and her husband, McRae.

About the Editors

William Buskist is the Kulynych/Cline Family Distinguished Professor in the Teaching of Psychology at Appalachian State University in Boone, North Carolina. Prior to his arrival at Appalachian in 2002, he was an Alumni Professor of Psychology at Auburn University. In his 19-plus years at Auburn, he taught nearly 30,000 undergraduates. His research interests center on identifying and understanding the qualities and behaviors involved in "master teaching" and in designing training programs that promote effective undergraduate teaching. He teaches a variety of undergraduate psychology courses and has strong interests in helping undergraduates prepare for graduate study in psychology. He serves as a consulting editor for *Teaching of Psychology*. In 2000, he received the Robert S. Daniel Teaching Excellence Award from the Society of the Teaching of Psychology. He is also a Fellow of the Society. Together with Steve Davis (Emporia State University), he recently published a book entitled *The Teaching of Psychology: Essays in Honor of Wilbert J. McKeachie and Charles L. Brewer* (Erlbaum).

Vincent Hevern graduated from Fordham College and received his Ph.D. in clinical psychology from Fordham University in 1985, the same year he was licensed as a psychologist by New York State. For 8 years he both taught psychology and practiced as a clinician in New York City--mostly working with adolescent clients and their families. He moved to Le Moyne College in 1991 where he is Associate Professor and former chair of the Psychology Department. At Le Moyne he has taught a broad array of clinical and non-clinical courses. His most recent research interests include the narrative perspective in the social sciences and the pedagogical implications of emerging digital technologies such as the Internet. He is currently completing his first term as the founding Internet Editor for STP for which he has developed several online sites (the *STP Homepage* and *OTRP Online*). He is a Fellow of APA in Division 2. He has been a Jesuit for more than 35 years and was ordained a Catholic priest in 1976.

Bill Hill received his Ph.D. in experimental psychology from the University of Georgia in 1979 and has been on the faculty at Kennesaw State University (KSU) since then. During his tenure at KSU he has been a full-time teaching faculty member and assumed several administrative roles, including Department Chair of Psychology from 1988-1994 and Associate Vice-President for Academic Affairs from 1998-2002. In the fall of 2002 he will become the full-time Director of the KSU Center for Excellence in Teaching & Learning, which coordinates faculty development programs and a Faculty Teaching Fellows program. His professional activities have primarily revolved around teaching and service to teachers. His research interests center on teaching issues, most recently focusing on the use of and attitudes about extra credit and resource materials to enhance the teaching of cross-cultural psychology. He has published several resources for teaching cross-cultural psychology. He is also strongly committed to professional efforts to facilitate the improvement of teaching. In 1989 he founded, and continues to coordinate, the annual Southeastern Conference on the Teaching of Psychology. He has also been active in a variety of leadership roles in the Society for the Teaching of Psychology (STP), Division Two of the American Psychological Association, including President of STP in 2001-2002. He received the KSU Distinguished Teaching Award in 1985 and is a Fellow of Divisions 2 and 52 of APA.