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Introduction to Volumes I – V

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. In the spring of 2000, *E-xcellence in Teaching*, a monthly column devoted to the teaching of psychology, joined the list. The column features monthly essays devoted to teaching at the high school, community college, and university levels in general, and to 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 the discussion and promotion of effective teaching practices.

This compilation of essays forms Volume V of *E-xcellence in Teaching*. The first volume, which appeared on STP's Web site in 2002, contains the first 20 *E-xcellence in Teaching* essays, which were posted on the discussion list in 2000-2001; Volume II contains 13 essays from 2002; Volume III contains 12 essays posted in 2003; and Volume IV contains 12 essays posted in 2004. The present volume of *E-xcellence in Teaching* is comprised of 13 essays that appeared on the discussion list in 2005. We would like to thank the authors of these 70 essays for their valuable contributions to the column and to the literature on the teaching of psychology and the scholarship on teaching. We would also like to thank the STP leadership for their continued support of *E-xcellence in Teaching*.

Volume I of *Essays from E-xcellence in Teaching* was dedicated to Jane Halonen (University of West Florida) for the important role she played in establishing *E-xcellence in Teaching*, and Volume II was dedicated to Randy Smith (Kennesaw State University) for his consistent and unwavering championing of the scholarship of teaching in his role as editor of *Teaching of Psychology*. Bill Buskist (Auburn University), past editor of *E-xcellence in Teaching*, dedicated Volume III to Bill Hill (Kennesaw State University) and Vinny Hevern (Le Moyne College), both of whom played pivotal roles in the creation, development, and continued success of the column. Bryan Saville and Tracy Zinn, co-editors of *E-xcellence in Teaching* since 2003, dedicated last year's volume (Volume IV) to Bill Buskist for his continual guidance, support, and friendship over the past several years. This year, Tracy and Bryan would like to dedicate Volume V to the devoted members of the PsychTeacher discussion, who, month after month, provide an enthusiastic and receptive audience for authors of the *E-xcellence in Teaching* essays. Their love of teaching and desire to bring out the best in their students is truly inspirational.

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***Expanding our Students' Horizons:
Incorporating a Comparative Perspective into Psychology Courses***

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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 2005.)

Psychology is typically defined as the scientific study of behavior and cognitive processes, yet current psychology curricula sometimes limit their focus to human behavior and cognition. A quick (and admittedly non-systematic) review of several popular introductory psychology textbooks appears to support this contention. Some of these books do introduce aspects of nonhuman animal behavior, and discussions of certain topics (e.g., attempts to teach language to nonhumans) are common. However, these treatments are often brief and limited. In-depth discussions are often descriptions of older research, presented in historical context (e.g., Harlow's attachment studies; early studies of learning by Pavlov, Skinner, & Tolman). Furthermore, when research on nonhumans is included in introductory psychology textbooks, it often fails to mention that the research subjects were nonhuman species (Domjan & Purdy, 1995). Similarly, Eaton and Sleight (2002) surveyed recent developmental psychology textbooks and found that research on nonhuman animals was rarely presented, except in historical context.

Thus, it appears that, in some cases, students may not be exposed to research on nonhumans, or they may not be aware that particular findings are from studies of nonhuman animals. Providing psychology students with a more comprehensive view of behavior, one that encompasses the behavior of more than a single species, has several potential benefits:

1. All species, including humans, confront problems related to survival in their physical and social environments, (e.g., cognitive problems related to obtaining resources, surviving as a member of a social group), and there are diverse ways in which species solve these problems. Learning about how nonhuman species approach and solve these problems demonstrates the breadth and diversity of behavioral strategies that exist in living beings.
2. Students whose primary interest is human behavior can gain insights from examining human behavior in the broader context of behavior across species. An understanding of factors that influence behavior in nonhumans can shed light on how these same factors may be at work in human behavior.
3. It is important for students to learn about the behavior of other species, because, quite simply, it is part of psychology. We deprive students of a full, rich, complete understanding of behavior, and all the factors that influence it, by focusing solely on how humans "do things."

Comparative Research and Psychology's Subfields

Current research in comparative psychology and animal behavior covers a wide range of topics, and many studies provide insights that result in novel ways of looking at human behavior and cognition. Here I provide just a few examples from a sampling of psychology's subfields.

Learning and Cognitive Processes. Many fascinating comparative studies can be found in the animal learning and cognition literature. These studies often start with two basic notions: (a) all species need a “mental toolkit” (Hauser, 2000), or certain cognitive capabilities (i.e., “tools”), to survive; and (b) these cognitive tools are related to the species’ physical and social environments and the problems presented by those environments. In some cases, cognitive abilities of nonhuman animals can be directly compared to human cognitive abilities. For example, it is easy for most students to imagine why object permanence—which has been examined in numerous nonhuman species, including orangutans and chimpanzees (Call, 2001), dogs (Gagnon & Dore, 1994), and black-billed magpies (Pollok, Prior, & Guentuerkuen, 2000)—would be a useful tool for nonhuman animals (e.g., What is the adaptive response of a hunting lion when potential prey goes behind a bush or other environmental obstruction?).

Understanding of quantity and number has also been examined in many species. In nonhumans, these abilities are important in assessing quantities of food and determining the size of competing groups (e.g., chimpanzees – Boysen & Berntson, 1995; Boysen, Berntson, & Mukobi, 2001; lions – McComb, Packer, & Pusey, 1994; African grey parrots – Pepperberg, 1994).

Social learning is important in many nonhuman species, as it is in humans. For example, Florida scrub jays learn to forage in a novel food patch from observing family members foraging there (Midford, Hailman, & Woolfenden, 2000), and canaries are more likely to eat novel foods when the adults demonstrating the behavior are familiar to them (Cadiou & Cadiou, 2002). In a recent study, Griffin and Evans (2003) examined social learning of antipredator responses in tamar wallabies. They trained wallabies to demonstrate a fear response to a model fox. (Foxes, which are not native to the wallabies’ habitat, are one of the main predators of these animals, and are a significant threat to their survival.) These “demonstrators” were then placed in an enclosure with naïve wallabies while a model fox was presented to the animals. The naïve animals that were exposed to the fox in the presence of a fox-fearful demonstrator later showed vigilance responses to the fox model, whereas animals in a control group (who had a non-fearful demonstrator) did not show these same vigilance responses.

Clearly, an ability to learn from other individuals in one’s social group is adaptive for many species, not just humans. This research can broaden student perspectives about the role of social learning across species, as well as the similarities and differences between humans and nonhumans in how social learning takes place.

Sensory and Perceptual Processes. Characteristics and limitations of human sensory capabilities are highlighted when they are compared with the sensory capabilities of nonhumans (Hughes, 1999). Sensory and perceptual capabilities are suited to the social and physical environment of the species, and many nonhuman species provide fascinating examples of specialized sensory systems. For example, bats use high-frequency sound, outside the range of human hearing, to orient and to capture flying prey in total darkness (Altringham, 1996; Kalko & Schnitzler, 1993; Schnitzler & Kalko, 2001). Rats and other rodents communicate using ultrasound (Farrell & Alberts, 2002; Brudzynski & Pniak, 2002), and rats are sensitive to light in the ultraviolet (UV) region of the spectrum (Jacobs, Fenwick, & Williams, 2001). Elephants’ use of infrasonic vocalizations enables communication over long distances (Poole, Payne, Langbauer, & Moss,

1988). Almost every species of bird can see UV light, and color signals in these wavelengths often play an important role in mate selection (Smith, Greenwood, & Bennet, 2002; Hunt, Cuthill, Bennett, Church, & Partridge, 2001). Finally, some species of fish can also see UV wavelengths (Losey, 2003).

Personality. Personality is often considered to be uniquely human, but recent studies of nonhumans reveal consistent behavior or “temperament” differences that can be labeled as personality (Gosling & John, 1999; Gosling & Vazire, 2002). What does this tell us about where personality comes from? How does this impact ideas and theories about personality development?

In nonhumans, personality traits have been examined in primates (Capitanio, 2002; Itoh, 2002), horses (Visser et al., 2003), cats (Lowe & Bradshaw, 2001), pigs (Janczek, Pederssen, & Bakken, 2003), and dogs (Svartberg, 2002; Svartberg & Forkman, 2002), among others. In one study, Gosling, Kwan, and John (2003) examined personality in dogs using a modified version of the Five Factor Model often used in the study of human personality. Owners rated their dogs along the dimensions of energy, affection, emotional reactivity, and intelligence. Ratings were also obtained from others familiar with the dog. The obtained ratings showed internal consistency and consensus: Both owners and nonowners rated the dogs similarly. Further, to test for correspondence between the traits identified on the owner surveys and the dogs’ actual behavior, trained observers also watched the dogs engage in a variety of tasks. There was significant correspondence between traits as rated on the surveys and traits as rated on the behavioral tests. Gosling et al. (2003) concluded that differences in personality traits do exist in dogs, and that these differences can be accurately measured. They also suggested that taking a comparative approach to the study of personality opens up possibilities for identifying genetic and environmental influences on personality.

Incorporating Research Findings on Nonhuman Animals into Classes

How can you broaden your class by incorporating information on the behavior of nonhumans? As I noted above, texts for psychology classes may not provide much coverage of nonhuman species’ behavior or cognitive processes. However, there are useful and readily-available resources for finding information on these topics. Excellent comparative psychology and animal behavior textbooks include Drickamer, Vessey, and Jakob (2002); Goodenough, McGuire, and Wallace (2001); and Papini (2002).

Widely-available journals, such as *Animal Behaviour*, *Behaviour*, and the *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, are also rich sources of information. In general, the *Journal of Comparative Psychology* focuses more on studies of cognition, sensory processes, and development, while *Behaviour* and *Animal Behaviour* typically publish more studies of communication, social behavior, and ecological factors in behavior. For example, recent issues of the *Journal of Comparative Psychology* included articles on Piagetian liquid conservation in orangutans and chimpanzees (Suda & Call, 2004), social learning in capuchin monkeys (Brosnan & de Waal, 2004), and personality traits in horses (Hausberger, Bruderer, LeScolan, & Pierre, 2004). Recent studies published in *Animal Behaviour* have examined parental care in wattled jacanas (Emlen & Wrege, 2004), and underwater vocal communication in hippos (Barklow,

2004). (Students are often fascinated to learn that in the wattled jacana, a bird that lives on floating river vegetation, males provide virtually all the parental care, while females specialize in defending the nest site—a reversal of what we consider the traditional parental roles for the two sexes.) Research databases, such as PsycInfo, Biological Abstracts, and Cambridge Scientific Abstracts, can point instructors to relevant research on nonhuman species published in these and other journals.

Conclusion

Students should be aware that the discipline of psychology encompasses more than the study of a single species, and that psychological principles, theories, and methods of studying behavior apply more broadly than to the study of humans alone. Incorporating additional information on the behavior of nonhuman species into psychology classes can give students a more comprehensive picture of the richness and diversity of behavior and cognitive processes. Many of us may be reluctant to give up time in our classes or try to fit information on the behavior of nonhumans into an already crowded class schedule. This feeling is understandable given the vast amount of important information we try to impart to our students. However, even a brief foray into the world of nonhuman animal behavior can broaden our students' understanding of the diversity of behavior across living species, and deepen students' appreciation for the wide applicability of psychological principles and ideas.

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Why History?

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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 2005.)

One of the things I most enjoy is walking into my history and systems class on the first day of the semester and announcing with much enthusiasm to students that they are about to embark on a magical mystery tour of people, events, and ideas that will change forever the way they think about things and will have lasting value for their lives. The initial reaction, as you might guess, is a certain degree of skepticism. Some surreptitiously check their day planners to see if they are in the right classroom. After all, the course does have the word “history” in its title. Fulfilling the promise of magic, of course, is a tall order. The history course can be a hard sell to some students, especially after they learn the name of psychology’s most famous historian (you know who). And they might wonder why they are taking a “history” course when they thought they were studying “psychology.” But I firmly believe the history course, taught well, can deliver. Further, I believe that students can be convinced by the end of the semester that their experience with psychology’s history has been of lasting value to them. Beyond the reasons normally given for studying history, which few students buy, and for good reason (e.g., we can avoid the “mistakes” of the past), I believe there are six essential reasons why our students should study psychology’s history.

Understanding the Present

This is perhaps the most basic reason for studying any history. It is simply impossible to have a thorough understanding of the present time without understanding something about the history that led to it. For example, students in a motivation and emotion course might learn about the facial feedback hypothesis and about cross-cultural similarities in facial expressions of emotions. But that knowledge will be superficial without some understanding of what William James said about the connection between physical activity and emotion and what Charles Darwin had to say about the origins of emotional expressions. I make this point about understanding the present repeatedly in my course, and I force students to think of at least one example from their own experiences by asking them the following question on the take-home portion of their final exam: “Think about one of your other psychology courses and some psychological concept or principle that you have learned. Explain how your understanding of that concept or principle has been enriched through your study of psychology’s history.”

Understanding the Dangers of Presentist Thinking

This is a major theme in my history course and, when students “get it,” this is one of those ideas that can seriously change the way they think about lots of things. Presentism is the tendency to evaluate historical events with reference to present-day standards, understanding, or values. Conversely, the historian and the student of history must make an attempt to understand historical events in the context of what was known, understood, or valued at the time of those events. Avoiding presentist thinking might be impossible in an absolute sense—after all, we are

products of our environments, affected by them in ways we do not always understand. To truly comprehend history and the lessons of history, however, it is essential to make the effort to put aside our current understanding. Getting students to overcome presentist thinking puts a real burden on the instructor, and is the reason why I think history is the most difficult course in the psychology curriculum to teach well. The main reason for this difficulty is that to get students to evaluate historical events in context, the instructor must know context (political, military, economic, institutional, and sociocultural). This means knowing just about everything that was going on in world outside of psychology during the historical period being studied. Understanding why Skinner's 1948 novel *Walden II* made little impact in the 1950s but became popular in the 1960s requires knowing about the post-WWII fears of communism and the increased liberalism of the 1960s, to take just one small example. One of the ways I try to incorporate historical context into my course is to assign readings that are excellent models of contextual history. One of my favorites is an article on spiritualism by Deborah Coon (1992). She does a remarkable job of showing why the phenomenon was popular in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, enticing such luminaries as William James, but was seen as dangerous by other psychologists (e.g., G. Stanley Hall). In the context of a time when marvelous new inventions were occurring left and right, the idea of contact with spirits was not so far-fetched. If the telegraph could make someone's voice magically cross hundreds of miles, why couldn't other forms of energy (i.e., mental energy) be transmitted across distances as well? Another part of the historical context in America at that time was a ready supply of people desperately wishing to contact the spirits of those who died too young (i.e., in the Civil War). Another item from my take-home final reads: "Describe two things you learned from this course that might be of value in your life. Don't just describe some things that you found interesting or some things you didn't know before—describe things that you learned that could affect you as a person, how you think, etc." Many of my students respond to this by making reference to the dangers of presentist thinking and they sometimes even extend the concept into the realm of interpersonal relations—maybe they need to be careful about judging someone without knowing something of the "historical context" within which that person acted.

Connecting the Dots

The venerable sage Charles Brewer is fond of saying that "everything is connected to everything else." This truth is nowhere more evident than in the history course, and one of my stated goals for the course is to get students to see connections among the many things they have learned throughout their careers as psychology majors. Students occasionally tell me that before they took the history course, they had taken a series of psychology courses that appeared to be disconnected from each other, but that the history course helped to "tie it all together." It is difficult to say exactly how this integration happens, but I think there are some ways that instructors can facilitate the process. For example, a topic in the history course often meshes with and enriches something they have learned in another course. For instance, by the time they take my history course, most students have taken social psychology and have learned something about Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory. In the history course, describing Lewin's field theory requires saying something about his concept of equilibrium. When I tell them that Festinger was a student of Lewin's, the remark often elicits an "Aha" moment—a connection has been made, and because of their new knowledge of Lewin (and also of gestalt psychology), they now have an enriched understanding of the basis for cognitive dissonance theory.

Enhancing Critical Thinking

Given that we want our students to become critical thinkers, the history course offers some unique opportunities. What I wrote earlier about presentism and contextual history definitely applies here, but there are other examples. Consider one typical attitude about history, for instance. Many students (who enter the course thinking that history is “just one d_ _ _ thing after another”) believe that once a history has been written, that’s it—it’s just a matter of getting some chronology lined up properly and writing it with some coherence. End of story. What I try to show them instead is that histories continually need to be rewritten in light of new information and, especially, in light of new ways of thinking. All history is new history, and psychology’s history is a perfect example. For instance, it’s easy to point to the various ways that Wundt and his work have been portrayed in a distorted fashion over the years, that the problem relates to Titchener’s influence on Boring and Boring’s subsequent historical writings about Wundt, and that the reassessment of Wundt in the 1970s would not have happened in the same way had not psychology become more cognitively oriented. On the take-home question about life’s lessons, it is gratifying when students comment that they have become more skeptical about what is written in their textbooks. As the author of the textbook we use in my class, I sometimes discuss the decisions I made about what to include and how I could best describe and analyze it. Moreover, I discuss how these decisions represented my best judgment at the time, that I could have taken other directions, and that other historians might disagree with me for legitimate reasons.

Providing us with Models

Psychology’s history is loaded with people whose actions can help guide our lives. One of my favorites is Edmund Sanford, an early experimental psychologist, who to some extent lessened his own professional career for the sake of his students (e.g., letting students have sole authorship of research when he easily could have claimed co-authorship or even first authorship). There are lots of other examples that are relevant for students in the history course. Concerned about the future and worried about taking a big risk? Think about Titchener’s willingness in 1892 to take a job at Cornell in the remote wilderness of central New York, or Köhler’s willingness to stand up to the Nazis. Seeing some evidence of a glass ceiling and frustrated about it? Think about what Margaret Washburn, Mary Calkins, and Christine Ladd-Franklin were able to accomplish. Worried about balancing career and family? Think about Lillian Gilbreth, who had two separate PhDs and a dozen children. Concerned about overcoming health problems? Think about Hull’s work despite polio or Terman’s accomplishments while fighting tuberculosis.

Keeping One Humble

Finally, as academics, it is easy for us to delude ourselves into thinking we know a lot. Studying history is a great antidote. I am continually amazed by how little I know about psychology’s history, but at the same time, it motivates me to keep learning more. This is a trait I think can benefit our students, especially when we model it for them. I continually remind students in my course that they are just scratching the surface of a fascinating story.

Resources for Teaching the History of Psychology

Fortunately, there are numerous resources available to those lucky enough to be teaching the history course. Carefully mining the Internet can be fruitful; one useful strategy is to access interesting historically relevant images by doing Google image searches. The most important Internet site for historians of psychology is the Web Site for the Society of the History of Psychology (SHP), APA's Division 26 ([_ HYPERLINK "http://shp.yorku.ca"](http://shp.yorku.ca) [_http://shp.yorku.ca_](http://shp.yorku.ca)). Chris Green of York University maintains the site and has put together an extraordinary array of resource material that can be easily accessed from the main SHP page. These include links to hundreds of history-related sites, as well as Green's "Classics in the History of Psychology," which includes full text versions of more than 25 books (e.g., William James's monumental *Principles of Psychology*) and over 200 articles that have important places in psychology's history. "Classics" also includes "Special Collections," selections of articles and books relevant to some particular issue. For instance, a special collection on the debate between structuralism and functionalism includes reprints of 32 articles, book chapters, and books. As for printed resource material, space does not permit an adequate listing. However, my chapter (Goodwin, 2002) in the book on teaching dedicated to Bill McKeachie and Charles Brewer has a large section on resources, as does Hilgard, Leary, and McGuire's (1991) chapter in *Annual Review of Psychology*.

In Closing

I love teaching the history of psychology. I especially enjoy seeing the (admittedly) occasional students, who might start the course hoping the ordeal will soon be over, but finish the semester with smiles on their faces, thinking perhaps that their magical mystery tour through psychology's history has not ended, but has only begun.

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Teaching Peace Psychology in a Post 9/11 World

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“For it isn’t enough to talk about peace. One must believe in it. And it isn’t enough to believe in it. One must work at it.” Eleanor Roosevelt

Occasionally, when attending a conference or professional meeting, a newly introduced colleague will inquire as to my area of research or ask what I teach. Certainly, such questions are common, and the response provides a wealth of information concerning the individual. Functionally, one can dip a toe into the lake before deciding to swim in extended conversation. My response to such a question has always been that I study and teach about the psychosocial roots of mass violence, war, and genocide. In addition, I note that I am a peace psychologist. Prior to the attacks of September 11, 2001, this response was occasionally met with a nod of recognition and, at times, greeted with sparks of intrigued interest. However, more often than not, I was met with a disapproving stare and a question: “What does mass violence have to do with psychology?” Since September 11, 2001, I am no longer asked that question. The relevance of psychology to the understanding of terrorism, war, torture, and other topics within the realm of peace psychology has become very transparent.

Benefits of Teaching Peace Psychology

Although research related to peace psychology is highly relevant in today’s world, why should we work to include the research and theory from peace psychology into the curriculum? On a personal level, I find teaching peace psychology to be rewarding, challenging, and increasingly important. However, I think there are other reasons why peace psychology should be integrated across the curriculum.

First, students have questions about the events they see occurring in the world around them. Many have friends or family serving overseas in the military. Certainly, with regular news and political reports about the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, and the status of the terrorism alert system often changing, the issue of mass violence remains in the forefront of American consciousness, including the minds of our students. Our students have questions, fears, and concerns, and they are trying to make sense of a rapidly changing global landscape. For example, they may want to know the causes of mass hate or how someone could even think about becoming a suicide bomber. The research from peace psychology can help them sort through the mass of information impacting them each day and help them address some of their fundamental questions.

Unfortunately, amidst the seeming overload of information is a fair amount of misinformation as well. As social psychology teaches us, misinformation repeated often enough begins to take on the mantle of validity. For example, some students may believe that the source of all terrorism is

Islamic fundamentalism. Such a belief may lead individuals to demonize a particular ethnic or religious group as inherently “evil.” Topics such as stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination, social cognition, propaganda, and persuasion can all be discussed in relation to examples of misinformation taken from the media. Research from the peace psychology literature can be used to augment these discussions.

Critical thinking skills can be further developed through an evaluation of the research in peace psychology. For example, research related to mass violence has demonstrated that during times of destabilizing crisis, an escalation of fear produces a myriad of responses in individuals and within the greater culture. Awareness of how fear and crisis affect decision-making can perhaps help our students become more socially responsible and recognize the role of propaganda and persuasion in their lives. Familiarity with the problems of groupthink and group polarization may enable our students to counter these detrimental tendencies within their own groups and to recognize the risk in others. Additionally, research with college students related specifically to the events of September 11, 2001, has demonstrated that greater knowledge of political functioning is related to less fearfulness (Sherrod, Quinones, & Davila, 2004). Our students, equipped with knowledge of the research from peace psychology, may be in a better position to evaluate and analyze critically political information and participate more effectively as a member of their local and global communities.

Finally, much of the research in peace psychology concerning international affairs is highly transferable and thus can also be of value in our students’ lives. For example, many students operate under the false assumption that conflict is bad and something to be avoided. Their utopian vision is a world without conflict. However, conflict is a normal part of life and can be beneficial. What students fail to realize is that conflict isn’t the issue; rather how one elects to use constructive or destructive conflict resolution strategies is what matters. From the interpersonal to the international, knowing conflict resolution skills and having the ability to evaluate one’s own conflict-related goals and motivations are invaluable.

Challenges Related to Teaching Peace Psychology

Having discussed the benefits of teaching peace psychology, it is important to note that there are some realistic concerns, particularly in relation to international issues. For example, some of the material within peace psychology can be very distressing to read, view, and study. My terrorism, genocide, and Holocaust syllabi all contain the following statement:

“This course is difficult because of its almost unrelieved concentration on human suffering and extreme, deliberately inflicted cruelty. The information presented in this class is difficult to read and difficult to discuss. There will be opportunities for class members to discuss thoughts and feelings that arise during the course.”

It is important to be aware that some of the material related to peace psychology can be emotionally challenging. Many students have not previously examined deeply issues of human cruelty. As such, it is important to provide mechanisms for dialogue both within and outside the classroom. Additionally, discussion of topics such as altruism, rescue, reconciliation, and peace building can highlight the best in human behavior during our most grim periods of history.

Finally, it is important to remind students that the lessons learned from the past can provide insights towards prevention and building a more peaceful global community.

I have also found that for some classes it has been important to add a social action or service learning component to the class. Such a component can counter the sense of helplessness experienced by some students and provide opportunities to put the principles of peace psychology into practice. For example, in my Women and Global Human Rights class, the students decided to organize a used cell phone drive in which the phones were donated to the Call to Protect program, a program that provides free refurbished cell phones and service to victims of domestic violence. Ultimately, the goal of classes or material related to mass violence should not be to traumatize or create despair in students, but rather to inform, enhance understanding, and build skills that facilitate their journey through an often contentious world.

Another challenge related to teaching peace psychology is that certain issues can be fraught with political landmines. It is important to remain grounded in research and not have the classroom become a sounding board for political opinions, either your students' or your own. It is not unusual for students simply to express what they know to be true based solely on a radio talk show or recent movie. It is important for students to challenge and evaluate their ideas based on the research and scholarly literature, and this can be modeled in the classroom. Occasionally, topics may arise that draw ire from outside forces. For example, there are Holocaust deniers who want "the other side" of the "Holocaust issue" discussed in the classroom. For these reasons, is important to keep your Chairperson and Dean apprised of any problems that arise.

How to Teach Peace Psychology

Although specialized courses in peace psychology can be offered, it is important that this information not be ghettoized. Rather, the topics of peace psychology can be integrated into existing psychology courses throughout the curriculum. This may seem a daunting task if one is unfamiliar with peace psychology, but it is important to remember that it can be done gradually. Using some of the resources discussed below, teachers of psychology can begin to explore the topic and integrate the material over time. For example, in developmental psychology, the topic of child soldiers or research on aging survivors of mass violence related to generativity and life review can be discussed. Of course, the decision to include peace psychology topics may be shaped in part by world events. I'm sure many teachers of psychology have discussed parallels between the Stanford Prison Study and the Abu Graib prison abuse scandal.

Most undergraduate and graduate programs in psychology do not offer coursework in peace psychology. So how does one go about getting the necessary information and education to be able to successfully teach topics courses and/or integrate the material into existing psychology courses? Fortunately, there are many avenues to learn more about peace psychology. First, my colleague Michael Hulsizer and I have put together three new curriculum resources related to the teaching of peace and mass violence:

1. Psychology of Mass Violence -- War, Ethnopolitical Conflict, Terrorism, and Peace: Informational Resources

2. Psychology of Mass Violence -- Genocide, Torture, and Human Rights: Informational Resources

3. Psychology of Mass Violence: Instructional Resources

These resources are available for free download on the Office of Teaching Resources in Psychology Web site (www.lemoyne.edu/OTRP/index.html) under the heading of Diversity and Cross-cultural Issues. Additionally, the Society for the Study of Peace, Conflict, and Violence: Peace Psychology Division of the American Psychological Association (APA) has a wealth of information available on their Web site (www.peacepsych.org) including the Peace Psychology Resource Project. Two other organizations that also include information related to peace psychology on their Web sites include Psychologists for Social Responsibility (www.psysr.org) and the International Society of Political Psychology (www.ispp.org).

It is important to bear in mind that the goal of peace psychology is not only to outline the various facets of mass violence. Rather, the goal is to develop understanding with an eye toward prevention, intervention, reconstruction, and reconciliation. As a discipline, peace psychology expands into many arenas. Peace psychologists conduct research on intimate and interpersonal relationships; examine issues of peace, conflict, and violence in our communities and schools; address institutional and structural forms of violence (e.g., racism); and work on international concerns. International peace issues are currently prevalent in the media, but the role of peace psychology in other domains is important despite being less publicized. Although published prior to September 11, 2001, *Peace, Conflict, and Violence: Peace Psychology for the 21st Century* (Christie, Wagner, & Winter, 2001) provides a good overview of the discipline.

This past September, an editorial in the *Toronto Sun* read, “IS IT really three years since 9/11? Much has happened since that terrible day, yet it remains fresh in memories. Just as the lives of those who lost loved ones in that terrorist atrocity have changed forever—an act of war against civilization—so the world changed that day” (“The Day,” 2004). For many within the United States, the attacks of September 11, 2001, represent a watershed event: “The world changed forever.” Individuals’ perceptions of their own lives, beliefs about the world, and sense of safety all changed irrevocably that day. And, of course, this phenomenological shift was also experienced by many of our students. However, over the next few years, increasing numbers of our students may see the threat of terrorist attacks and the subsequent war not as life-changing phenomena, but rather as ever present, seamless threads interwoven through their developing adolescence and identity. Students for whom the events of September 11, 2001, and the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan are just a “normal” part of the fabric of their lives and identities will soon be entering college. Thus, the topic of peace psychology, particularly as it relates to international concerns, will remain an important topic within the discipline and to our students’ lives as well.

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Race, Gender, and the Politics of Pedagogy in Psychology

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A general discourse on the status of African Americans within the professoriate almost certainly involves some exposition of the confluence of historical, sociopolitical, and cultural factors that has served to shape academe’s uneven landscape. This contextual perspective is necessary because it provides a basis for understanding, for example, why there is a paucity of African American PhDs in psychology; why there is a disparity between African American and Anglo American faculty at the assistant, associate, and full professor ranks; and why African American junior faculty experience excessively high turnover and burnout rates. In a very large way, these factors serve to inform the academic community regarding issues relevant to its majority and minority constituency.

If we begin by assuming that the lens through which we view various outcomes related to African American faculty (e.g., national percentages, promotion and tenure success, and extended faculty roles) has provided some contextual clarity, the prevailing framework is still one that suggests African Americans within the professoriate are passive participants. That is, within this framework, there exists a dominant view that African Americans are objects being acted upon by establishment foes, both visible and invisible. This epistemological view of African American faculty stigmatizes them as scarce, inadaptable, and overburdened. Having said this, we would be remiss if we did not acknowledge that African American faculty at predominantly White institutions (PWIs) are often besieged by what we term “indeclinable requests” to participate on departmental, college and university-wide committees focused on diversity. However, these requests are not representative of the burden experienced; instead, the failure to produce change is what eventually becomes burdensome.

We contend that rather than functioning as passive participants in academe, African American faculty are inherently active in that they possess agency and purpose. Hence, the burdens they experience are not necessarily the kinds that involve latent, hegemonic forces that cause paranoia, uncertainty, and academic paralysis, leading to an eventual demise associated with not receiving tenure or promotion. Instead, it is often the inherent responsibilities that accompany the role of the African American academician—such as the responsibility to transcend the limitations of one’s specific discipline in order to provide integrity perspectives—that function to tax the energies of this faculty. This includes first determining one’s place within psychology’s historical and racial landscape, and then educating and enlightening students and other faculty in order to move beyond the constraints and limitations of the discipline. For example, African American psychologists, historically, have never been psychologists in the strictest sense; a cursory examination of the literature reveals that African Americans who hold PhDs have been, and continue to be, part-anthropologist, part-sociologist, part-political scientist, part-

economist, as well as educator and social change agent. In order to provide counter-evidence to Western claims of Black inferiority (e.g., genetic and cultural inferiority), African Americans had to venture outside the sphere of psychology to provide a solid rationale accounting for relevancy, history, and social context and policy (for examples, see the works of Herman Canady, Horace Mann Bond, Kenneth & Mamie Clark, and James Bayton).

In addition to carrying the mantle of interdisciplinarian, contemporary African Americans in academic psychology seek to educate and enlighten others about the rich legacy of African American scholars and their contributions to a particular field, even when it is not necessarily popular to do so. These inherent responsibilities extend from fundamental cultural values related to honoring the tradition of elders in the field as well as remaining true to one's disciplinary roots, in spite of pressures to adopt more mainstream perspectives. Furthermore, African American academicians have accepted the responsibility of mentoring minority students—not just African Americans—at PWIs, and (a direct and positive result of 1954 and 1955 court decisions influenced in part by Kenneth and Mamie Clark's psychological research). This is best exemplified by African American psychology faculty who—irrespective of major discipline or area of expertise—decide to take on the unique responsibility of advising and mentoring unassigned minority students, as well as minority student groups, clubs, and organizations (e.g., Black student unions, sororities, and fraternities). Many African American faculty at PWIs readily accept this tremendous responsibility of mentoring all minority students and guiding their organizations, often without any recognition.

Framed by the perspective that African Americans within the professoriate possess a sense of agency and exhibit a unique communalistic disposition toward similar others, critical discourse is warranted. This sense of communalism is exemplified by the fact that African American faculty often give of themselves even though there is no materialistic or tangible gain for their services and commitments. Acknowledging this in our thinking about the role of African Americans in academe preserves the intellectual and cultural integrity of this group and begs for a new set of questions: First, how do we reconcile psychology's historical legacy in terms of race and gender with our current notions of agency; and second, how do we translate this dialectic tension into a pedagogy that benefits our students?

Reconciling Psychology's Past in Terms of Race and Gender

Over the course of the past 100 years, psychology, perhaps more so than any other scientific discipline, has been responsible for the translation of pseudoscientific laboratory research into a social discourse bent on the racial and cultural nihilism of those of African descent (e.g., Azibo, 1996; Harrell, 1999; Kambon, 1998). Although the degree to which psychology helped shape public policy and practice in the United States remains debatable, there is no question that the discipline played a principal role in the maintenance of Jim Crow laws and de facto segregation. As a consequence, psychology as a discipline has suffered a long series of indictments from leading African American scholars, most notably in Robert V. Guthrie's (2003) seminal work, *Even the Rat was White: A Historical View of Psychology*. Without providing a full explication, suffice it

to say that Guthrie expounds on the significance of cultural, institutional, and individual racism (Jones, 1972) within Western epistemological frameworks and reveals how it functions to undergird scientific inquiry, resulting in notions of Black inferiority. Scientific racism, or pseudoscience as others (e.g., Graves, 2000) have described it, remains the large elephant in the room when present-day scholars debate mental health, academic achievement, or the relevance of intelligence testing, to name just a few.

African Americans in academe grapple with notions of Black inferiority by attempting to resolve two successive and recurring crises. First, African American psychology faculty strive to reconcile their personal and shared histories with the history and progression of the discipline, and thus seek to redefine the terms by which these two opposing forces merge. Second, African American psychology faculty strive to empower their students by committing to a transformative pedagogy structured by the experiences of the preceding crisis. Conceptually speaking, many African American faculty endeavor to produce the dialectical tension that involves both conflicting and contradictory elements, so there is movement, progression, and transcendence. This means pushing the envelope and creating opportunities to engage issues introspectively; it also means having with others more meaningful conversations regarding the intersections between race and psychology. In many ways, African American faculty function as change agents because many of them are willing to experience the discomfort that arises from self-reflection, as well as open criticism and active marginalization from colleagues, in order to initiate a discourse that is essential to the progression of the discipline.

There is also an interesting dynamic to this reconciliation that is specific to African American women. To begin with, African American women in academic psychology not only have to contend with the discipline's historical legacy regarding race, they also have to struggle with a psychology that has historically deemphasized their contributions as women. Although there is merit to the argument that women in general have been marginalized and to some great degree continue to be undervalued within psychology (Billman-Mehecha, 2004), it should also be understood that when considering race, being an African American woman ultimately translates into a greater degree of invisibility. For instance, most psychology faculty would have little trouble recalling the names Mary Whiton Calkins and Margaret Washburn; fewer, however, would probably recognize the names Inez Prosser and Ruth Howard, both of whom were also trailblazers. What is more, African American women are confronted by an academic power structure that continues to essentialize them as being aggressive and hostile, and as a threat to the Anglo American male leadership structure (Niemann, Jennings, Rozelle, Baxter, & Sullivan, 1994). Therefore, as it would appear, reconciliation for African American women involves a complex negotiation of race, gender, and power.

Channeling this Tension into a Transformative Pedagogy

African Americans in academic psychology strive to make sense of their experiences in order to build pedagogical models that are not only progressive but also transformative. bell hooks (1994) wrote in *Teaching to Transgress* that "...teachers must be actively involved and committed to a process of self-actualization that promotes their own well-being if they are to teach in a manner that empowers students" (p.15). As active

participants in their own experiences, African Americans seek to gain a critical understanding of how race, gender, and power intersect with the historical legacy of psychology. In doing so, they construct a teaching lens, or perspective, that is focused on much more than achieving curriculum objectives; they essentially create opportunities for themselves and their students to engage in a “collaborative critical inquiry” of sociocultural issues (Cummins & Sayers, 1995, p.155).

Transformative pedagogy—defined by Cummins and Sayers (1995) as the utilization of critical inquiry to relate student experience to broader social issues and to promote them to take action—provides the framework through which many African American faculty engage their students. The primary use of this framework (and related others, such as teaching to transgress) by African American faculty centers on validating personal experience and accommodating diverse worldviews and perspectives. The capacity to approach social issues from multiple perspectives is the hallmark of any great academician and, among contemporary African Americans in academic psychology, represents a logical extension of the work of the elders who fashioned interdisciplinary hats (i.e., Herman Canady, Inez Prosser, Horace Mann Bond, and others).

So what happens when African Americans in academic psychology are not successful in producing a change that is beneficial for students? Our perspective is that African American faculty, being active participants in their own experiences, of course, adapt to their contexts. Nevertheless, in accepting their responsibility to educate students, African Americans still endeavor to push the envelope forward, in spite of this obstacle, in order to generate a discourse that also transforms and enlightens the burden. This method of instruction is not always popular with students who are resistant to change, and oftentimes results in backlash in the form of disrespect, animosity, and contempt in the classroom. Research shows that for African American woman, in particular, the backlash can be career-threatening. For example, African American women are significantly more likely than African American men to have lower student compliance ratings and receive lower scores on student evaluations of teaching, even in classrooms where they employ prosocial tactics that encourage students and elicit cooperation (Elias & Loomis, 2004). Thus, the cycle of two successive and recurring crises continues—reconciliation and commitment to a transformative pedagogy.

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The Only White Guy in the Room

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On September 11, 2001, I was at work when a colleague informed me of the events in New York and Washington, DC. Like many of us, I sat riveted in my office waiting for information and growing frustrated that Web sites were too jammed to load on my computer. As we learned more about what had happened, I thought about what would happen in class. I knew we would need to discuss the day’s events and how my students were feeling; I also hoped to relate the tragedy to course material. As a social psychologist who specializes in person perception and stereotypes, I anticipated a response similar to what was occurring in other parts of the country—elevated anti-Arab prejudice and harassment. I steeled myself to tolerate some mild expressions of hostility, but I planned to channel that frustration into a greater understanding of the psychology of aggression and vengeance. Instead, what I heard from many of my students caught me off guard. They showed a surprising level of understanding about the motives and actions of the terrorists, suggesting that when a powerful country asserts its will around the world, apparently without regard for the consequences to others, it should expect some angry and violent response.

Despite my years of education at integrated schools and teaching at historically Black universities, I failed to anticipate the degree to which my students could empathize with those who view the U.S. government as a persecutor. Although I am hardly the flag waver that many people became after 9/11, my students exceeded me in their level of cynicism about the true motives of our government. To them, many of whom had experienced racism on a regular basis and, almost unanimously, had seen evidence of systematic discrimination first-hand, the possibility that the U.S. could act more for self-interest than for the greater good was not only plausible, but likely. Like most teachers, I have learned a lot from my students, and their responses to 9/11 taught me that I had not been paying enough attention; had I been, I would have anticipated their response and been prepared for the class I met on September 12.

Despite Our Best Intentions...

I would not be happy in my position at a historically Black college/university if I were a modern racist who felt that prejudice is a thing of the past and that the playing field is level. Rather, I take some pride in knowing that I am working with many students whose families have historically been disadvantaged in terms of educational opportunities. I see myself as a partner in the struggle toward equality, helping to diversify future work forces and open closed minds. Yet I am continually surprised at the frequency with which my students encounter outright racism. One of my in-class activities involves asking students to identify ambiguous pieces of evidence that may lead us to label some people as racist

and assess the plausibility of other explanations for their behavior. In response, one student described an instance when a customer at the restaurant where she worked told her manager, “That n***** screwed up my order.” So much for ambiguity. My students tell me that such overt examples of blatant racism are noteworthy but hardly rare. When I once asked my students what would help White professors better identify with Black students, one told me that we should have a “day in the life,” where White professors shadow Black students. Although most of us certainly pride ourselves on egalitarian norms, the resulting revelations would probably preach to the choir. Still they would certainly be enlightening—disturbing, but enlightening.

I occasionally expressed to a former colleague of mine—an African American woman at a school where about 75% of our students are also African American women—jealousy at her ability to identify with students on a level I am unable to attain, no matter how sensitive and empathic I might be. We frequently discussed issues of race, and she, like my students, educated me about issues I had not always recognized. For example, she expressed frustration at frequently having to move out of the way of White people approaching her on the sidewalk. However, she is still a critical thinker who evaluates such experiences through a scientific lens. Apparently, her education and status do not convince others that she has as much a right to the sidewalk as they do. It’s an annoyance to her—certainly not on par with job discrimination or physical harassment—but one that most White people will not encounter on a regular basis.

When my colleague announced that she was leaving our university, I asked her what she thought of me teaching her Black Psychology class. I had, after all, taught Stereotyping and Prejudice to an all-Black class. In response, she graciously shot down that possibility; she had promised her students that, if she could help it, only an African American would teach the course. I was surprised by her reaction, because I believe one of my strengths is identifying with students, even though we don’t share a racial category or similar life experiences. Still, I understood that although our courses share many common characteristics (e.g., focus on the scientific method), a Black Psychology course involves coverage of important and sensitive issues, and my daily presence likely would inhibit discussion. Although students generally respond favorably to my teaching and probably would appreciate my occasional contribution to Black Psychology, a course that addresses the struggles of Black students requires consideration I cannot regularly provide.

Active Efforts to Connect

Although I will not be teaching Black Psychology, I try hard to understand fully my students’ experiences. I have studied much of the material that Black Psychology courses cover, because it inspires my research and because it helps me become a better teacher. I have also made a point of studying the literature on racial variability, which may inform my work with students. Although most people reading this essay probably have only a minority of African American students, I think we would all agree that giving our students equal levels of empathy, sympathy, and opportunity is essential. Below are a few key theories for understanding the experiences of many Black students.

Racial Identity. Through the study of racial identity, recent research has focused on diversity among African Americans. One of my students' most common statements is that, in situations where they were the only African American, they were expected to represent the "Black Perspective" on an issue. Just as White people may think about their race to varying degrees, Black people also differ in their emphasis on, and consideration of, race. Racial identity research has explored that variation. Whereas many White perceivers fail to distinguish among skin tones in Black targets, numerous researchers (e.g., Russell, Wilson, & Hall, 1992) have discussed "color complex" as a source of ingroup evaluation among African Americans. Many identity theorists (e.g., Parham & Helms, 1985) consider racial identity to be a developmental construct, such that Black people begin by adopting a Eurocentric worldview and adhering to negative stereotypes about their own race. Upon exposure to Black history and culture, they begin to question their existing worldviews and eventually immerse themselves in Afrocentric issues, essentially reversing their basic anti-Black perspective to one that is pro-Black and anti-White. Finally, according to the theory, people enter a more balanced and positive stage, where they value the good things about being Black, but not through adopting an anti-White perspective. More recently, the Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity (Sellers, Smith, Shelton, Rowley, & Chavous, 1998) addressed racial identity less as a developmental process and more as a personality variable with relatively stable characteristics. Although each of the racial identity perspectives emphasizes the value in differentiating Black identity from White identity, they also emphasize that Black students may be at very different stages of identity development or hold different perspectives about being Black.

Attributional Ambiguity. As I mentioned above, many potential encounters with racism are ambiguous; many, however, are not. Some research in attributional ambiguity—the question of whether an action is motivated by racism—generally assumes that a person's intent is irrelevant; that is, racism's impact is in the mind of the target. Still other research has examined what occurs when people see racism as more or less prevalent in their world. Unfortunately, there is not a clear picture of which perspective is most adaptive. For some time, conventional wisdom held that attributing behavior to prejudice was a form of external attribution that was self-protective and beneficial to well-being (Crocker, Voelkl, Testa, & Major, 1991). Other studies, however (e.g., Branscombe, Schmitt, & Harvey, 1999), have questioned this assertion, suggesting that such attributions are maladaptive. Specifically, they perpetuate the belief that racism still pervades and that the system is hopeless. From both perspectives, racial identity appears to be a buffer against the harmful effects either of seeing an experience as the simple-minded action of a bigot or as a sign that the world hasn't learned to treat people fairly. Our students may implicitly or explicitly grapple with the question of when to confront questionable behavior and when to let it go—even if our behavior is unintentionally questionable.

Other Group and Individual Difference Variables. Additional constructs are especially relevant to Black populations and reveal a great deal about the experience of being Black. Most of us have read some of the compelling literature demonstrating stereotype threat as a partial explanation of race differences in test performance (e.g., Steele & Aronson, 1995). Many psychologists outside of historically Black colleges/universities, however,

are unfamiliar with the notion of John Henryism (e.g., James, Hartnett, & Kalsbeek, 1983), whereby some African Americans engage in active coping by working especially hard to compensate for others' negative expectations. Still other research has focused on basic aspects of learning, showing that what may function as a reinforcer for many White children (e.g., "Nice job, son") may not function as a reinforcer for Black children. Just as many teaching experts advocate understanding students' learning styles, we all have a responsibility to understand Black students' thinking styles and perspectives.

Black Students are Different, but Black Students are the Same

Although they may seem to be contradictory notions, the differences between Black students and others and the differences among Black students themselves are important to consider simultaneously. If our goal is to make sure that we treat our students of color with the same respect and consideration as we do our other students, then we must appreciate how their experiences have differed from White students' experiences and also how they differ from one another. Although the Afrocentric perspective is different from the Eurocentric perspective (it is more collectivistic and less dominant, among other things), not all Black students adopt the same perspective, and it is an insult to assume they do. As a White professor of Black students, I see my challenge as being aware of between-group variability and within-group variability and incorporating that awareness into my relationships with students. They have shown me the respect of not assuming that my experiences have been like theirs or that I am just like other White people they have known. I owe them the same respect.

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Seeking Socrates' Similes
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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 2005.)

For the past 15 years, my academic appointment has been with the Arizona State University at the West Campus (ASUW) Department of Integrative Studies. A Noah's Ark principle guided our faculty recruitment: Our department has two astronomers, two mathematicians, two philosopher-ethicists, and two social scientists, with me as token psychologist. The curriculum includes interdisciplinary core requirements and a concentration that students construct in consultation with their faculty advisors. Annually, we assess the writing portfolios of our graduates and then spend the next semester crafting more coherent linkages for course subject matter. Our alumni now number over 300, and include law school and master's and doctoral program graduates across a variety of (inter)disciplines.

Our core requirements emphasize critical reading and writing skills, critical thinking dispositions, information competencies, amiable problem solving, and an understanding of diversity and ethical citizenship across many dimensions. In an American Association of Colleges and Universities monograph, Julie Thompson Klein (1999), a scholar of interdisciplinary studies, affirmed our program as one of four national exemplars for educating students with a new epistemology for the 21st century. We articulate this epistemology in courses such as "Multicultural Autobiographies" (see McGovern, 2001) and "Psychology, Multicultural Narratives, and Religion," which is in a new core category requested by students called "Secular and Sacred Worldviews."

As someone whose scholarly interests are on the history, program development, and evaluation of innovative psychology undergraduate education (McGovern, 1993, 2004; McGovern & Brewer, 2003, 2005; McGovern, Furumoto, Halpern, Kimble, & McKeachie, 1991), the opportunity to construct an interdisciplinary program has been a rare privilege. At many institutions, teaching interdisciplinary courses is relegated to summer school offerings, or they become add-ons to regular assignments. For the first 7 years of our new department's life, we co-taught every new core course with one or more colleagues. For instance, I played "second chair" to a philosopher in a course called "Moral Dilemmas" and "first chair" to an astronomer in "Human Experience," in which we built an historical reading list of 19th century women scientists' narratives as precursors of 20th century memoirs. A reflective practitioner ethos served us well over the years, as we contrasted each others' pedagogies and continually tried to integrate divergent subject matter.

My department believes in the continuing integration of faculty scholarship and teaching assignments. It is an ideal environment in which faculty members can expand the boundaries of their original scholarly expertise by weaving into their courses the content

and pedagogy of writing across the curriculum, feminist studies, or ethnic studies, for example. Other faculty have developed expertise in entirely different disciplinary areas and constructed creative interdisciplinary syntheses. Moreover, our personnel policies reward publishing innovative scholarship in nontraditional places. For example, the astronomer in our department now teaches and writes on science, religion, and art. My path led back to studies in literature and religion, as in my undergraduate days, but now merged with narrative psychology. With that contextual introduction, I turn to the specific topic of this essay and offer a narrative about one academic career.

Whenever I teach Introductory Psychology, Erikson and Erikson's (1997) life cycle theory generates intuitive and optimistic appeal with students because of its focus on identity issues. In fact, this focus on identity issues led Lawrence Friedman (1999) to title his biography of Erik Erikson "Identity's Architect." Identity issues always seem salient to most students, whatever their respective ages. Talking with colleagues in the Society for the Teaching of Psychology, I suspect that many, if asked to describe the facets of their adult identities, would list the term "teacher" more than any other. The more I re-read Erikson's original texts, the more I appreciate his interdisciplinary perspectives on human development.

Dan McAdams, the personality psychologist who directs the Foley Center for the Study of Adult Lives at Northwestern University, extended Erikson's epigenetic theory, empirically demonstrating that we first create the themes or ideologies of our personal stories during adolescence. Findings in cognitive science on autobiographical memory, as well as my own study of the literary criticism of life narratives, suggest that we remember, revise, and add to these stories constantly. McAdams (2001) proposed that adult identity can be understood as an anthology of stories that we constantly edit and from which we extract ever-new meanings. His most recent research (e.g., McAdams & Logan, 2004) focuses on the generativity stage. My interdisciplinary work in teaching and writing about multicultural autobiographies confirms that, during the generativity period, crafting and editing our anthologies are very important.

When I consider my own anthology of teaching stories, I find it helpful to use Socrates' similes to map the developmental sequence of an academic career with its crises and turning points. I borrowed this organizing metaphor from Hannah Arendt's (1971) essay, "Thinking and Moral Considerations," in which she recalled the similes used by Plato to describe Socrates—midwife, gadfly, and electric eel.

During my thirties, in my first academic appointment at Virginia Commonwealth University, I saw my role in a counseling psychology doctoral program as that of an empathic midwife. I worked to bring forth in my students affective and cognitive insights in courses on personality theory, group counseling and psychotherapy, and vocational development. Having been trained as a psychotherapist, my classroom work drew on these skills, and I gave much more attention to teaching processes than to actual content or subject matter. The chair of my department, a statistician, had evaluated my graduate transcripts and commented that my scientific training merited the receipt of a "PhD light." However, he did predict that, with a baccalaureate from a Jesuit university, I probably could think and write and hold my own in discussions at faculty meetings.

In my forties, I mixed teaching with increasing administrative responsibilities as a department chair and director of undergraduate studies. I eventually moved to the provost's office to construct a university assessment program and help reform general education across campus. In the 1990s, the new interdisciplinary undergraduate program at ASUW captured my time and energies. All of these tasks prompted a turn towards the role of gadfly. Teaching large introductory psychology classes, I stressed primarily cognitive outcomes. In seminars on psychology and religious experiences, I probed and jostled with students' certainties. Tussling with faculty about labor-intensive strategies for the assessment of student learning outcomes and then with a state regents board about post-tenure personnel policies complemented the gadfly persona.

To mark that wonderful life cycle event of turning 50, a rare neurological illness, Guillain Barre Syndrome, paralyzed me. Forty-eight hours after doing a National Science Foundation workshop for psychology faculty, I was enrolled (passive voice is apt here!) as a new student in a postdoctoral, highly experiential curriculum that included courses such as "intensive care," "in-patient physical and occupational therapy," and "out-patient rehabilitation for activities of daily living skills." I was exiled from campus for an entire year and left permanently disabled with residual damage to the peripheral nervous system. Socrates' electric eel became a poignant metaphor. However, there were immeasurable benefits from being stopped dead in my tracks in the autumn stages of an academic career.

When I was paralyzed and in the hospital for the equivalent of two semesters, I had no control or sense of agency about even the most basic motor skills. I was dependent on others for every facet of my physical well-being. The condition directly affected my thoughts and feelings about who I was, what to do from moment-to-moment and then week-to-week, and who I could hope to become when this unanticipated trauma abated. I was forced to suspend my business as usual, listen to everyone more carefully, and appreciate elegantly new sensations and perceptions. Mundane phenomenology became fascinating, not only as I did my intellectual gymnastics, but also for the aesthetics of heretofore unseen, unheard, untouched, unfelt beauty. The Pulitzer Prize winning playwright, Jonathan Larson, posed a good question in his play about the experiences of AIDS patients: How do you measure a year? 525,600 minutes!

As I prepared to return to teaching 400 days after feeling the first sensations of paralysis, I tried to weave my illness and rehabilitation experiences into the anthology of stories that included vocational identity. My reflections about losing my independence echoed the stories I heard from new students every academic year. I now understood profoundly why adult and first-generation college students felt de-skilled and dependent when they ventured into the new territories of our intellectual preserves. As scholar-teachers, we state intellectual goals in multiple discourses without translating their common denominators or the reasons why they are different. We prescribe reading and writing treatment plans based on idiosyncratic preferences without offering contexts or alternative pathways. We establish authority as our students' sole guide as they navigate through a maze of conflicting choices. We demand regularity according to our schedules and expect our students' consistent performance according to our life's regimen.

Socrates' electric eel is a rich metaphor. Arendt's (1971) analysis taught me that teachers and learners can be stopped dead in their tracks by the power of an idea, not just an event. We are stunned, rendered motionless, and must grapple directly with what hit us. We can do nothing, but we still can think and feel and savor all that is past, present, and yet to come. When our capacity to move returns, we will renew our sense of agency. Happily, we are never the same because that teaching and learning moment lingers as we once more move hands and legs and mouth in deliberate and purposeful directions. After crises in academic life, we often have the wherewithal and the blessings of a collegial community to return to teach again. Similarly, when students' semesters are over, they eventually return to learn again, and, hopefully, this pattern will repeat itself at other times and in other places.

It's been 8 years since my encounter with the electric eel. The chronic pain and fatigue from residual neurological damage are permanent reminders. The account became a good case study for the section on disabling conditions that I now include in my "Multicultural Autobiographies" course. Like McAdams' (2001) life story model of identity, the episode is remembered and its meanings revised as part of my anthology. One of its most powerful narrative themes remains—Seeking Socrates' Similes.

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Reflecting on Teaching Reading and Writing in 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 June 2005.)

In a way, these reflections began with *Anna Karenina* (Tolstoy, 1877/2000), not Anna O. (see Breuer, 1989)—in other words, with Tolstoy, not Freud—or any other psychologist, for that matter. Let me explain. In the fall of 2001, I taught a seminar on the psychology of self. As part of the seminar, my students read *The Fall of a Sparrow*, a contemporary novel by Robert Hellenga, who is professor emeritus of English at Knox College in Galesburg, IL.

Some colleagues and I invited Hellenga to campus to do a reading, sign books, and visit classes. A few of us got to know him at a dinner party the night he arrived. Talk turned to teaching, students, and books—books that we all like to read—and, of course, how Hellenga and, by extension, all of us sitting around the table managed to write (or not). Hellenga spoke about his reading and what he does when he gets stuck writing: He cracks open *Anna Karenina* (Tolstoy, 1877/2000) and reads whatever random page or passage he comes upon. He claims that doing so always inspires him to get back to writing.

During that dinner, I began to wonder: What are students’ attitudes toward reading and writing? As teachers, what are our attitudes toward these activities? What should we be emulating in our own reading and writing or in the work habits we urge our students to adopt?

“I may be a man of fairly wide reading, but I retain nothing.” Michel de Montaigne, *On Books*

What reading and writing do students do? To address this question, I will rely on some published data from the national biannual surveys from UCLA’s Higher Education Research Institute (HERI; Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 2000). Here are some snippets from the HERI survey:

1. Where writing ability is concerned, there is a Lake Woebegone effect: 45.9% of the polled students rated themselves as above average.
2. Relatively few students (less than 6%) have had remedial work in English, reading, or writing; but more students (10.8%) feel the need for remedial writing.
3. Electronic mail is often used, as are the Internet and the personal computer. Therefore, we can assume some facility with a keyboard, if not writing in general.
4. Some students (14.7%) believe that writing original works—poems, novels, short stories, and the like—constitute an essential or very important objective.

5. Much student time is spent watching television each week (3 to 5 hours viewing is the mode, but I can't help feeling this is an underestimate). By comparison, little time is spent reading for pleasure. Almost 25% of first-year students did no pleasure reading each week; in contrast, less than 6% watched no TV.

What can we conclude? If most first-year students do not read for pleasure, how likely is it that assigned course reading is greeted with any enthusiasm? What is surprising, however, is the size of the self-serving bias about first-year students' writing: Many routinely assume their writing skills are quite good. Would most of us agree?

Reading and Writing: What Are Faculty Doing?

"It's easy, after all, not to be a writer. Most people aren't writers, and very little harm comes to them." Julian Barnes, *Flaubert's Parrot*

What are college-level teachers doing when it comes to reading and writing? Here are observations drawn from Sax, Astin, Korn, and Gilmartin (1999). (These data represent 4-year institutions; 2-year school data are also available in this HERI report.) Sax et al. did not highlight reading activities per se; rather, they focused on writing, although we can assume that reading is a part of scholarship.

1. Most of us (88.5%) identify our principle activity as teaching.
2. When asked how much time per week was spent on research and scholarly writing, the most frequent response (31%) was between 1 and 4 hours.
3. Writing occurs often via e-mail (just over 80% use it daily), and research (broadly defined) is now done over the Internet (only 18.2% reported they never do Internet-based research).
4. Many faculty have never written a book (52%) or a book chapter (46.7%); however, most (over 83%) have published an article.
5. A sobering statistic: Only 37.4% of the teaching faculty assign research or term papers (the data do not indicate if other types of writing are assigned instead).
6. Only about 17% of teachers require multiple drafts of written work from students.
7. Do faculty feel pressure to publish? Yes—61% of the respondents felt a distinct pressure to publish.

Do these findings encourage you to reflect on your reading and writing habits? Do you feel you are reading enough? Are you writing enough?

Reading and Writing: Teaching by Doing

"Consider Freud, Lewin, and Skinner—among the most important figures in psychology. Some of their papers are awkward, incoherent, and inconsequential. But we honor their good papers. I am sure that none of these individuals set out to write classic papers. They simply wrote." Christopher Peterson, *Writing Rough Drafts*

Thoughts on Reading. We should encourage students to read more—but how? First, we must encourage students to read interesting materials by actually requiring them to do so. Second, we must set an example for our students. If you are discussing depression, for

example, suggest Styron's (1990) *Darkness Visible*; if manic depression is the topic, suggest Redfield Jamison's (1995) *An Unquiet Mind*. Talk about the books you are currently reading or just read. Use these books to illustrate issues in your classes. Pepper your lectures or class discussions with examples from them. I routinely tell students to write down my book recommendations in their notes (hope springs eternal).

Do you incorporate novels, short stories, or nonfiction works into your teaching? If not, consider adding literature or a nonfiction work to your class. I've done so on several occasions with considerable success. Students enjoy discussing psychological issues when they appear within the context provided by stories. One problem I have noticed, however, is that unless they are veterans of several English classes or are already voracious readers, typical psychology students are not used to reading literature. Thus, we must provide concrete guidance about how to read novels or other literary works. One way to accomplish this feat is to tell students how you read a book. For example, do you ask questions of yourself and the author as you go along? Or do you only draw conclusions when you finish reading?

After all, reading is a personal activity. Why not take the time to explain to your students how you read, identifying your habits and your quirks? I am a sucker for a pretty book jacket, so I often pick up books that way. I always read all of the critics' (uniformly positive) comments, any "about the author" notes, the preface or foreword, and the epigraph. Do you write in the margins of your books? If so, tell your students it is alright to do so, that marking up a book is a way to have a dialogue with the author (see Jackson, 2001).

Students should always be reading. I remember when I was an undergraduate, I heard the president of Smith College say how important it was for students to read other things besides their class work. This president's happy assumption was that, of course students were reading things besides their assigned work. This was a revelation to me, and I've never looked back; my nightstand always contains a pile of books.

Where readings in psychology are concerned, I think undergraduate psychology programs should consider developing the equivalent of graduate-level major reading lists (without the accompanying qualifying exams). Departments should identify a set of important sources in psychology—classic and contemporary—that all majors should know and then work to spread these readings throughout the psychology curriculum.

Teaching students to read broadly and thoughtfully is important work. As one student wrote to me after my fall 2001 class, "To be perfectly honest with you, *The Fall of the Sparrow* (Hellenga, 1999) and *Being There* (Kosinski, 1999) were the first books I ever actually enjoyed reading." I was delighted and horrified at this candor. As teachers, we have much to do.

How can you encourage your students to write more often? Some straightforward suggestions include having them write other things besides or in addition to research or

term papers, including: (a) short expository essays on psychological topics, (b) critiques of published articles, (c) book reviews, (d) interpretations of novels from a psychological perspective, (e) multiple drafts of papers (students need to learn that writing is a process that can always be improved), and (f) posters based on research projects carried out for a class (for suggestions on writing and writing projects, see Dunn, 1999, 2001, 2004).

What about you? Do you write enough? Do you want to write more? To enhance the frequency and quality of your own writing:

1. Buy a journal or notebook in which to record your daily observations.
2. Agree to write book reviews for academic journals or library publications.
3. Consider writing Op-Ed pieces for the APA Science Directorate.
4. Write an article on teaching for Teaching of Psychology.
5. If your institution publishes an alumni magazine, offer to write a piece on the Psychology department, you and your research, or some psychological topic that will appeal to alumni.
6. Write a history of your school's psychology program.
7. Write a lab manual or other pedagogical document for a course (or courses) you teach.

In Closing

To become better readers and writers, should we, like Robert Hellenga, consult *Anna Karenina* (Tolstoy, 1877/2000)? Perhaps. Many Russian novels from the 19th century are full of deep psychological portrayals. I do know this: I tell my students about Tolstoy's way with words. I also tell them about what I am currently reading and writing. I encourage you to do the same. Arouse their curiosity by sharing your passion for reading broadly and writing frequently.

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The Real Test: Making Exams Fun

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Most students say that one of the worst things in college is taking exams. What if we could take this highly stressful aspect of college life and turn it into something less dreadful, less anxiety producing, and yet still maintain our academic standards? If we could convince students that the entire educational process, including assessment, can be pleasurable, what harm can come? Why make tests enjoyable or fun you might ask? Well, for one, research suggests this is a good idea: Berk (2000), for example, found that using exam humor is helpful in reducing students’ anxiety (see also McMorris, Urbach, & Connor, 1985; Smith, Ascough, Ettinger, & Nelson, 1971).

Of course, there are other ways to make exams less stressful, such as giving good study guides; writing good, clear questions that are linked to items on the study guides; and evaluating students’ work fairly. These will certainly decrease students’ anxiety, and although they might not enjoy taking our tests, they will certainly have fewer reasons to be anxious.

But still, wouldn’t it be nice to see students smiling instead of grimacing, laughing instead of crying while working on an exam? Indeed, during my tests, students often laugh out loud or work hard to keep themselves from doing so. They often respond to exams with statements like “I actually enjoyed this test,” “It was so much less stressful than I thought it would be,” and “I never thought I would laugh all the way through an exam.”

Below I describe some ways I incorporate humor, encourage good test-taking skills, and in general make exams less stressful for students. Be forewarned, however; most of my suggestions are goofy. Also, I don’t use every idea on every exam; I space them out over the exams in all my courses.

Extra Credit Embedded in Instructions

Usually on the first exam of the semester, I embed an extra credit opportunity in the instructions. The purpose of this is to reward students for carefully reading the instructions. For example, after providing some general instructions, I might add a sentence that reads: If you have read this far, fill in “a” on number 50 of your Scantron sheet for an extra credit point.

Easy First Questions

I start some tests with an incredibly easy first question, a “gimme,” for which the correct

answer is obvious. This immediately gives students a reason to relax because they know that two points are already in the bag. Here is one example:

The name of this course is:

- a. Accounting Theories
- b. Masochism 101
- c. Engineering Principles
- d. Personality

I do not think the first question necessarily has to be a gimme. Instead, it could be an actual exam question, but one that is really easy rather than either moderate or difficult. This would still serve the purpose of putting students at ease.

Funny “e” Answers

As a cost- and pain-free way to add some enjoyment to an exam, I often put humorous answers as choice “e.” I also make sure to state in the instructions that “e” is never the best answer. This keeps me out of trouble on rare occasions when students actually select “e” for the answer. That, too, becomes a reminder to student always to read the instructions. Again, here is an example:

Freud’s stages were in what order?

- a. oral, anal, phallic, genital
- b. oral, anal, genital, phallic
- c. anal, oral, genital, phallic
- d. genital, phallic, anal, oral
- e. your Taco Bell order

“Bubba” Questions

My source for “Bubba” questions is Jeff Foxworthy’s “You might be a redneck...” material. However, I think Bubba is funnier than redneck, so I use that. I typically put two or three Bubba questions on a 50-question exam. Here is an example:

According to the DSM, you might be a Bubba if:

- a. someone asks to see your ID and you show him your belt buckle.
- b. you’ve driven over 100 miles to look at a hog.
- c. you see no reason to stop at a rest area because you have an empty milk jug in the car.
- d. your mother does not remove the Marlboro Light from her lips before telling the highway trooper to kiss her a--.

I tell students there are no wrong answers on Bubba questions, that whatever option they choose will earn two points. I have, on occasion, forgotten to tell students this, and it really stressed out a few of them; it was especially stressful for international students who had absolutely no idea what I was talking about.

Students really like the Bubba questions, and although it might seem that I am

significantly inflating test scores by including these and other free questions, the average score on a 50-question exam that includes five Bubba questions will only be 1% to 2% higher than the average score on a 45-question exam that does not include them. To me, the benefits of having happier, more relaxed students far outweigh a bit of grade inflation. Additionally, because there is always error in testing, including these questions might help to offset it a little.

Now, you might be thinking, Bubba questions could be offensive to some students, and you might be right. But let me tell you how I can get away with this, whereas you might not: I am Bubba. That's right, I am Bubba. I was raised on a farm in Montana by a scrawny, old cowboy and a tough-as-nails, old broad whose raspy voice betrays the two packs of unfiltered Camels she smoked every day for as long as I can remember. They have their names on the backs of their belts in case we forget who they are, and when we were kids, those belts were readily employed if we strayed from the path of redneck righteousness. Yes, this is my family, and this is why I can have Bubba questions on my exams.

Dr. (Your Name Here) Questions

These are other gimme questions that can be used instead of, or in addition to, Bubba questions. They probably are not as entertaining, but students still enjoy them. Here is an example:

Who is funnier than Dr. Burke?

- a. No one
- e. Dr. Durr
- e. Dr. Nelson
- e. Dr. Nicks

As you can see, I sometimes include my colleagues' names in the questions. (You would need to have good-humored colleagues to get away with this, of course.) Notice that in this example, the alternate choices are all "e" answers, which students who have read the instructions know are incorrect.

Student Names/Scenarios in Questions

I regularly include students' names in exam questions. Although these questions sometimes include information a student has shared in class, usually they contain completely or mostly fabricated scenarios. Here is an example of such a question:

After paying for 6 years of tuition, Jason's parents hope he will graduate soon. They have offered him \$1000 if he graduates at the end of this year. Jason's parents are using _____ conditioning to motivate him.

- a. classical
- b. operant
- c. two-factor
- d. humanistic

e. futile

In my psychopathology course, I occasionally use student names in questions about disorders. I do this both to personalize the test questions and to help remove the stigma associated with mental disorders. A disclaimer in the instructions reminds students that the situations described in the exam questions are hypothetical and that if I knew a student had a particular disorder, I certainly would not include it in the test. Although there is still a bit of risk involved, I have been doing it for years without objections, and, in fact, students have commented that it was “cool” to see their names in the test. Further, I try to include each student’s name in at least one question by the end of the semester.

Extra Credit for Reading All Multiple-Choice Responses

Students often stop reading the choices on multiple-choice exams once they think they have found the right answer. Because this can be detrimental, I encourage students to read all the choices by putting an extra credit opportunity on choice “d.” For example, choice “d” might read: If you’ve read this far, fill in “a” on number 51 for one extra credit point.

I usually put these extra credit opportunities in questions that have several long choices, so that students are rewarded for reading all in a series of complicated responses. If they fail to read each choice, and therefore do not get the extra credit, I point out their error when we go over the exam. Hopefully, those students will read all the responses on future exams.

Fun Last Question

I always make the last question on each exam a fun one. Sometimes it is a “Dr. Burke” question, sometimes it is about students, and sometimes it is about things that have happened in class. For example:

So far, my favorite thing in class has been:

- a. milking a goat at the Mid-South Fair for extra credit.
- b. finding my anima.
- c. the story about the boat coming loose from Bob and Rosie’s truck.
- d. the day Dr. Burke broke the projector when she tried to kill a fly.

After the Exam

I think students should take their time on exams and really do their best job. Therefore, every once in a while, if I have some extra gum in my briefcase (I use gum as an incentive during class exercises), I will give the last few students taking a test a pack of gum. Usually they are overachieving and stressed out, their hands hurt from writing essays, and they are worried they are taking too long. Giving them gum lightens things up a bit and encourages them to take their time. This also lets them know that I want them to stay and do as well as they can.

I also reward students who can guess their exam scores. On the day I hand back exams, I tell students the grade range, standard deviation, and mean exam score. I then tell them I will give them an extra credit point if they can use this information to guess their scores. If a student guesses his or her score exactly, I add one point to the exam. Usually one or two students guess their scores, although the record is five students.

What Do Students Think?

To find out how students feel about incorporating humor into my exams, I surveyed two sections of my psychopathology course immediately after their first exam and asked them how the test compared to other college tests they had taken.

Overall, students reported that they found the exam more enjoyable, less stressful, funnier, and more related to its study guide than most exams. Now, in case you were thinking that my exams with their extra questions must be really easy, students did not report feeling this way: Most agreed that it was as difficult as their other tests. Moreover, the average score on the exam was 79%.

I also asked students about how their stress levels were affected by the humorous test questions. Students overwhelmingly stated that humorous questions reduced their stress and that these items were not distracting.

Conclusion

I doubt students actually look forward to my tests, but I am confident they are not as intimidated as they were before I started incorporating humor. Although I imagine most readers of this column might not incorporate these particular suggestions, perhaps this discussion has sparked other, better ideas. I believe it is our job to show students that the entire learning process, including testing, can be enjoyable.

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Teachers of Psychology, Keepers of Psychology

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In the past century and a quarter, psychology as a discipline has evolved in ways that would probably surprise Wilhelm Wundt and shock E. B. Titchener. Moreover, the ways psychologists teach would undoubtedly astonish Harry Kirke Wolfe. In this essay, I describe how changes in psychology over the past century have led to fragmentation of our discipline and that teachers of psychology have been responsible for maintaining unity in psychology, to the extent that it exists. Further, I discuss how the rise of regional teaching conferences, starting with the Mid-America Conference for Teachers of Psychology (MACTOP), has had enormous impact in maintaining psychology’s coherence: The proliferation of teaching conferences and other venues for teachers has had the ameliorating effect of bringing together psychologists with diverse backgrounds. Such gatherings have kept teachers with different specialties and backgrounds talking to one another.

Unity in Psychology: Then and Now

The only time psychology was a unified discipline was in 1879, when Wilhelm Wundt opened the first psychology laboratory. By the time the American Psychological Association (APA) held its first convention in 1892, however, there were already controversies and theoretical divisions.

The first real attempt to sequester experimental psychology from the broader discipline occurred when Titchener formed the Society of Experimental Psychologists (SEP) in 1904. In addition to SEP, other groups, including the Psychological Round Table (PRT) and the Gesellschaft für Unendlich Versuch (Society for Endless Research [GUV]), subsequently formed in the United States.

These groups still exist, although they seem to be more like fraternities than professional organizations. Although their members were not happy with APA’s stewardship of psychology, the formation of these groups did little to fragment psychology further. As one former member of PRT noted, the activity of PRT was silly, “but it was just so much damn fun” (Reber, personal communication, June 24, 2004).

More recently, organizations such as the Psychonomic Society, founded in 1959, and the American Psychological Society (APS), founded in 1988, emerged because their members were unhappy with the direction that psychology was taking. Although APS was initially successful in attracting members, its membership seems to have reached a plateau. It probably formed too late to prevent the tumble of psychologists toward specialty groups.

These varied groups may have reflected a fragmentation of psychology, but I do not believe they had much impact on the discipline. Why did these organizations, which included many prominent psychologists, have so little impact on the discipline?

First, these groups were intentionally kept small. For example, members were “superannuated” (i.e., expelled) when they reached the age of 40 (Benjamin, 1977). Second, they were elitist. Acceptance into these groups was by nomination of other members only. Third, some of these groups were sexist. SEP, for example, was exclusively male during Titchener’s lifetime, because he felt that women were too sensitive to criticism and that men would not be able to smoke their cigars in the presence of women. Similarly, PRT had no specific restrictions against women, but its members believed that there were no qualified, female, experimental psychologists (Benjamin, 1977). Fourth, these organizations tended to be shadowy. For instance, traces of PRT and GUV are scant, and PRT members were encouraged not to make their membership public. Finally, these groups were inward looking. From my perspective as a nonmember, these groups seemed to be well-satisfied with themselves and did not see the need to change as psychology attracted more women and more people with clinical or applied interests.

Although these groups aimed to shape psychology in their images, they are little more than interesting footnotes in the history of psychology. Their members have contributed greatly to the psychological literature, but as a discipline, psychology has marched along without regard to their desires.

The Real Threat to Psychology’s Unity

The real threat to psychology has been specialty groups. Initially, specialty groups such as the American Association of Clinical Psychologists and the Association of Consulting Psychologists posed little threat to psychology’s unity. Beginning in the 1930s, however, the threat became reality. The Society for Research in Child Development (SRCD) and the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues (SPSSI) began attracting psychologists. Although SPSSI is now a division of APA (Division 9), it was initially independent of APA. Similarly, the Society for Personality and Social Psychology (SPSP), like a number of societies, joined APA’s divisional structure in 1947 but has continued to assert its independence. Although it was not their goal, many of these societies engendered some fragmentation in psychology. For instance, even though SRCD’s membership includes many psychologists, those psychologists who do research on children seem more likely to identify professionally with SRCD than with APA. As we now know, many psychologists have forgone APA membership in favor of membership in their own specialty groups. Consequently, this fragmentation has resulted in a lack of communication across many subspecialties.

How Teachers of Psychology Enter the Picture

I see one haven for unity in psychology, and that is among teachers. The various teaching conferences and regional psychological associations still bring psychologists with a broad

range of interests and expertise together. This was not a foregone conclusion; rather it is a contingent fact of history that depended on the confluence of certain activities by specific people.

In the early 1980s, the division of APA on Teaching (Division 2, subsequently renamed the Society for the Teaching of Psychology [STP]) became a significant institution in psychology. For the first 25 or so years of its existence, STP was not particularly vigorous in advancing teaching issues; in fact, it is not clear that STP was particularly vigorous in much of anything. For instance, Floyd Ruch, who served twice as STP's president (in 1947 and 1962) remarked that he had forgotten that he had been president in 1947 (Wight & Davis, 1992). Moreover, when I first became active in STP in 1986, Bill McKeachie was the only pre-1980 president who was still active. If we examine two 15-year periods—1971 to 1985 and 1989 to 2003—we can see a striking difference in level of activity by past presidents: In 1986, 4 past presidents from the previous 15 years were still active in STP; in the subsequent 15 years, 10 to 12 presidents still have a presence. STP presidents no longer just come and go.

Whereas the early years of STP were not marked by vigorous advancement of teaching issues, the 1980s were right for the development teaching initiatives, and one person in particular served as a major catalyst for significant movement. In 1984, Joe Palladino established the Mid America Conference for Teachers of Psychology (MACTOP), which provided teachers, mostly from undergraduate institutions, the opportunity to meet and discuss issues related to the teaching of psychology. MACTOP existed from 1984 to 2002 and featured over 300 presentations, which is an average of 16 hour-long presentations per meeting. Sixteen hours is more time than APA devoted to teaching at the entire 1986 APA convention.

I think MACTOP was important for two reasons. First, the stand-alone teaching conferences that sprang up in its wake have kept psychologists together. Where would have teachers of psychology gathered to discuss teaching if MACTOP and other, similar conferences didn't exist? They probably wouldn't have gone anywhere. MACTOP attendees generally came from relatively small, undergraduate institutions and rarely ventured far beyond their college gates. These teaching conferences, which featured a broad range of topics, permitted teachers to see quite clearly the connections among the multitude of specialties in psychology.

A second, major consequence of MACTOP was that it served as a meeting place for psychology teachers who ultimately helped bring STP to life. If you look at the list of MACTOP presenters, you will see that 13 of the last 18 STP presidents gave talks at the conference; other notable STP figures graced the MACTOP program over the years as well. It wasn't the case that Joe Palladino specifically selected prominent STP figures to speak at MACTOP (at the time, there were only a few of them); rather, the names reflect people with a true zest for teaching who were ready to assume the mantle of leadership and solidify the teaching of psychology as a scholarly domain.

Unfortunately, some regional teaching conferences have fallen on hard times. MACTOP, as well as the Eastern and the Southwestern conferences, have disappeared, although the

latter two conferences are attempting comebacks (see Bailey, 2005); and the Northeastern conference has joined with the annual convention of the New England Psychological Association. One reason for these hardships may be that many psychologists prefer to spend their limited travel funds on specialty conferences or, perhaps, on regional meetings (e.g., Eastern Psychological Association, Midwestern Psychological Association), which, fortunately, have become important venues for teaching-related issues. As such, regional conferences may be replacing the vanishing teaching conferences as a forum for teachers of psychology. Consequently, although psychology continues to fragment, psychologists interested in teaching flock to teaching conferences or attend regional conferences where the various facets of psychology rest comfortably under the single rubric of “psychology.”

Moreover, we are starting to see teaching-related programs popping up at other venues. For instance, under the auspices of STP, Neil Lutsky initiated teaching pre-conferences at the annual meetings of SPSP, and APS has partnered with STP for over a decade to offer the APS-STP Teaching Institute at its annual conference. In the future, I think we will see more teaching-related programming at similar conferences. It will be interesting, however, to see whether teachers, as a community, begin to fragment and sequester themselves within specialty groups. This could have a notable, long-term impact on the structure of psychology as a discipline.

The Long-Term Impact of STP and the Community of Teachers

Earlier, I identified five reasons why early specialty groups had little long-term impact on the discipline of psychology: (a) they were small, (b) they were elitist, (c) they were sexist, (d) they were shadowy, and (e) they were inward-looking. Do these also describe STP? Personally, I don't think so.

First, we are no longer small. Our membership is at about 3000 and still growing. This represents, on average, more than one person per psychology department in every institution in the country. We have enough size to have an impact on the field. Second, we aren't elitist. STP has made strides to incorporate teachers of psychology from all types of institutions and at all levels of education. Third, we aren't sexist. The list of presidents of STP shows an equality of opportunity, regardless of sex. Fourth, we aren't shadowy. As Ludy Benjamin once said, “Unless it is on paper, it doesn't exist.” Much to the contrary, STP has a clear and growing record of permanent resources that can function as the seed for further growth. For example, you can easily find out from various sources who belongs to STP. In addition, our resources on the Web continue to expand. Finally, we are not inward looking. The scope of our interests and the nature of our audience continue to expand. One of Bill Addison's goals during his presidential year has been to reach out even more, particularly to include more activity by psychology teachers at community colleges and in high schools.

Conclusion

I believe that teachers of psychology serve a very important function for our discipline. Although, there seems to be a tendency for professionals with psychological training to

forget their roots in psychology, teachers of psychology can serve a unifying function. I am optimistic that psychology will continue as a coherent discipline as long as teachers of psychology—especially those at the undergraduate level—recognize the importance of the scholarship of teaching and realize that a common interest in teaching can unite psychologists with diverse backgrounds. As long as undergraduate, liberal arts institutions sustain their initiatives toward broad, integrative education, and as long as psychology teachers congregate under a unified umbrella, I believe that teachers of psychology will shape our discipline and serve as the keepers of psychology. This essay was adapted from Barney's 2004 STP Presidential Address at the APA convention in Honolulu, Hawaii.

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Evil Technology: Nature or Nurture

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Technology in the classroom is nothing new. Neither is resistance to it. I remember when overheads were “emerging” technology and chalkboard-only curmudgeons self-righteously declared them as evil. In a way, the curmudgeons were right. Chalkboards encouraged a productive pace, promoted flexibility, and allowed for on-the-fly adjustments—and they still do. In contrast, many who used overheads allowed them to dictate the pace and, to a degree, even the content of the lecture. Woe to the teacher using overheads if the projector bulb burned out or the slides somehow got out of sequence. Back in the day, I witnessed flustered teachers actually cancel classes if the projector was not functioning. I have seen usually calm teachers break into a flop-sweat when an overhead was missing or out of place. It was as if they had no idea what to do and all of their knowledge was on the slides.

Sound familiar? These and even more criticisms are leveled at today’s emerging classroom technologies, PowerPoint-type products, in particular. Now, it is the overhead curmudgeon self-righteously declaring the new technology evil. I am willing to wager that there was a time when chalkboards were considered the evil technology. I am also fairly confident that, although PowerPoint and its conceptual cousins are the current nemeses, other even more evil classroom technologies will emerge in my professional lifetime. Circle of life. To be fair, new technologies often bring more powerful tools to the teaching and learning processes. And along with dynamic new ways of presenting information comes previously unfathomable potential to bore, confuse, and oversimplify.

Whether discussions, lectures, or technology, pedagogical tools have one thing in common: their potential for nonstrategic implementation. Like a young child wearing his new superhero costume everywhere he goes, many who adopt new strategies tend to adopt them universally and overgeneralize their uses to clearly inappropriate contexts. PowerPoint is just the latest and most ubiquitous example.

In this essay, I hope to share a perspective based on my own mistakes and observations of dozens of faculty with whom I have been fortunate enough to work. Like many of my colleagues, I had elegant and rich PowerPoint presentations that took me hours to develop. However, I often had this nagging feeling that I had lost something. On the few days when the technology failed to work and I had to wing it, I was surprised at how well the classes went—in fact, so were my students. This made me wonder: Maybe I had let PowerPoint take over a bit too much.

I Read, Therefore They Learn

Visit some classrooms of faculty who habitually use PowerPoint. Most instructors use it in a very linear, text-heavy fashion. This often relegates students to the role of transcriber rather than

learner, leaving them little time to process the information in their haste to write down everything on the slides. You can tell students not to do it, but they will. It is an age-old fact of academic life: Students tend to write down what you write down. They did it with chalkboards, and they do it with PowerPoint. We complain more now because we are writing more now.

The question we have to ask these instructors is, “Why is there so much information on the slides to begin with?” This leads me to my main point: PowerPoint is a tool that should be aimed at making the student’s experience—not yours—qualitatively better. Too many instructors are using PowerPoint as their own lecture notes. They click, read (often turning their backs to the students), make a bit of eye contact on their pirouette back toward the computer, and go to the next slide. I had a colleague defend this practice. After a class visit, I pointed out that few students were listening to him. Moreover, many students felt that my colleague’s reading of the slides was interfering with their transcribing. He said, “That’s fine. Everything I want them to know is on the slides.” If everything you have to offer is written on PowerPoint, e-mail your students the slides and save everybody a trip to class! The habitual use of dense text effectively removes the instructor from the lecture. Remember, you should always be a focal point in the classroom, even if the lights are dimmed and you are standing off to the side.

If mere observation or empathy for your audience is not adequate to convince you to curb this practice, the literature on this topic is clear. Excessive text does not enhance student learning (Mayer, Heiser, & Lonn, 2001), especially when accompanied by redundant narration (Moreno & Mayer, 1999). PowerPoint is a visual medium and is not as effective as a live teacher at delivering words. Let’s be crystal clear here: Reading text is not an opportunity for visual learning (see Gardner, 1999, for clarification). Rather, pictures and other graphics paired with complimentary text promote dual encoding (Najjar, 1996; Paivio, 1986). There is ample evidence that a good lecture supported by appropriate visual representations can be more effective than lecture alone (Daniel & Kluetz, 2005; Mayer, 2001). Like overheads and diagrams on chalkboards before them, PowerPoint has expanded the type and variety of visual information we can use to compliment the lecture. In the right hands and when used at the right times, it can be a very powerful tool. In the wrong hands, it can be distracting and encourage an uncritical transcription of dense, later meaningless, text.

A good lecture is more than mere recitation of text; it is an interactive experience replete with examples, descriptions, ebbs, flows, detours, and numerous other almost mystical elements. A great lecture can generate enthusiasm and capture the imagination, and the inclusion of well thought-out and targeted PowerPoint slides can make the experience even more productive. Conversely, dense slides may divert attention from the lecturer and her message, chop up the big points into hard-to-integrate bullets, and replace deeper processing with furious, verbatim note-taking. Technology should be used to support the teacher, not take her place.

PowerPoint Doesn’t Have a Brain, So You Need to Use Your Own

PowerPoint is quite aptly termed “presentation software” rather than “teaching software.” Believe it or not, this simple distinction has had a tremendous and positive impact on my teaching. My goal as a teacher is not transcription, persuasion, or personal affirmation. In my view, effective teaching requires the strategic transmission of information in a manner that

affects a desired change in the student (e.g., learning, retention, reflection). Whereas we may expect our peers to have the requisite knowledge base and expertise to follow a presentation, teaching that same topic to the neophyte requires a level of structure and scaffolding that changes the very nature of the experience. In other words, there is more to teaching than simply presenting information. Different goals often require different strategies.

Few would argue that PowerPoint has content expertise when it comes to your subject matter. It is a program, and you supply the information. Yet many instructors rely on this same program to structure and dictate the flow of their lectures; these instructors end up replacing their personal teaching style with a click-and-recite style. Too many, especially newer, faculty are using this technology to develop, rather than support, their lectures. Allowing the structure of these programs, and not your own goals and methods, to become the primary guide for your lectures creates a very real risk of obscuring, rather than clarifying, important points. All classroom pedagogy, even electronic, is filtered through the instructor, and PowerPoint is a great example of this. If teachers do not assert themselves into the software, defining it as a teaching tool rather than a presentation template, the software will often dominate the presentation and may effectively remove the precise qualities that make a teacher important (Daniel, 2005).

PowerPoint does not have your experience, style, learning objectives, or knowledge of teaching. We must be ever mindful of the important ways we allow the format of technology to alter, and often dilute, the power of our messages. Therefore, teachers should have a pretty good idea of what they want to say and, more importantly, what they want students to learn before turning to PowerPoint. Write your lecture first, and then ask yourself what visual and auditory support, if any, would clarify, reinforce, or otherwise increase the student's ability to understand important content. Remember that you deliver the lecture; PowerPoint only plays a supporting role.

This is not to say that words have no place. Rather, they just need to be used strategically for emphasis and structure rather than content delivery. Particularly for less experienced or skilled students, single words or short phrases signaling the content of your narrative can serve as organizational aids for note-taking. In addition, longer definitions of important terms that you want them to know verbatim are excellent candidates to include on a slide. Just be careful not to show the definition until you have already introduced the term, or students will ignore you as they are transcribing. Remember, you, and not the technology, are in charge of the pace of the lecture. Make it show what you want, when you want.

Experiment and Evaluate

The use of technology for its own sake may be encouraged by certain administrators. However, we have a higher calling! We are charged with promoting meaningful change in our students. Sometimes, technology positively affects learning in my classroom; sometimes, it does not; and sometimes, there is a dosage effect, and I have to figure out where the costs outweigh the benefits. It is very important to note that not every teacher is the same: What works for one may fail miserably for another. What works for you, then, is a personally empirical question. Ultimately, what works results from the interaction of learner characteristics, learning objectives, course material, available tools, and teaching style.

Similarly, PowerPoint is not useful for every learning objective, student, context, or teacher. Once you cultivate your teaching style, define your goals, and learn the capabilities of the program, you will most likely use it less often. I view this as a sign of maturity. Balance comes from experience and reflection rather than solely from the literature or a damn fine essay. Similar to discussions, demonstrations, and other pedagogical strategies, the use of PowerPoint is good for some people, some contexts, some students, some learning objectives, some of the time. Like good teaching, the proper role of technology in your classroom is developed through trial and error.

The Nature of the Beast

As may be clear by now, I view technology as a tool that can be wielded in many ways—some good, some bad, and some flashy but ineffective. PowerPoint is not born evil, but it has potential. Therefore, I have included some general guidelines to consider as you experiment with the most effective use of PowerPoint in your classroom (Ludwig, Daniel, Froman & Mathie, in press). I have placed these below, rather than above, for obvious metaphorical reasons.

1. Avoid using the presentation as your lecture notes. A presentation is for the audience, and their learning is the primary objective. Write your lecture before opening the PowerPoint program, and use slides for information that is best presented visually. If you must, write your lecture in PowerPoint, print it, and then open it up as a new file, deleting everything that is just for you. Now you have lecture notes and a more effective presentation.
2. Minimize text. Narration is usually better than text for learning and retention in a classroom context. Clarity, not comprehensiveness, is your primary objective.
3. Minimize distractions. You should (a) select nondistracting backgrounds, (b) select easy-to-read fonts, (c) select smooth transitions, (d) use pictures only when directly relevant to your point, and (e) exclude irrelevant animations or sounds.
4. Be strategic. A good picture is worth a thousand words; a bad one needs explanation. Choose pictures, graphs, and videos that clearly demonstrate the point you want to make.
5. Finally, save room for dessert. Leave room for flexibility, questions, and the occasional tangent.

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Transformational 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 October 2005.)

Psychological science has developed remarkably in the past century. These advances are due in part to the development of new methods for examining the underpinnings of how people think and behave. Although studies that employ the naked eye as a measuring instrument still hold tremendous value, behavioral observation is now joined by cutting-edge methods that permit reliable examination of human physiology, hormonal responses, neural activation, and genetic disposition. Today, we are able to investigate psychological phenomena along virtually every level of human analysis.

Despite these remarkable advances in psychological science itself, our methods of teaching psychology have remained largely unchanged. Didactic and often passive lecturing is still common in large classes, and although computer technologies are being integrated into lectures at an increasing rate, multimedia presentations are still underutilized. Class time is brief and precious, so with efficiency in mind, most teachers resort to a straightforward lecturing style that prioritizes the direct dissemination of information above all else. Still, we must ask whether these teaching methods are the best we have to offer.

Like the teaching methods themselves, notions of what teachers should accomplish during the course of a given class have also remained largely unchanged over the years. Course objectives generally aim to have students learn the content of the course, but that is where the expectations often end. If students in a given course manage to master the course content, we might be satisfied; if they can recall that material 6 months later, we might be surprised; and if they can integrate this new knowledge into their lives in meaningful ways—perhaps as means for creating personal change—we might be completely shocked, because we do not generally think of college courses as stages upon which life changing experiences occur.

The following paragraphs explore the concept of transformational teaching, an approach to teaching in which life changing experiences are expected. These change experiences are not random but rather are directly related to the course content and intended to help students truly internalize the course content. The foundation of transformational teaching lies within active learning, so that is where I begin.

Active Learning

The belief that strategically designed class activities might enhance the encoding and retention of core concepts is not new. These class activities, sometimes referred to as “active learning strategies,” are numerous and include pausing intermittently during lectures to allow students to consolidate material, having students discuss class notes in pairs or small groups, and utilizing debates or role plays to flush out different sides of an intellectual argument. Many active learning

strategies have been proposed, and they generally share the following characteristics (Bonwell, 2002):

1. Students engage in more than just passive listening.
2. Students participate in activities (e.g., reading, discussing, writing).
3. There is less emphasis on information transmission and greater emphasis on developing student skills.
4. There is greater emphasis on the exploration of attitudes and values.
5. Student motivation is increased.
6. Students can receive immediate feedback from their instructor.
7. Students are involved in higher order thinking (analysis, synthesis, evaluation).

The potential reasons for exactly why active learning strategies might enhance retention are varied. One explanation, from a cognitive science perspective, argues that learning is contingent upon one's understanding of what is to be learned (Norman, 2004). Learning in this view first consists of interpretation and understanding of the information being presented. After interpreting and understanding the new information, one must integrate the material into his or her existing understanding of related concepts (Regehr & Norman, 1996). One strength of active learning strategies is that they give students time to synthesize new information into existing knowledge structures. This is considered to be superior to passive lecturing styles, where students possess little to no control over the rate at which information is delivered.

From this perspective, it would seem as though the choice to use active learning strategies in the classroom is clear cut. Students in active learning environments, however, do not always exhibit improved learning and retention (e.g., Colliver, 2000; Haidet, Richards, Morgan, Wristers & Moran, 2003). Those who question the benefits of active learning suggest that these null findings may have something to do with exactly what is taking place in the classroom. They argue, for example, that "active learning, as an activity in and of itself, is no more effective than active jumping around at a disco dance—lots of activity, but in the end, you're at the same place on the floor that you began" (Norman, 2004, p. 2). In this case, the critics may have a point, and although we certainly should not abandon active learning strategies, more attention must be given to exactly what is active about active learning strategies.

Notwithstanding questions about their effectiveness, active learning strategies do not seem to be the final solution for maximizing the impact teachers have. They are not the final solution, because the goals of active learning strategies are shortsighted. Active learning aims to have students cognitively integrate course content into existing knowledge structures, but long-term retention of that material hinges at least upon (a) the future salience of those knowledge structures and (b) the relevance of the course material to students' lives. What we need to do is deepen the level at which our students integrate course material. This is where transformational teaching begins.

Transformational Teaching

Transformational teaching goes beyond passive lecturing; it also goes beyond active learning. Transformational teaching is about employing strategies that promote positive changes in

students' lives. The goal is not simply to impart certain information to students but rather to change something about how students learn and live. If a particular lecture or course project excites a student so much that he or she becomes and remains interested in the field of psychology, then transformational teaching has occurred. Transformational teaching, though, concerns more than just getting students excited about psychology. It is about making lifelong changes.

In transformational teaching, teachers are conceptualized as change agents who develop projects that guide students toward personal change. Based on the course, an instructor first develops a list of potential life changes. Next, a handful of activities or projects are developed to promote the identified changes. Finally, these activities are completed by the students, under the close mentorship of an instructor or teaching assistant, and the effectiveness of the change interventions is closely examined. Given this brief description, transformational teaching possesses the following characteristics:

1. The teacher is conceptualized as an instructor of the relevant material and also as a change agent who guides students through the transformational process.
2. In his or her role as change agent, the teacher works to decrease students' perceived barriers to success while increasing their self-efficacy for change.
3. Teaching centers on the use of self-change projects but requires previous mastery of the course concepts via other teaching methods.
4. Students are viewed as capable of mastering the course content and achieving the targeted changes.

Transformational teaching is best described through the use of an example. For this purpose, let us consider a course titled "Exploring Human Nature: A Life-Changing Experience," taught by Stanford University professor Philip Zimbardo. The topics for the course are varied and include social influence, time perspective, evil, positive psychology, shyness, and human sexuality, among others. The format of the course includes two lectures a week, required readings, four reaction papers, a final exam, various out-of-class activities, and attendance at sections (Zimbardo, 2005). It is the final element of the course, though, that makes it transformational in nature. This element is termed the "self-change project" and is described as follows in the course syllabus:

You may have noticed the second part of our course's title: "A Life Changing Experience." Yes, as you'll hopefully discover, exploring human nature is inherently life-changing. However, as part of this course, you will have the opportunity to change your life in a more direct way. You will select a characteristic of yourself that you'd like to change (your options are listed below), develop a plan to effect the desired change, and carry out this plan throughout the quarter. At the end of the term, you will assess how effective or ineffective your attempt at self-change has been. Here are the characteristics you'll have the option to focus on:

1. *Dating and Relationships*: Acquire greater knowledge about dating and confidence in your own abilities, whether you're in a relationship, would like to be in one, or are trying to get out of one.
2. *Fears and Phobias*: Use the psychological techniques of cognitive behavioral therapy to conquer your deepest fear(s).
3. *Hope*: Become a more effective person by developing your ability to set goals, finding out how to reach them, and finding the motivation to do so.
4. *Prejudice*: Overcome your implicit, unconscious prejudices by developing and establishing sets of "cues for control."
5. *Shyness*: Understand your own shyness and learn how to free yourself from its shackles.
6. *Strengths and Virtue*: Utilize the new science of positive psychology to achieve lasting happiness by cultivating your strengths rather than by focusing on your weaknesses.
7. *Time Perspective*: Gain insight into the ways in which your attitudes and behaviors are influenced by your orientation toward time, and use this knowledge to change your life for the better.

Some features of transformational teaching should be evident from this example. First, the course covers a wide variety of topics, and these topics are represented in lectures, readings, and exams as well as in the proposed self-change project. Mastery of the course material is thus promoted in multiple ways, capped off by an integration of the material into the students' lives via the self-change project. Second, assessing the effectiveness of the selected self-change project is also emphasized. This introduces students to the basics of outcome research. It also gives students a way to track their progress objectively while implying that the change project is important.

The most salient takeaway message from this example is that transformational teaching entails more than simply telling students to go change their lives. Before the self-change project is introduced and assigned, students are taught course material that is relevant to the change activities. Students may even be tested beforehand on the relevant course material. In this way, students are not making changes blindly, but instead with substantial knowledge of the theories and empirical findings that underlie the forthcoming life changes. Sufficient mastery of course content is thus viewed as a prerequisite for effective transformational teaching, and the transformations themselves are guided by the self-change projects, which are intended to promote the true internalization of a course's core messages while inciting positive personal change.

Conclusions

The effects of others' expectations on personal performance have been well documented (e.g., Bandura, 1992, 1997). These environmental expectations influence one's judgments of his or her capabilities, and they determine which successes are perceived as achievable. Transformational teaching is about extending our expectations for the impact that we, as teachers, can have in the classroom. It is also about extending our expectations for what our students can accomplish. Active learning strategies are valuable, but more can be done to enhance students' lives. To truly maximize our effectiveness as teachers, we must go beyond active learning strategies and employ methods that make our courses transformational in nature.

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Supervising Undergraduate Research: An Active, Original, and Meaningful Experience

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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 2005.)

Scott-Johnson and Walker (2003) made a convincing plea for departments and faculty members to assist undergraduates in developing independent research projects. Fortunately, I have been involved in developing an effective model of undergraduate research at Belmont University for the past 20 years. This model has worked well, producing over 530 public undergraduate research presentations in the last 15 years; and almost all of these projects originated from students, rather than from faculty research programs. As we like to say, “You don’t do our research, we do yours.” In this essay, I hope to illustrate what I have learned about the value and meaningfulness of involving undergraduates in independent research. The student comments I present have been collected anonymously over the many years I have supervised undergraduate research.

What do I mean by “undergraduate research”? According to Dominick, Buffington, Rowland, and Warren (2000), “undergraduate research experience is an active inquiry or investigation conducted by an undergraduate that makes an original intellectual or creative contribution to the discipline that is relevant, meaningful, and engaging for the student” (p. 6). This definition includes three important characteristics: (a) the active nature of undergraduate research, (b) the originality of ideas, and (c) meaningfulness to the student.

The first important characteristic of undergraduate research is that it provides an opportunity for students to be active in the process of research. At Belmont, we offer two research courses. The first is a basic survey course covering the research process, with typical textbooks, lectures, activities, tests, and papers. The second course requires students to produce independent research projects. In this course, there are no texts, no lectures, and no tests. The purpose of the course is to expose students to the research process, from conceptualization to communication. The course consists of a series of writing assignments, the purpose of which is to lead students to original research proposals; in addition, many students collect data and present their research publicly.

Students have commented that this second course is “stressful,” “hard [but] thought provoking,” and “time consuming and mind wrenching at times.” However, they have also commented that they “achieved a whole lot” and found the experience to be “very rewarding.” Each year, students have the opportunity to give pieces of written advice to future students who choose to take the course. At the beginning of each class, we pass this advice on to the new students. Overwhelmingly, the most popular pieces of advice

have been statements such as: “do not procrastinate,” “start early,” “stay on top of things,” “stay focused,” and “don’t get behind.” From these comments and others, it is clear that this is a challenging course that requires a lot of active involvement.

The next important characteristic of undergraduate research is that students make “an original intellectual or creative contribution to the discipline.” Original research can take on several different forms. For example, original research can include important and meaningful replications, which, if accompanied by compelling rationale, can be regarded as original. This is especially so if the researcher produces a replication with extension, and new information is added at the same time previous findings are confirmed. In addition, these types of studies are excellent places for undergraduates to start the process of conducting research: Such studies help students recognize that all research builds on previous studies and that replication is an honorable and necessary aspect of scientific research. Students should also learn that science is based on curiosity. There is no activity more difficult to endure than having to answer a question for which one has no interest. When students ask questions in which they are truly interested, they often exhibit refreshing creativity.

I am continually amazed at students’ creative and varied research ideas. Students at Belmont have studied an amazing array of topics including: compulsiveness/obsessiveness, body satisfaction, drawing self-efficacy, flashbulb memories, and perceptions of the metrosexual male. Even though we require our students to use the undergraduate psychology research pool—we allow no research on clinical populations, discourage use of children and older people because of IRB difficulties, and have few animal facilities—Belmont students have found ways to develop original and creative research studies.

The last important characteristic of undergraduate research is that the process should be “relevant, meaningful, and engaging for the student.” This is the most important characteristic. Students have conveyed to me at least three levels of meaningfulness they have experienced in my years supervising undergraduate research. The first level involves what I call “personal efficacy.” Common examples of students’ comments that convey personal efficacy include, “Awesome . . . I am so proud of myself” and “A huge self-esteem booster.” One student expressed it this way: “One of the most rewarding experiences of my college career. I feel that I can do anything now!”

The second level of meaningfulness occurs when students gain an appreciation of the research process, including an appreciation of the importance of presenting their work publicly. Many of my students have presented their papers orally, via posters, or, often, both. For most students, the prospect of giving an oral presentation is terrifying; presenting a poster is only a little less terrifying. However, these can be very meaningful experiences to undergraduates.

Students tend to have two types of comments about giving oral presentations. One deals with self-confidence. For example, one student said, "It was a good experience. It helped me grow as an individual, because I gained confidence and satisfaction [and was] proud of my achievement." Another student stated, "Everyone should have to do this before they finish college. It is an invaluable experience. I could make a presentation at work with full confidence now." Other statements dealt with the research process. For example, one student commented, "I think it is a great opportunity to be professional. Even though I dreaded it at first, the two BURP [Belmont University Research Practice, a prelude to our campus wide research symposium] nights put me at ease." Another student said, "I'm very glad I did both BURS [Belmont Undergraduate Research Symposium] and MTPA [Middle Tennessee Psychological Association]! I began to realize I was a real researcher and had something to offer other people."

Another way students express their appreciation of the research process is when they choose to do additional studies after the course, which has been quite common over the years. Having gained confidence from their first studies, many students pursued a different research problem; others developed follow-ups to their original studies, which allowed them to gain first-hand understanding of programmatic research.

The third level of meaningfulness occurs when students understand how engaging in research can impact their careers. Many students have expressed the importance of having class that allowed them to practice the research process. For example, students have said the course is "the most beneficial class of my college career" and "the most important academic experience for me so far." Another student said the course was "a challenge, but a necessary evil. I feel that this class has been one [of] the most important ones that I have taken at Belmont."

There are three personal examples I want to share regarding the effects that engaging in undergraduate research had on my students' careers. The first example involves Johnny Bolton, a former student who contacted me a few years after he had graduated. He told me that at the bank where he worked, he had become known for his ability to present complicated data in a clear and organized manner. He said he simply applies what he learned in the research methods courses: He presents an introduction to the problem, a rationale for solving it, an approach or method, the results, and a discussion. Johnny learned some meaningful skills and has the confidence to apply them in his chosen career.

The next two examples involve students who chose teaching careers. Carla Stassle is an assistant professor of psychology at York College in Pennsylvania, where she supervises undergraduate research. While at Belmont, one of her research studies placed second in the Psi Chi/Allyn and Bacon Psychology Awards competition. Dan Corts' project in the second research methods course focused on short-term memory and fueled his interest in cognition. After graduating from the University of Tennessee at Knoxville with a degree in cognition, Dan completed a teaching internship at Furman University and is now an assistant professor of psychology at Augustana College in Rock Island, Illinois. There he supervises a very active and successful undergraduate cognition lab. His students regularly present their research, win research awards, and publish a paper from time to time. Neither of these students expressed interest in research or teaching prior to the

research methods courses. Their experiences conducting and presenting research, however, enabled them to envision and ultimately pursue interesting career paths involving both research and teaching.

Conclusion

I feel fortunate to have shared in my students' undergraduate research projects, where they engaged in active inquiry, made original contributions to the discipline, and had meaningful experiences. For me, undergraduate research is the most effective way to help students bolster their confidence, not only for doing research, but for "doing life." For students who have graduate school aspirations, research experience is invaluable, not only for gaining acceptance, but also for achieving success while there. Even for the much larger number of students who have no desire to become professional psychologists, conducting research is one of the most effective ways to learn critical thinking skills. Finally, I don't believe you can come to a deep, implicit understanding of any psychological phenomenon unless you understand something about how it was discovered. To me, research methods are the glue that holds all the disparate areas of psychology together. As my students have taught me over the years, the dedication it takes both students and faculty to be engaged in undergraduate research is well worth the effort.

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Integrating Multiculturalism into the Teaching of Psychology: Why and How?

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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 2005.)

There is growing movement, as exemplified by the American Psychological Association’s (APA; 2003) guidelines on the matter, to recognize and attend to issues of diversity within the field of psychology. These guidelines include a recommendation to incorporate multiculturalism and diversity into psychology curricula. In part, the need for psychology to attend to multiculturalism is a reflection of our increasingly diverse population (Trimble, Stevenson, & Worell, 2003). Moreover, a science grounded in the study of human behavior cannot afford to ignore the influence that culture has on shaping, interpreting, and guiding behavior (Trimble et al., 2003). Indeed, psychology’s historical omission of issues of diversity contributed to the marginalization of individuals who differed from the majority group (e.g., intelligence testing; for a review of race and intelligence testing, see Blanton, 2000). Thus, the simple omission of multiculturalism from psychology curricula can be harmful and may send a message, intentional or not, that psychologists do not value diversity issues.

Many introductory psychology textbooks (e.g., Coon, 2001; Myers, 2004; Sternberg, 2004) include sections on stereotypes, prejudice, gender differences, late adulthood development, sexual orientation, and the relationship between culture and emotions; and some textbooks provide anecdotal and empirical findings that extend the coverage of diversity issues beyond the aforementioned topics. Furthermore, courses on multicultural psychology are increasingly prevalent in university course catalogs. However, it is unclear whether minimal coverage during a semester-long course, or even offering an entire course on multiculturalism, gives sufficient attention to this important topic.

Considerable research suggests that maximum learning, transfer of concepts, and development of critical thinking are most likely to occur when students actively engage the course material (e.g., Burbach, Matkin, & Fritz, 2004; Hake, 1998; Moreno & Mayer, 2000; Yoder & Hochevar, 2005). Thus, if we want our students to understand that culture affects numerous psychological phenomena, multiculturalism should be reflected throughout the curriculum. A curriculum that infuses coverage of diversity within and across courses is congruent with an understanding of human behavior that includes constant consideration of culture. Similarly, because students live in a diverse world, we should provide them with relevant opportunities to apply psychology in their daily lives.

We should also recognize that culture affects the way we teach. Therefore, we cannot engage in bias-free teaching (APA, 2003). Rather, we constantly convey our values to students by how we talk—or do not talk—about individuals with different cultural backgrounds. For example, we may illustrate concepts using names that are representative of certain ethnic backgrounds or of a specific gender, or our comments may reflect

assumptions we make about our students' sexual orientations. We may differentially attend to students who are like us or who hold ideas similar to ours. For these reasons, we must remain mindful of our values and seek to identify and address ways in which our biases interfere with our ability to engage in culturally competent teaching (Davis, 1993).

Preparing the Class

The integration of multiculturalism into the classroom requires that we be aware of our own values. We should express these values to our students as well, because this information allows them to understand the context in which we teach. The explicit expression of our values is especially important considering that students will be exposed to our values whether or not we actually verbalize them. Modeling awareness of our culture and its influence on how we approach the world of psychology allows students to explore their own culture. Students can then begin to question how their own values influence how they interact with and think about individuals who differ from themselves. We should also inform students that they do not have to agree with us or accept our values. They do, however, have to think about the material from a psychological perspective.

Effective integration of multiculturalism into our teaching also requires us to establish classroom guidelines in order to create a classroom in which students feel comfortable and safe. Given that students can learn a great deal from other students' life experiences, encouraging students to share is important. Students need to know that we appreciate their input and value their experiences. This type of sharing and self-examination opens the door to new ways of thinking about others and can provide a bridge between those characteristics that separate us from, or unite us with, others. At the same time, we must send a clear message that negative remarks about other students will not be tolerated (Davis, 1993). In addition, sharing should be voluntary, and students should not be asked to act as experts for their cultures (Davis, 1993). By establishing guidelines, stating our expectations clearly, and treating students fairly, we can create an environment that fosters the examination and appreciation of diversity, as well as the application of multiculturalism to psychological principles and research.

Integrating Multiculturalism throughout the Psychology Curriculum

When integrating multiculturalism into teaching, we must consider various aspects of culture, including gender, ethnicity, national origin, language, sexual orientation, age, socioeconomic status, body size, physical and mental abilities, and religious/spiritual perspective. Each of these aspects influences who we are and how we interact with the world. In other words, each of us is affected by these diverse sources of cultural influence. This comprehensive definition of culture allows us to understand and appreciate more fully the variability within human behavior.

Integrating multiculturalism throughout psychology curricula can be accomplished in a number of ways. In addition to sharing personal stories, we can discuss current research that considers the influence of culture upon specific domains of psychology. In addition, we must also make conscious efforts to use examples that represent a variety of cultural

backgrounds. Using activities can provide students with opportunities to apply more general psychological concepts to a variety of cultural contexts, subsequently increasing their understanding of the connection between culture and behavior. Exercises in the classroom that focus on culture can make the issues more salient to students and can facilitate critical thinking about diversity. Colleagues, as well as other resources (e.g., Goldstein, 2000; Trimble et al., 2003; Whittlesey, 2001), can provide a wealth of information on developing and implementing such activities.

Sample Activities

A few sample activities follow. Each of these activities cuts across a range of content areas in psychology (e.g., development, cognition, social, learning). One activity that can be used to integrate multiculturalism into various courses involves the use of the Implicit Attitudes Test (IAT). The IAT measures associations of which participants may not be aware. Specifically, the IAT measures implicit beliefs that participants may have about others but might not admit. Students can choose from a variety of “isms” (e.g., racism, sexism) they wish to examine by going to <http://www.tolerance.org>. Given the nature of the test, the results may reveal biases that when exposed may cause some discomfort for students. Thus, instructors wishing to use this activity should first complete several of the tests on their own to become familiar with what students might experience. In addition, instructors should be ready to explain why individuals’ IAT results may show biases despite the individuals’ desires to rid themselves of biases and be accepting of diversity. Students’ experiences with the IAT can be used as a segue to discuss topics in psychology, such as stereotypes and prejudice, that oftentimes form through associative learning. Furthermore, a discussion of cognitions and schemas, many of which also form through associative learning, can stimulate students’ understanding of culture’s role in psychology.

In a more broad application, the IAT can be used to introduce discussions about culture in research methods and statistics courses. For example, face validity and construct validity are important considerations when constructing a measure of bias because many individuals will censor how they present themselves to others. Alternatively, anonymous data can be gathered using students’ responses on the IAT. Although this is a less direct integration of multiculturalism into psychology, it communicates through example the importance of culture throughout the psychology curriculum and demonstrates that instructors are committed to increasing students’ understanding of diversity issues.

Another activity that facilitates awareness and appreciation of multiculturalism involves students examining how their values influence the way they think about human development. Either alone or in groups, students can construct a model of developmental stages and milestones. After examining the important experiences they identified, students can look for developmental milestones that are missing or culture bound. For example, does the model include late adulthood? Why or why not? Does the model specify ages for various developmental tasks such as walking or weaning? Could these ages differ by culture? Does the model specify developmental milestones that are not universal, such as going to school or getting married? This activity can facilitate student thinking regarding age differences, stress and coping with life transitions from diverse

perspectives, the implications of longitudinal and cross sectional research in understanding individual development, and development outlined in stage theories.

Examining the way in which psychology has historically studied individuals who differed from the majority group is another way to integrate culture into the curriculum. For example, psychologists interpreted non-Anglo American individuals' higher scores on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory as being indicative of higher rates of pathology. Similarly, psychologists failed to recognize that lower intelligence scores among immigrant adults were a function of the language and cultural identity of testing instruments. These types of culturally-focused, spurious correlations can serve as introductions to various content areas, including psychological disorders, intelligence, treatment-seeking differences across groups, testing and measurement, and statistics and research methods, to name a few. In addition, discussion can then focus on how each of these topics relates to culture. For example, students can discuss how different cultural groups define concepts like intelligence (e.g., Does intelligence involve thoughtful deliberation or rapid responding?).

Conclusion

APA has directed educators to address multicultural issues in the teaching of psychology. Although the general inclusion of issues of diversity is important, the way that culture and behavior are intertwined suggests that we must integrate multiculturalism throughout the psychology curriculum. This essay has provided some initial steps that can be taken to sensitize students to diversity issues. Applied experiences and discussions can augment lectures and assist students in identifying the significant influence culture has on shaping behavior. Course planning, collaboration with colleagues, and familiarizing oneself with how well one's research area has addressed the influence of culture can assist instructors in developing a culturally integrative and comprehensive curriculum.

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Barney Beins is professor of psychology and chair of the Psychology department at Ithaca College. He was president of STP in 2004 and secretary from 1992 to 1994. He is also a Fellow of APA, for which he directed the Office of Precollege and Undergraduate Education from 2000 to 2002. In 1994, he founded the Northeastern Conference for Teachers of Psychology. He also participated in the St. Mary's Conference in 1991 and in the Psychology Partnerships Project in 1999. Barney served from 1987 to 1996 as inaugural editor for the "Computers in Psychology" section of Teaching of Psychology (ToP) and is currently associate editor of ToP. He authored *Research Methods: A Tool for Life*, published by Allyn & Bacon, and co-edited the Gale Encyclopedia of Psychology. Barney earned his bachelor's degree from Miami University in Oxford, Ohio, and his doctorate from City University of New York.

David B. Daniel is very involved with the development and evaluation of good teaching practices and pedagogy. In addition to his research in the field of teaching and learning, David is the coordinator of the Society for Research in Child Development's Teaching of Developmental Science Institute; chair of the Society for the Teaching of Psychology's Task Force on Pedagogical Innovations; and managing editor of the journal *Mind, Brain, and Education*. He also consults in the development of effective electronic pedagogy. David has been the recipient of the Teacher of the Year award for several consecutive years and is now "retired" from contention. His interest in the development of effective teaching has informed his current efforts to develop pedagogy and classroom techniques that positively impact both student learning and teacher performance.

George M. Slavich is originally from Santa Clara, CA. He completed undergraduate and graduate coursework at Stanford University, earning a bachelor's degree with honors in psychology, a master's degree in psychology, and a master's degree in communication. He earned his Ph.D. in psychology from the University of Oregon, and he is currently a psychology intern at McLean Hospital and a clinical fellow in the Department of Psychiatry at Harvard Medical School. In addition to his research, which examines how depression develops and is maintained in adulthood, Slavich has been a champion of student interests in the broadest sense. In 2001 he founded the Stanford Undergraduate Psychology Conference, in 2002 he founded the Western Psychological Association Student Council, and in 2006 he helped found the Society of Clinical Psychology's Section on Graduate Student and Early Career Psychologists (APA, Division 12, Section 10). For these and other contributions he was voted Graduate Teaching Fellow of the Year in 2003 by readers of the *Oregon Daily Emerald*, and in 2005 he received the Society for the Teaching of Psychology McKeachie Graduate Student Teaching Excellence Award.

Lonnie Yandell is professor of psychology and former department chair at Belmont

University. He received his PhD in 1982 from Texas Tech University and joined Belmont's faculty in 1985. He stays busy with student research, having sponsored over 200 undergraduate research presentations at campus, local, regional and national research conferences. His teaching responsibilities include cognitive psychology, perception, research methods, and general psychology. He enjoys developing computer-based and online teaching techniques. His most rewarding accomplishments are a wonderful 30-year marriage, two beautiful daughters, and a precious granddaughter. This paper was adapted from his 2005 W. Harold Moon Invited Address, presented at the 17th annual Southeastern Conference on the Teaching of Psychology.

Annette S. Kluck is a PhD candidate in counseling psychology at Texas Tech University and is currently completing her predoctoral internship at Eastern Virginia Medical School. She completed her undergraduate coursework at Nebraska Wesleyan University in 2001, earning a bachelor's degree in psychology and Spanish. Her research examines the influence of external factors on the development of disordered eating behavior. She is also extremely interested in the training of graduate student teaching assistants. This essay was adapted from presentations given at the Texas Tech University Teaching, Learning, and Technology Center; the 2004 APA conference; and the 2005 Midwest Institute for Teachers and Students of Psychology. The opportunity to develop this essay in its original form was made possible through the Texas Tech University TEACH program.

About the Editors

Bryan K. Saville is an assistant professor in the Department of Psychology at James Madison University (JMU) in Harrisonburg, Virginia, where he has been since the fall of 2004. Prior to joining the faculty at JMU, he was an assistant professor in the Department of Psychology at Stephen F. Austin State University in Nacogdoches, Texas. He earned a BA in psychology from the University of Minnesota, a MS in applied psychology from St. Cloud State University, and a PhD in experimental psychology from Auburn University. In 2002, he received the McKeachie Early Career Award from the Society for the Teaching of Psychology (Division 2 of APA). Although he has taught numerous courses over the past few years, he currently teaches General Psychology and Psychological Research Methods. His primary research interests are in the teaching of psychology; the experimental analysis of social behavior; and the application of psychological principles to sport, health, and exercise.

Tracy E. Zinn earned her PhD in industrial/organizational psychology with a minor in experimental psychology from Auburn University in 2002. After graduating from Auburn, she accepted a tenure-track position in the Department of Psychology at Stephen F. Austin State University in Nacogdoches, Texas, where she was nominated for the Faculty Achievement Award for Excellence in Teaching. Currently, she is an assistant professor in the Department of Psychology at James Madison University in Harrisonburg, Virginia, where she teaches, among others, courses in statistics and research methods, performance management, and industrial/organizational psychology. In addition, she conducts research on effective teaching practices, and faculty and student perceptions of students as customers in higher education.