PA President Ronald Levant, EdD, made “Making Psychology a Household Word” one of his 2005 Presidential Initiatives. The initiative was launched following the continued success of the APA Practice Directorate’s Public Education Campaign, which was established 10 years ago as a public service and to educate people about the value of psychology. Dr. Levant’s initiative aims to generate interest in, and understanding about, psychology by the public.

Recognizing that no one person could make psychology a household word, Dr. Levant knew that it would take consistent and ongoing activity to achieve this. Drs. Ruth Ullman Paige, Jessica Henderson Daniel, and Tom DeMaio agreed to lead efforts to increase the community outreach conducted by psychologists to help make psychology a household word. Neither the initiative nor the Public Education Campaign (see below) alone will make psychology a household word. But the more the public interacts with psychologists and other individuals who are conducting outreach, the more educated they become about how psychology can help them, and the more familiar they become with psychology as a whole.

The following information and resources were developed through the APA Practice Directorate’s Public Education Campaign (PEC) and may be of interest to teachers. These resources serve to educate the public about the value of psychology.

APA’s online Help Center (www.APAHelpCenter.org) is a resource for brochures, tips, and articles on the psychological issues that affect people’s physical and emotional well-being. Information about work and school, family and relationships, health and emotional wellness, disasters, terrorism, facts, and statistics can be found at http://www.apahelpcenter.org/articles/.

Featured topics available through the APA Help Center (http://www.apahelpcenter.org/featuredtopics/) include:

- **Resilience in a Time of War** provides tips to the public for coping with the stress of war and building resilience.
- **The Warning Signs of Youth Violence** initiative was developed with MTV in response to teen violence. An online feature includes information on dealing with anger and recognizing violence warning signs in others.
- **The Road to Resilience** initiative was developed with Discovery Health in response to the aftermath of September 11, 2001. Information on resilience factors and strategies and ways to build resilience is available online.
- **Resilience for Kids & Teens**, an offshoot of the Road to Resilience campaign, was developed with *Time for Kids* magazine and aims to reach children and teachers with information about building resilience.
- **Mind/Body Health: For a Healthy Mind and Body, Talk to a Psychologist**, the most recent iteration of the PEC, was developed as popular media have given extensive coverage to mind-body issues, recognizes the impact of behavior and lifestyle on health and illness. Statistics and information on mind/body health are provided. 

**Making Psychology a Household Word**

**Helen L. Mitternight, APA Practice Directorate**

**Emily Leary, APA Education Directorate**
Psi Beta’s Carol Tracy Steps Down

On June 20, 2005, Carol Tracy announced her retirement as Psi Beta’s executive director, a position she held since Psi Beta’s birth. Tracy, along with her mother, Ruth Hubbard Cousins of Psi Chi fame, cofounded Psi Beta in 1981. Because of Tracy’s steadfast leadership, Psi Beta has grown steadily. The most recent figures show that Psi Beta has more than 23,518 lifetime members and 135 active chapters across the nation! Moreover, Tracy was instrumental in facilitating Psi Beta’s acceptance into the Association of College Honor Societies (ACHS), becoming the first community college honor society in America to gain acceptance into ACHS.

Those of us who had the honor of working with her over the years know Carol Tracy for the special person that she is. She manifests patience, grace, a strong work ethic, and a positive attitude—all strengths that made her the ideal individual to lead Psi Beta. She is the means by which Psi Beta has enhanced the professional lives of hundreds of psychology teachers and, therefore, thousands of students. Through her devotion to Psi Beta, countless students have been drawn into the field of psychology and have been given recognition for superior academic work.

For those of us who have served on Psi Beta’s National Council, it is difficult to imagine Psi Beta without Carol Tracy; Psi Beta truly will never be the same. But this is also a time to celebrate. First, Tracy will have more time to devote to her beautiful grandchildren; we suppose they deserve a full time grandmother! Next, as Psi Beta approaches it 25th birthday in 2006, something the Psi Beta National Council plans to commemorate at the annual APA convention, we can anticipate the opportunity to formally honor both Carol Tracy and Psi Beta for contributing so much to thousands of students, faculty advisors, as well as the field of psychology. And you will find on the official Psi Beta Web site that Tracy is now serving as the emeritus executive director; it is gratifying to know that the National Council can continue to rely on Carol Tracy’s wise council as we go through this period of transition.

Interim Executive Director

Jerry Rudmann, past National President of Psi Beta (1997-1998), has come forward to serve as Psi Beta’s interim executive director. Rudmann, who teaches psychology at Irvine Valley College, has also served on the APA Committee of Psychology Teachers at Community Colleges (PT@CC). Dr. Rudmann will serve in this capacity until the National Council completes a formal procedure to identify the next executive director.
One of the richest sources of examples of psychological principles is the modern workplace. Most of us ultimately spend a large portion of our waking lives at work. Yet industrial and organizational (or I-O) psychology is often overlooked in the Introductory Psychology course. In this article, I discuss two areas of research currently receiving a great deal of attention in I-O psychology—organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior—and provide suggestions for incorporating these areas into your Introductory Psychology course, whether or not you choose to formally discuss the field of I-O psychology.

Organizational Justice

Concepts and Findings

Organizational justice refers to an employee's feelings of the fairness or unfairness of a particular aspect of work life. Justice often relates to specific organizational policies or decisions, such as promotions and pay raises, but it can also reflect the way employees are treated in general by supervisors or the organization.

Most justice researchers distinguish three types of justice perceptions. Distributive justice refers to perceptions of the fairness of a particular outcome (“Did I get the size bonus that I think I deserve?”), while procedural justice refers to perceptions of whether a decision-making process was fair (“Was the organization fair in the way they handled the process of distributing bonuses?”). Finally, interactional justice is concerned with perceptions of whether or not the organization or supervisor treats people respectfully and explains decisions adequately.

Not surprisingly, research has found that when workers feel that they are being treated fairly, there are various positive outcomes (Colquitt, Greenberg & Scott, 2005), including trust in, and respect for, the organization and management; willingness to go “above and beyond the call” (called organizational citizenship behavior; see the next hot topic); emotional attachment to the organization and a desire to stay in one's job; and improved motivation.

Two other interesting findings have begun to emerge. First, it seems that procedural justice affects employee attitudes more strongly than does distributive justice (Ambrose & Arnaud, 2005). For example, if a person doesn't agree with a promotion decision, it helps a lot to feel that the process was fair. Second, injustice seems to have more of an impact on employee attitudes and behaviors than justice. In other words, feelings of unfairness do more harm than feelings of justice do good (Gilliland, Benson, & Schepers, 1998). Feelings of injustice may persist for a longer period of time, whereas fair treatment may be more easily forgotten.

Two Hot Topics, continued on page 4
Two Hot Topics, continued from page 3

• The case of striking workers at a mine in Colorado demonstrates how violation of all three types of justice ultimately led to the strike and, sadly, the Ludlow Massacre of 1915. This case is featured in the 2000 American Experience episode “The Rockefellers” (available through PBS Home video, Arlington, VA), which also shows how John D. Rockefeller, Jr., attempted to remedy the situation by treating survivors of the massacre more justly. This might be a nice tie-in with an American History class. Feel free to e-mail me at maynarddd@newpaltz.edu for class notes.

• You could have students read one or several relevant sections in the recent book, Selling Ben Cheever (2001), which chronicles the ups and downs of working in the service economy. This book has relevance to both organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior, the topic to which we now turn.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Concepts and Findings

Organizational citizenship behavior, or OCB, refers to behavior at work that is both beyond one’s job requirements and beneficial to the organization. It is sometimes called prosocial organizational behavior or contextual performance, although these terms have slightly different meanings.

Different researchers describe this concept in different ways, but most agree on two types of OCB. Altruism refers to actions that help another person on the job, such as a coworker or customer. Examples include helping a coworker finish a project with a looming deadline or going out of one’s way to pick up a coworker whose car is being repaired.

Conscientiousness is concerned with actions that help the organization, usually through extraordinary dependability, attention to detail, and adherence to company policy. Examples include coming in to work even when you are not feeling especially well and refraining from making personal calls and long coffee breaks, even if it seems no one would notice.

Researchers have found that the best performers at a company are not necessarily the ones who are willing to go “above and beyond the call.” In other words, skills or abilities have little to do with OCB (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). Instead, it seems as though two things are likely to determine whether someone engages in citizenship behavior: personality (some people are just more likely to do this than others) and justice perceptions (people who feel they are being treated fairly are more likely to do this than people who feel they are being treated unfairly).

By definition, OCBs are not formally rewarded by the organization because they are beyond one’s job requirements. However, supervisor ratings of employee performance are, in reality, more positive for employees who had engaged in OCB (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991). Interestingly, this also applies to students’ evaluations of teachers (Allen & Rush, 1998).

Ideas for the Introductory Course

The topic of OCBs can be introduced in a number of places in the Introductory Psychology course, including social psychology (as it relates to teamwork and helping behavior), learning (modeling/observational learning), and motivation (e.g., Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation). It also has obvious links with the growing area of positive psychology.

Again, many students have held at least one job, and even those who have not might be able to relate experiences in informal work situations and family life (e.g., babysitting, chores). The following critical thinking questions could be part of a discussion or in-class thought paper:

• What are some examples of altruism that you have seen on your job? How about conscientiousness?

• Why do you think the employees engaged in these behaviors? Do you think it has more to do with the kind of person they are or the kind of treatment they receive from the company?

• Do you think that people who you see engaging in OCBs now will be the same ones being good citizens in their jobs 10 or 20 years from now?

• Do you think the boss or supervisor views them as a good employee because of these behaviors? Will it help them get a pay raise or promotion?

• What could your company do to increase OCB in the workplace?

• If a company finds that people with a certain type of personality are more likely to be helpful on the job, is it OK for that company to reject an applicant who does not fit that personality type, even if he has the skills and experience to do the job?

Whistle-blowing, or the disclosure of illegal or unethical employer practices by a member of that organization, constitutes an interesting wrinkle on the OCB topic. You could ask students whether whistle-blowing might be a form of altruism and/or conscientiousness and whether the whistle-blower’s intentions matter. The 1979 film Norma Rae, starring Sally Field as a textile worker fed up with working conditions, offers additional examples of behavior that may or may not be OCB.

References


Psychology Really Does Matter
Anita Rosenfield, PhD
Yavapai College, Sedona, AZ

In his 1969 presidential address, APA President George Miller stated that psychologists should “give psychology away to the public”; rather than keeping our research to ourselves, psychology’s findings should be made available to all. Although Miller was ahead of his time, his advice has finally been heeded.

Despite taking only baby steps during the 1980s and 1990s (notable exceptions being the high visibility of health and social psychology), under the APA presidency of Philip G. Zimbardo in 2002, the dream became a full-blown reality. The major presidential initiative of Zimbardo, whose career as a psychologist has focused largely on demonstrating the relevance of psychology to students and to the public at large, was to develop a task force to select research articles that are statistically significant, written “in a jargon-free, readable style appealing to the nonpsychologist public, as well as to our professional colleagues” (Zimbardo, 2002, p. 344) and to include these studies on a Web site that summarizes “psychology in applied action” (Zimbardo, p. 339). (The site is now being expanded to integrate its offerings with APA President Ron Levant’s initiative, Making Psychology a Household Word.)

As someone who has been teaching introductory psychology for many years, I have found that one of my great challenges has been to hook students into seeing how psychology is relevant and applicable to their lives. I also want my students to see that psychology is constantly building on itself (and on other disciplines), and I want them to keep up with the psychology literature. Unfortunately, professional journal articles are difficult for most students in the introductory classes to understand. When I read about the Psychology Matters Web site (www.psychologymatters.org) in the APA Monitor on Psychology (January 2002), I was excited. I went to the site and immediately saw it as a resource that not only could help my students learn about current research that is applicable to their lives, but was delighted to find articles written in an easy, understandable style. The articles, which are selected and rewritten by professional science writers from Rhea Farberman’s APA Public and Member Communications Office, are divided into specific sections: Findings, Significance, Practical Application, Cited Research, and Additional Sources. An extra bonus is the “Helpful Information” section, which includes other links: what is psychology?, how to be a wise consumer of psychological research, an overview of the history of psychology, a glossary of psychological terms, and additional resources. Clearly, this is fertile ground for classroom assignments.

For the past year, I have used “Psychology Matters” as an Application Assignment for my introductory psychology students. Students are directed to the Web site and instructed to review the links to the various topics. The 20 links include such research areas as consumer/money issues, driving safety, health, memory, parenting, sexuality, and trauma/grief/resilience. Students are instructed to select and read an article that interests them and then write a one-page, four paragraph paper that includes: paragraph 1: the title of the article, a short summary of the findings (one or two sentences), and a short summary of the significance of the research (one or two sentences); paragraph 2: a one-sentence summary of each point included in the “Practical Application” section; paragraph 3: a short summary of information found at one of the resources cited; and paragraph 4: a final paragraph about how the information in the article applies to the student’s life. (All of my assignments direct students to reflect on the personal application of what they learn in the class.) A checklist is provided in their assignment packet so they are sure to include all of the information in each paragraph.

This assignment, which has gone over well with my students, presents an additional opportunity to demonstrate the broad range and the many subfields of psychology that we cannot possibly cover in a 14-week semester. By selecting articles they find interesting and applying what they have learned from reading the article to their own lives, students go beyond the textbook and classroom lectures and begin to grasp the idea that psychology actually is relevant to them and to their lives—Psychology Really DOES Matter!

References
Zimbardo, P. G. (2004). Does psychology make a significant difference in our lives? American Psychologist, 59(5), 339-351. PTN

2006 MISTOP Conference Announced
Midwest Institute for Students and Teachers of Psychology
March 3 & 4, 2006
College of DuPage
Glen Ellyn, IL
For information, contact Pat Puccio at puccio@cdnet.cod.edu mailto:puccio@cdnet.cod.edu.
APA Board of Educational Affairs (BEA) Block Grants in Support of Precollege and Undergraduate Teaching Conferences

To enhance the quality of teaching and learning outcomes, the Board of Educational Affairs reviews proposals for financial support to award $5,000 in BEA Block Grants each year.

Criteria
To be considered for funding, applications must meet the following criteria:

1. The conference must advance the teaching of psychology at the secondary, 2-year, and/or 4-year level;
2. The conference must be directed by an APA member, associate, or affiliate;
3. The grant must be requested by an APA member, associate, or affiliate; and
4. The grant must be used to offset travel expenses of selected conference participants, registration fees of conference participants, and/or speaker fees.

It is possible that conferences that have received block grants 2 years in a row may not be funded or may be funded at lower levels on the third consecutive application to ensure that a variety of conferences receive grants.

Proposals for block grants will be reviewed and evaluated according to the following criteria:

1. Conference Goals and Activities. Proposals will be rated on the perceived importance and innovativeness of the conference as well as the clarity and completeness of the description of the conference objectives and activities. (A conference announcement/brochure should be submitted with the application.)

2. Composition of Target Audience. Proposals will be rated on the potential impact and suitability of content for the target audience.

3. Budgetary Information. Proposals will be rated on the clarity and completeness of the description of the conference budget, anticipated expenses, as well as confirmed and anticipated sources and amounts of funding.

Following the evaluation of the proposals, the BEA Block Grants Subcommittee will recommend monetary awards based on the availability of funds and on the quality of the applications.

Applicants may be awarded up to $1,000 during a given year. If fewer than five acceptable applications are received in a given year, the BEA may award more than one block grant (and more than $1,000) to the same conference in that year.

Deadline
Funding requests for teaching conferences in 2006 should be postmarked by February 28, 2006. Please send written requests to:

Martha Boenau
Education Directorate
American Psychological Association
750 First Street, NE
Washington, DC 20002-4242


How can the concepts that are used by cognitive behavior therapists be useful to teachers in the classroom to help their students learn better and feel better about themselves? Dr. Aaron Beck, the “father” of cognitive therapy, had some great suggestions for high school teachers at the APA convention this past August, in a session sponsored by TOPSS.

Many of the high school students we work with every day are still using trial and error to learn and to deal with problems in the classroom and at home. They would be much better off using inductive reasoning and more scientific thinking to solve problems, but they often let their emotions get in the way and instead the problem gets worse, not better. Often they behave impulsively, jumping to conclusions, forming misconceptions, and reacting in ways that get them in trouble.

As teachers you are quite aware of the misconceptions your students develop, both of themselves and of others. Do these sound familiar?

- When they cannot do “one” thing, they cannot do anything right.
- If one person does not like them, or rejects them, then “nobody” likes them.
- If they have a problem with one teacher, then “all” teachers are a problem for them.

These misconceptions often result in behaviors that are nonproductive:

- Students who do not think they are smart do not act smart.
- Students who think they are a failure continue to fail.
- Students labeled (i.e., ADD, LD, remedial) achieve only what is expected of them, and often make excuses using their label.

This kind of self-talk that students engage in may be the root of their misbehavior, both academically and behaviorally. The basic premises of cognitive therapy seem so appropriate when applied to student issues that we need to help them overcome. As stated in Cognitive Therapy and the Emotional Disorders:

...problems are not necessarily the product of mysterious, impenetrable forces, but may result from commonplace processes such as faulty reasoning, making incorrect inferences on the basis of inadequate information or incorrect information... thinking can be unrealistic because it is derived from erroneous premises; behavior can be self-defeating because it is based on unreasonable attitudes...(Beck, 1979)

This was the hypothesis Beck made about his patients, and these are the same thoughts and unreasonable attitudes we see in our students. Their inability to change thoughts and attitudes is so common! The egocentric personality of many teenagers, their habit of personalizing everything that happens around them, and the way they think in absolutes are often the root causes of their inappropriate behavior.

Emotional maturity may be what the students are lacking, and the skills that accompany this maturity are what we need to teach them. The ability to think ahead and to consider the consequences of their behavior needs to be developed. Learning how to distance themselves from external situations and realize that not everything is about them would lead to more positive behaviors. Sensitivity to others, listening skills, and considering the rights of others to gain a perspective different from their own could help develop understanding and more thoughtful reactions to situations that develop around them. The art of compromise—and its benefits—might help to develop more positive peer relationships.

Maybe while we are teaching psychology we could apply psychological principles to help students learn more effective ways of dealing with the issues. If students’ automatic thoughts can be identified as the root cause of their problems then maybe they can be taught to “catch it, check it, and correct it” before it gets out of hand. If we can help students modify their maladaptive responses to stimuli in their environment, maybe they will be more successful in school, and hopefully in life.

What draws students to psychology is the fact that it relates to all areas of their lives. As teachers we can model how to use these techniques of cognitive behavioral therapy by providing time for self-assessment, problem reduction, and other meta-cognitive activities. What better way to make psychology more meaningful and useful in the world outside of our classroom.
Psi Chi Announces Two New Internship Grants

Virginia Andreoli Mathie, PhD
Psi Chi Executive Director

Psi Chi, the National Honor Society in Psychology, in partnership with the FBI's National Center for the Analysis of Violent Crime (NCAVC) and with the American Psychological Association's (APA) Science Directorate, is pleased to announce the addition of two new grants for Psi Chi members: the Psi Chi/FBI National Center for the Analysis of Violent Crime Internship Grant and the Psi Chi/APA Science Directorate Internship Grant. These grants expand the opportunities for Psi Chi student members to apply the knowledge they learned in the classroom, add to their knowledge base, practice their professional skills, develop new skills, explore career options, solidify their career goals, and expand their network of professional contacts through their work in these exciting internship settings.

APF/APA TOPSS Excellence in High School Student Research Awards

Annually, the Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools (TOPSS) offers an award program cosponsored by the American Psychological Foundation (APF) to recognize outstanding research projects conducted by high school students. Professors of psychology at the college and university levels evaluate the submissions and determine the winning papers.

The award structure for this competition is: $1,500, first place; $1,000, second place; $500, third place; and $250, fourth place. Winners' names and descriptions of their projects will appear in the APF and Psychology Teacher Network newsletters and the APA Monitor on Psychology.

To submit your paper, please send three copies of your paper plus an electronic copy of the paper on a diskette along with the information requested below to:

Excellence in High School Student Research Awards

c/o Emily Leary
APA Education Directorate
750 First Street, NE
Washington, DC 20002-4242

Submissions must be postmarked by March 17, 2006. Please visit the TOPSS Web site at http://www.apa.org/ed/topss/excelhsaward.html for information on eligibility requirements, scoring criteria, and paper submission process, or contact Emily Leary at eleary@apa.org or 202-572-3013 for additional information.

The FBI NCAVC internship provides a 14-week unpaid research experience for undergraduate and graduate students in the fall and spring semesters at the NCAVC in Quantico, VA. The NCAVC conducts empirical research on factors involved in violent crime. Current research topics include maternal filicide, sexual exploitation of children, edged-weapon homicide, domestic violence homicide, child abduction/homicide, child abduction epidemiology, and serial murder. Research being planned includes paternal filicide and terrorism-related topics. Interns participate as team members in all aspects of the research including research design, data collection, data analysis, and publication of results. There are five intern positions available each semester at the NCAVC. Psi Chi members interested in this internship must apply through the regular NCAVC application process and meet the NCAVC requirements (see the NCAVC Web site for details: http://www.fbi.gov/employment/ncavc.htm). The internship application deadlines are March 1, 2006, for spring 2007 interns, and November 1, 2006, for fall 2007 interns. If the NCAVC selects a Psi Chi member as an intern, the Psi Chi member will be eligible to apply for the Psi Chi/FBI NCAVC Internship Grant (see http://www.psichi.org/awards/completelist_awards.asp#23/). One grant of up to $7,000 will be available each semester. The Psi Chi grant application deadlines are June 1, 2006, for spring 2007 interns, and February 1, 2007, for fall 2007 interns. The cover sheet and submission instructions can be downloaded from http://www.psichi.org/pdf/fbigrant.pdf.

The Psi Chi/APA Science Directorate Internship Grant (see http://www.psichi.org/awards/completelist_awards.asp#22/) is a collaborative initiative of Psi Chi and the APA Science Directorate that provides an opportunity for a Psi Chi member to do a summer internship at the APA's Science Directorate (see http://www.apa.org/science/). The applicant for the internship must be a Psi Chi member who is a rising senior or rising junior majoring in psychology. The 10-week paid internship in Washington, DC, will give Psi Chi members the opportunity to gain experience in science administration and learn more about cutting-edge research in psychology. For example, interns might assist with data entry for directorate projects, conduct Internet searches on a variety of topics, write summaries of selected research or issue areas, help construct databases of researchers or topic areas, help develop and implement components of larger projects (e.g., Decade of Behavior initiative, Exploring Behavior Week initiative, PSY21 initiative), help assemble materials for the Summer Science Institute or for the annual convention, sit in on directorate policy meetings, and/or attend congressional hearings and/or meetings on the Hill. The Psi Chi National Council and staff members in the APA Science Directorate will collaborate on selecting one intern for the summer internship. The grant will provide $2,000 to supplement the salary (approximately $3,500) paid by the APA. The deadline for the 2006 summer internship is January 15, 2006. The cover sheet and submission instructions can be downloaded from http://www.psichi.org/pdf/apagrant.pdf/.

PTN
Selecting an Undergraduate Psychology Program: Suggestions for Students

Stephen L. Chew, PhD
Samford University, Birmingham, AL

&

Carol Farber
Miami Killian Sr. High School

High school students who plan to study psychology in college will frequently ask their teachers, “I want to major in psychology: Which college should I choose?” The choice of a college is especially important if the student is considering a career in psychology or a related field.

How can we help students find answers that will best meet their needs? This question is difficult to answer because students differ greatly in abilities, financial resources, interests, and in their educational or career goals. It can be helpful to give students some guidelines for inquiry that will help them arrive at their own conclusions.

Generally, most students already have factors that limit their choices, including GPA, SAT/ACT scores, family and personal concerns, and especially, financial limitations. Often, by the time they get around to asking about psychology programs, students will already have made some preliminary choices based on these factors. Students may be deciding between programs in psychology at state community colleges or 4-year colleges, or private colleges or universities.

The first choice a student must make is whether they want to attend a community college, a small college, or a major university. Many students begin their college careers at 2-year community colleges that have strong psychology programs that provide a rich educational experience. When considering a community college, students should ask about the faculty who teach the courses. How many full-time faculty are available to students? Does the college have a psychology club or a chapter of Psi Beta (Psychology Honor Society for Community Colleges)? What courses are offered and how frequently are the courses available? Students should always obtain information about how specific courses transfer from a community college to the respective college or university. Many state colleges and universities publish articulation agreements that explicitly list courses that transfer between institutions.

Choosing between a small or large university can be a difficult decision. Small colleges tend to offer smaller classes with faculty who are more likely to be focused on teaching. Large universities may offer a wider range of courses. However, large universities typically emphasize research, and individual faculty are devoted to conducting research. An important consideration in deciding whether to attend a major research university is whether courses will be taught by faculty members or teaching assistants (TAs). Many major universities make extensive use of graduate student TAs to teach courses, especially lower level courses. TAs often have little teaching experience, yet they are enthusiastic about teaching. Unfortunately, TAs are not good sources of letters of recommendation for graduate school, and letters of recommendation are essential for students that wish to pursue graduate study in psychology.

As a general rule, faculty are usually more accessible to students at small colleges. Major universities can offer exceptional research opportunities for a few students, but small colleges offer good research opportunities for many more students. Students must decide which kind of college provides the best individual fit.

One common misconception is that earning an undergraduate degree at a university with a graduate program offers an advantage for students trying to obtain admission to the graduate program. Major universities often focus more on graduate study and research, rather than undergraduate teaching. Therefore, students may not have an advantage of gaining admission to the graduate program just because they attended the undergraduate program.

Regardless of the status of the selection process, students can take several steps to make more informed choices. Conducting a little research should offer a better perspective on a variety of issues. Engaging students in the research process can help them to understand the kinds of questions they should be asking when making decisions about selecting a program in psychology.

Information about a particular undergraduate program in psychology is typically available at the college or university Web site. However, evaluating this information relative to students’ needs or priorities can be difficult. The APA Education Directorate maintains information about undergraduate psychology programs at http://www.apa.org/ed/pcue/profiles_intro.html. Although the information is provided primarily for departments evaluating programs relative to a national sample, the profiles offer information that may also be useful for students. Information provided includes average number of faculty and typical courses offered at all types of institutions.

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Selecting, continued from page 9

colleges. This summary information can then be compared to the individual school that the student may be considering.

Additionally, students can obtain information about careers in psychology from a Web page specifically designed by APA for students: http://www.apa.org/students/.

Students who are definitely interested in pursuing graduate study in psychology should keep several factors in mind when choosing a college. Scores on the GRE and undergraduate GPA are of primary importance in the admission process. In order to be competitive for top graduate schools, students will need strong letters of recommendation from faculty. Strong letters of recommendation should contain detailed information about strengths of the individual student (Appleby, Keenan, & Mauer, 1999). Graduate schools also pay a lot of attention to research skills and experience. Applicants who have conducted original research and presented or published the research are stronger candidates. Therefore, students should ask about research opportunities when evaluating undergraduate psychology programs. Students may also want to consider undergraduate psychology programs that offer internship and volunteer opportunities. Ultimately, students should look for undergraduate psychology programs that have been successful in getting their graduates admitted to graduate schools. Successful undergraduate programs develop a reputation among graduate schools for the quality of the students they produce.

To assist students in evaluating a college, referring them to the following suggestions may assist in gathering information.

1. Check the college catalog and Web site to review the range of courses offered.
2. Identify faculty in the department and review the courses that they teach and their research interests.
3. Make contacts with individual faculty. Contact the department chair or faculty to ask questions about the department and the programs offered.
4. Find out if there is a chapter of Psi Chi or Psi Beta on campus. Contact the advisor and inquire about recent activities.
5. Arrange to meet a student who is attending the program and ask questions about the experience of attending the respective school.

Questions that could be asked include:

About the Department

1. How many full-time faculty members do you have?
2. How large is the average class? Do class sizes differ depending on the course?
3. How many courses are taught by full-time faculty and how many courses are taught by graduate students or part-time faculty?
4. Who advises students about courses and career plans? Will I be advised by a faculty member? Is there an undergraduate advisor?
5. How accessible are faculty members to students?

About the Students in Psychology

1. On average, how many years does it take students to graduate?
2. How many undergraduate students are psychology majors? Is psychology a popular major on campus?
3. Are the psychology majors a cohesive group? Do they socialize together?
4. What percentage of students go on to graduate school?

About the Psychology Program

1. What makes your psychology program distinctive from other psychology programs?
2. How successful are graduates in getting into graduate programs?
3. What kinds of graduate programs and schools do graduates attend?
4. What are the opportunities for student research? What percentage of undergraduate students engage in original research?
5. Do students present their research at conferences? If so, how many students, which conferences? Is there financial support for student research?
6. Do students and faculty coauthor papers and publications?
7. Are there internship or volunteer experiences available to students? If so, is there a formal internship course?
8. How flexible or structured is the undergraduate curriculum?
9. If students have particular career goals in mind, they should ask whether those goals are supported by the psychology program.
10. Is there a psychology club or a chapter of Psi Chi or Psi Beta? If so, how active is the club or chapter?

For students seeking guidance in college selection, asking questions may help in the decision-making process. Often, students do not know what questions they should be asking. Thus, providing students with a suggested set of questions can help to make the college decision process a better experience.

Reference

Incorporating Social Psychological Research in the Courtroom

Patrick Mattimore
Saint Ignatius College Preparatory School, San Francisco, CA

When General Motors wants to test the safety of a new car, the company can arrange crash tests with dummies. No one gets hurt and the company learns valuable information that saves lives.

Social psychologists who wish to learn something about human behavior have no equivalent to crash test dummies. They set up a controlled scientific experiment to learn how people react in simulations in order to posit how things are likely to happen outside their human laboratories.

The social psychological experiments that are the most deceptive, lifelike, and stressful for research subjects are, ironically, also the studies that often are the most helpful to researchers in understanding human behavior.

 Increasingly, courts are relying on psychological research, and psychologists are appreciating their interdependence with the field of law. At the 2005 Western Psychological Association (WPA) Convention in Portland, there were two invited presentations and two paper sessions wholly concerned with legal topics, as well as a handful of other presentations in which the legal system figured prominently.

Dr. William Thompson from the University of California, Irvine, addressed the topic of how forensic experts could convey the results of their crime scene investigations to jurors. Thompson challenged some of the traditional experts’ testimony in areas such as handwriting and DNA analysis, claiming that the experts sometimes resorted to “fudge factors” in order to help secure convictions.

In the case of the *State of Texas v. Josiah Sutton* (1999), in which the defendant was convicted of rape and sentenced to 25 years in prison on the basis of a DNA sample, Thompson was consulted by television station KHOU to review lab records from the Harris County Police Department Crime Laboratory, which had tested Sutton’s DNA. Because the HPD lab misinterpreted its own DNA test, it mistakenly reported a 1-in-694,000 “match” between Sutton and the semen associated with the rape. In reviewing the lab’s work, Thompson discovered the error and publicly expressed the opinion that Sutton should have been excluded. His analysis was confirmed when two separate labs retested the semen sample and determined that Sutton’s did not match. Sutton’s conviction was overturned, and he was released from prison. Consequently, the Houston District attorney’s office has ordered retesting in numerous cases involving lab work from Harris County, including the cases of at least 17 prisoners on death row.

Thompson had another message for psychologists testifying as expert witnesses. He suggested that psychologists correct what he called the prosecutor’s and defense attorney’s fallacies with sound reasoning. The prosecutor’s fallacy works like this. If blood evidence shows that only 2% of the population has the perpetrator’s blood, the prosecutor might say that there is a 98% chance that the suspect is the person who committed the crime because he has that blood type. But as Thompson pointed out, that ignores all the other evidence that may exclude the defendant and invites the jury to think they can determine the probability of guilt based upon a single factor.

The defendant’s fallacy is exactly the opposite. It invites jurors to ignore the high probative value of the matching blood types and to look at all the other people in the population who could fit into that category. So prosecutors ask jurors to ignore all the other evidence and focus on a single probability, while defense attorneys direct jurors to consider all the thousands of other possibilities without focusing on the unlikely chance that this suspect would be picked up with a matching blood type.

Another presenter at the WPA Convention, APA Past President Phil Zimbardo, explained how his famous Stanford Prison Experiment (SPE) was an eerie portent of the events at Abu Ghraib. Zimbardo attributed the guards’ behavior in both the SPE and at Abu Ghraib to the powerful situational forces, which included the guards’ lack of training and accountability, the emerging norm that sanctioned the behavior, and the sense of total power exercised by the guards over the prisoners.

Testifying as an expert witness in the military trial of Sgt. Chip Frederick, one of the defendants accused in the Abu Ghraib abuses, Zimbardo listed additional factors that led to Frederick’s aberrant behaviors, such as 12-hour work shifts and the isolation of the prison. As in the SPE in which Zimbardo acknowledged his own failure to intervene sooner, there was a systemic failure at the top levels of leadership at Abu Ghraib. Torture was tacitly approved and even encouraged.

Former Defense Secretary James Schlesinger, who was appointed to head a four-member advisory panel investigating abuses at Abu Ghraib, delivered a rebuke to the government, citing the parallels with the SPE and concluding that the results from Stanford should have been a forewarning.

It is not only governments that ignore social psychological research, but courts and jurors as well. Frederick pled guilty and received an 8-year prison sentence, forfeiture of pay, a dishonorable discharge, and a reduction in rank to private. Zimbardo attributed the harsh sentence to the court’s blaming the individual, ignoring the situational determinants of Frederick’s behavior, and, in effect, absolving the system. In other words, the court also ignored sound social psychological research.
ACTIVITY: Distinguishing Popular and Scholarly Resources in an Introductory Psychology Research Class

Paula McMillen, PhD
Oregon State University

Undergraduate psychology students need help to more effectively evaluate periodical resources for potential use in research papers. The faculty at Oregon State University’s psychology department felt that their students often included resources of unacceptable quality in their bibliographies because they had difficulty discriminating scholarly from popular types of publications. So, the librarian now includes active learning on this topic in the library sessions for the introductory psychology research course.

Although Oregon State University is a doctoral level research institution with approximately 19,000 students, our Psychology program is predominantly undergraduate, with most students getting a terminal bachelor’s degree. For the most recent academic year (2004-2005), there were nearly 500 declared psychology majors. “Research Methods in Psychology” is a required course for psychology majors, which most of them take in their junior year.

Students are required to conduct library research for a research proposal, including 8-10 references from refereed academic journals or chapters from edited books. At least six of these references should be research studies directly related to the hypothesis. The faculty typically provides four hypotheses from which students can choose in order to develop a research proposal.

Historically, the library sessions focused on how to efficiently search the relevant online databases, including the library’s online catalog and the PsycINFO index to periodical literature. With increased levels of Internet search skills and with the advent of full-text article databases, students are inclined to use what is available online rather than going to the stacks and finding print copies of journals. Much of what they find available is popular rather than scholarly literature, and this led to faculty frustration with the quality of resources. Even though the assignment explicitly asks for “refereed academic journals,” students didn’t know how to discriminate these from other types of resources.

The learning activity is in two stages, each done in small groups of two to four students. There are typically 20-25 students in each lab section.

For the first activity, I give each small group a copy of a general interest/popular publication and a copy of a scholarly publication within the same subject area. I don’t limit these to psychology, but an example would be Psychology Today and Emotion (an APA journal). As a large group we then create lists of descriptive characteristics for scholarly and popular publications based on the criteria that the small groups used to discriminate between the two resources provided. For example, one publication provided references at the end of the articles and the other one didn’t. In this discussion, I try to get them to be specific, to make comparisons, and to think about the implications of what they’re noticing about the publications, especially in terms of evaluating these resources for credibility, authority, accuracy, currency, and objectivity. By the time each group has offered its observations, we usually have a fairly complete list. If not, we will usually fill in any critical missing pieces.

The second activity, done in the same small groups, uses a packet of about five articles (the same materials are provided for each group) printed out from our various full-text databases. The articles are all on the same general topic, such as the effects of aging on memory. They represent a variety of publications including scholarly and popular periodicals as well as trade magazines, newsletters, and nonresearch articles from scholarly journals (e.g., an editorial or a response to a previously published article). Again, I check with each group, asking them each to share their determination about the type of publication and whether it qualified as a research article. We continue until all the articles have been examined.

I wrap up these activities by providing two handouts: a table of criteria for different publication types—for example, there are good Web pages from the libraries at Wake Forest and University of Texas at San Antonio—and a copy of a page from Ulrich’s International Periodicals Directory that shows information on one of the articles they examined, including the target audience, whether it’s a scholarly publication, etc.

The follow-up homework assignment is to find an article in Academic Search Premier on the topic they have chosen for the research proposal. Each student sends me a citation via e-mail with a determination of whether it came from a popular or scholarly publication and the student’s reasons for that decision.

Faculty have expressed positive feedback about the utility of this exercise to help students more effectively evaluate periodical resources for potential use in research papers. PTN
Instructors of various classes in psychology have reported great success in using popular films to engage students and promote greater understanding across such areas as personality theory (Paddock, Terranova, & Giles, 2001), social development (Boyatzis, 1994), forensic psychology (Anderson, 1992), and cognitive psychology (Conner, 1996). Among instructors of abnormal psychology, in particular, feature films—both classic and contemporary—have been a favorite addendum to the typical class lecture and discussion (Fleming, Piedmont, & Hiam, 1990).

The advantage to using popular films in teaching abnormal psychology is that they appeal to a wide audience. They are also useful in depicting the development of psychopathology, which is less apparent in a “snapshot” interview of a psychiatric patient. Done well, feature films can help the student “see” what is often missing in written case studies—emotional expressions, behavioral manifestations, and the ongoing interpersonal dynamics.

Feature films can also be used to illustrate the stigmatizing and inaccurate portrayals of individuals with mental illnesses and of the professionals who treat them. Mentally ill individuals are often portrayed as dangerous and unpredictable psychopaths or as cunning shysters who fake mental illness for personal gain. Schizophrenia and dissociative identity disorder are treated as interchangeable, and comedic films inadvertently poke fun at individuals with mental illness. An instructor can therefore use popular films as discussion starters, and students can sharpen their critical thinking skills by writing papers that critique the films’ inaccuracies.

The downside to using movies, however, is the time required to show feature-length films inside or outside of class. As an alternative approach, classic and contemporary music can be used to illustrate psychopathology, to engage the students in class discussion, and to point out inaccuracies and misperceptions depicted in another form of the media. Music is an integral part of many students’ lives, a form of media to which they are exposed even more regularly than movies.

Daehler and Miller (2004) recently described the use of music to illustrate principles of child development. Playing selections from a wide range of artists, from Joni Mitchell to Creed to Carly Simon, the authors depicted various issues, such as gender, peer relationships, and emotional development. Daehler and Miller reported that the majority of students enjoyed the musical selections and found them to be relevant to the class lecture. More than 89 percent of the students suggested incorporating music in future semesters of the class.

The current project examined the instructional use of music by popular artists to depict mental illnesses in an abnormal psychology class (N = 43). Each class period in which a new category of psychological disorders was introduced began with a contemporary song. For example, the first day of class began with the song *Unwell* by Matchbox 20, followed by a discussion about the onset of mental illness and the concepts of ego-dystonia and ego-syntonia.

To facilitate participation and to appeal to the wide range of musical interests, students were invited to submit lyrics for extra credit. To encourage active learning and the application of course material, students underlined sections of the lyrics they submitted and described in the margins or at the end of the text the relevance of the lyrics to the topics studied. One point of extra credit was added to students’ quarterly exam scores for each set of lyrics sub-

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**Table Selected Songs and Artists for Psychological Disorders**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disorder Category</th>
<th>Songs and Artists</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>Anxiety (Bad Religion)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phobia (The Kinks)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agoraphobia (Incubus)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Eating</td>
<td>Skinny (Filter)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ana’s Song (Silverchair)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Live Happy, Live Anorexia (Stage)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mood</td>
<td>I Don’t Care Anymore (Phil Collins)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lithium (Nirvana)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Depression (Black Flag)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Personality</td>
<td>Drain You (Nirvana)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Narcissus (Alanis Morissette)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Don’t Leave Me Alone (Alcazar)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Schizophrenia</td>
<td>Flagpole Sitta (Harvey Danger)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aliens Exist (Blink-182)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unwell (Matchbox 20)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Substance Abuse</td>
<td>Casey Jones (Grateful Dead)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Margaritaville (Jimmy Buffett)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weed With Willie (Toby Keith)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissociative</td>
<td>Dissociative (Marilyn Manson)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Split Personality (Matthew Sweet)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I Don’t Remember (Peter Gabriel)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual</td>
<td>Lola (The Kinks)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dude Looks Like a Lady (Aerosmith)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fetish (Joan Jett &amp; Blackhearts)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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*Using, continued on page 14*
APF/APA TOPSS Scholars Competition

The Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools (TOPSS) is proud to announce the question for the seventh annual American Psychological Foundation (APF)/APA TOPSS Scholars Competition. There will be three winners, each of whom will receive a $1,000 scholarship. TOPSS is grateful to the American Psychological Foundation (APF) for contributing funds to support this wonderful opportunity for the winners in 2006.

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, and (2) generate a quality research proposal. Psychology faculty at the college level will serve as judges.

Submissions are due February 10, 2006. Please visit http://www.apa.org/ed/topss/apftopsscholar.html for complete information on eligibility requirements, scoring criteria, and process for submitting papers. You can also contact Emily Leary at eleary@apa.org or 202-572-3013 for additional information.

2006 Essay Question

Developmental psychologists often find links between childhood influences and adult patterns of thought and behavior. These connections have been found in many areas including social, emotional, and cognitive development, as well as personality traits. Imagine you are a developmental psychologist investigating a potential question. In order to do your own research, you must be knowledgeable about prior research and studies in your area of interest.

Part 1

Conduct a review of the existing literature that has explored the connection between early childhood and adulthood. Potential topics include, but are not limited to: intelligence, attachment, temperament, locus of control, optimism, academic achievement, language development, psychopathology, resilience, and parenting styles. Provide a review of the literature using a minimum of five print-based sources. The list of references must be formatted consistent with APA style (fifth edition). Limited assistance for formatting using this style references must be formatted consistent with APA style (fifth edition). Limited assistance for formatting using this style. Be sure to include operational definitions, ethical concerns, and potential flaws.

Using, continued from page 13

The current project achieved the instructor’s goals. As a time-saving alternative to feature-length films, popular music was effectively used to illustrate disorders and concepts in abnormal psychology. Moreover, the use of music in the classroom served to engage the students and encouraged them to be active listeners of the music that they hear every day. One unanswered question is the extent to which the project actually had an impact on the students’ learning, a direction for future research.

References


2005 TOPSS Election Results

TOPSS is pleased to welcome three new members to the TOPSS Committee. Effective January 1, 2006, Laura Brandt, Chair-Elect (Adlai E. Stevenson High School, Lincolnshire, IL), Marie Smith, PhD, Secretary/Editor (Thomas S. Wootton High School, Rockville, MD), and William Elmhurst, Membership Coordinator (Marshfield High School, Marshfield, WI), will begin their terms on the TOPSS Committee. Congratulations!

The TOPSS Committee extends sincere thanks and appreciation to off-going members of the TOPSS Committee: Debra Park, Past Chair (West Deptford High School, Westville, NJ) and Alan Feldman (Highland Park High School, Highland Park, NJ).
Incorporating, continued from page 11

According to Dr. Jerry Shaw, who teaches a law and psychology course at California State University, Northridge, the underlying assumptions of the two fields are different. Whereas the legal process presumes that the trier of fact will arrive at a single truth, psychologists assume that truths are probabilistic and that multiple truths may describe certain phenomena.

Shaw says that psychologists can manipulate variables and are familiar with the need to disguise interventions: That is, they lie and purposely mix up facts. Although such practices are a necessary staple of social psychological research, the art of manipulation may backfire when psychologists are asked to explain their findings as expert witnesses in court.

Elizabeth Loftus appears frequently in court as an expert memory researcher on topics such as repressed and recovered memories and eyewitness identification. When she was delivering an address at a recent conference, an audience member posited that since Loftus’ job was to deceive research participants and implant them with false memories, might not that cause jurors to question her credibility? Loftus had just shown the audience a segment of a Scientific American national broadcast in which she was manipulating the host, Alan Alda, in an attempt to implant him with a false memory about developing distaste for a food that he had eaten when he was a small boy.

Both Loftus and Shaw said that social psychologists needed to use “cover stories” in order to disguise the true intentions of their work, but Shaw added that such techniques did not make them “Machiavellian.” The problem, as Shaw acknowledged and as the questioner implied, is that jurors may well end up making dispositional attributions about psychologists who testify as experts. What that means is that jurors may be unable to distinguish the psychologist’s deceptive behavior in the laboratory from her honest reporting of results in court, believing instead that her manipulative laboratory behavior will carry over into the courtroom.

One solution to the expert witness credibility problem is to follow the course prescribed in some countries and insist that only judges call and examine expert witnesses. Judges would be signaling to jurors that the court finds the expert witness both impartial and credible. Attorneys could submit their requests for experts to the court along with questions. Attorneys would be prohibited from questioning the experts, however, at least in front of the jury.

When there are legitimate discrepancies in the social psychological research, judges should allow more than one expert to testify, but they should endeavor to avoid those “battles of the experts” whenever possible. Judges should therefore become advocates for the experts they have invited to testify in their courtrooms. They should explain to juries not only why they believe the subject matter the expert will be discussing is “beyond the ken” of common understanding, but they should also try to help jurors appreciate the way in which social psychologists do their work, including the necessity for deceptive research, if appropriate.

Adopting a less adversarial approach to the introduction of social psychological expert testimony also requires that judges stay abreast of the research. They can and should be aided in that regard by the social psychologists themselves. PTN

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TOPSS 2005 Competition Winners

The APA Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools (TOPSS) is pleased to announce the winners of two competitions recognizing outstanding work in the field of psychology by high school students.

The sixth annual American Psychological Foundation (APF)/TOPSS Scholars Competition winners were Alyssa Hoyt from Trinity Preparatory School, Winter Park, FL (Art Therapy: The Healing Power of Creating Art); Mary Altm from Shawnee High School, Medford, NJ (Benefits of Pet Attachment vs. Benefits of Pet Company on Blood Pressure); and Peter Millar from Shawnee High School, Medford, NJ (Anxiety in Children of Divorce). Each of these three winners received $1,000 in scholarship money, generously contributed by the American Psychological Foundation. A panel of college and university level psychology faculty selected these three students based on their ability to complete a critical analysis and synthesis of empirical research and generate a quality research proposal. The essay question posed for this year’s competition focused on aspects of APA President Dr. Ron Levant’s interests around health care.

The APF/APA TOPSS Excellence in High School Student Research Awards recognize outstanding high school student research projects by awarding scholarships to the student winners. The 2005 winners were: first place ($1,500), Erin Choo, Roslyn High School, Roslyn Heights, NY (The Influence of Affirmative Action on High School Students’ Assessment of College Applicants); second place ($1,000), Christine Therese Schwall, W. C. Mepham High School, Bellmore, NY (Opinion Shift in Adolescents: The Impact of Stance and Style of PowerPoint Presentations on the Exposure to Novel Scientific Information Among High School Students); third place ($500), Dara Steinberg, John F. Kennedy High School, Bellmore, NY (The Effect of Ageism on Long-Term Recall in the Elderly Population); and fourth place ($250), Nova Hinman, Portage Northern High School, Portage, MI (An Experiment To Investigate the Effect of a Person’s Spoken Opinions Interrupting the Teaching of Information).

The APA Education Directorate, TOPSS, and APF congratulate the winners of the 2005 competitions. For more information on these programs, check the TOPSS Web site at http://www.apa.org/ed/topss/homepage.html.
Shooting for the Stars: How Science and Mathematics Competitions Benefit Students, Teachers, and Communities

By Suzie Boss
Education Writer, Intel Education
Published by Intel(R)
Innovation in Education (http://www.intel.com/education)
Also see the Science Service Web site at http://www.sciserv.org.

Introduction
Enhancing mathematics and science literacy among K-12 students is a national goal shared by educators, government and industry leaders, and a variety of organizations. Academic fairs and competitions in mathematics and science offer visible forums for nurturing student interest and raising achievement in these fields. Participating students stand to gain benefits that go far beyond the chance to earn prizes and recognition. Indeed, potential benefits also extend to teachers and the larger community.

Although academic competitions vary in format, the events discussed in this paper are those that engage students in the act of doing scientific research or engineering to solve open-ended problems. Prestigious events such as the Intel International Science and Engineering Fair (ISEF) and Intel Science Talent Search also require students to communicate their findings and defend their conclusions, following the protocols for presenting research and ideas in the world of mathematics and science.

How Students Benefit
Students who participate in these events invest both in-class and out-of-school time to wrestle with a challenging problem that interests them. They engage in inquiry that prompts them to ask questions and test possible explanations. In the process, they hone problem-solving skills and learn the value of persisting in the face of setbacks. They polish presentation and communication skills and learn to articulate and defend their own thinking. Some events also require the skills of teamwork and collaboration.

All of these activities align with the learning goals set forth in the National Science Education Standards. The Standards, developed as a roadmap to help students achieve scientific literacy, defines science as an active process:

Learning science is something that students do, not something that is done to them. “Hands-on” activities, while essential, are not enough. Students must have “minds-on” experiences as well. (National Research Council, 1996, p. 3)

While the Standards presents a call to action for reforming American classrooms, they describe learning activities that already are the norm in well-designed science competitions. Namely, students engage in the process of inquiry; apply scientific methods to new questions; engage in problem solving, planning, decision making, and group discussion; and communicate their ideas to others. (NRC, 1996)

Such activities foster the habits of mind—including curiosity and critical thinking—articulated in Benchmarks for Science Literacy. (American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1993)

The activities of designing research experiments, gathering data, and conducting an indepth analysis of results also align with the standards set forth by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. NCTM’s Principles and Standards for School Mathematics calls for rigorous, high-quality mathematics instruction that “enables students to compute fluently and to solve problems creatively and resourcefully.” (NCTM, 2000)

Research into how we learn reveals that all new learning involves transfer based on previous learning. (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). Students build new understanding on what they already know. Effective learning experiences ask students to explore, explain, extend, and evaluate their progress. (Bybee, 2002). As students test, revise, and refine their ideas in the course of pursuing an independent research project, they are following a path that eventually leads to deeper understanding.

Independent research projects offer students the chance to go beyond the structural and time limitations of the classroom and pursue more rigorous work that requires deeper thinking. This opportunity for differentiated instruction aligns with another goal of the Standards: creating a system that promotes both excellence and equity. Principles and Standards also calls for creating opportunities for students to work beyond foundational material in mathematics, pursuing studies in more depth or sophistication. (NCTM, 2000)

What does this mean in practice? An award-winning high school biology teacher explains the need to create challenges that stretch individual learners: “There should be students in every class who get really excited, really curious [about a con-
cept]. They should be encouraged to take off on their own investigations.” (Boss, 2002)

Similarly, the coordinator of an independent research program at a public high school in suburban New York describes a high level of student motivation to learn as an outcome of preparing a project for competition. “Students who want to know more about a topic that interests them put more energy into investigations and discussions. They also study more on their own” (Krieger, 2002). Although students work on their research projects independently or in small teams, they share a common curriculum that focuses on the scientific method, the research process, scientific writing, and forms of presentation. (Krieger, 2002)

Competitions offer young people the opportunity to be taken seriously by peers and adults. The Standards highlights the importance of teachers taking student learners seriously. (NRC, 1996) Similarly, a high school science teacher and veteran coach for Intel ISEF contestants stresses the importance of “letting kids know they can change the world.” (Jarrett Weeks, 2002)

Students often practice with peers, teachers, and mentors to prepare to defend their results before judges. Such vigorous intellectual jousting can build “skills and confidence that remain with students for life.” (NSTA, 1990, p. 12)

Research about youth development underscores the value of receiving positive attention from adults and peers during adolescence. (Benard, 1993) Many contestants receive coaching from a teacher or other adult mentor who has expertise in a scientific or technical field, creating opportunities for youth to build relationships outside the classroom and to benefit from positive adult role models.

Informally, students often cite the social side of science competitions as one of the benefits of participating. Such events allow adolescents to expand their circle of friends, meeting adults and peers they would not otherwise have an opportunity to know. Students heading into scientific and technical careers may be able to draw on these expanded social networks as they embark on new paths in the future. (Krieger, 1999)

In addition, from the emerging field of out-of-school time, although not specifically focused on science competitions, further underscores the value of providing opportunities for young people to engage in constructive activities when school is not in session. Especially for students growing up in poverty or facing other risk factors, after-school activities that build on students’ own interests have the potential to improve their engagement with school and improve academic achievement. (Heckman & Sanger, 2001)

**How Teachers Benefit**

When teachers treat students as serious learners and serve as coaches to guide learning, they are demonstrating effective classroom practices. In the science and mathematics classrooms, these teaching practices also align with good scientific practice. (NRC, 1996)

Teachers themselves stand to gain when they encourage students to design major research projects in order to enter a science and mathematics competition. Coaching students who are tackling difficult problems often requires teachers to expand their own understanding of scientific or technical concepts. This ongoing learning aligns with the National Science Education Standards, which call for teachers to be active learners and to represent the scientific community in the classroom. “Science content increases and changes, and a teacher’s understanding must keep pace.” (NRC, 1996, p. 57)

As a veteran teacher-coach explains: “The students and I learn together. I don’t have to be the expert. They come to me when they get stumped on a problem, and I help them figure out how to learn what they need to know to move on. Then they’re off again.” (Boss, 2000)

Districts that encourage student participation in research projects tend to have teachers “who are not afraid to step out of the classic classroom role as ‘the knowledge expert’ and become mentors who learn from their students while guiding them.” (Krieger, 2002) Such teachers gain knowledge beyond the everyday curriculum. (Krieger, 1999)

Such opportunities reinforce school as a community of self-directed learners, where adults as well as students are engaged in the learning process. In the vision of science education outlined in the Standards, teachers are active learners not only to better understand science content, but also when it comes to improving classroom practice through study and research about their own teaching. (NRC, 1996)

Mentors from the scientific community sometimes work with teachers, as well as students, en route to completing a science project for a competition. These relationships can provide educators with access to expertise and, sometimes, laboratory equipment and resources that are more sophisticated than school budgets typically allow. In addition, teachers are given the opportunity to build a local community of science experts, learners, and resources from which to draw. In this world of “real science,” the pursuit of interesting problems reinforces the value of teaching through inquiry.

Although coaching students is demanding of teachers’ time and attention, many teachers report that the activity recharges...
Stars, continued from page 17

their passion for the profession and forestalls burnout. Opportunities for teachers to meet researchers, to travel with students to competitions, to work with highly motivated students, and to expand their own networks can be professionally stimulating and personally satisfying. (Krieger, 1999)

How Communities Benefit
Science competitions offer an exciting venue for the school community to intersect with the world beyond the classroom. Such connections offer benefits to teachers and students, as well as to the larger community.

Competitive events frequently engage students in the study of problems in their local environment. In developing their research projects for competition, students may contribute new ideas and possible solutions to real-world problems. For example:

- In the wake of reports of deadly mosquito infestations in the eastern United States, a student from Connecticut researched how to control mosquitoes through the use of acoustic frequency. The student found that certain frequencies would destroy the internal organs of mosquito larvae, thus creating a new and pesticide-free control mechanism. This student has patented his work.

- A student from India discovered that the peels of bananas could be used to generate low-level electricity. This is a novel and original approach which could lead to clean, eco-friendly technology for the production of electricity in developing countries.

- A student from South Africa developed a refrigeration system that runs on solar power and uses forced evaporation to maintain cold temperatures at a low cost. This has the potential to allow for storage of vaccines and food supplies in developing countries. The student has received a patent in his home country.

- A student from the United States became concerned about potential environmental impact when he learned that more than 30 billion compact disks were manufactured during the previous decade. He developed an alternative building material that uses recycled compact disks and bonding agents, thus keeping the disks out of landfills. In testing, the new material was found to be 400 times stronger than wood products such as plywood and particle board.

In addition to benefiting from these potential solutions to real problems, communities where students regularly pursue research projects and enter competitions often gain a reputation as hotbeds for strong academics. Such a reputation can boost local pride and enhance the community’s image as a desirable place to live (Krieger, 1999). Communities that build positive bonds with their young people are strengthened by the experience.

Because science and engineering fairs are typically open to the public, they offer community members the opportunity to improve their own science literacy “by becoming more aware of the scientific process and of the importance of science in their lives.” (NSTA, 1990, p. 48)

In addition, younger students can look to competitors as role models and witness the excitement that comes with the pursuit of intellectual challenges. Watching adolescents engage in high-level scientific endeavors—and having fun doing so—can inspire younger students to stretch beyond the required curriculum. Girls and minority students who have been traditionally underrepresented in scientific and technical fields may have a chance to watch competitors who “look like me.” Schools that make a habit of encouraging students to participate in independent research projects may find that the academic culture of their institution improves.

Conclusion
Although science and mathematics competitions are well-known for the prizes and recognition they generate for our “best and brightest” students, these events offer benefits that extend far beyond the winner’s circle. Students who pursue independent research projects experience many of the best practices in education suggested by research into how we learn. Indeed, many of the educational goals set forth by national organizations describe learning activities that already are the norm in well-designed science and mathematics competitions. What’s more, participation in such events provides students with social experiences and mentoring known to support positive youth development during adolescence.

Teachers who guide their students through the process of preparing an independent research project for competition also stand to gain a variety of benefits. They build contacts with new colleagues and expand their professional network, experience new learning opportunities themselves, and may be energized by working closely with highly motivated students.

Communities also stand to gain by supporting and encouraging such events. Student research projects may focus on solving challenges in the local community. Community members have opportunities to serve as mentors for students, or expand their own science literacy by observing student presentations. Such activities strengthen the bonds between school and community.

References
The Recruitment Challenge: Using PR To Promote Psychology Classes

Carol Farber
Miami Killian Sr. High School

For many psychology teachers, the beginning of the second half of the year means time to gear up for subject selection and the recruiting wars. As the number of electives seems to increase exponentially, competition for students heats up. It is a fact of life that maintaining a viable program depends on the effectiveness of attracting future students to your classes. Additionally, as class options increase, the tendency of students to seek out less-demanding courses can become more of a factor. It is a challenge, for example, to compete against weekly quiz games, monthly food days, and an annual trip to Disney’s Epcot, which is part of one competitor’s curriculum. All classes are not equal in teacher expectations, requirements, and the effort required for success. Psychology is an academic elective. It is heavily vocabulary based: Students must learn a scientific language and a substantial amount of information to be successful. These factors increase the importance of recruiting strategies.

While different school conditions may require variations or adaptations in approaches to this problem, there are a number of techniques which I have found to be helpful in my particular situation in meeting this challenge. All of these techniques are in reality based on advertising methodology and applied psychology, but timing is also a critical factor. The idea is to reach the maximum number of students as close as possible to the date on which they make their subject selections. Preferably, the major efforts in student recruitment should come after that of all the other electives.

Toward the end of the first semester or in the first few weeks of the second semester, my honors classes are assigned an audiovisual project focused on what they consider “the five most important things they have learned in psychology,” which they are required to present to five other nonpsychology students. It is important to allow the students some freedom to explore their own ideas on the subject. Hopefully, their excitement will be conveyed to those who view their work. These projects are due a week or two prior to student subject selection.

Also, about the same time, I print up recruitment posters on brightly colored paper—enough to distribute one to every teacher to post in their classroom. The poster may have a quote or a piece of information about research findings in psychology, with a little reminder on the bottom about selecting psychology as an elective and the appropriate course numbers. (Posters are widely used in course recruitment in my school.) It may be possible to use a student project as an advertisement on the student broadcast system or have a student skit developed for this purpose.

Next are the class visitations. Electives are widely promoted within the various departments, and teachers of the individual electives visit classes of potential students to make a presentation for their subjects. In these brief 5- to 8-minute visits, teachers give highlights or infomercials about their classes. (It doesn’t hurt to be somewhat theatrical in these presentations.) Because there are required social studies classes for 9th and 11th grades, it is possible to make contact with almost all of the students in these grade levels. To reach 10th graders, who do not have a required social studies class, I visit the 10th-grade Honors English classes.

When making these visits, a teacher/recruiter can use the student projects to enhance the presentations. Handing out strips of brightly colored paper that have course information on one side and some example of a visual or other illusion on the opposite side to be used as a bookmark can provide a tangible reminder about the classes. Sometimes it may be possible to have several of your students make or assist in presentations. Peers can be very persuasive. Also, wherever subject selection takes place, for example in the school media center, it may be possible to have psychology posters and projects on display.

Because student counselors actually discuss the subject selection options and requirements with the students, it is a good idea to make up fact sheets about the psychology classes for them to have on hand during the selection process. Of course, it doesn’t hurt to be on good terms with the people who will be advising and making recommendations about courses to the students! In fact, the counselors can be your best advocates in directing students into psychology classes.

Another activity that can be a major recruitment incentive is having an annual psychology fair, where students present psychology-based activities and projects to other classes within the school. This is a large undertaking, which typically requires months of planning and coordination, as well as interdepartmental teacher cooperation, but it can have great rewards.

A psychology club can also generate and strengthen interest in the discipline. Club activities can provide opportunities for students to explore activities and interests that time does not permit in the classroom. Information and sample materials on how to start a psychology club, as well as other educational resources, can be found through the TOPSS home page at http://www.apa.org/ed/topss/psych_club.html.

As much as school situations may vary, the techniques for attracting students to courses are basically those of advertising. Your students and their work are among your best resources. Whether they are actively participating in the recruitment efforts, or are contributing indirectly through their classroom accomplishments, they can provide the basis for next year’s enrollment in your courses. All it requires is some planning and coordination with your school calendar. PTN
Call for Nominations for 2006 STP Teaching Awards

The Society for the Teaching of Psychology (Division 2 of the American Psychological Association) announces its 2006 program of awards for outstanding teachers of psychology. Teaching awards of $750 and a plaque are bestowed for outstanding performance in each of five categories: Four-Year Colleges or Universities (Robert S. Daniel Award), Two-Year Colleges, High Schools (Moffett Memorial Teaching Award), Early Career Teaching Award (first 5 years of full-time teaching at any level), and Graduate Student (McKeachie Graduate Student Teaching Excellence Award). The deadline for submission of supporting materials is January 18, 2006. Re-nominations and self-nominations are acceptable. Submission of materials, queries, and requests for nomination criteria may be sent to the Chair, STP Teaching Awards Committee, c/o Thomas Pusateri, STP Exec. Dir., Florida Atlantic University, 777 Glades Road Bldg. 44 Room 303, Boca Raton, FL 33431; email: eyhammer@loyno.edu.

National Standards for High School Psychology Curricula

In August 2005, the APA Council of Representatives approved revisions to the APA National Standards for High School Psychology Curricula. The purpose of the National Standards is to provide guidance for high school psychology teachers or others responsible for development of psychology curricula at the secondary school level so as to promote quality instruction of psychology as a scientific discipline. The National Standards was originally adopted as APA policy in 1999; the 2005 revision reflects advances in the field and updates in content. The revision process began in 2001 and involved input from APA governance groups, including APA boards, committees, divisions, and directorates. The document can be found online at http://www.apa.org/ed/natlstandards.html.

TOPSS Members Receive Presidential Citations From APA President Ronald Levant, EdD

In October 2005, Amy Fineburg and Kristin Whitlock each received Presidential Citations from APA President Ronald Levant, EdD, to recognize their contributions to the revision of the APA National Standards for High School Psychology Curricula. Amy Fineburg is the current (2005) chair of TOPSS and was a member of the second working group charged with the revision of the National Standards. Kristin Whitlock was a member of both working groups (1999–2004 and 2005) charged with the revision process; she also served as chair of the second working group.

Fineburg’s citation was presented on October 1, 2005, during the APA consolidated committee meetings. APA President-Elect Gerald Koocher, PhD, presented the citation on behalf of Dr. Levant. Whitlock’s citation was presented on October 14, 2005, during the Utah-Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools annual conference. Irv Altman, PhD, presented the citation to Whitlock during the UTOPSS meeting on behalf of Dr. Levant.

Amy Fineburg

Kristen Whitlock
A Student Training Guide to Concept Mapping as a Heuristic Tool

Joseph A. Mayo, EdD
Gordon College

Pioneered in the 1960s by Joseph D. Novak and his associates at Cornell University, concept mapping is a learning device that allows students to organize and represent networks of concepts in a diagram resembling a hierarchical flow chart (Wandersee, 1990). In constructing a concept map, the most inclusive, general concept appears at the top, and links to more specific, subordinate concepts are listed hierarchically below. The uni- or bidirectional links between subordinate concepts depict a learner’s understanding of the interrelationships between domains of knowledge (Novak, 2001).

As an educational strategy in line with the constructivist philosophy of teaching and learning, concept mapping is derived from Ausubel’s (1963) theoretical work, which stresses the importance of integrating new and old knowledge as the hallmark of meaningful learning. Much research evidence is available on the instructional efficacy of concept mapping in courses within the natural sciences (e.g., Jegede, Alaiyemola, & Okebukola, 1990; Novak, 1990; Wallace & Mintzes, 1990). However, considerably less has been written on the pedagogical utility of concept mapping in the behavioral and social sciences.

Two recent empirical investigations explored the use of concept mapping in undergraduate psychology classes. Jacobs-Lawson and Hershey (2002) reported the results of a study of concept mapping as an assessment instrument in the introductory psychology course. Based on their findings, Jacobs-Lawson and Hershey recommended that students who have never constructed a concept map would be best served by initially viewing a sample map before being asked to create a map on their own. In another experiment, Anthis (2005) examined concept mapping in the context of a personality theories course. Central to the purpose of her study, Anthis found that the concept maps produced by students were influenced by the type of instructions provided to them prior to concept-map construction. Consistent with the findings and conclusions of these two studies, classroom success with concept mapping requires that students receive appropriate advance training on how to produce a good concept map.

As an integral component of my own undergraduate psychology classes, I often rely on graphic organizers such as the repertory grid technique (Mayo, 2004a; Mayo, 2004b) and concept mapping as learning aids. In a collaborative, interdisciplinary, pilot investigation of the use of concept mapping in introductory biology and psychology classes pertaining to a shared unit on the biological foundations of human behavior (Mayo & Salata, 2002), concept mapping was observed to be a promising heuristic tool. Here again, there was a direct relationship between student training and the quality of concepts maps that students produced. Since my involvement in this pilot study, I have continued to use concept mapping even more extensively throughout my introductory psychology classes (Mayo, 2005). Once more, my findings point to the student’s need for well-defined preliminary training as an essential ingredient in subsequent concept map construction.

For your consideration in the adjoining Appendix, I offer an in-class training module for concept mapping that takes approximately 30 minutes for students to complete individually, followed by roughly 20 minutes for students to ask questions and share their responses with the entire class. Or, as I have also undertaken with success, you may opt to implement the entire training module as a 50-minute, whole-class exercise. Perhaps you might draw on this training module in your own psychology classes as you prepare your students to demonstrate meaningful content understanding through concept mapping.

References


APPENDIX: Concept-Mapping Training Module

In today’s classroom exercise, you are asked to compare and contrast some diagrams, and then to formulate a proper concept map according to a series of basic steps. Your first task is to look at the figure on the next page before answering these questions.

1. What is common between the two examples?
2. What is different between the two examples?

In general, a concept map is a hierarchically arranged diagram that displays the relationship(s) between concepts under a category of knowledge. Here are the key steps that you should follow when creating a concept map:

1. Create or find a list of common terms from a category of knowledge.
2. Rank those terms on a continuum from abstract to specific concepts, assigning numbers to the concepts as follows:
   - 1 = most abstract
   - 2, 3, 4, etc. = increasingly less abstract
3. Group the concepts into levels of abstraction.
4. Decide if all of the concepts can be categorized under your most abstract item.
5. If your answer is “no” for #4, then add a concept to the list under which all concepts will fit.
6. Place the most abstract item in a central location at the top of your paper.
7. Choose the next level of abstraction and place the concept(s) underneath the main one in a horizontal row, leaving space between them. Continue this step until your diagram is complete.
8. Connect concepts according to their relationships and write connecting words to describe each relationship. Arrows should proceed from top to bottom.
9. Place special cross-connections if they are useful. Again, include descriptive connecting words.

During your second task, follow the aforementioned key steps of concept-map construction using these terms:

**Written, Computer, Keyboard, Paper, Typewriter, Pencil, Eraser, Mouse, Word-processor, Notepad, “Post-it” note, Essay, Printout, Communication, Electronic, Media**

Use this page to brainstorm (e.g., define the terms, write down possible relationships) and create a first-draft concept map. Then use a separate page for a revised concept map. Lastly, write your final edited version on yet another page. Be sure to label each concept map First Draft, Revised, and Final Revision, accordingly. PTN
Make Plans To Attend the 2006 SETOP Conference

The 18th annual Southeastern Conference on the Teaching of Psychology, sponsored jointly by the Kennesaw State University Department of Psychology and the Center for Excellence in Teaching and Learning, will be held at the Perimeter Crowne Plaza Hotel, Atlanta, GA (10 miles north of downtown Atlanta on I-285), on February 24-25, 2006. Loreto Prieto will give the opening W. Harold Moon Keynote Address, and Patti Connor-Greene will give the evening invited address.

Concurrent sessions will focus on teaching techniques and issues in courses such as research methods, abnormal psychology, history of psychology, psychology of learning, and evolutionary psychology. Additional sessions will address topics such as teaching for social justice, incorporating music as a teaching tool, innovative assignments and grading methods, teaching large classes, cooperative and team teaching, and mentoring diverse students. A poster session and teaching idea exchange is also scheduled for participants. The registration fee of $170 covers all meals and receptions during the conference. A special reduced conference rate of $100 is available for high school psychology teachers and graduate students and $160 for each of two or more faculty from the same institution. A block of rooms at the Perimeter Crowne Plaza are available at the special conference rate of $85. For additional information, contact Bill Hill, Center for Excellence in Teaching and Learning, Mailbox #5400, Kennesaw State University, 1000 Chastain Road, Kennesaw, GA 30144-5591 (770-423-6257 or e-mail at bhill@kennesaw.edu). Please visit the conference Web site for details: http://ksumail.kennesaw.edu/~bhill/setop/index.html.

2005 TOPSS Excellence in Teaching Award Winners

The Education Directorate and TOPSS congratulate Wendy Hart (Brentwood High School, Brentwood, TN), Julie Tedford (Freeburg Community High School, Freeburg, IL), and Deborah Costello (Trinity Preparatory School, Winter Park, FL), winners of the 2005 TOPSS Excellence in Teaching awards! This past Spring each winner received an engraved award and certificate, and a complimentary 1-year TOPSS membership. Worth Publishers also provided a video and gift certificate to each winner. Congratulations! Information on the 2006 Excellence in Teaching Awards can be found in the box to the right.

APA/Clark University Workshop for High School Teachers

The second APA/Clark University workshop will be held in Worcester, MA, in July 2006. Dates and application forms will be posted online at http://www.apa.org/ed/topss/conf_wkshop.html.

TOPSS Excellence in Teaching Awards 2006

Purpose

The purpose of the TOPSS Excellence in Teaching Award is to provide an opportunity for TOPSS to recognize outstanding teachers in psychology. There will be up to three annual awards.

Eligibility

• Teachers of high school psychology who are self-nominated or nominated by a colleague, supervisor, student, or administrator will be eligible.

Evidence of Excellence

• Recommendation Letter: One letter of reference (e.g., from a former student, colleague, or supervisor)

• Professional and/or Student Growth Activities: Submit a resume or curriculum vita that includes professional development activities and/or student-centered psychology-related activities.

• Content and Pedagogy: Highlight a topic taught during the psychology course that best represents your teaching. Include the following elements in your submission:
  — A content outline for a lesson plan of what is taught for the topic with a correlation of the topic to the National Standards
  — Example(s) of activities or demonstrations related to the topic

Judging Criteria

Submissions will be evaluated using the rubric posted on the TOPSS Web site. The award committee is appointed by the TOPSS chair and will include no fewer than three members. Incomplete submissions will not be considered. The committee reserves the right to not confer an award if submissions do not meet minimum requirements.

Award

Winners will receive a framed certificate, award, cash prize of $300, and a free membership renewal for the 2007 membership year. Recipients will also receive the Moving Images video as donated by Worth Publishers.

Timeline

• All supporting materials must be postmarked by March 20, 2006. Electronic submissions are welcomed.

• The winners will be announced in the Psychology Teacher Network newsletter.

For additional information, please contact Emily Leary, APA Education Directorate, 750 First Street, NE, Washington, DC 20002, (800) 374-2721, ext. 3013, eleary@apa.org.
Save the Dates!

Mark your calendars for the 2006 annual meetings of the regional psychological associations! Plan to attend one of these meetings to hear presentations by distinguished scholars and participate in symposia and panel and poster sessions. Regional meetings are also an excellent opportunity for networking with colleagues in your region. Please visit the Web sites below for additional information.

**March 16-19 EPA Meeting** (Baltimore, MD)
http://www.easternpsychological.org/

**March 16-19 SEPA Meeting** (Atlanta, GA)
http://www.sepaonline.com/

**April 13-15 SWPA Meeting** (Austin, TX)
https://www.swpspsych.org/

**April 20-22 RMPA Meeting** (Park City, UT)
http://www.rockymountainpsych.org/

**April 27-30 WPA Meeting** (Palm Springs, CA)
http://www.westernpsych.org/

**May 4-6 MPA** (Chicago, IL)
http://www.midwesternpsych.org/

**October 20-21 NEPA Meeting** (Manchester, NH)
http://www.nepa-info.org/