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Where are the Ethics in Introductory Psychology?

Mitchell M. Handelsman, Ph.D.
University of Colorado at Denver

When you read the title of this article, what did you think about? Student cheating? Ethical rules that are broken? Ethical punishments, such as firing or loss of license? Teachers who sleep with, abuse, or otherwise exploit their students? Enron? These are interesting issues in their own right; however, the focus of this article is not on how to deal with ethical issues per se; rather, this article addresses the value of teaching ethics as a topic area in introductory psychology.

By "ethics," I am referring to right and wrong professional behaviors of psychologists. My point in using the ambiguous title (other than luring a few more readers) is that the word "ethics" conjures up a wide range of thoughts and images, many of which may create obstacles to teaching ethics in introductory psychology courses. Because ethics play an important role in all areas of psychology, I believe that students may profit both directly and indirectly—as well as in the short and long term—by becoming aware of the ethical issues while studying introductory psychology. These benefits would accrue both in the short and long term. I will first explore why ethics should be taught in introductory classes, and then spend some time talking about how to do it.

Why?

In spite of the need for all psychologists (teachers, professors, researchers, therapists, consultants, writers for *PTN*, etc.) to behave ethically, the need for students to study ethical issues in psychology does not seem to have filtered down to the introductory level. If we judged the role of professional ethics in psychology by its coverage in introductory textbooks, we would conclude that ethics only applies to research, that Milgram's obedience studies were the only ones ever to have ethical implications, and that there have been no real ethical issues in psychology since the 1970's. We know, however, that none of these is true. Very important ethical concerns exist in all the roles that psychologists play, including researcher (e.g., Do we need IRB approval for student class projects?), therapist (e.g., What if a spouse of a client calls and wants to know how the client is doing?), and teacher (e.g., How do we decide whether to grant an exception to a late-paper policy stated in our syllabus?).

One possible obstacle to incorporating ethics into the introductory course is the popular belief that ethics cannot be (or does not need to be) taught: "You're either ethical or you're not!" This belief, that people are either ethical or not, is a wonderful example of the fundamental attribution error—the tendency to overattribute behavior to internal personality characteristics. We may feel that good, morally motivated people go into professions like teaching, research, or mental health, and that one's personal moral compass is enough to guide one through any professional situation. However, the fact is that good people get into serious ethical trouble. Such people may feel, "I'm a good person, so my decisions must be good." But being a nice person with a good moral background is not enough to be an ethical professional because the situations psychologists find themselves in (e.g., executing complex research designs, therapy, consultation) take more than intuition and common moral sense (Handelsman, 2001; Kitchener, 2000).

If you've followed me this far you might be sympathetic to my argument that ethics should be taught. But you may not be convinced that introductory psychology is the place to do it. You might argue, for instance, that only a small minority of general psychology students will become psychologists and be bound by codes of ethics and agency policies. However, just as students benefit from learning about research methods even though they will not be doing research, they can benefit directly from an introduction to ethics in psychology. Professional ethics revolve around protecting those in fiduciary relationships, in which people with needs for services must trust a professional with expertise and power to use that

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Making Moral Decisions? How Do You Decide?

Patricia O'Neill, Ph.D.
Western Connecticut State University, Danbury, CT

Some might suggest that a sense of morality, along with a tacit system of morality, is what distinguishes humans from all other animals. How do researchers measure morality and moral beliefs? A standard method for investigating moral beliefs is to present a hypothetical dilemma to an individual and then to ask a series of questions about resolving that dilemma.

One well-known dilemma created by Lawrence Kohlberg concerns an individual identified as "Heinz." Heinz has a wife who is dying from cancer. A pharmacist has a drug that doctors think might save Heinz's wife. This pharmacist sells the drug for much more than it costs to manufacture. Heinz has done everything that he can to raise the money to pay for the drug, but still lacks sufficient funds. Desperate, Heinz considers breaking into the pharmacist's store and stealing the drug. After being presented with this information, participants are asked a series of questions beginning with "Should Heinz steal the drug?" followed by "Why or why not?" Responses are evaluated in terms of Kohlberg's scoring system and respondents are categorized as falling into one of several stages of moral development.

Another method for examining the nature of moral beliefs is to present participants with a dilemma and two possible solutions to that dilemma. Participants choose one of the solutions or rate the level of agreement or disagreement with each solution on a Likert-type scale (e.g., on a scale of 1 to 6, with 6 indicating strong agreement, and 1 indicating strong disagreement).

The trolley dilemma, borrowed from moral philosophy, has been modified for this purpose. The following represents the standard trolley dilemma. "The brakes on a trolley have failed. One part of the track continues straight ahead, and a second part of the track shunts off to the right. There is a switch that will shunt the trolley off to the right. One can pull the switch, which will send the trolley off to the right, or, one can do nothing, and the trolley will continue straight ahead." At this point, of course, there is no dilemma. The dilemma arises when different types and numbers of individuals are trapped at each end of the tracks. For example: suppose there are five individuals on the track straight ahead, and one individual on the track to the right? If you were presented with this dilemma, you would rate the level of agreement with doing nothing, thereby allowing the train to continue straight ahead, and your level of agreement with pulling the switch, thereby shunting the train off to the right. The number and types of individuals at each end of the track can be varied to assess how the pattern of responses to these dilemmas changes.

The intensive interview employed by Kohlberg and associates, and the survey method just described represent two methods to assess moral judgments. It has become increasingly apparent that there may be multiple ways by which individuals make moral judgments.

One claim about the process of moral judgments has been that moral judgments are the product of a deliberate and conscious reflection of all factors involved in a particular situation. This reflection is guided by knowledge of the moral structure of society and the degree of moral development of the individual. In deciding whether Heinz should steal the drug, for example, an individual's decision is the result of this conscious deliberative process. Alternatively, researchers have begun to suggest that moral judgments can occur quickly and automatically, and that the process by which a judgment is reached is not open to conscious inspection (Haidt, 2001). The conscious, deliberative process that people seem to undergo may reflect a demand to justify a decision that had been reached automatically.

While the nature of the judgment process may be debatable, researchers have identified factors that affect participants' responses to the hypothetical trolley dilemmas (Burnstein, Crandall & Kitayama, 1994; Petrinovich, O'Neill & Jorgensen, 1993). One factor that affects responses is the phrasing of the solutions to the dilemmas. We have known since Kahneman and Tversky's (1984) work that the phrasing of the solutions to a particular dilemma can influence the responses. For instance, responses to the trolley dilemma are influenced by whether the solutions are phrased in a "Save" manner, or in a "Sacrifice" manner (Petrinovich & O'Neill, 1996). In the dilemma described earlier, there are five individuals on the track straight ahead, and one individual on the track off to the right. The solutions can be phrased one of two ways. The "Save" phrasing follows: "You can pull the switch, which will save the five individuals. Or, you can do nothing, which will save the one individual". The "Sacrifice" phrasing follows: "You can pull the switch, which will result in the death of the one individual. Or, you can do nothing, which will result in the death of the five individuals." Regardless of the phrasing, there are two solutions: one can pull the switch, or one can do nothing.

For each solution, the number of individuals alive is the same for each phrasing. In other words, whether the pulled switch results in five individuals being saved, or the pulled switch results in one individual being sacrificed, five individuals remain alive under that solution. The net result is the same in each case. However, participants approve more strongly of solutions phrased in the "Save" manner than those phrased in the "Sacrifice" manner. This change in the degree of approval has been observed with American as well as Taiwanese college students, hinting that it may be a universal tendency (O'Neill & Petrinovich, 1998).

Other factors can affect responses to the dilemmas. Participants prefer solutions in which the greater number of individuals is saved to those in which the lesser number of individuals is saved. This tendency is unaffected by the phrasing of the solutions. Participants also agree more strongly with solutions in which humans (rather than nonhuman animals) are saved. Participants agree

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expertise and power for their benefit. Students are already in a fiduciary relationship in relation to you (you have expertise, and power comes in the form of grades). Students' experiences and learning about ethics will ideally influence all their subsequent professional relationships, including doctor-patient, attorney-client, and realtor-buyer.

How?

The fact that textbooks rarely address ethics creates a major logistical obstacle to incorporating ethics into general psychology courses; thus, instructors must be creative in covering material that has no devoted units, chapters, or modules. However, because ethics permeates everything psychologists do, instructors can incorporate discussions of ethics into units on research methods, social psychology, therapy, or any unit in which the professional activities of psychologists are discussed. What follows are some suggestions for how instructors can address ethical issues in their classes.

Discussions of ethics in class can be organized in several different ways. For example, students can be assigned to read all or part of the APA Code of Ethics (available at http://www.apa.org/ethics) and then in groups discuss how these specific standards might apply to such issues as involuntary psychological treatment, the use of deception in research covered in the book, or the ethics of posting students' test grades on professors' doors. Students can also be asked to read and discuss other cases in the literature (e.g., Koocher & Keith-Spiegel, 1998). Discussions of ethics can easily be tied to related issues in the real world, issues such as recent news stories about the Catholic Church, Arthur Andersen, and public officials (including college officials) falsifying their credentials.

Another rich source of material for class discussion is media portrayals of psychologists and other mental health professionals. It is interesting to note that most of these portrayals are of *un*ethical behavior, from the confidentiality violations by Bob Hartley on the original *Bob Newhart Show* to the blatantly disrespectful and incompetent behavior of Tracey on *Ally McBeal*. It might also be very interesting to have students discuss more serious portrayals of therapists in films such as *Ordinary People* and *Good Will Hunting*.

Many authors approach psychology ethics by incorporating general philosophical principles. For example, Kitchener (2000) outlines five general principles that underlie the APA Code and other specific rules. These principles are *autonomy* (respecting the rights of people to govern themselves), *nonmaleficence* (avoiding harm), *beneficence* (doing good), *justice* (treating people fairly), and *fidelity* (keeping promises). One advantage of a principle-oriented approach is that it provides a useful decision-making rubric that is applicable to any cases instructors bring to the class. The generalizability of these principles is also very high; students can apply them to any professional relationships. A useful adjunct to the principles would be *virtues*, or the personal characteristics that ethical psychologists possess (e.g., humility, respectfulness, prudence; Kitchener, 2000).

Another way to teach ethics is to look at one or more general themes that most psychologists face (e.g., Handelsman, 1998). Instructors could organize a lecture around what could be called the "four C's" of ethics in psychology: competence, consent, confidentiality, and conflict of interest. Although these topic areas are not as generalizable as principles or virtues, they may be more conducive to case discussions that are specific to psychology and that dovetail with other course topics.

Discussions in each area can start with broad questions that lead to more specific topics and cases. For competence, such questions might include: "How do we know when a psychologist is competent to treat a person with a panic disorder, teach a course in statistics, or study altruism?" This can lead to discussions of such issues as licensure, IRBs, and continuing education. For consent: "What should psychologists tell clients (students) about the risks, benefits, alternatives, and conduct of the therapy (course) they are about to start?" For confidentiality: "Who owns the information that clients tell psychologists, and how do psychologists respect the privacy of their clients?" And for conflicts of interest: "How do conflicts of interest develop (e.g., entering into a dual relationship like starting a catering business with a psychotherapy client) and how can they be avoided?"

For those with more research-oriented courses, discussions can focus on how to study ethics empirically (several such studies are included in Bersoff, 1999). For example, Pope and his colleagues have done numerous surveys on ethical beliefs and practices among psychologists (e.g., Pope, Tabachnick, & Keith-Spiegel, 1987; Pope & Vetter, 1992; see also http://kspope.com). And in our own research, we have found, for example, that written informed consent forms are usually unreadable (Handelsman, et al., 1995), and that therapists could benefit from using written forms that are readable (e.g., Sullivan, Martin, & Handelsman, 1993; Wagner, Davis, & Handelsman, 1998).

Overall, it may be useful to think of ethics as we think of statistics: We are not born with them ("them" being either statistics or ethics). We may have some intuitive ideas about what they are, but these ideas need to be augmented by courses that develop specific skills and knowledge. Finally, we know that most students won't go on to become psychologists. However, with early exposure to professional ethics students may benefit as psychology students, as students in general, as users of professional services from psychologists and others, as professionals themselves, and as citizens.

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"Dear Diary....":

The Benefits of Journal Writing in the Undergraduate Curriculum

Joseph A. Mayo, Ed.D.
Gordon College, Barnesville, GA

What is the best way to get your psychology students to relate course content to their everyday experiences? Though this question can certainly invoke debate in academe, I have concluded that student journal writing is a useful instructional strategy in accomplishing this goal. I base my conclusion on the results of previous quantitative (e.g., t tests, analyses of variance) and qualitative (e.g., anonymous questionnaires, narrative commentaries, anecdotal reports) assessment of students' academic performance in a variety of freshman- and sophomore-level courses.

Overall, these data have shown that journal writing compares favorably to traditional class assignments, including term papers and factual synopses of lecture and textbook material, in stimulating analytical and creative thinking, self-directed learning, awareness of course relevance to real-world events, understanding of self and others, and interest in the subject matter (Mayo, 2001a, in press-a, in press-b). Outside of the teaching of psychology, journal writing has also been employed effectively in college religion (Gestwicki, 1973) and business (Wark, 2000) classes.

Journal-Writing Assignments

In one instance, journals can take shape as topical autobiographies that encourage students to connect course concepts to their own thoughts or life experiences. In my life-span developmental psychology classes, I utilize an autobiographical approach to learning in the form of a life-story narrative project that I call the *Life Analysis* (Mayo, 2001a). Each student analyzes his or her life in theoretical terms over both its historical and hypothetical span. In doing so, I encourage each student to combine knowledge of life-span developmental theory with a realistic self-appraisal of personal development (physical, intellectual, social) throughout the life cycle. For the life stages that have transpired, the learner offers an introspective analysis of the milestones in his or her development. For the stages that lie ahead, the learner conjectures about both expected life successes and disappointments. I also build a library-research component into the prescribed criteria for project completion, which involves a search for library resources in support of the developmental theories and concepts presented.

Following from the success of using the Life Analysis project in my life-span development classes, I have introduced the *Life-Adjustment Narrative* (Mayo, in press-a) as a related autobiographical learning tool in instructing the psychology of adjustment. In completing the Life-Adjustment Narrative, students record their attitudes, beliefs, and feelings toward the "self"; important events in their lives; and interpersonal relationships that affect their own adjustment. Some students adhere to a more developmental model, discussing topics that are pertinent to their past and present adjustment, in conjunction with speculating about life-adjustment issues that may impact their future. In contrast, other students adopt a straightforward topical analysis of the issues currently relevant to their personal adjustment. Similar to the Life Analysis, in the Life-Adjustment Narrative project students (a) blend theoretical knowledge of the process of adjustment with meaningful insight into the variables affecting their personal adjustment and (b) cite library references that support the adjustment concepts that they discuss.

In addition to autobiographical presentations, journals can be used even more broadly to analyze everyday situations in the terminology and conceptual framework specific to a given academic discipline. In this way, students are able to apply course principles not only to examples from their own lives, but also to situations from the lives of others—including events depicted in the written and electronic media. To this end, I use the *Observational Diary* (Mayo, in press-b) as a case-based, journal-writing assignment in teaching introductory psychology. Students keep an ongoing log of the times that they observe basic psychology in action. Diary entries consist of the date, source (e.g., home, work, movie, television program), case description, and psychological application. Each case description serves as a vignette, or brief portrayal of some real-life experience, that allows students the opportunity to exemplify, analyze, and apply psychological concepts. As with my other journal-writing assignments, I require students to cite library references in support of their psychological applications.

Cost-Benefit Analysis

Despite the many pedagogical benefits stemming from the use of journal-writing assignments in the undergraduate classroom, certain costs should be taken into account. For one, some students will complain that journal-writing projects are too labor-intensive, especially when library research is implicated in the guidelines for completion. Another concern derives from the workload demands placed on instructors who, in grading student journals, provide extensive feedback regarding the nature and quality of the finished products. Moreover, in terms of the self-disclosure that comes with composing a journal, the instructor must take appropriate measures to guarantee students' anonymity and to protect their privacy and confidentiality. However, after carefully balancing instructional benefits and accompanying costs within the context of my own classroom-based experiences, I call for other undergraduate educators in psychology to consider weaving journal-writing assignments (where applicable) into their curricular plans.

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more strongly with solutions in which related individuals (for example, a brother or sister) are saved than with solutions in which unrelated individuals are saved. This pattern of responses has been repeatedly observed with a variety of participants: American college students; Taiwanese college students; older, non-college student populations in the US and in China. This pattern of preferences is unrelated to gender, age, stated religious affiliation, level of education, or political affiliation, although these variables do relate to responses to questions about social and medical issues. The uniform pattern of responses to the trolley dilemma again suggests that these responses may represent universal tendencies.

A preference exists for saving greater than fewer individuals, humans rather than animals, and related individuals rather than unrelated individuals. When these preferences conflict, the pattern of responses changes. There is a strong preference for solutions in which the greater number of individuals is saved: participants strongly agree with saving five individuals and strongly disagree with saving one individual rather than the five. However, if those five individuals are bank robbers, that preference reverses, and participants agree with saving the one individual rather than the five.

Likewise, under most circumstances, participants prefer to save humans at the expense of animals, even when those animals are the last two surviving members of a soon-to-be extinct species, and the human is an 80-year-old individual. If those humans are criminals (for example, a stockbroker accused of cheating clients), there is a stronger preference for saving the animal. If the human has been accused of a particularly heinous association (e.g., uniformed members of the American Nazi Party) the preference for saving humans at the expense of animals disappears.

While a strong preference exists for saving related individuals at the expense of unrelated individuals, this preference varies with the degree of relatedness, and whether the related individual has committed a crime. For example, the preference for saving your innocent brother is stronger than the preference for saving your innocent cousin, which is noticeably stronger than the preference for saving your cousin than the robber or murderer.

The patterns of preferences elicited by the trolley dilemma problems have been observed in a variety of populations. Nearly everyone prefers saving related individuals rather than unrelated individuals, humans rather than animals, and greater numbers rather than fewer numbers of beings, and nearly everyone prefers that evil-doers be sacrificed. This pattern of preferences emerges whether you ask people to fill out surveys, or whether you ask them to perform a speeded reaction time task. In summary, these preferences emerge in different groups of participants, and with different measurement methods. Some researchers have suggested that such biases may have been the result of natural selection, and therefore should occur universally, and with a variety of methods. Whatever the source of these biases, perhaps they provide a foundation upon which to build the morality that makes humans unique.

Psychology Awareness in Secondary Schools

At its August 21 & 24, 2002 Meeting, the APA Council of Representatives approved a resolution that was submitted by the Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools (TOPSS) and Board of Educational Affairs (BEA). The following resolution encourages schools to recognize and promote psychology at any given period during the academic year.

Psychology Awareness in Secondary Schools

WHEREAS It is estimated that hundreds of thousands of students take a psychology course in high school;

WHEREAS APA established the Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools (TOPSS) to further the education and development of all teachers involved in the teaching of precollege psychology, facilitate exchange of information and ideas among all teaching levels of psychology, and enhance the educational opportunities of students enrolled in high school psychology classes;

WHEREAS On August 23, 2002, the Executive Committee of TOPSS is celebrating its 10th Anniversary to commemorate ten years of providing resources and services to psychology instructors in secondary schools throughout the United States and worldwide;

WHEREAS TOPSS continues to enhance the knowledge and skills of high school teachers of psychology through the development and sponsorship of unit lesson plans, teacher institutes, newsletters, and scholarly publications;

WHEREAS The Executive Committee of TOPSS plans to launch a Psychology Awareness Initiative in Secondary Schools in conjunction with the TOPSS 10th Anniversary by disseminating current resources through its website and extensive network of state coordinators;

THEREFORE BE IT RESOLVED that the American Psychological Association, through the Council of Representatives, officially endorses the Psychology Awareness Initiative in Secondary Schools.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the APA Council of Representatives joins TOPSS in celebrating its 10th Anniversary and commends TOPSS on its 10th Anniversary for its efforts in promoting the teaching of psychology to enhance students' understanding of psychology as a discipline and a profession, and its contributions to health, education, and human welfare.

In addition to facilitating a period of psychology awareness in schools, TOPSS encourages teachers to explore resources and information being offered by the APA Science Directorate through its Exploring Behavior Week program and by the Dana Alliance for Brain Initiatives that offer activities focusing on the study of the brain.

Exploring Behavior Week, an auxiliary of the Decade of Behavior initiative to promote behavioral and social sciences in secondary schools, offers a teaching package that includes slides and a presenter's instruction booklet. These materials can be downloaded from the website at http://www.decadeofbehavior.org/Ebw/EBW.htm. For more information, please contact Susan Brandon at sbrandon@apa.org.

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What Does This Psychology Stuff Have to Do With My Life Anyway?: Exploring the Personal Relevance of Topics in General Psychology

Steve T. Barney, Ph.D.
Southern Utah University, Cedar City, UT

Abstract

This activity taps into cognitive and self-schema research findings and is designed to enhance learning, memory, and comprehension of principles in general psychology. Students write a brief paper on a topic selected from each chapter of the text. The paper requires them to describe the principle in their own words, and then to provide examples of how the principles they choose are relevant in their own lives. In this discussion I plan to provide insight into the concept, discuss the theoretical and scientific evidence for this type of activity, discuss barriers, difficulties, and some solutions to the problems I have encountered assigning these papers, and outline some of the observed and reported benefits of the activity.

I recall the words of the student in my first General Psychology course as a graduate teaching assistant at the University of Wyoming, "What does this psychology stuff have to do with my life anyway?" He continued, "If I could just figure out how this stuff relates to me, I could probably remember it better." Little did he know he was talking about the beneficial effects of elaborative rehearsal and the self-referencing effect. At the same time, he was inspiring me to find better ways to teach.

This individual's question and comment set me on a journey to find ways to demonstrate for students the relevance of the principles and concepts in psychology to them regardless of their major or future career plans. Over the last eight years, I have developed many examples and real-world exercises to facilitate this type of learning and encoding. One method I believe very effective is to have the students write Personal Relevance Papers (PRP's) on every chapter we cover in class.

I provide them a list of topic ideas and have them select one or two topics from the list. For example, the list from Chapter 1 might include; Confirmation Bias, Availability Heuristic, The Correlation Equals Causation Fallacy, and Experimental Method. Each student writes a brief paper explaining the principle or concept in their own words, and then they provide examples of the principle or concept in their lives. The papers are graded for content, creativity, understanding of the constructs, and grammar/spelling; also, the more examples the better. It helps bring psychology to the students in their own worlds and opens new doors of understanding to them.

Justification

Early work on the self-referencing effect (SRE) by Rogers, Kuiper, and Kirker (1977) demonstrated that self-referencing, or relating new information to the self or a self-schema, is a powerful encoding strategy, more efficient than structural, phonemic, or semantic encoding of the same material. Subsequent studies have supported this finding (e.g., Bellezza, 1992; Brown, Keenan, & Potts, 1986). Symons and Johnson (1997) in a meta-analysis examining the impact of self-referencing found that the SRE yielded superior memory relative to both semantic and other referent coding strategies. International studies (e.g., Horiuchi, & Fujita, 2001; Singh, 1995) have also supported the SRE's mnemonic effect.

Atkinson and Shiffrin's (1968) model of memory systems implies that rehearsing information facilitates its transfer from short-term to long-term memory systems. Information that we attend to and process in an elaborative way, relating it to other information already in long-term storage, is more easily encoded and more readily available for retrieval. In other words, elaborative rehearsal is a more efficient memory strategy than is maintenance rehearsal (simply repeating information).

So it stands to reason that developing activities in the classroom that activate the SRE and take advantage of the benefits of elaborative rehearsal would serve to improve retention of material and information. With intuitive and scientific support, I began to assign PRP's to my students with confidence.

Structure

The assignment is to write a one and one half to two-page paper detailing the personal relevance of psychological topics and principles in students' lives. Students are given a list of 4 or 5 possible topic areas from each chapter, but they are free to choose other topics in the chapter if they wish. They explain the principle in their own words, and then provide several examples of that principle or topic in their lives. Since we cover about 10 chapters per semester, 10 papers are required. A limited number of additional papers on topics from chapters not covered in class may be written for extra credit. Each paper is worth 10 points, so the cumulative value of the papers equals about one exam. (Extra credit papers are worth 5 points with a maximum of 4 extra credit papers accepted.)

Rationale

First and foremost, the PRP's are designed to help students learn and remember important concepts or principles from their general psychology experience.

A second reason for assigning these papers is the fact that many students simply do not test well. If exams are the sole yardstick for evaluating their performance in the class, those students with limited testing skills, or other confounding traits, could be at a significant disadvantage. Because the point value for all the PRP's equals the value of one exam, even those students who do not test well can demonstrate their competence and learning in an avenue that may be more friendly to them.

Lastly, several of my colleagues and I have noticed a decline in the quality of writing produced by students in upper division classes. We have speculated that a

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contributing factor to this decline is a paucity of writing assignments in lower division classes (except English Composition courses). I had hoped that having students practice writing in their introductory-level general education courses might help address this problem and produce better writers from my class.

Barriers

Time spent grading the papers is the biggest barrier to the success of this type of activity. Each section contains about 100 students with each paper initially taking between 5 and 10 minutes to grade. As I became more proficient, the time required to grade the papers was reduced to between 2 and 5 minutes each.

Student resistance is occasionally voiced in the initial stages of the course. In my experience, anytime students are asked to do things they do not associate with a traditional general education course (they usually consist of attending lectures and taking multiple choice exams) they are taken aback and sometimes complain vocally. However, as the semester progresses, the majority of students actually look forward to the assignments. After the first exam, when students recognize that they correctly answered most of the questions that were related to their PRP topics, they recognize the value of the activity.

Methods of Addressing the Barriers

Time spent grading the papers can be reduced by involving student graders; either paid or unpaid. The papers are typically so entertaining and enjoyable to read, that some of our psychology majors have volunteered to read through them. In any case, I spend some initial training time with the student graders going through several good papers and several papers of lower quality. We discuss a grading scheme; we usually achieve concurrence very easily.

Outcome

Inevitably, the students who receive the best grades on their papers do better on the exams, especially on those questions related to their PRP's. Students may resist writing at first, but then they see the value in the assignment and in doing a good job. In my course evaluations, the comments I receive about the PRP's are always favorable and supportive. I do an informal poll when I teach my section on memory, asking students if they do better on exam items they wrote about in their PRP's. They always concur, which makes my lecture on elaborative rehearsal and the self-referencing effect more effective as well.

I recently surveyed one general psychology course with 90 students enrolled and one with 43 students enrolled. I administered a 5-item survey regarding their experience with the PRP's. They responded to each item on a 5-point likert-type scale with 1 corresponding to Strongly Disagree, and 5 corresponding to Strongly Agree. I wrote the items to address each of the rationales I have for doing the assignments as stated above. The items and the percentage of students agreeing with the statements appear in the box.

From the initial class of 90, 79 students responded to the survey (88% response rate), and from the class of 43, 34 responded (79% response rate) for a total of 113 (85% response rate). Of those students who responded, 91.2% (103) indicated that the PRP's helped them learn the material better, 84.1% (95) found that the PRP's helped improve their grade in the course, 61.9% (70) endorsed that the PRP's helped them become better writers, and 86.8% (98) responded that writing PRP's was a beneficial part of the class. When asked if they would recommend other professors assign PRP's in other general education courses, 76.2% (87) responded favorably.

The majority of students in these sections of general psychology rated the PRP's as an avenue through which they learn course material better, an exercise that helps them demonstrate their competence in different ways than exam performance, and an activity that improves or helps to enhance their writing skills. Moreover, most of them indicated similar activities in other general education courses would be of benefit as well and expressed positive responses to the PRP's.

Apart from the intuitive, observed, and reported benefit to students, reading the papers is personally rewarding and validating. Receiving feedback on my performance in the classroom is typically accomplished by poring over exam scores and patterns, and the late-semester student evaluations. These types of feedback often leave me unfulfilled. Reading the PRP's gives me a sense of whether the students are really understanding the materials or not. For the most part, they do a great job, and I see that they are "getting it" more so than relying solely on exam scores or the inadequate evaluation forms they fill out one time per semester.

Items on Survey of Responses to PRP's	Percent agreement
1. Writing the PRP's helped me learn the material better	91.2
2. Writing the PRP's helped me improve my grade in class	84.1
3. Overall, I feel writing PRP's is a beneficial part of this class	86.8
4. Writing PRP's in this class helped me become a better writer	61.9
5. I would recommend that other professors assign PRP's in their general education classes	76.2

Faculty and Student Characteristics at Community Colleges

In 2001, the APA Committee on Psychology Teachers at Community Colleges (PT@CC) conducted a survey to learn more about the size and characteristics of the faculty and the students they teach at community colleges. PT@CC hopes this information will help APA find ways of more effectively serving the needs of community college faculty and students. The APA *Monitor* (March 2002)

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ACTIVITY

Introduction to the Perspectives of Psychology

Charles Cocores
Daniel Hand High School, Madison, CT

Statement of Concept:
This activity is designed to introduce the different "modern" perspectives of psychology through a student examination of the introductory sections of various texts.

Materials Needed:
Several different psychology texts (hopefully one for each student or pair of students) that have publishing dates that might span from the late 1970s (although it is not really necessary to go that far back) up to the present. (Texts are readily available from various publishers, libraries, students' homes, and other teachers' homes.)

Description of Activity:
Pass out a psychology text to all students and have them record the publishing date of the text. Ask them to look in the introduction or first chapter for a listing of the modern perspectives of psychology. Go around the room and have each student find the perspectives of psychology in his/her copy and list and compare them. Tally up the number of times each perspective is mentioned in each student's text.

You should find a general disagreement about what all these authors consider being the modern perspectives of psychology. Gestalt is often included. Some omit humanist, evolutionary, cross-cultural, and psychodynamic. For example, behavioral genetics appears along with the evolutionary perspective in Myers's *Psychology* (6th ed.), but he does not list the humanist perspective in the introduction. Instruct the students to report on the publication dates that reveal any patterns. An interesting discussion could revolve around the following questions:

- Why do these differences exist and why psychology is sometimes considered by "non-psychology" people to be the "black sheep" of the sciences?
- What new perspectives might emerge in the future?
- Why is the nature of psychology dynamic?

Note to Teachers: An additional follow-up activity would involve having small groups of students search the index of their own texts and deduce which perspectives would be addressed in each unit based on what they have learned about each perspective.

After attending the 1999 NKU-NSF institute I had the good fortune of meeting Dr. William Glasser for the second time. As we talked about the wonderful experience I had, I told him I was most struck by the way people from different perspectives of psychology seemed to not always "respect and appreciate" each other. For example, despite Myers's notion that the perspectives were complements of each other, I got the feeling that behaviorists seemed to think that psychodynamic people were practicing voodoo. As I said that, this mild mannered man reeled around, started to heave up with an apparently angry expression, accompanied by what seemed like a slight twitch and said in a Jekyll turned Hyde voice, "Charles, I am now finishing a book that will put the last nail in the behaviorist's coffin." Well, maybe the perspectives don't complement each other after all.

2003 TOPSS EXCELLENCE IN TEACHING AWARDS

The TOPSS Executive Committee invites nominations for the 2003 TOPSS Excellence in Teaching Award. The award recognizes outstanding teachers in psychology primarily at the local level. There will be up to five annual awards.

Eligibility:
Teachers of high school psychology who are nominated by a colleague, supervisor or administrator will be eligible.

Evidence of Excellence:
A minimum of three examples of quality teaching must be submitted. Examples may include, but are not limited to, peer reviews, videos, lesson plans, administrative evaluations, or a Web site.

Criteria: The nominee must demonstrate one of the following.
A. Promotion of vigorous student involvement in psychology beyond the classroom. Examples include psychology fairs, psychology club activities, and service learning activities.
B. Sponsorship or encouragement of positive applications of psychology in and beyond the school community. Examples include service learning, volunteer work, and workshops.

Mechanics:
The award committee, consisting of the TOPSS chair and two other members of the board, will review nomination materials.

Time-Line:
- ❑ All supporting materials must be postmarked by ***January 31, 2003***.
- ❑ The winners will be announced in the *Psychology Teacher Network* in the spring 2003.
- ❑ For additional information, please contact Mayella Valero, APA Education Directorate, 750 First Street, N.E., Washington, DC 20002, (800) 374-2721 ext. 3013, mvalero@apa.org.

Demonstrating the Fundamental Attribution Error While You Teach Study Skills

Sheila O'Brien Quinn, Ph.D., and Paula J. Martasian, Ph.D., Salve Regina University, Newport, RI
and Holiday E. Adair, Ph.D., California University of Pennsylvania, California, PA

Concept

The two primary purposes of this activity are to demonstrate the fundamental attribution error (FAE) and to provide students with practice in transfer-appropriate-learning as an especially effective study skill. Secondarily, the activity also can be used to encourage cooperative behavior, discussion of randomization, replication of previous studies, and generalization. The activity is appropriate for courses in introductory and social psychology.

The FAE

The FAE occurs every time we attribute another's actions solely or even primarily to their personal characteristics while ignoring or at least underestimating the influence of the external or social situation. Ross, Amabile, and Steinmetz (1977) demonstrated this effect on social perceptions by setting up a quiz game where volunteers were randomly assigned either the role of questioner or contestant. As in this classroom activity, the people randomly assigned to the questioner role wrote a series of questions, which the contestant, also randomly assigned had to attempt to answer. After the "quiz show" the contestants tended to rate the questioners as having a greater fund of knowledge than the contestants have. This illustrates that even when the external situation is obvious to the rater, there is the bias of ascribing more knowledge (a personal, internal characteristic) to the person in the questioner role. This activity gives students the opportunity of replicating the Ross et al. study while becoming more convinced of the importance of appropriate study techniques.

Transfer-Appropriate Processing

Introductory textbooks generally provide information on learning and memory that can be directly applied to the development of appropriate study skills. Transfer-appropriate processing is just one example (Bernstein and Nash, 2002). This principle can be paraphrased to state that the characteristics of the retrieval situation (how the material will be tested) should determine how the material should be processed (studied). In the attempt to get students to study in ways that will maximize the probability of their remembering the material on the test, the importance of "quizzing yourself" is also often emphasized in class. ("You know the instructor never asks you to read over the text on the exam. Why is that the main way you practice for the exam? Would repeatedly reading the rules be adequate practice for a basketball game?") Often, students remain unconvinced until they have actually experienced the efficiency of self-testing.

Materials

In the class prior to the demonstration, students are asked to bring their books and/or notebooks to the next class. An index card is distributed to each student at the end of the quiz portion of the activity.

Instructions

The instructor explains that the class will be practicing a very effective study-skills technique based on the principle of transfer-appropriate processing. This principle will either have been previously explained or be explained at the time of the activity. Students are asked to use their texts and notes to write five fairly challenging questions and answers that could appear on the next exam. Generating the questions takes about 20 minutes. Students then find a partner with whom they have not previously studied. When everyone has a partner, the roles of "learner" or "tutor" are assigned randomly. (The student with the next or most recent birthday or the alphabetically first middle name could be assigned the role of learner, for example.) To insure that the learners' questions are not used in the activity, the class instructor collects them. The tutor then asks the learner each of the questions that the tutor has generated, explaining the correct answers when necessary. All students are then asked to return to their original seats so that their study partner will not see their response to one final question. Each student then indicates on the index card which person seems more prepared for the next exam, the "tutor" or the "learner." Only the role, never the student's name, is written on the card. The cards should be placed face down so the instructor can collect them without seeing the individual student's responses. The responses are read out loud to the students, as the cards are separated into "learner" and "tutor" piles.

Discussion

Typically, students will respond that the teacher is more prepared, replicating the Ross, Amabile and Steinmetz (1977) results. This promotes the discussion of the impact of social roles on social perception in the classroom. The discussion is then generalized to other situations where our tendency to generate implicit personality theories while ignoring external influences causes us to make prejudicial judgements. Students also appear to benefit from the self- testing technique of the study skills transfer activity. Often the grades on the exam following this activity are significantly higher than previous exams. Finally, students report that they enjoy the activity and find that they have a clearer understanding of the concepts involved than could have been achieved through reading or lecture alone.

References

Bernstein, D. A., & Nash, P.W. (2002). *Essentials of Psychology* (2nd ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Ross, L.D., Amabile, T.M., & Steinmetz, J.L. (1977). Social roles, social control, and biases in social-perception processes. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 35(7),* 485-494.

The Psychology Endorsement for High School Psychology Teachers

Craig Gruber, Walt Whitman High School, Bethesda, MD
Rob McEntarffer, Lincoln Southeast High School, Lincoln, NE
Kenneth A. Weaver, Ph.D., Emporia State University, Emporia, KS

Abstract

In the last decade, the American Psychological Association (APA) approved national standards for the teaching of high school psychology. While state departments of education deem most high school psychology teachers qualified to teach the course because they possess a social studies endorsement, the depth and breadth of the national standards for psychology require a background in psychology which considerably exceeds the minimal inclusion of psychology content in the National Council for the Social Studies' (NCSS) 10 Thematic Standards (see Appendix, page 13). The current article compares the APA and NCSS standards and concludes with recommendations for college curricula preparing high school psychology teachers.

The Psychology Endorsement for High School Psychology Teachers

During the 1990s, a variety of local and state efforts strengthened the psychological science backgrounds of high school psychology teachers (Weaver & Davidson, 1997), namely the National Science Foundation summer institutes, the College Board's Advanced Placement (AP) exam in psychology, AP summer workshops, TOPSS workshops, the Psych-News listserv, *Psychology Teacher Network*, and the PsychSIG newsletter. High school psychology teachers now contribute articles to *American Psychologist* and *Teaching of Psychology*, edit teaching activities handbooks, author psychology textbooks, teach at The Psychology Place, lead convention sessions, and hold leadership positions in professional organizations. As a result of these initiatives, TOPSS's dynamic leadership, and APA's staunch support, high school psychology teachers have become a vital, contributing part of the psychology landscape.

The decade of the 1990s culminated with the APA's approval of the *National Standards for the Teaching of High School Psychology* (Maitland et al., 1999; McEntarffer & Beins, 2000), an impressive document articulating knowledge of introductory psychological science through the Biopsychological, Cognitive, Developmental, Methods, and Sociocultural content domains. Content standards, performance standards, and performance indicators are clearly articulated and richly elaborated in this comprehensive document

The psychology content knowledge required by the APA standards is substantial. However, according to a new national survey, less than one in four (23%) of all high school psychology teachers are certified in psychology (C. Hakala, personal communication, July 9, 2002). Applying this 23% to Ernst and Petrossian's (1996) estimate of 12,000 high school psychology teachers would indicate that only 2,760 teachers have a credential in psychology. The 2000 high school psychology teachers in TOPSS (M. Boenau, personal communication, July 5, 2002) should be successful because of the excellent support that TOPSS provides. Assuming no overlap between these two groups, the combined total of 4,760 teachers of psychology constitutes the most liberal estimate of teachers who currently have the content foundation to teach the introductory psychology course envisioned by the standards. Most high school psychology teachers do not possess the psychology background to teach the course as defined by the standards.

While many solutions to this problem involve retroactively building psychology content knowledge through workshops or summer institutes, we advocate instead for every state department of education requiring an endorsement in psychology as a proactive way to ensure qualified teachers. Currently, one-half of the states offer some endorsement in psychology, but considerable variability exists in the amount of required knowledge and whether the endorsement is mandatory to teach the course (Weaver & Allen, 2001). Most high school psychology teachers, however, are considered qualified to teach the course because they possess a social studies endorsement, and baccalaureate training to earn this endorsement is based on the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) 10 Thematic Standards. How do the NCSS 10 Thematic Standards compare with the APA's National Standards?

A Poor Match

In 1994, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) developed 10 thematic standards for social studies courses (see appendix). Articulated with these standards are expectations for both learners and teachers (NCSS, 1994). The performance expectations are especially commensurate with experience, education level, and curricular goals for students in Grades K through 8. For the high school psychology course, however, the NCSS standards are inadequate.

We note three concerns with the NCSS thematic standards. First, only 2 of the 10 standards directly mention psychological knowledge, Standard 4-Individual Development and Identity and Standard 5-Individuals, Groups, and Institutions. Additionally, the NCSS has limited the breadth of coverage in these two standards of both development and interactions among and between people. Second, in the other eight standards, psychological knowledge should feature prominently but is glaringly lacking. For example, Standard 1 addresses culture yet makes no mention of psychology or cross-cultural psychology while the APA Standards (Maitland et al., 1999) include the Sociocultural domain, addressing the relationship of culture and cultural issues to psychology. Third, the Biopsychological and Cognitive domains in the APA standards are not addressed in the NCSS standards. We conclude that the NCSS standards do a poor job relating to the teaching of high school psychology.

NCSS has also developed its own set of psychology disciplinary standards, although unlike the APA standards, they provide little direction in terms of both learner and teacher expectations. Nevertheless, they cover much more of the breadth of

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Interdisciplinary Perspectives and Teaching About the Self

Dana S. Dunn, Ph.D.
Moravian College, Bethlehem, PA

This article is based on the TOPSS Invited Address that was delivered at the 2001 APA Convention in San Francisco, CA.

Why is it that, when you are shown a group photograph in which you are present, you always (and probably covertly) seek yourself out? To see what you look like? Don't you know what you look like?

— Percy (2000, p. 12),

There is no escaping the self. William James drew the psychological self from intellectual obscurity and made it an object of empirical interest. Social-personality psychologist Gordon Allport referred to the self as "an awesome enigma." Though puzzling, the psychological study of the self was not popular—or academically safe—until the late 1970s, when the cognitive study of the self was spurred on by schema research and information-processing paradigms. To be fair and accurate, of course, the self remained a predominant focus of clinical psychology, and among psychologists with psychoanalytic or humanistic orientations. Elsewhere in the discipline, however, concern about the self was halfhearted, akin to going through ritual motions with little faith or enthusiasm.

Given the rise of social cognition and the heyday of human judgment studies in the 1980s, cognitive approaches to examining the self proliferated. Suddenly, the self was studied empirically, objectively, rationally, even emotionally. A flood of journal articles, books, book chapters, symposia, and conferences appeared, and the self "softened" and became fashionable, encouraging researchers to ask less cognitive and more affective questions. And now here we are: Textbooks on the self are available and psychology teachers are up to the challenges posed by the topic. Timing could not be better. Current studies of positive psychology, evolutionary psychology, and cultural psychology are now the new, "hot" areas of inquiry, and the self is writ large in each.

The psychological study of the self—the "I" and "me" of everyday discourse—involves asking how people think and feel about themselves. Now, who in the world does this more than secondary and post-secondary students? Our students, like ourselves, are unabashed narcissists. They are ripe for self-focus and self-exploration—we have only to provide them with the right materials to help them examine this intriguing topic. I believe that we should begin with more subjective approaches to the self first (e.g., why do we seek ourselves in group photos?), so that subsequent introducing more objective issues will be deemed constructive. I prefer to teach about interdisciplinary approaches to the self, taking what seems relevant, appropriate, and interesting from literature (e.g., novels, plays), discipline-based works (e.g., textbooks in psychology and sociology), films, and even music and artistic works.

In my teaching, I introduce the self by having my students read the short novel *Being There* (Kozinski, 1999), a poignant work highlighting American dependence on television for meaning, purpose, and a sense of reality. I then juxtapose scientific contributions available in textbooks (e.g., Baumeister, 1999; Brown, 1998) with the self as it is explored in novels. This semester I am using the novel *The Fall of a Sparrow*, the story of how a stagnated parent reinvents his life following the death of his daughter in a terrorist bombing (coincidently, we read the book shortly after the September 11, 2001 tragedies in New York, Pennsylvania, and Washington, DC). Previously, I've used novels written by the late Wallace Stegner (Dunn, 1999). Students also read a book on identity development (McAdams, 1993) and do a written exercise based on it (Dunn, 1997).

I believe in being interdisciplinary about the self, as it touches most areas of psychology and related disciplines, especially the humanities (areas of intellectual inquiry we psychology teachers ignore at our own peril). Below are some readings and writing exercises about the self that work in my courses. I am sure that they can be adapted for your teaching.

References and Recommended Readings:

Novels

Hellenga, R. (1999). *The fall of a sparrow.* New York: Scribner.
Kozynski, J. (1999). *Being there.* New York: Grove Press.
Percy, W. (2000). *Lost in the cosmos: The last self-help book.* New York: Picador.
Stegner, W. (1967). *All the little live things.* New York: Penguin.
Stegner, W. (1991). *Crossing to safety.* New York: Penguin.
Stegner, W. (1992). *Angle of repose.* New York: Penguin.
Stegner, W. (1990). *The spectator bird.* New York: Penguin.
Stegner, W. (1996). *A shooting star.* New York: Penguin.

Psychological Works

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1993). *The evolving self: A psychology for the third millenium.* New York: Harper Collins.
Freud, S. (1961). *Civilization and its discontents.* New York: Norton.
McAdams, D.P. (1993). *The stories we live by: Personal myths and the making of the self.* New York: Guilford.
Pennebaker, J.W. (1990). *Opening Up: The healing power of expressing emotions.* New York: Guilford.
Vaillant, G. (1993). *The wisdom of the ego.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard.
Vaillant, G. (1995). *Adaptation to life.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard.

Self and Culture

Davidson, C.N. (1994). *36 views of Mount Fuji: On finding myself in Japan.* New York: Plume/Penguin.
De Poncins, G. (1996). *Kabloona: Among the Inuit.* Saint Paul, MN: Graywolf Press. (Originally printed in 1941.)
Reid, T.R. (1999). *Confucious lives next door.* New York: Penguin.

Textbooks on the Self

Baumeister, R. (Ed.) (1999). *The self in social psychology.* Philadelphia, PA: Taylor & Francis.
Brown, J. (1998). *The self.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Writing Exercises About the Self

Dunn, D.S. (1989). Demonstrating a self-serving bias. *Teaching of Psychology, 16*, 21-22.
Dunn, D.S. (1997). Identifying images: A personality exercise on myth, self, and identity. *Teaching of Psychology, 24*, 193-195.
Dunn, D.S. (1999). Interpreting the self through literature: Psychology and the novels of Wallace Stegner. In L. Benjamin, B.F. Nodine, R.M. Ernst, & C.B. Broeker (Eds.), *Activities Handbook for the Teaching of Psychology* (Vol. 4, pp. 362-365). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Films About the Self

American Beauty; Castaway; Being There; Zelig; Babbete's Feast; The Memphis Belle.

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psychological content than the 10 thematic standards. According to the NCSS web site, "teachers who are licensed to teach psychology at all school levels should possess the knowledge, capabilities, and dispositions to organize and provide instruction at the appropriate school level for the study of psychology." This position produces a predicament for psychology and NCSS.

Although NCSS promotes certifying psychology teachers, it does so only from the perspective that the teacher must first have earned the social studies endorsement. This flawed view regards psychological science as a subset of social studies and the course work to earn the social studies endorsement as prerequisite study for an endorsement in psychological science. Such a view is in opposition to the APA standards.

The inadequacy of the NCSS standards for defining psychological content knowledge for the high school psychology curriculum was one catalyst for APA commissioning a task force in 1995 to develop national standards for the teaching of high school psychology (Ernst & Petrossian, 1996). The resulting APA standards ensure students have access to the full breadth of what the discipline has to offer. However, what is not evident is the impact the APA standards are having in preparing high school psychology teachers across the nation (Weaver, 2002). In the next section, we articulate the competencies and course work for preparing high school psychology teachers qualified to teach the course according to the APA standards.

Competencies and Courses for the High School Psychology Endorsement

The NCSS standards provide little specific direction for the development of high school psychology curriculum and even less direction in the area of teacher preparation. *The National Standards for the Teaching of High School Psychology* (Maitland et al., 1999, p. 88) enumerate specific competencies needed by high school psychology teachers and associated with undergraduate courses that we proffer should be required for the psychology endorsement.

Competency 1: Proficiency in the Scientific Method and Research Skills

The Methods domain is central to the other four domains in the standards. The content and performance standards emphasize the *science* of psychology, as opposed to opinions about psychology, "pop" psychology, or parapsychology. This emphasis on science requires that psychology teachers have a thorough understanding of the scientific method as it relates to psychology. High school psychology teachers will be required to help students interpret, understand, and possibly design psychological research studies, and their undergraduate courses need to provide them with this background. Courses preparing students for this competency include research methods or experimental psychology (including a study of ethics in psychological research) and statistics.

Competency 2: Expertise in Biologically Based Behavioral Phenomena

Truly understanding psychology requires understanding the underlying biology behind our ways of thinking and behaving. Specifically, familiarity with brain structures and their functions is absolutely necessary in order to understand content in other areas such as consciousness and memory. The APA standards devote an entire domain to the area of biopsychology. Many beginning psychology teachers feel the least prepared in this content area so psychology teacher endorsement programs need to pay special attention to preparing future teachers with a thorough understanding of how our biology is an integral part of our psychology. Courses preparing students for this competency include biological bases of behavior, biopsychology, or physiological psychology. Other possibilities would be sensation and perception, motivation and emotion, and health, stress, and coping.

Competency 3: Familiarity with Cognitive Components of Behavior

Some psychological historians (e.g., Baars, 1986) write of the "cognitive revolution" and how this new area of research radically changed how many psychologists think and work in their field. The APA standards include models and theories about memory, learning, language, and consciousness in this domain. In addition to being vital in current areas of research, these models and theories are particularly relevant to the process of education. Psychology teachers should be skilled at understanding what the research says about how the way we think relates to how we learn and applying that understanding to promote student learning in their own classrooms. Courses preparing students for this competency include cognition, memory, or thinking and language.

Competency 4: Knowledge of Developmental Processes

The Developmental domain includes theories and research related to cognitive, social, physical, and moral development across the lifespan. Psychology teacher preparation programs should emphasize these areas of research because high school psychology students are going through the very processes the discipline investigates! Issues of identity formation, maturation, and many others are of importance to high school students, and psychology teachers need the background knowledge in order to help students understand what psychology knows about "growing up." Courses needed to prepare students for this competency include lifespan development as well as specialized courses in childhood development, adult development, or gerontology.

Competency 5: Increased Understanding and Sensitivity Regarding Sociocultural Issues

The Sociocultural domain ranges from social psychology to the treatment of specific psychological disorders. Given this scope, high school psychology teachers need minimally to complete a survey course in social psychology which also includes prejudice and cross-cultural communication. We also recommend coverage of assessing individual differences utilizing reliable and valid methodologies. With diverse learners needing valid assessments, teachers should be prepared to use this research in effectively managing their classrooms. Courses needed to prepare students for this competency include social psychology, abnormal psychology, and psychological testing or assessment. Optional courses include personality and treatment of psychological disorders.

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Conclusion

While the APA and NCSS standards can be viewed as approaches to designing curriculum, they also define what the teacher needs to know and do to teach effectively. We find that the NCSS Thematic Standards match poorly with APA Standards. Although the NCSS disciplinary standards for psychology are somewhat comprehensive, they are skeletal in contrast to the breadth of the APA standards.

We reject the NCSS position that psychology endorsement must follow the social studies endorsement, advocating instead that every state should require an endorsement in psychology in order to teach courses in the discipline. To that end, we present a model bachelor of science in education curriculum for becoming endorsed in psychology as including research methods, statistics, biological bases of behavior, cognition, lifespan development, social psychology, abnormal psychology, and psychological testing. The proposed curriculum is compact enough to readily allow the undergraduate education major to complete the course work for a second teaching field endorsement as full-time teaching positions in psychology are still limited.

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Baars, B. J. (1986). *A cognitive revolution in psychology*. New York: Guilford.

Ernst, R., & Petrossian, P. (1996). Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools (TOPSS): Aiming for excellence in high school psychology instruction. *American Psychologist, 51*, 256-258.

Maitland, L. L., Anderson, R. M., Blair-Broeker, C. T., Dean, C. J., Ernst, R., Halonen, J. S., et al. (1999). *National standards for the teaching of high school psychology.* Retrieved July 1, 2002, from the American Psychological Association Education Directorate Web site: http://www.apa.org/ed/hscontents.html.

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Weaver, K. A., & Allen, T. L. (2001, August). Teacher certification in psychology by state. Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association, San Francisco, CA.

Weaver, K. A., & Davidson, M. J. (1997, August). Collaboration between high school and college psychology faculty: Four models. Symposium presented at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association, Chicago, IL.

Appendix

The National Council for the Social Studies 10 Thematic Standards

Standard	Description
Culture	social studies provide for the study of culture and cultural diversity
Time, Continuity, and Change	the way human beings view themselves in and over time
People, Places, and Environments	study of the previous
Individual Development and Identity	study of individual development and identity
Individuals, Groups, and Institutions	interactions among individuals, groups, and institutions
Power, Authority, and Governance	how people create and change the structures of power etc.
Production, Distribution, and Consumption	how people organize for the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services
Science, Technology, and Society	study of the relationships among science, technology, and society
Global Connections	study of global connections and interdependence
Civic Ideals and Practices	study of the previous in a democratic republic

Psychology Awareness in Schools continued from page 5

For the seventh year, the Dana Alliance for Brain Initiatives will sponsor Brain Awareness Week (BAW) on March 10-16, 2003. BAW is an international campaign that involves organizations and institutions worldwide in promoting brain science as a public interest. Materials for BAW, e.g., pamphlets, buttons, activities, and information on brain research, can be obtained by contacting the Dana Alliance at 212-401-1680 or by e-mail at bawinfo@dana.org. Relevant information is also available on the web at http://www.dana.org/brainweek. Additionally, the Dana Alliance launched the Partners in Education (PIE) program to provide resources and programs that connect scientists with K-12 students. For information on the PIE program, contact Karen Graham at kgraham@dana.org.

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reported on some of the preliminary results in the "The Community College Connection." The article is available online at http://www.apa.org/monitor/mar02/community.html.

An Executive Summary and a final report on the survey appear on the PT@CC web site at http://www.PTatCC.org.

APF/TOPSScholars Competition

The Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools (TOPSS) is proud to announce the question for the fifth annual American Psychological Foundation (APF)/TOPSScholars Competition. There will be three winners, each of whom will receive a $1,000 scholarship. TOPSS is extremely grateful to the American Psychological Foundation (APF) for contributing funds to support this wonderful opportunity for the winners in 2003.

2003 APF/TOPSScholar Essay Question

Educational reform has taken many forms in the United States, the latest initiative being that of President George W. Bush's "The No Child Left Behind" legislation. This legislation recommends that standardized tests in Math and English be administered to students from grades 3-7 on an annual basis. Educational leaders and researchers in the field want to ascertain that all children are assessed fairly, and that the skills/abilities identified in these assessments are supported by educational programs in the schools.

Part I
Conduct a literature review in which you identify three different skills/abilities that standardized tests actually do measure.
A. Provide a relevant literature review using a minimum of three (3) sources.
B. Include a reference list that is formatted in APA style.

Part II
Based on the literature review, develop a proposal to your school board in which you make some recommendations of how they should respond to the President's initiative. Provide psychological evidence to support your argument. Do not assume that the members of the board know psychological research or terminology.
A. Include the skills/abilities that the standardized tests currently measure.
B. Include other skills/abilities that should be considered by the board.

Part III
If the proposed program is implemented, how can it be evaluated?
A. Make your suggestions, supported by the psychological evidence you have uncovered.
B. Include recommendations for how the assessment should take place.

To compete in the contest, a student must **answer all parts of the question**. Winners will be selected on the basis of a demonstrated ability to (1) complete a critical analysis and synthesis of empirical research, (2) design an original program, and (3) generate a quality research proposal to empirically test the effectiveness of the program proposed. Psychology faculty at the high school, college and university levels will serve as judges.

Rules

Eligibility
· Entrants must be high school students enrolled or be presently enrolled in a high school Psychology course, and sponsored by a TOPSS member.

The Paper
· Papers must be typed or word-processed (if word-processed, include copy on a computer disk and identify word-processing program); consist of no more than 3,000 words in length; formatted in APA style; submitted in triplicate; and must include an abstract, not to exceed 120 words.

The Procedure
· No more than TEN papers per school may be submitted.
· All entries must include a cover sheet with the following information:
-Student's name
-Student's year in school (e.g., junior, senior)
-Name, address, phone number, and e-mail address of the TOPSS sponsor
-Student's school name, address, phone number, and e-mail address

· Send the paper to:
TOPSScholar Competition
c/o Sherrill Jenkins, Education Directorate
American Psychological Association
750 First Street, N.E.
Washington, DC 20002-4242

Submission must be postmarked by February 28, 2003.

For inquiries or clarifications on eligibility and procedures, please contact Sherrill Jenkins at sjenkins@apa.org or Mayella Valero at mvalero@apa.org. Complete instructions and scoring criteria for the APF/TOPSScholar competition are available on the web at http://www.apa.org/ed/topsshomepage.html.

Call for Nominations – 2003 Teaching Awards
Sponsored by the Society for the Teaching of Psychology (STP)
Division 2 of the American Psychological Association

The Society for the Teaching of Psychology announces its 2003 program of awards for outstanding teachers of psychology. Teaching awards of $750 and a plaque are bestowed for outstanding performance in each of four environments:

- Four-year Colleges or Universities: Robert S. Daniel Awards
- Two-year Colleges
- High Schools: Moffett Memorial Teaching Award
- Graduate Students: McKeachie Early Career Award

Criteria

Nominations will be judged on the following criteria by a panel including previous award winners. Nominees will *not* be expected to have achieved recognition in all areas. In particular, some criteria are not relevant for all teaching environments.

1. **Demonstrated influence in interesting students in the field of psychology.** Documentation could include papers or projects completed by students; evidence of students presenting papers at professional meetings or of students subsequently publishing their work done with this teacher; actions by the teacher, both curricular and co-curricular, intended to increase student interest and involvement in psychology (e.g., encouraging students to major in psychology at a university or college).
2. **Development of effective teaching methods, courses, and/or teaching materials.** Documentation could include description and sample of methods, materials, course syllabi, and evidence of successful utilization.
3. **Outstanding performance as a classroom teacher.** Documentation could include student evaluations, enrollment figures, and evaluative observations by colleagues, teaching awards, and other forms of prior recognition.
4. **Concerns with professional identity as a teacher of psychology.** This might be seen as professional activity on or away from campus, including publications of articles on teaching, stimulation of student research, community presentations about psychology, attendance at professional meetings or workshops relevant to the teaching of psychology, or memberships in organizations indicating such identification.

Winners will be notified in advance. Awards will be presented at a special Society for the Teaching of Psychology program at the 2003 meeting of the American Psychological Association. If a winner cannot attend, STP will appoint a representative to make the presentation at the winner's home campus at a time convenient to the winner.

The nominator and nominee, working together, must complete all documentation in support of the nomination. Responsibility for accumulating supporting documentation cannot be assumed by the Awards Committee. For ease of the review process, many nominees send materials in bound form (e.g., ring binder or spiral bound). In any case, submitted materials should *not* exceed 2 inches in width. Nominations are to be sent to Chairperson of the Awards Committee and must have a first-class postmark not later than *January 10, 2003*. Materials will be returned after the review process. However, nominees are encouraged to keep a photocopy of their materials.

These awards are designed to recognize teachers all across the country, including those who do not belong to STP and who are not nationally known. Renominations and self-nominations are acceptable. STP reserves the right not to make an award in a particular category if the Awards Committee believes no nominee is qualified in a particular year.

Send materials to: Dr. Dana S. Dunn, Chair, The Society for the Teaching of Psychology Awards Committee, Department of Psychology, Moravian College, 1200 Main Street, Bethlehem, PA 18018-6650. He can also be reached at (610) 861-1562 or via e-mail: dunn@moravian.edu.

New APA Affiliate Category -- Psychology Teachers at Community Colleges

APA has recently developed the Committee of Psychology Teachers at Community Colleges (PT@CC) to create initiatives to serve the needs of psychology faculty at community colleges.

PT@CC and its parent board, the Board of Educational Affairs (BEA), proposed the establishment of a new affiliate membership category of APA that will allow community college faculty to join APA as affiliate members at a greatly reduced rate and receive the *Monitor* along with discounts on publications. The Two-Year College Teacher Affiliate category has been approved by the Board of Directors and the Council of Representatives and will go to a bylaws vote in November. If approved as anticipated, the new affiliate category will be in effect by January 2003 and applications will be available from the APA Membership Office.

Please pass this information on to your community college faculty colleagues who may wish to take advantage of the opportunity to become affiliate members of APA. We also encourage APA members and affiliates with an interest in psychology at community colleges to participate in the ongoing development of PT@CC and its initiatives. For further information on PT@CC or the new affiliate membership category, please contact Martha Boenau in the Education Directorate at MBoenau@apa.org.

Psychology Teacher Network is published quarterly by the Education Directorate of the American Psychological Association (APA). Subscriptions are free to High School Teacher Affiliates of APA and APA Members, and $15 a year for all others. Address editorial correspondence to *Psychology Teacher Network*, APA Education Directorate, 750 First St., NE, Washington, DC 20002-4242; (202) 572-3013. Address inquiries regarding membership or affiliation to the APA Membership Office, at the same address.

Senior Editor..Barney Beins, Ph.D.
beins@ithaca.edu

Co-Editors..Martha Boenau
mboenau@apa.org

Mayella Valero
mvalero@apa.org

Consulting Editors:
TOPSS..Dave Johnston
cej@pcpartner.net

PT@CC..Robert Johnson, Ph.D.
bjohnson@rosenet.net

TOPSS Programs and Workshops in 2003

- Eastern Psychological Association
  Baltimore, MD
  March 13-16, 2003
- Southeastern Psychological Association
  New Orleans, LA
  March 26-29, 2003
- Rocky Mountain Psychological Association
  Denver, CO
  April 11-13, 2003
- APA Preconvention Workshop
  Ontario Science Centre
  Toronto, Ontario, Canada
  August 6, 2003
- Eastern Kentucky University
  Richmond, KY
  September 12, 2003

E-mail mvalero@apa.org for information.

Psychology Teacher Network
Education Directorate
American Psychological Association
750 First Street, NE
Washington, DC 20002-4242

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