

Internationalizing Undergraduate Psychology Education: Trends, Techniques, and Technologies

Harold Takooshian
Fordham University

Uwe P. Gielen
St. Francis College

Scott Plous
Wesleyan University

Grant J. Rich
Ashoka University

Richard S. Velayo
Pace University

How can we best internationalize undergraduate psychology education in the United States and elsewhere? This question is more timely than ever, for at least 2 reasons: Within the United States, educators and students seek greater contact with psychology programs abroad, and outside the United States, psychology is growing apace, with educators and students in other nations often looking to U.S. curricula and practices as models. In this article, we outline international developments in undergraduate psychology education both in the United States and abroad, and analyze the dramatic rise of online courses and Internet-based technologies from an instructional and international point of view. Building on the recommendations of the 2005 APA Working Group on Internationalizing the Undergraduate Psychology Curriculum, we then advance 14 recommendations on internationalizing undergraduate psychology education—for students, faculty, and institutions.

Keywords: undergraduate education, international psychology, teaching psychology, diversity, MOOC

On U.S. college campuses, we psychologists should be teaching our undergraduates about human behavior, not just behavior in North America.

—David G. Myers

Editor's note. This article is one of a collection of four articles published with undergraduate education guidelines in a special issue of *American Psychologist*, "Undergraduate Education in Psychology: Current Status and Future Directions" (February–March 2016). John C. Norcross and Robin Hailstorks provided scholarly lead for the special issue.

Authors' note. Harold Takooshian, Department of Psychology, Fordham University; Uwe P. Gielen, Department of Psychology, St. Francis College; Scott Plous, Department of Psychology, Wesleyan University; Grant J. Rich, Department of Psychology, Ashoka University; Richard S. Velayo, Department of Psychology, Pace University.

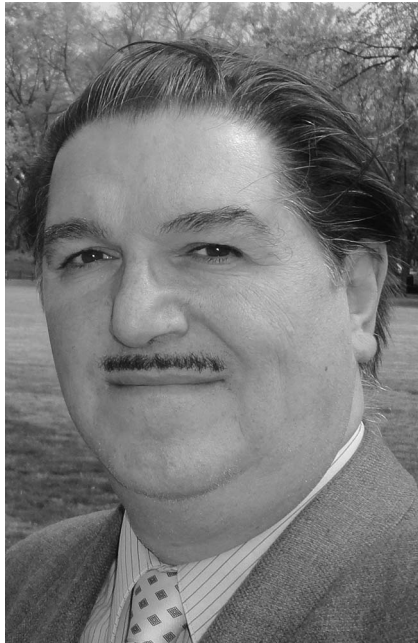
The five authors contributed equally to this article. The authors thank several colleagues for their kind cooperation: Sarah Brookhart, Merry Bullock, Shane R. Jimerson, Robin Hailstorks, Tim Kasser, David G. Myers, John C. Norcross, Thomas D. Oakland, Jerry Rudmann, Andreina Parisi-Amon, Ann D. Watts, Gary VandenBos, Maryam Zoma, and three anonymous reviewers.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Harold Takooshian, Department of Psychology, Fordham University, 113 West 60 Street, New York, NY 10023. E-mail: takoosh@aol.com

Psychology is a highly popular subject of study for American undergraduates. Between 1.2 and 1.8 million U.S. students enroll in the introductory course each year (Gurung et al., 2016). More than 100,000 U.S. students earn their bachelor's degrees in psychology annually (Norcross et al., 2016)—114,450 degrees in 2013 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2015).

It is, however, less well known that in recent decades, psychology has been expanding apace in many corners of the world, making undergraduate education in psychology hugely popular around the globe (McCarthy, Dickson, Cranney, Trapp, & Karandashev, 2012). American psychologists now account for only an estimated 21% to 24% of the world's psychologists (Bullock, 2012a; Zoma & Gielen, 2015), down sharply from an estimated 80% in the 1980s (Rosenzweig, 1984). Increasingly, the educational practices and knowledge base of psychology are constructed on a worldwide basis, yet current American psychology curricula insufficiently reflect this trend.

This article describes how international and cross-cultural contributions can be purposefully integrated into undergraduate psychology education so that undergraduates both in the United States and elsewhere are better prepared for an



**Harold
Takooshian**

increasingly interdependent world. In addition, this article describes how a modern psychology curriculum can enable students to gain international experience by facilitating their interactions with overseas students and faculty either in person or via electronic means, such as online courses and Internet-based technologies. The Internationalization of Curricula (IoC) is a movement affecting many fields (Leask, 2015), and is especially valuable for undergraduate psychology in more than one way, to increase (a) our understanding of human behavior in general, across diverse nations and cultures; and, (b) the “world-consciousness” of all psychology students in the United States and elsewhere—to nurture what has been termed “global psychological literacy” (Cranney & Dunn, 2011; Dunn, 2015).

In the following, we provide a brief history of the international growth of psychology, followed by how these international developments and new forms of diversity relate to undergraduate psychology education. Because the recent dramatic growth of international education is driven to a significant degree by technological changes, we address massive open online courses (MOOCs) and the pervasive influence of Internet-based technologies on students and faculty. These sections are followed by a set of 14 recommendations outlining how undergraduate psychology education might best be internationalized on three levels—by undergraduate students, their faculty, and institutions.

The Growth of Psychology as an International Discipline

Psychology as a discipline with a firm, institutional identity was born in the 1870s in Germany, spread to other

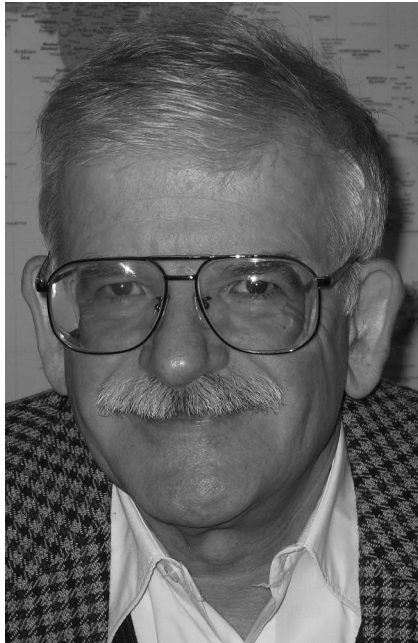
European countries and the United States within the next few years, and soon thereafter also became known in some Asian and Latin American countries, such as Japan, China, Mexico, and India (Stevens & Wedding, 2004). Thus, Western-style psychology had an international dimension from its beginnings, but it would grow into a full-blown global discipline in the late 20th and early 21st centuries (Rich & Gielen, 2015).

After Wilhelm Wundt established the first psychological institute in Leipzig in 1879, his highly popular lectures and his laboratory soon attracted students from numerous Western as well as several non-Western countries. Many of these international students accepted his vision of a new, scientific discipline and returned home to establish laboratories and institutes in their own countries. By 1897, Wundt’s laboratory expanded to 14 rooms, filled with students from 20 nations—from Japan to Chile (Misiak & Sexton, 1966).

Wundt had many American students and assistants, such as James McKeen Cattell. Although most of them rejected or ignored Wundt’s theoretical outlook, they nevertheless formed an important part of the founding generation that would soon, together with William James and others, help American psychology assume worldwide leadership. By 1900, there were 40 doctoral programs and 41 laboratories at American universities, whereas only 10 laboratories could be found in Europe (Benjamin, 2000). Moreover, psychology was rapidly becoming one of the most popular subjects at the undergraduate level, while intriguing the general public (Schultz & Schultz, 2012).

In addition, during the 1930s and 1940s, many elite Austrian and German psychologists migrated to the United States. After 1945, American psychology began to dominate the worldwide scene not only based on its sheer number of psychologists but also through its journals, scientific research, textbooks, the growing dominance of English in scientific publications, and the country’s economic and political power. There were now more psychological scientists, practitioners, and educators in the United States than in all other nations combined—to the point where some began to fault American psychology as being “self-absorbed” (Rosenzweig, 1984) or even “xenophobic” (Sexton & Misiak, 1984). These American critics argued that American psychology was assuming a monocultural and monolingual character while ignoring many new developments, especially in the non-English-speaking countries.

But this trend has changed dramatically since the 1990s, as psychology now grows faster outside than inside North America (Bullock, 2012a, 2012b), and colleagues inside and outside the United States seek greater communication. By integrating data from diverse sources (e.g., Bullock, 2013; Cooper, 2014; Lunt, Peiró, Poortinga, & Roe, 2015; Stevens & Gielen, 2007; Stevens & Wedding, 2004), one may estimate conservatively that there are 1 million psychologists worldwide: roughly 230,000 in the United States,



Uwe P. Gielen

330,000 in Latin America, 330,000 in Europe, and 100,000 in the rest of the world (Zoma & Gielen, 2015).

International Diversity in U.S. Psychology Education

Although discussions about *diversity* are now frequently included in U.S. psychology courses, this was not always the case. Through most of the 20th century, the classic psychology experiments that American instructors present to their undergraduates—such as Solomon Asch’s (1955) study on conformity and Philip Zimbardo’s (1972) study of prisoners—were based on small samples that were intentionally homogeneous: White male U.S. college students. This control for gender, age, and race was an easy way to reduce confounding variables, tacitly leaving it to other researchers to cross-validate how much these findings on White male students might generalize to the other 99.9% of humanity—women, nonstudents, other ages, ethnicities, or nations. As late as 1986, an analysis of U.S. social psychology journals found that 72% of articles used North American undergraduates as subjects (Sears, 1986), and it concluded that this narrow database was giving our undergraduates a distorted picture of human nature. One psychologist wryly noted that in psychology experiments, “Even the rat was white” (Guthrie, 1998).

The 1991 Saint Mary’s conference on the undergraduate curriculum noted the importance of diversity to “ensure that psychology courses more accurately reflect the diversity of humankind, including ethnic, social, cultural, and gender diversity” (McGovern, 1993, p. 179), as well as greater inclusion of underrepresented minority students and faculty

in the psychology pipeline. Then in 2008, the inclusion of “sociocultural diversity” in the undergraduate curriculum became a major emphasis through the Puget Sound conference (Landrum et al., 2010), including the promotion of “psychological literacy” among citizens worldwide (Halpern, 2010). In fact, the American Psychological Association’s (APA’s) Board of Educational Affairs “noted that diversity is a particularly important aspect of the *Guidelines*” (Hailstorks & Boenau, 2013), and the revised *APA Guidelines for the Undergraduate Psychology Major 2.0* (APA, 2016) feature “Ethical and Social Responsibility in a Diverse World” as the third of its five broad learning goals. The “sociocultural diversity” in these *Guidelines 2.0* includes both multicultural diversity within the United States as well as international diversity across nations—which is the central focus of this article.

APA has a long history of promoting international psychology education, even before the formation of its Committee on International Relations in Psychology in 1944 (Fowler, 2000). The APA Office of International Affairs, formed in 1971, offers a website rich with global resources, travel funding, and a bimonthly bulletin (*Psychology International*). In 2008, the APA Education Leadership Conference focused its annual meeting on this theme of internationalizing psychology education (Torney-Purta, 2008), on the heels of an *APA Working Group on Internationalizing the Undergraduate Psychology Curriculum* (2005).

Because the question of educational “outcomes” is important, the 2005 APA Working Group identified five valuable goals of IoC in psychology, each with five measurable outcomes. Examples of these 25 outcomes include an increase in students’ sociocultural awareness (Outcome 1.1); understanding of research methods applied across cultures (Outcome 2.3); knowledge of the field of psychology in other nations (Outcome 3.2); cross-cultural competence of students on a personal level (Outcome 4.4); and appreciation of global issues of human rights and social justice (Outcome 5.4). These 25 outcomes are not yet documented, but are best seen as an agenda for future researchers, to assess the actual impact of IoC on students’ knowledge, attitudes, and actions.

Of course, U.S. undergraduate psychology courses should be relevant to the 95% of the human population living outside the United States, but creating such a cross-national science of behavior has been a challenge (Rosenzweig, 1984). Unlike physical sciences such as chemistry, which share a “periodic table” across nations, psychology lacks a solid core that is recognized cross-nationally (Howell, Collisson, & King, 2014).

To borrow from the concepts of Newtonian physics, we can see the challenge of a transnational psychology as a tension between two opposing forces. These are (a) the strong “centrifugal” (outward) forces that divide cross-national psychology and include the familiar obstacles of language, distance, cost, sociocultural variations, and ide-



Scott Plous

ology (Draguns, 2001); and (b) the strong “centripetal” (inward) forces that increasingly bind cross-national psychology: quadrennial and other world congresses, journals, cross-national educational and research efforts (such as Fulbright scholarships and study abroad), and now the Internet.

The Growth of Psychology Education Outside the United States

Since the 1990s, the numbers of psychologists, psychology programs, and course enrollments have increased rapidly around the globe. In 2012, over 4 million tertiary-level students were studying psychology and other subjects outside their own nation, up from 2 million in 2000 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2014). And in the academic year 2013–2014, 886,052 international students were enrolled in U.S. institutions of higher education (4.2% of all students)—up 72% from 1999–2000 (Institute of International Education, 2014). Moreover, 289,408 U.S. students were studying overseas in the 2012–2013 academic year.

A growing number of international conferences, publications, and other resources support instructors who seek to internationalize their undergraduate courses. For instance, *Psychology Resources Around the World*, a web-based compendium of psychology in nearly every nation in the world, has been developed by the International Union of Psychology Science (IUPsyS; Bullock, 2012b). McCarthy and colleagues have produced three volumes of an edited series, *Teaching Psychology Around the World* (McCarthy et al. 2007, 2009, 2012), describing both education requirements and best practices in many nations. Six International Conferences on Psychology Education have been held since

the first one in Russia in 2002. Psi Chi, the once-U.S. Honor Society for Psychology, voted in 2009 to expand into the International Honor Society for Psychology, and formed chapters in 10 nations within 5 years (McCormick et al., 2014).

Psychology education is flourishing in Western and non-Western countries alike. One clear example is Indonesia—the world’s fourth most populous nation, with 252 million inhabitants. For decades, psychology was largely unknown among Indonesia’s general public, until its first psychology department was founded in 1960 at the University of Indonesia. Yet by 2011, Indonesian students could study psychology in 95 departments across the country, and Indonesian psychologists appear so often on national TV and radio, and in newspapers and popular magazines, that the “psychological literacy” of the Indonesian public may now surpass that of the American public (Sarwono, 2011).

In some nations (such as Argentina, Brazil, Indonesia, Israel, and the Netherlands), psychology is taught to large numbers of psychology “undergraduates,” and it has also entered the popular culture. In other countries (such as Cameroon, Mexico, Philippines, South Korea, and Taiwan), efforts are underway to “indigenize” psychology theories and research to reflect a region’s unique cultural, social, and linguistic traditions. Many scholars in these non-Western countries believe that psychology education must be indigenized so that undergraduates can better understand psychology’s relevance to their own lives. Some members of this movement aim to create a unified global psychology that can integrate diverse cultures and contributions from psychologists across many nations, whereas others emphasize the cultural embeddedness of almost all psychological processes (Kim, Yang, & Hwang, 2006).

It is valuable for U.S. and other psychology students to learn about these struggles to create both locally meaningful and globally unifying forms of psychological science. After all, many of these struggles revolve around the central psychological question of whether there is a universal human nature—and whether Western psychology has been successful in identifying most of its essential aspects, or whether it has been (partially) led astray by implicit but powerful cultural perceptions and norms (as described in www.indigenousspsych.org/). In international circles, some scholars have described North Americans as demographically “WEIRD”—White, Educated, Industrious, Rich, Democratic (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010), and thus not representative of populations in “ROW” (the Rest of World).

Although psychology has been growing rapidly outside the United States, the definitions and credentialing practices associated with the term “psychologist” vary considerably between nations. As a consequence, we lack sound global data comparable with the United States. The American system draws a clear distinction between undergraduate and



Grant J. Rich

graduate education based on the structure of the American university and college system. Most American 4-year college students pursue a liberal arts education in which required courses for their major occupy no more than 20% to 30% of coursework. The baccalaureate degree is prerequisite for future graduate education. In contrast, most psychology students in South America do (or did) not “major” in psychology. Instead, upon graduation from a selective high school, they enter a university to pursue a professional degree for about five years, and graduate with a professional bachelor’s degree in psychology that, together with a period of supervised practice, allows them to practice psychology. (This degree is more comparable with a U.S. master’s degree.) However, only a small fraction of these licensed psychologists will later pursue a master’s or doctoral degree (Klappenbach, 2004).

In Europe, undergraduate education has been changing dramatically since the 1990s under the so-called Bologna process. Now, the 36 countries in the European Federation of Psychologists’ Associations (EFPA) have been developing unified systems and standards for education and credentialing that are transforming psychology in Europe. In 2000, EFPA launched its “tuning” process to address the needs of students and employers for “transparent and reliable information as to what a degree qualification stands for in practice” (Lunt et al., 2015, p. 70). This process covers all education levels in Europe, including Levels 6 (baccalaureate), 7 (master’s), and 8 (doctorate).

The EuroPsy Basic Certificate specifies outcomes for a 3-year program leading to a bachelor’s degree, followed by a 2-year master’s degree, and a 1-year period of supervised practice (Lunt, 2014; Lunt et al., 2015). At the same time,

the EuroPsy initiative endeavors to protect “the rich diversity of European education . . . and in no way seeks to restrict the independence of academic and subject specialists or undermine local and national academic authority” (EuroPsy, 2011, p. 6). This effort is supported by 36 national psychology associations representing more than 300,000 psychologists who, in turn, serve more than 740 million people. Over time, this EuroPsy initiative may well shape undergraduate and graduate education in psychology outside Europe as well. This EuroPsy initiative moves European psychology education one step closer to the American educational model with its clear separation between undergraduate and graduate education. However, this movement has not been welcomed by everybody.

In addition to the EuroPsy efforts in Europe and the *APA Guidelines 2.0* (APA, 2016) in the United States, a third effort to enunciate a set of the goals for a diverse psychology education has been pursued by the International Baccalaureate Organization (IBO). Since 1960, the IBO is an independent multinational association that has developed international curricula and exams for 26 fields, including psychology. Like the U.S. Advanced Placement (AP) program, the IB Diploma gives motivated secondary school students, Ages 16 to 19, a chance to earn college-level credits. As of 2014, 1.1 million students at 3,789 schools in over 40 nations have studied for IB exams, including 17,200 IB exams in psychology (11,300 of these in the United States; IBO, 2009). So far, there appears to be little direct contact between leaders of these three independent efforts, though this may change with time, given their common goals to develop a solid undergraduate curriculum that also incorporates global diversity.

The role of new instructional technologies is especially relevant in supporting the goal of internationalizing psychology and other curricula. Just as new technologies in the 21st century are transforming higher education, one impact is to reduce these centrifugal barriers to internationalization—travel, cost, and language. By all accounts, technologies such as open online courses and Internet-based technologies will play a major role in the future of undergraduate education worldwide, including psychology.

MOOCs

One of the most notable developments in global education has been the rise of MOOCs, with important implications for undergraduate education and global psychological literacy. Although definitions vary, MOOC generally refers to a free or low-cost Internet-based course taken by a large number of people. These courses first garnered widespread media attention in the fall of 2011, when a Stanford University computer science professor enrolled more than 160,000 students in a MOOC on artificial intelligence, and 23,000 completed the course. A year later, an article in the



**Richard S.
Velayo**

New York Times dubbed 2012 “the year of the MOOC,” with good reason. By then, newly formed MOOC providers such as Udacity, edX, and Coursera had already enrolled millions of students, and the largest of these organizations, Coursera, reported growing at a rate faster than Facebook (Pappano, 2012).

The first MOOCs offered by Udacity, edX, and Coursera were in computer science, but today psychology-related MOOCs are among the most popular online courses, just as psychology courses have long been popular on college campuses. In fact, based on student registration figures that combine the first and second run of each course, four of Coursera’s six most heavily enrolled MOOCs have focused on psychology, thinking, or behavior. These four Coursera courses include Social Psychology, with an initial enrollment of 633,131 students; Think Again: How to Reason and Argue (376,629 students); A Beginners Guide to Irrational Behavior (357, 511 students); and Learning How to Learn: Powerful Mental Tools to Help You Master Tough Subjects (321,617 students). Since 2012, MOOCs have also grown more international. For example, Coursera began exclusively with U.S. partner schools and instructors, yet nearly 40% of its 900 courses are now from partners outside the United States, and only 29% of its students are American.

Of course, distance learning—whether domestic or international—is not a new phenomenon. For most of the 20th century, correspondence courses taken through the mail were quite popular (Kett, 1996), and since 1990, The Teaching Company has offered more than 500 college-level Great Courses in a variety of audio and video formats. The video series *Discovering Psychology* has reached millions of PBS viewers since 1990, and has been taken as a tele-course for

college credit by more than 500,000 students worldwide (Philip Zimbardo, personal communication, October 29, 2014). With the Internet, millions of online learners began watching educational videos and taking self-paced courses through KhanAcademy.com, lynda.com, and hundreds of other distance learning websites. It remains unclear what long-term impact this online explosion will have on traditional undergraduate psychology courses, but at the very least, MOOCs appear to be increasing psychological literacy worldwide.

What distinguishes MOOCs from other forms of online learning is that MOOCs usually take place with a large cohort of online learners from around the world. Typically, MOOCs include a combination of “courseware” (online course content) and elements of real-time traditional college courses, such as peer interaction, teaching assistants, and homework deadlines. Most often, MOOCs release course materials one week at a time, thereby allowing students in different time zones to learn about topics together as the course unfolds, help each other in online forums, and in some classes, assess one another’s work.

Why this meteoric rise of MOOCs since 2012? The most obvious answer is that the technology has only recently become available—including global high-speed Internet access, bandwidth to stream videos, cloud storage of data, and the ability to create interactive online lectures that require students to answer questions before the video will advance. Yet technology is only part of the answer; MOOCs also provide a variety of economic and pedagogical benefits over traditional forms of education, particularly when it comes to internationalization.

The Benefits of MOOCs

On a per student basis and compared with traditional undergraduate courses, MOOC technology “can be used to enhance productivity in higher education by reducing costs without compromising student outcomes” (Griffiths, Chingos, Mulhern, & Spies, 2014, p. 4). Given the soaring costs of higher education in many countries, including the United States, it will become increasingly difficult for universities to ignore the economy of scale of these MOOCs.

MOOCs also offer benefits from the perspective of students. Not only are the courses less expensive and more accessible than most traditional classes, but for low-income students or people who live in a low-income nation, MOOCs may represent the only affordable opportunity for higher education. (In 2014, nearly half of all students in Coursera’s Social Psychology MOOC were in countries with an emerging economy.) Since MOOCs are accessible around the clock, students can watch the lectures and receive online help from fellow classmates at any hour—a key advantage for students who are single parents, full-time workers, or homebound because of disability or illness.

For international students not fluent in the instructor's language, MOOCs offer several other advantages over traditional instruction. First, videotaped lectures can be watched with subtitles, often in the student's native language. Second, students taking a MOOC can replay the lectures as many times as they like. Third, MOOC lectures usually have an option that allows students to slow down the video when needed. And fourth, students can use the class forums to study and help one another in their native language.

Indeed, because the students who enroll in MOOCs come from so many countries, the need for language support is even greater than in traditional classroom settings. In the Coursera Social Psychology MOOC, students came from more than 200 countries, spoke more than 40 different primary languages, and listed a primary language other than English nearly half of the time. To meet the needs of these students, lecture subtitles were available in 27 languages, thanks to volunteer translators who donated their services. On average, according to Coursera, the enrollment of students who speak a non-English primary language triples when a MOOC offers subtitling in their language (Andreina Parisi-Amon, personal communication, November 1, 2014).

These enrollment patterns highlight the central role of language in international psychology education, and they suggest the importance of incorporating pedagogical practices that meet the linguistic and cultural needs of students. Whether courses are online or on campus, internationalizing psychology education will require platforms that facilitate peer interaction, language support such as video subtitling, visual and nonverbal demonstrations of key principles, and the inclusion of diverse cross-cultural examples that engage students regardless of nationality. Such practices are consistent with recent research on effective undergraduate education in psychology (Halpern, 2010), and their adoption stands to benefit not only students abroad but international and domestic students studying in the United States as well.

Learning Outcomes

Critics of MOOCs note that course completion rates are very low, and that it is hard to assess the learning that takes place. Of the estimated 33,000 to 43,000 students who enroll in an average-size MOOC, only 60% or so of students return to the course when it begins, and only 6% to 10% complete the course, depending on how the completion rate is defined (Jordan, 2014)—making a 90% to 94% incompleteness rate a source of concern for educators. In response to these criticisms, MOOC supporters argue that course completion rates are the wrong metric to measure educational success. In the words of the founders of Coursera, “the goal of education is to provide students with the skills they need to achieve their own life goals, not to retain individuals in a classroom” (Koller, Ng, Do, & Chen, 2013, p. 1).

Outcome studies comparing online and traditional learning have shown promising results. For instance, one study found that when an electrical engineering course incorporated content from an edX Circuits and Electronics MOOC, the percentage of students passing the course went from as little as 55% to 91% (Fowler, 2013). An especially encouraging result was reported by University of Texas researchers who compared the effectiveness of an online version of introductory psychology with a traditional version (Pennebaker, Gosling, & Ferrell, 2013). Not only did psychology exam scores increase by approximately half a letter grade when the course was taught online—the socioeconomic achievement gap in course grades was cut in half.

How effective are MOOCs or other new technologies in internationalizing undergraduate education in developing regions? Current opinions are divided. On the positive side, educators such as David Myers (2009) foresee how new technologies can segue into a “pedagogical utopia,” in which “web-based e-books may deliver state-of-the-art, interactive, low-cost, locally adapted content to students who cannot afford books” (p. 99). On the negative side, Kentaro Toyama (2015), from his experience with undergraduates in India, concluded that “the primary effect of free online courses is to further educate an already well-educated group who will pull away from less-educated others. The educational rich just get richer.” The long-term impact of MOOCs is clearly an open question awaiting empirical study.

Internet-Based Technologies

In addition to MOOCs, various Internet-based technologies and systems—such as Twitter, Facebook, blogs, wikis, Skype, videoconferencing, podcasts, YouTube, and virtual worlds—are revolutionizing how disciplines internationalize their undergraduate programs and curricula (Velayo, 2010; Velayo & Trush, 2012). Through such web-based systems, instructors in different nations can work together, often in real time, on joint activities. Undergraduates are generally well-acquainted with these sites and technologies (at times, more so than faculty), and their thoughtful use is valuable in guiding education, supplementing lessons, improving research and collaboration, and pursuing the larger goal of IoC (Velayo, Oliva, & Blank, 2008). Moreover, Moodle, Blackboard and other online teaching platforms can facilitate a web-enhanced class, which enables students from different institutions across the world to interact in real time. Such technology is now commonplace in most schools in the United States and other nations.

Internet-based technologies are increasingly popular to incorporate international content into the psychology curriculum (Grenwald, Oberlechner, & Velayo, 2012; Grenwald & Velayo, 2011; Velayo, 2012). One key reason is cost-effectiveness—especially for community college and other students with family, work, or financial limitations

(Guerin, 2009). The Internet offers interaction with people from other cultures and countries, journal articles written by individuals from diverse backgrounds, and countless opportunities for cross-cultural collaboration—all at little cost.

Social media refer to Internet-based technologies that enable users to interact by sharing information, ideas, images, or videos. Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, blogs, and wikis are among the most common social media platforms used to enhance collaboration and share knowledge among learners from different parts of world. Social media exemplars in internationalizing undergraduate education include virtual psychology labs (e.g., Gao & Wang, 2010), international mentoring (Stevens & Wedding, 2009), and collaborative online research with participants across nations. One example of a popular virtual lab is APA's Online Psychology Laboratory (<http://apaonlineacademy.bizvision.com/>), with almost a million views per year.

Another way that Internet-based technologies incorporate international content is through the sharing of materials. It is increasingly easy to share material with peers or colleagues and work collaboratively. Many instructors now use social networks and videoconferencing to participate in lecture exchanges (e.g., Longview Foundation for Education in World Affairs and International Understanding; www.longviewfdn.org). Internet-based technologies can also help supplement textbooks which may lack international content, with articles from international journals to supplement the texts.

There are also many content-based resources that provide information for undergraduate instructors who wish to infuse international content in their courses (Velayo, Grenwald, & Manfred, 2012). Probably the most comprehensive collection of psychology resources focused specifically on internationalization are Psychology Resources Around the World (<http://resources.iupsys.net/iupsys/index.php/patw-resources>) and International Teaching of Psychology Network (<http://interteachpsy.org/>). Instructors can help update these and other sites by contributing resources as well as reviewing the materials. Just as emerging technologies are transforming undergraduate education in general, these technologies promise to be a valuable centripetal force to reduce barriers to global education.

14 Recommendations to Support the Internationalization of Undergraduate Psychology

Internationalizing undergraduate psychology is an ambitious but highly desirable goal that needs the concerted efforts of students, faculty, departments, and educational institutions. Institutions must help create the right educational atmosphere as well as provide the necessary organizational support and financial incentives to enable faculty and departments to engage in the necessary efforts. Departments must see internationalization as an overarching goal

that cuts across the curriculum. Faculty members must see themselves as eager learners who consider the internationalization of their own courses and research efforts a challenging but rewarding task. Finally, although students may at first be reluctant to leave their comfort zone to gain international experience, once they do they can expect to grow intellectually, emotionally, socially, and perhaps spiritually. Some of them will find their life's calling precisely by seeing themselves in new and surprising situations, whereas others will see their career options enlarged in a world shaped by the forces of globalization.

How timely, then, that the *APA Guidelines 2.0's* (APA, 2013) third goal of "Ethical and social responsibility in a diverse world" can help guide individual faculty, students, and educational institutions to develop an international outlook and acquire the necessary skills to cross cultural borders. To make this broad goal more specific, we offer 14 suggestions that address three levels—undergraduate students, faculty, and institutions.

Undergraduate Students

1. Cross-national research. Because most undergraduate curricula mandate a research experience, why not a cross-national one? A student guide (Shvets, 2007) offered six reasons for students to collaborate in cross-national research and four low-cost ways to do so. For one example, without funding, a researcher completed an extensive field experiment on prosocial behavior, comparing 36 U.S. cities and 23 nations, by training student tourists who valued this chance to get research experience (Levine, 2003).

2. Study/work abroad. The numerous U.S. students studying abroad do so typically for one summer, semester, or full year, through one of the increasing number of study abroad programs (Soto, 2014). In addition, "work abroad" programs (such as teaching English) offer income along with cultural immersion (Murray, 2005). Such study abroad programs offer ideal opportunities to conduct cross-national research and to create personal contacts for future collaborative research projects.

3. Conferences. One simple yet valuable international experience is for undergraduates to attend one of the many global psychology or education conference each year, most of which offer a reduced fee for students. Moreover, many conferences now allow undergraduate and graduate students to present posters, thereby reinforcing the challenges and excitement to conduct and present cross-cultural research.

4. Organizations. Undergraduates can benefit from joining an international organization as student members (Takooshian & Stambaugh, 2007)—be this a large group (such as the International Association of Applied Psychology or the International Association of Cross-Cultural Psychology) or one of the 100 smaller specialty groups, such as forensic or school psychology (Bullock, 2012a).

5. Funding. There are at least 50 major sources of funding for student and faculty international activities—such as Boren, Coro, and Open Society. In fact, one analysis found that “funding for international activities has risen sharply since the 1990s, now accounting for 15% of all foundation-grant dollars . . . as more U.S. foundations are ‘going global,’ up from 46% in 1994 to 63% in 2001” (Takooshian & Takooshian, 2012, p. 54). Students frequently report profound experiences after completing a Fulbright or similar program (Zoma et al., 2012).

6. Internships. Whether for credit or not, students can seek multicultural field placements as part of their undergraduate degree. Most cities have multicultural service centers that can offer a psychology placement, such as Los Angeles’ Institute for Multicultural Education and Services. In New York City, the United Nations offers an increasing number of internships (Takooshian & Campano, 2008), participation in Model U.N. sessions, and other international experiences for undergraduates (Roberts, 2014). Many internships provide students with the opportunity to interact with children and/or adults of numerous immigrant backgrounds that can prepare them for subsequent international experiences.

Faculty

The revised version of the *APA Guidelines 2.0* (APA, 2016) seeks to infuse “sociocultural learning outcomes” across the major, rather than in a separate course to produce “global psychological literacy” (Cranney & Dunn, 2011). Individual faculty can do much to adapt their existing courses, develop new ones, experiment with new technologies in the classroom, and participate in cocurricular activities outside the classroom (Velayo, 2016).

7. Syllabi. Faculty may integrate into their current courses more research based on non-U.S. participants or by non-U.S. authors (Woolf, Hulsizer, & McCarthy, 2002). One volume offers a dozen practical chapters on how to integrate cross-cultural work into traditional courses such as developmental, social, personality, and health psychology, as well as 52 ways to internationalize the psychology curriculum (Leong, Pickren, Leach, & Marsella, 2012). An increasing number of cross-cultural textbooks are appearing for teachers of these courses (e.g., Gielen & Roopnarine, 2016). One offers “111 experiences for multicultural learning” inside the classroom (Pedersen, 2004).

8. Courses. Some faculty might develop a new course, using one of the many textbooks available for international (Eysenck, 2004) and cross-cultural psychology (Shiraev & Levy, 2012). The APA Society for Teaching of Psychology offers a variety of model syllabi in its Project Syllabus. Faculty can tap the IUPsyS resource center (cf. Stevens & Wedding, 2006), the nine volumes on international psychology (in Baker, 2012), or any of a dozen cross-cultural

psychology periodicals, such as the *International Journal of Psychology* or the *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* (Simonian, 2014).

9. Remote courses. In addition to MOOCs and other online and other distance-learning courses (Velayo, 2011), faculty may now use Skype, Polycom, or similar technologies to offer simultaneous cross-national courses (Chia & Poe, 2004).

10. Cocurricular activities. Over 1,300 U.S. undergraduate institutions have a chapter of Psi Chi or Psi Beta (for community colleges), which commonly offer cocurricular activities that complement classroom learning (McCormick et al., 2014). These include international activities such as lectures or workshops by international travelers, programs focused on global topics, and using Skype to hold shared sessions between American and overseas chapters of Psi Chi.

Departments and Institutions

11. Institutes for international and cross-cultural psychology. An institute focused on global psychology can broaden the curricular offerings of psychology programs, involve undergraduate students in international research and other internationally oriented activities, and broaden their horizons. An example of such a center at a predominantly undergraduate institution is the Institute for International and Cross-Cultural Psychology at St. Francis College, New York (www.iiccp.org).

12. International activities on campus. In order to promote international activities on campus, a school may foster creative collaborations among existing campus groups: the psychology department, offices for international students and study abroad (Roberts, 2014), and the Psi Beta or Psi Chi chapter (Russo & Takooshian, 2002). Such activities might include lecture series, interdisciplinary workshops for students, receptions, awards, faculty development workshops, or press releases highlighting global work.

13. Fulbrights and faculty abroad. Schools would do well to encourage and support faculty who consider applying for Fulbrights to do research or teach overseas. Since 1946, over 110,000 faculty have served as U.S. Fulbright Scholars overseas, often with life-changing experiences (Takooshian et al., 2011). In addition, over 183,000 international faculty members have served in the United States. There are a growing number of overseas programs besides Fulbright. Over 1 million “alumni” and “alumnae” have been funded by one of the dozens of other U.S. State Department programs—such as the Humphrey, Gilman, and UGRAD programs (Barton, 2013). Over 7,500 psychologists have directly benefitted from one of these programs (Takooshian, 2013).

14. Administrative support. Ask deans, directors, provosts, and other administrators to support programs and events that internationalize psychology education. When feasible, familiarize administrators can also familiarize themselves with resources to internationalize the school's curricula (IoC, in Leask, 2015), or Internationalize at Home (in Barker & Mak, 2013). Because educational institutions are frequently under pressure to internationalize their offerings, administrators may be willing to provide organizational, financial, and moral support for this effort.

Concluding Comments

Contemporary undergraduate psychology education in the United States is being powerfully affected by at least two forces: the sharp growth of psychology outside its borders and the emergence of new technologies in the classroom. Separate but parallel efforts are underway—*APA Guidelines 2.0* (APA, 2016) in the United States, and the EuroPsy “tuning process” in Europe—to encourage greater cultural diversity in undergraduate education, as psychologists around the world seek to develop educational practices that reflect a cross-national science of behavior. These efforts are supported by the sustained commitment of APA to further the goals of internationalization, and the dedicated efforts of faculty members and other psychologists both in the United States and abroad, to get their psychology undergraduates ready for the future.

What will this future look like, and how can we best prepare our students for it? *APA Guidelines 2.0* (APA, 2016) emphasizes that our undergraduates today are entering an ever more diverse and multicultural world. As noted by the past CEO of APA, Raymond Fowler (2000, p. 11), “new psychologists who do not have the benefit of a sophisticated orientation to international issues will be severely handicapped in their career options.” Psychology undergraduates must develop *global psychological literacy*—to think in broad international terms, communicate across cultural borders, integrate multiple identities in themselves, and support others in their efforts to achieve goals that are in part culturally shaped. Our recommendations are intended to help psychology undergraduates and faculty to prepare for a “glocal” world—that is, a world that is simultaneously global and local in nature.

References

- American Psychological Association. (2013). *APA guidelines for the undergraduate psychology major: Version 2.0*. Retrieved from www.apa.org/ed/precollege/undergraduate/index.aspx
- American Psychological Association. (2016). APA guidelines for the undergraduate psychology major 2.0. *American Psychologist*, *71*, 102–111. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0037562>
- APA Working Group on Internationalizing the Undergraduate Psychology Curriculum. (2005). *Report and recommended learning outcomes for internationalizing the undergraduate curriculum*. Retrieved from <http://www.apa.org/ed/precollege/about/international.pdf>
- Asch, S. E. (1955). Opinions and social pressure. *Scientific American*, *193*, 31–35. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/scientificamerican1155-31>
- Baker, D. B. (Ed.). (2012). *The Oxford handbook of the history of psychology*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Barker, M. C., & Mak, A. S. (2013). From classroom to boardroom and ward: Developing generic intercultural skills in diverse disciplines. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *17*, 573–589. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1028315313490200>
- Barton, L. (2013, Winter). Alumni. State.gov: Supporting alumni of U.S. government-sponsored exchange programs. *International Psychology Bulletin*, *17*, 66.
- Benjamin, L. T., Jr. (2000). The psychology laboratory at the turn of the 20th century. *American Psychologist*, *55*, 318–321. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.3.318>
- Bullock, M. (2012a). International psychology. In D. K. Freedheim & I. B. Weiner (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 562–596). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Bullock, M. (2012b). Internationalizing resources for psychology programs through professional organizations. In S. N. McCarthy, K. L. Dickson, J. Cranney, A. Trapp, & V. Karandashev (Eds.), *Teaching psychology around the world* (pp. 462–466). Newcastle upon Tyne, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Bullock, M. (2013). Can we really internationalize psychology? Structure, content, and processes. In J. C. Alchieri & J. B. Porto (Eds.), *Conferências do XXXIV Congresso Interamericano de Psicologia* [e-book] (pp. 151–164). Brasília, Brazil: SBPOT.
- Chia, R., & Poe, E. (2004, Spring). Innovations in international education. *International Psychology Reporter*, *8*, 7–8.
- Cooper, S. (2014, November). *Critical issues psychology must confront*. Plenary session presented at the Caribbean Regional Conference of Psychology, Suriname, South America.
- Cranney, J., & Dunn, D. (Eds.). (2011). *The psychologically literate citizen: Foundations and global perspectives*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199794942.001.0001>
- Draguns, J. G. (2001). Toward a truly international psychology: Beyond English only. *American Psychologist*, *56*, 1019–1030. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.56.11.1019>
- Dunn, D. S. (Ed.). (2015). *The Oxford handbook of undergraduate psychology education*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- EuroPsy. (2011). *Tuning educational structures in Europe*. Bilbao, Spain: Universidad de Deusto.
- Eysenck, M. W. (2004). *Psychology: An international perspective*. East Sussex, UK: Psychology Press.
- Fowler, G. A. (2013, October 8). An early report card on MOOCs. *Wall Street Journal*, p. R1.
- Fowler, R. D. (2000, Spring). Internationalizing the curriculum. *International Psychology Reporter*, *4*, 10–12.
- Gao, G., & Wang, F. (2010). Application of cognitive psychology in web-based instruction information computing and applications communications in computer and information science. *Science*, *106*, 196–203.
- Gielen, U. P., & Roopnarine, J. L. (Eds.). (2016). *Childhood and adolescence: Cross-cultural perspectives and applications*. Santa Barbara, CA: Praeger.
- Grenwald, G., Oberlechner, T., & Velayo, R. (2012). Internationalizing postsecondary education in psychology: A global endeavor. *Psychology Learning & Teaching*, *11*, 359–364. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2304/plat.2012.11.3.359>
- Grenwald, G., & Velayo, R. (2011). Internationalizing your psychology course: Preliminary survey findings. *International Psychology Bulletin*, *15*, 53–58.
- Griffiths, R., Chingos, M., Mulhern, C., & Spies, R. (2014, July 10). *Interactive online learning on campus: Testing MOOCs and other*

- platforms in hybrid formats in the University System of Maryland. New York, NY: Ithaka S+R.
- Guerin, S. H. (2009). Internationalizing the curriculum: Improving learning through international education: Preparing students for success in a global society. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 33, 611–614. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10668920902928945>
- Gurung, R. A. R., Hackathorn, J., Enns, C., Frantz, S., Cacioppo, J. T., Loop, T., & Freeman, J. E. (2016). Strengthening introductory psychology: A new model for teaching the introductory course. *American Psychologist*, 71, 112–124. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0040012>
- Guthrie, R. V. (1998). *Even the rat was white: A historical view of psychology* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hailstorks, R., & Boenau, M. (2013, July). *Revision of the APA Guidelines for the undergraduate psychology major*. Action Item #14, Agenda of the APA Council of Representatives, Honolulu, HI.
- Halpern, D. F. (Ed.). (2010). *Undergraduate education in psychology: A blueprint for the future of the discipline*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/12063-000>
- Henrich, J., Heine, S. J., & Norenzayan, A. (2010). The weirdest people in the world? *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 33, 61–83. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X0999152X>
- Howell, J. L., Collisson, B., & King, K. M. (2014). Physics envy: Psychologists' perceptions of psychology and agreement about core concepts. *Teaching of Psychology*, 41, 330–334. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0098628314549705>
- Institute of International Education. (2014). *International Student Enrollment Trends, 1949/50–2013/14. Open Doors Report on International Educational Exchange*. Retrieved from <http://www.iie.org/opendoors>
- International Baccalaureate Organization. (2009). *Diploma program: Psychology guide*. Cardiff, UK: International Baccalaureate Organization. Retrieved from <http://www.ibo.org/en/programmes/>
- Jordan, K. (2014). Initial trends in enrolment and completion of massive open online courses. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 15, 133–159.
- Kett, J. F. (1996). *Pursuit of knowledge under difficulties: From self-improvement to adult education in America*. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Kim, U., Yang, K. S., & Hwang, K. K. (Eds.). (2006). *Indigenous and cultural psychology: Understanding people in context*. New York, NY: Springer. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/0-387-28662-4>
- Klappenbach, H. (2004). Psychology in Argentina. In M. J. Stevens & D. Wedding (Eds.), *Handbook of international psychology* (pp. 129–150). New York, NY: Brunner-Routledge.
- Koller, D., Ng, A., Do, C., & Chen, Z. (2013, June 3). Retention and intention in massive open online courses: In depth. *Educause Review*. Retrieved from www.educause.edu/ero/article/retention-and-intention-massive-open-online-courses-depth-0
- Landrum, R. E., Beins, B. C., Bhalla, M., Brakke, K., Brihl, D. S., Curl-Langager, R. M., . . . Van Kirk, J. J. (2010). Desired outcomes of an undergraduate education in psychology from the departmental, student, and societal perspectives. In D. F. Halpern (Ed.), *Undergraduate education in psychology: A blueprint for the future of the discipline* (pp. 145–160). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/12063-009>
- Leask, B. (2015). *Internationalizing the curriculum*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Leong, F. T. L., Pickren, W. E., Leach, M. M., & Marsella, A. J. (Eds.). (2012). *Internationalizing the psychology curriculum*. New York, NY: Springer. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-0073-8>
- Levine, R. V. (2003). The kindness of strangers. *American Scientist*, 91, 226–232. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1511/2003.3.226>
- Lunt, I. (2014). International frameworks for psychology education and training: A European perspective. In R. Silbereisen, P. Ritchie, & J. Pandey (Eds.), *Psychology education and training* (pp. 49–62). Hove, UK: Psychology Press.
- Lunt, I., Peiró, J. M., Poortinga, Y., & Roe, R. A. (2015). *EuroPsy: Standards and quality in education for psychologists*. Göttingen, Germany: Hogrefe.
- McCarthy, S., Dickson, K. L., Cranney, J., Trapp, A., & Karandashev, V. (Eds.). (2012). *Teaching psychology around the world* (Vol. 3). Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- McCarthy, S., Karandashev, V., Stevens, M., Thatcher, A., Jaafar, J., Moore, K., . . . Brewer, C. (Eds.). (2009). *Teaching psychology around the world* (Vol. 2). Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- McCarthy, S., Newstead, S., Karandashev, V., Prandini, C., Hutz, C., & Gomes, W. (Eds.). (2007). *Teaching psychology around the world* (Vol. 1). Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- McCormick, M. A., Takooshian, H., Denmark, F. L., del Pilar Grazioso, M., Velayo, R. S., Wang, A. Y., & Zlokovich, M. S. (2014). Building bridges: Psi Chi and international psychology. *Bulletin of the Peoples' Friendship University of Russia. Series in Psychology and Pedagogics*, 4, 5–16. Retrieved from <http://elibrary.ru/item.asp?id=22649008>
- McGovern, T. V. (Ed.). (1993). *Handbook for enhancing undergraduate education in psychology*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/10126-000>
- Misiak, H., & Sexton, V. S. (1966). *History of psychology: An overview*. New York, NY: Grune and Stratton.
- Murray, B. (2005, Spring). U.S. students abroad. *Eye on Psi Chi*, 9, 20–21.
- Myers, D. G. (2009). Using new interactive media to enhance the teaching of psychology (and other disciplines) in developing countries. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 4, 99–100. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-6924.2009.01096.x>
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2015). Table 325.80: Degrees conferred by post-secondary institutions. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d14/tables/dt14_325.80.asp?current=yes
- Norcross, J. C., Hailstorks, R., Aiken, L. S., Pfund, R. A., Stamm, K. E., & Christides, P. (2016). Undergraduate study in psychology: Curriculum and assessment. *American Psychologist*, 71, 89–101. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0040095>
- Pappano, L. (2012, November 2). The year of the MOOC. *New York Times*, p. ED26.
- Pedersen, P. B. (2004). *One hundred eleven multicultural experiences to teach and train*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association Press.
- Pennebaker, J. W., Gosling, S. D., & Ferrell, J. D. (2013). Daily online testing in large classes: Boosting college performance while reducing achievement gaps. *PLoS ONE*, 8(11), e79774. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0079774>
- Rich, G., & Gielen, U. P. (Eds.). (2015). *Pathfinders in international psychology*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Roberts, K. E. (2014, Summer). Grooming global citizens: Connecting students to the UN and NGOs. *International Psychology Bulletin*, 18, 51–53.
- Rosenzweig, M. R. (1984). U.S. psychology and world psychology. *American Psychologist*, 39, 877–884. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.39.8.877>
- Russo, N. F., & Takooshian, H. (2002, Spring). Student involvement in international psychology: Why and how. *Eye on Psi Chi*, 6, 12–13.
- Sarwono, S. W. (2011). An Indonesian perspective on psychological literacy. In J. Cranney & D. S. Dunn (Eds.), *The psychologically literate citizen: Foundations and global perspectives* (pp. 178–190). New York, NY: Oxford University Press. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199794942.003.0046>
- Schultz, D. P., & Schultz, S. E. (2012). *A history of modern psychology* (10th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

- Sears, D. O. (1986). College sophomores in the laboratory: Influences of a narrow data base on social psychology's view of human nature. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*, 515–530. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.51.3.515>
- Sexton, V. S., & Misiak, H. (1984). American psychologists and psychology abroad. *American Psychologist*, *39*, 1026–1031. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.39.9.1026>
- Shiraev, E. B., & Levy, D. A. (2012). *Cross-cultural psychology: Critical thinking and contemporary applications* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson.
- Shvets, A. (2007, Winter). Undergraduate student involvement in cross-cultural research: Why and how? *International Psychology Bulletin*, *11*, 17–19.
- Simonian, S. J. (2014, Fall). Publishing international and cross-cultural work. *International Psychology Bulletin*, *18*, 34–39.
- Soto, C. (2014, Summer). ECELA: Studying psychology in Spanish in Argentina. *International Psychology Bulletin*, *18*, 57–58.
- Stevens, M. J., & Gielen, U. P. (Eds.). (2007). *Toward a global psychology: Theory, research, intervention, and pedagogy*. New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- Stevens, M. J., & Wedding, D. (2004). *Handbook of international psychology*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Stevens, M. J., & Wedding, D. (2006). *Psychology: IUPsyS global resource* (7th ed.) [CD ROM]. Hove, UK: Psychology Press.
- Stevens, M. J., & Wedding, D. (2009). International psychology: A synthesis. *Psychology IUPsyS Global Resource*. Retrieved from <http://e-book.lib.sjtu.edu.cn/iupsys/Origins/handbook/handbook2.html>
- Takooshian, H. (2013, Winter). Funding international work: Growing resources from the U.S. State Department. *International Psychology Bulletin*, *17*, 66–67.
- Takooshian, H., & Campano, F. (2008, May). How can students become involved in UN work? *Psychology International*, *19*, 5–6.
- Takooshian, H., & Stambaugh, L. F. (2007). Becoming involved in global psychology. In M. J. Stevens & U. P. Gielen (Eds.), *Toward a global psychology: Theory, research, intervention, and pedagogy* (pp. 365–389). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Takooshian, H., Stout, A., Riess, A., Ajrouch, K. J., Halpern, D. F., Hollander, E. P., . . . Wedding, D. (2011, Fall). How do U.S. Fulbright Scholarships change lives? *International Psychology Bulletin*, *15*, 26–32.
- Takooshian, H., & Takooshian, A. (2012, Fall). Funding students' international activities. *International Psychology Bulletin*, *16*, 64–66.
- Torney-Purta, J. (2008). *A report on internationalizing psychology education at the 2008 Educational Leadership Conference*. Retrieved from <http://apa.org/international/pi/2008/10/div-52-elc.aspx>
- Toyama, K. (2015, May 19). Why technology will never fix education. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/article/Why-Technology-Will-Never-Fix/230185/>
- UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (2014). *Global flow of tertiary-level students*. Retrieved from <http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/international-student-flow-viz.aspx>
- Velayo, R. (2010). Internationalizing your psychology course. *Essays from E-xcellence in Teaching*, *10*, 25–31.
- Velayo, R. (2011). Internationalizing the teaching of psychology by using emerging social media. *Eye on Psi Chi*, *15*, 6–7.
- Velayo, R. (2012). Internationalizing the curriculum. In J. Groccia, M. Alsudary, & W. Buskist (Eds.), *Handbook of college and university teaching: A global perspective* (pp. 268–278). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781412996891.n18>
- Velayo, R. S. (2016). *Internationalizing our psychology courses: Resources for faculty*. Retrieved from <http://www.apa.org/education/undergrad/internationalize.aspx>
- Velayo, R., Grenwald, G., & Manfred, M. (2012). How psychology instructors internationalize their courses: Strategies, perspectives, and implications. *International Psychology Bulletin*, *16*, 48–53.
- Velayo, R., Oliva, J., & Blank, D. (2008, Winter). Using the Internet: A call to internationalize the psychology curriculum. *International Psychology Bulletin*, *12*, 22–26.
- Velayo, R., & Trush, M. (2012). Going global by going virtual: Internationalizing student psychology organizations. *Eye on Psi Chi*, *17*, 16–18.
- Wolf, L. M., Hulsizer, M. R., & McCarthy, T. (2002). *International psychology: Annotated bibliography, relevant organizations, and course suggestions*. Retrieved from <http://teachpsych.org/resources/Documents/otp/resources/woolf02intbib.pdf>
- Zimbaro, P. G. (1972, April). Pathology of imprisonment. *Society*, *6*, 271–274.
- Zoma, M., & Gielen, U. P. (2015). How many psychologists are there in the world? *International Psychology Bulletin*, *19*, 47–50.
- Zoma, M., Takooshian, H., Ahmad, A. S., Plamondon, L., Shorr, D., Stanton, M. V., & Tang, S. (2012, Summer). How do Fulbright Scholarships impact students' lives? *International Psychology Bulletin*, *16*, 61–68.

Received February 13, 2015

Revision received September 8, 2015

Accepted September 21, 2015 ■