Teaching Introduction to Psychology and Counseling (2nd edition)

by Paul D. Meier, Frank B. Minirth, Frank B. Wichern, and Donald E. Ratcliff

An Instructor's Manual

written by Donald E. Ratcliff

Assistant Professor of Psychology, Psychology Department, Toccoa Falls College, Toccoa Falls, Georgia

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1. Introduction

This study guide is intended for use with Introduction to Psychology and Counseling, second edition, by Paul D. Meier, Frank B. Minirth, Frank B. Wichern, and Donald E. Ratcliff. Both new and experienced teachers will find ideas that may help them become more proficient in their instruction. Included are outlines, media resources, and student projects/classroom demonstrations and experiments. We will also include general suggestions for more effective teaching and testing.

Forms and outlines included in this manual may be reproduced by any instructor currently using the Meier book as a textbook. Copies may be made for each student taking the course.

How the Second Edition Came to Be

The first edition of Meier, Minirth and Wichern proved to be a success in college and seminary usage

and popular sales. The goal with the second edition was to expand those areas that were more briefly considered than is normal in standard textbooks, but also to abbreviate some areas that were considered in greater detail than is typical in textbooks of this nature. To accomplish the latter, a fair amount of material related to abnormal psychology was deleted, as well as a few details about certain aspects of counseling. Nearly all of these omitted sections, along with a fair amount of additional material on these topics, is now available in the book Bruised and Broken by Paul Meier, Frank Minirth, and Donald Ratcliff. By using the second edition of Introduction to Psychology and Counseling and Bruised and Broken together, the course will have virtually everything in the original version of the text and a great deal more, at a combined price that is still below the cost of most standard textbooks.

The first draft of the second edition was done by Donald Ratcliff, which was submitted to several

psychologists for critical evaluation and comment. The process of critique and correction was coordinated in part by Dr. David Benner and Allen Fisher at Baker Books. The many comments and suggestions made by the anonymous psychologists were used extensively in making a second revision of the manuscript. This second draft was again given to anonymous psychologists for their review and additional changes were made. The third draft of the manuscript then was extensively copyedited by Maria E. denBoer and published in June, 1991.

This is Not the Last Word

It is possible that a third edition of the textbook may be considered in the future. The author of this instructor's manual would greatly appreciate any comments, corrections, or suggestions for a new edition of both the text and this manual from interested readers. My address is included at the end of this section.

The ideas included in this manual are taken from my 14 years of teaching introductory psychology at the

undergraduate level. Most have been developed through trial and error, although I'm sure my background in educational psychology has shaped my thinking a good bit. I have tried to use ideas that are original or in the public domain, not from specific sources (thus the lack of citations). I am thankful for consistently high student evaluations over the years, indicating the practical value of these ideas.

I suspect that the ideas cited could equally be used in counseling classes and graduate level instruction. Many of the concepts presented here are overtly opinionated (I suppose any manual is opinionated, but most attempt to keep the fact they are opinions more covert) -- this accounts for the use of first person throughout. Since the perspectives presented are an outgrowth of my experience, and thus are not the final word on the subject. I certainly do not expect anyone to agree with everything, but the contents may give you some new ideas you will want to explore in your teaching.

I hope this instructor's manual helps you in teaching psychology and counseling classes. God bless your efforts for the Kingdom!

2. Preparing to Teach

This section is particularly intended for new teachers who have never taught psychology and counseling. However, if you are an "old timer" who has taught introductory psychology and counseling for several years, you may possibly find an idea or two you will want to consider. If nothing else, I would appreciate a critique of this chapter from other teachers -- including new teachers who want to tell me what I forgot!

Course Preparation

Without much doubt, everyone who teaches a class in introductory psychology and counseling has had an introductory psychology course and a number of other courses in psychology and/or counseling. It may be helpful to think back on how you experienced that first class or two. What was it that grabbed your interest and made you want to study further? If it was

difficult and frustrating, that may help you understand how some of your students feel. It can be overwhelming to encounter dozens, even hundreds of concepts that are completely new to you in a single class. Most college students had several classes in biology, English grammar, math, and so on throughout their high school years, so encountering these at the college level will involve a fair amount of repetition. On the other hand, many students have never had any courses in psychology before their introductory class, and at most they probably have had one fairly simple exposure in high school. It may be a foreign language to them.

Getting Ready for the First Class

Well before the semester or quarter begins, the instructor should begin getting materials together for the course. This involves obtaining materials for use in class, such as ordering videos or renting films, making transparencies, turning in reserve lists to the library, reserving video equipment or projectors, and so on. At many schools these tasks may need to be done

several weeks prior to the first class period.

Developing a good syllabus is also desirable prior to the beginning of classes. Your particular school may have specific guidelines for what a syllabus must include. Writing good objectives, describing all requirements in detail, stating grading procedures such as percentages assigned to different requirements, a good bibliography, attendance policies, reading requirements, and a tentative course schedule should all be included. For legal reasons, it is good to have a disclaimer such as "the content of this syllabus is subject to revision as announced in regular class periods." If you plan to use the college mailboxes for returning student assignments, include a statement to the effect that it is assumed students are giving permission for use of that mail system unless they notify you to the contrary (this is a confidentiality issue). If you post grades publicly, even if you use a number system instead of names, it is crucial that you obtain student permission first. I do this by stating

on the syllabus that putting the number on their test answer sheet constitutes permission to post the grade publicly. Instructors may even want to get student signatures for posting grades and using the mail system for protection in the event of a lawsuit (students do sue colleges and professors these days).

Text selection is an important process. While Introduction to Psychology and Counseling is an excellent choice for a basic textbook, the comparatively low price for this text (at this writing most introductory texts are $50 or more) makes it likely that you will want to add a supplement. There are many other books that relate psychology and Christianity, several of which are cited at various points in the Meier text. If the class you teach is more heavily weighted towards counseling, you may want to add a brief text on counseling techniques or the book *Bruised and Broken* written by Meier, Minirth, and Ratcliff (Baker, 1992).

Some teachers require study guides so students

will have a second exposure to most of the text's contents in a more interactive format. A study guide written by this author, and generally corresponding with the textbook, is available to students and teachers that are interested. There is considerable overlap between the text and study guide, although the guide would never substitute for the text. If you are interested in obtaining a sample copy without charge, contact Burgess Publishing, Alpha Editions, attention: Don Beimborn, 7110 Ohms Lane, Edina, Minn. 55435. Call 800-356-6826. [Note: This may no longer be available.]

I might take a moment to pat Baker Books on the back for not succumbing to the three year rotation pattern of most textbooks. Most general psychology texts are revised every three years, even though the basic content of the textbook remains unchanged (usually the biggest changes are in new references, not new ideas). The reason new editions are released so often is because of the huge used book resale network among students. By creating "obsolescence" of the old

edition, book companies sell more books, and teachers think they are getting the latest and greatest. In truth, the field -- while constantly changing -- does not require a totally new survey every three years. One might make a case for using very recent books in specialized areas of psychology, but the general concepts needed in an introductory course are unlikely to change very much over a period of three years. Stick with the Meier text; don't get conned by the idea that "new is always better."

The First Class

Beginning instructors (and sometimes experienced ones) often feel a bit anxious as they think about the first class. Good preparation, including a sufficient number of syllabi can help you through the first class period.

As will be detailed in the next section of this manual, it is good to open the first class period with prayer, attendance, and perhaps a short devotional. It is important to learn your student's names, if at all

possible. This can be difficult if there are more than 50 students in your class. Using associations can help. Some teachers take a snapshot of the class to try to remember names. I often learn names by trying to visually recognize a student before I call his or her name if at all possible, and I will be looking at them when the name is called. Name tags can help, but this gets old after the first few classes.

The first class period should generally include going over the syllabus to be sure students read it and to clarify anything students do not understand about the requirements and grading. Encourage students to ask questions about anything that is less than clear -- you are paving the way for them asking questions throughout the course.

Going over the syllabus should include, or be followed by, a brief overview of what the course is all about. Sometimes I go over the topics in the syllabus giving a sentence or two description of what the topic is about. The first class period is also a good time

to give students a definition of psychology (see Meier page 17).

You might also spend a few minutes introducing the textbook to the students. You can describe the background of the authors, including the fact that Meier and Minirth are psychiatrists while Wichern and Ratcliff are more psychology oriented. Comparing and contrasting psychiatry and psychology (Meier pages 297-299) might be helpful at this point. Some of your students may recognize the first two authors' names from the popular program "The Minirth-Meier Clinic," an association that may encourage interest in the book and the course as a whole.

Encourage students to read the two prefaces to the book, so they can see the overall perspective of the text. You might encourage them to see the design of chapters, noting the differences between the regular text and spotlights. The possibility of overlooking spotlights could be noted.

Some helpful sections of the textbook need to be

highlighted. For example, the appendix of self-change projects (page 345-349) can be highlighted, particularly if you are requiring or giving extra credit for doing the projects. Students often overlook the glossary (pages 351-356), a very important section of any textbook. In the Meier text the glossary is especially important to emphasize because it generally includes definitions using different wording from the rest of the text (to encourage conceptual, not rote understanding). Finally, note the name and subject indexes that may help students understand concepts better by seeing how the same and similar ideas are treated in different sections of the book.

You may want to include a mini-lecture during your first class period, but generally if you accomplish all of the above, most of that hour will have elapsed. If time remains you may want to give some details of your educational, occupational, and personal background. You may also want students to tell a bit about their interests and personal backgrounds, although so many

teachers do this it may be very old for them. Some teachers dismiss the first class early, which rarely meets with student protest!

The first class period is important for setting the tone for the remainder of the course. If you are adequately prepared with a copy of the text/s, a sufficient number of syllabi, and a positive attitude, you will make it!

3. Classroom Management

Classroom management has to do with the day to day activities in the classroom. It is likely that delivering lectures will take a good bit of classroom time, and thus a separate section (4) of this manual is given to that task. Here we will consider other aspects of the classroom activity.

Opening the Class

Teachers have various ways of opening a class period. Taking attendance can be one way of getting student attention and helping them to quiet a bit. If the class is especially noisy, it may almost be necessary to shout the first few names to get people's attention, especially if there are no bells to initiate class.

An alternative is to open class with prayer.

Asking for brief requests can often help students quiet

down for class. I like to have a student pray on most

days, but I also believe it is good for them to hear the teacher pray for specific requests from time to time as well. Allow shy students to defer their turn at prayer -- this keeps the class non-aversive (class time hardly seems the time to deal with social phobia). I generally do the praying on test days (the students have probably already done a fair amount of praying on those days!).

Some teachers like to open class with brief devotionals at the beginning of class. This is particularly effective if you develop a devotional that relates to the day's lecture. For example, when I lecture on behavioral psychology and shaping, I like to use the Jeremiah passage about the potter's wheel that illustrates how God shapes us. Of course, the devotional should be kept short and to the point, since students are paying for an academic course, not devotionals. A prayer or devotional at the beginning of class can set the atmosphere for a good class. Whatever method of opening the class is chosen, it

should remain constant over the semester. In this way the opening becomes a contextual cue (a conditioned stimulus) for students becoming quiet and drawing attention to the classroom activities.

Discussion

It is important to allow adequate time for student questions and some discussion. I believe one can easily let classes become "bull sessions" in which students are pooling their ignorance or get off on tangents that do not increase understanding of the topic. On the other hand, allowing some time to ask questions and discuss issues can be conducive to learning, not only because of the opportunity to clarify and better understand ideas, but also because input from students helps the classroom climate -- students who like classes are more likely to learn from them. A skillful teacher learns how to shift a discussion back to the topic when it strays, and to move on to other issues when the discussion is no longer providing insight for the class as a whole.

An important skill for teachers to cultivate is the ability to ask good questions. It is far too easy to ask closed questions that simply ask students to "regurgitate" what they have been taught. In contrast, open questions require them to analyze, critique, and put together ideas from various areas (for example, critiquing a theory of psychology using the Bible). A teacher might preface a question with a story, then ask students what that story exemplifies in the present unit of the class. While this is initially a bit closed ended, the teacher can open it up by asking "why" or asking for other opinions to help the discussion continue. The question method, used long ago by the ancient Greeks, can be a valuable method in the classroom.

After asking a question, be sure to allow sufficient time for responses. Instructors tend to pause for only a second or two, and if no one answers go on to other matters. However, research indicates that a student confronting a new idea may require five

seconds or more to come up with a response. Five to ten seconds of silence after a question is asked seems like a very long time to a teacher, but to a thinking student that time may be needed to deal with the issue adequately.

Group Activities

Small groups can be used effectively in classes. While this can be overdone, and may easily become a waste of time if not sufficiently guided and directed, there can be considerable value in the technique. Small groups should generally be five to seven in number, preferably made up of students who are not already good friends. People who are emotionally close to one another can easily get off the topic of the class and on to personal issues that have nothing to do with the course.

Specific instructions as to what groups should do is important so students will not be blankly looking at one another wondering what is expected. Specific guidelines and tasks might be listed on handouts,

preferably given to each student in the class.

Review Days

Some teachers set aside the class period prior to an exam for the purpose of review. There is value in this idea, particularly if students are given the opportunity to obtain certain details from lectures they have missed, or get clarification about concepts they do not quite understand. It is crucial that instructors remind students the class period prior to the review period that they need to look over their notes to find missing or unclear details.

Simply summarizing all the ideas presented in previous lectures is probably a waste of time. One can make a good case for students doing this on their own, as it will cause them to rehearse material and thus promote learning. Instead, the teacher might bring a new example of a concept dealt with in an earlier lecture, or bring up a controversial issue, and ask students to discuss what topics considered in previous lectures relate to this area, and how they relate.

Another alternative is for students to describe outside readings they are doing that correspond in some way to previous lectures. You may want to assign outside readings such as those in section 8 of this manual. This again will help students see key ideas from previous lectures. Sometimes a video can function as a review.

Review days can be led by students, if you like. Assigning different review days to groups of students in your class can result in creative analysis and summaries presented in many different ways. The instructor may want to include graded credit for leading review days.

You may want to use the outlines of chapters to help students review. Feel free to photocopy the outlines in section 5 of this study manual and distribute them in class -- permission is granted for making copies for each student in a class making use of the Meier text as a required book.

Regardless of how you use review days, try to

allow some time for students to get their concepts clarified. The best and most interested students are the most likely to want clarification and explanation, and the rest probably need to hear the reiteration of ideas as well. A rule of thumb that you may want to share with students is that for every question asked by a student, there are probably a half dozen students that want to ask but feel uncomfortable doing so.

Discipline Problems

Students in college should not require discipline. They should be mature adults. Unfortunately, that is not always the case. Sometimes there simply is no easy answer for certain discipline problems.

Sometimes a challenge to a teacher is an honest inquiry that simply sounds disrespectful. Not all students have been adequately socialized in how to ask questions and give personal opinions in an appropriate manner. There may be cultural or subcultural differences involved as well.

Public confrontations of disruptive behavior are

sometimes needed, but private confrontations are preferable. Often quietly (verbally or in writing) asking a student to stop by your office is desirable. If discussing the problem does not result in an adequate result, it may be necessary to have a school committee, advisor, or administrator become involved. It is important that the teacher not lose control of the classroom when discipline problems arise. There is a time to ask a student to leave the classroom if behavior is too disruptive. On the other hand, good instructors have enough self-esteem to say they are wrong when that is the case. Teachers these days do not automatically receive respect -- they usually must earn it by kind, competent, authoritative classroom management.

Fortunately, discipline problems are usually rare in a well-prepared class that includes examples relevant to student life or anticipated career, and where well-paced delivery is used (not too fast or too slow). Most students find an introductory psychology

or counseling class captivating because people seem to inherently want to know what makes people do the things they do (and why they do the things they do).

Out of Class Contact

One thing that can help minimize the need for classroom discipline, and enhance classroom climate, is contacting students in some capacity outside the class. Recent research indicates that this is especially critical for effectively reaching minorities and at-risk students. This does not mean the teacher tries to become just like the students, nor does it mean that the instructor imposes himself or herself on students, but rather that he or she takes a genuine interest in the lives of students.

For example, the instructor may want to invite students home for casual discussion, refreshments, and perhaps a video relevant to psychology and counseling. Some teachers involve themselves in student government organizations as an advisor or at least interested observer (you may find some examples for class this

way!). Attendance at college sporting events, holding prayer meetings and Bible studies, and availability for personal counseling all convey an open receptivity to student life. If you are receptive to their lives, they are more likely to be receptive to your academic life. Another possibility is to hold optional out of class study sessions with students, which can include free-floating discussions as well as questions directed to the professor.

Student Feedback

Most teachers dislike being evaluated by students, but these days most colleges, universities, and seminaries require this. I can sympathize with instructors that hate these evaluations; they are often little more than a reflection of teacher popularity due to the halo effect (or the horn effect??!!). Yet, even though such evaluations may not give you the specific feedback that you could use, it may help reflect overall student opinions of the class which can still be valuable information.

More informal forms of feedback may be more helpful for improving the class. I find that taking part of a class period at the end of a course and asking students what lectures and videos seemed irrelevant or less than meaningful can be a good way of getting feedback. If presented in a positive manner and without defensiveness on the part of the teacher, simply asking what needs to be changed the next time around can elicit helpful input.

Another possibility is to encourage anonymous feedback on lectures via notes to the instructor. Sometimes students are more likely to give you specific comments individually that will not be given in a group setting. Tell them aspects of the class that have been changed in the past because of student comments -- this provides genuine incentive for students. Some teachers may want to do this several times during the semester so that students can remember specific lectures more clearly and perhaps allow for midcourse correction. Regardless of whether you have only formal

feedback through student evaluation forms, or if you use one or more informal procedures as outlined above, getting input from students is crucial to course and teacher improvement. None of us is above correction. Of course not every comment requires change; it is important to determine if a student's opinion reflects a consensus or merely an isolated reaction of one or two. But I am convinced that high quality feedback from students is an important key to good teaching.

4. Developing Lectures

The major task for new instructors is the developing of new lectures. This can be a difficult process at first. The constant temptation to new instructors is to include too many concepts and too few examples. There are a number of other guidelines to consider as well.

Should a teacher reiterate the text or include a great deal of additional material? Students often feel short changed if the teacher only uses book material. The text serves as the introduction, but good teachers add to the text their own illustrations and elaborations on at least some of the topics. On the other hand, many students taking an introductory class feel overwhelmed by all the content, so be careful not to add too much. Students taking a first class in this area need to hear many of the text's ideas in class (some are better listeners than readers) but an extra

illustration or two from the teacher's own experience can help a great deal.

It is also suggested that instructors put ideas into their own words, rather than relying on the exact statements of the textbook. If students receive the key ideas both in written and spoken modalities, and these are expressed in different words, they are more likely to get the concept behind the words, not just parrot words they really do not understand.

Good lectures involve a fair amount of repetition. I generally try to communicate an idea at least three or four different ways. This allows students sufficient time to take notes, and hopefully get the central idea behind the words.

A general rule of thumb is to include at least one lecture that surveys each chapter used in the book. This survey will probably emphasize topics with which the professor is most familiar, but should include most of the other major topics in the chapter.

Several years ago I did some research of Bible

colleges and found that the most likely topic to be included in general psychology classes was motivation (all of the colleges studied included it). Nearly all of those classes included topics in learning/conditioning, personality, emotions, and abnormal psychology. Most colleges also included developmental psychology, sensation and perception, memory, and introductory materials. The majority included separate sections on biological psychology, intelligence, cognition and language, and therapies in addition to the previous topics. Less than half had separate sections on research and consciousness, and curiously social psychology was not included very often. The article also analyzed the instructors, textbooks, requirements, and religious content of these classes. For further details see: "General Psychology in Bible colleges," Journal of Psychology and Theology, vol. 14, no. 4, (1986), pp. 330-333. Also of interest is an article on how introductory psychology textbooks deal with religion (most of them ignore the topic

almost completely), written by Elizabeth Lehr and Bernard Spilka (Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, vol. 28, no. 3, pp. 366-371, 1989).

Ideas Within Lectures

The concepts used in lectures are most likely to come from the outlines of the chapters of the textbook (provided in section 5 of this teacher's manual). The titles of spotlights might be used as topics as well, but in most cases would be too narrow for an entire subsection of a lecture.

Do not be afraid to include concepts in lectures that are specialized to your training and experience, but the danger is that these may easily become too technical for students. The ideas are familiar to the teacher, but are often foreign ground for students. On the other hand, if they are highly interesting to the teacher, the enthusiasm about those topics needs to be heard by students -- excitement can become contagious and engender enthusiasm about psychology and counseling in general. Just go easy on the technicalities, and

provide a lot of examples.

What concepts are most crucial to include? This, of course, depends upon the level at which you teach (undergraduate vs. graduate) as well as the specific purpose of the course in the curriculum. One possible guideline is to draw up a list of terms students need to know for the course and develop lectures from them (you could use the glossary in Meier (pp. 351-356).

Sources for Lecture Content

Lectures are developed from the textbook materials, your own previous study of specific topics, and books or articles. Another very helpful source is other introductory textbooks. The number of textbooks available on introductory psychology and counseling is overwhelming -- there are over a hundred general psychology and counseling textbooks! Keeping a few of these on hand while writing lecture notes can help the teacher stay on track, filling out the content adequately but also keeping the content at an introductory level. Two favorites that I find useful

are secular introductions written (or cowritten) by Christians: *Psychology* by David Myers and *Understanding Human Behavior*, 7th ed. by James McConnell and Ronald Philipchalk (both are available in new editions at this writing). I wish these writers had included their Christian perspectives in these introductory books, as they have in their other books, but these essentially secular treatments of introductory psychology can still be helpful in filling out lecture notes. Be careful to paraphrase and give credit as needed.

Christian perspectives on topics can be developed in lectures using many of the sources cited in the Meier text (especially spotlights) as well as the instructor's personal Bible study and browsing in Christian bookstores (it is amazing to me how the number of Christian psychology books has mushroomed in the last few years). Articles in the *Journal of Psychology and Theology* and *Journal of Psychology and Christianity* have also proven helpful to this writer.

Specific applications to Christian ministry can often be gleaned from issues of *Christianity Today*, *Evangelical Missions Quarterly*, *Christian Education Journal*, and *Leadership*. Again, give credit for borrowed ideas.

Use Examples

Always include examples in your lectures. Introductory students tend to be very concrete in their thinking about psychology and counseling, so the more examples you can provide the better they will understand the concepts. Real or realistic examples also add interest. There is research to suggest that students today are more likely to think concretely than in prior generations. This does not mean they are incapable of abstraction, but rather that they need more concrete examples of ideas before the abstraction will be comprehended.

Go back and forth between the concept and various examples of the concept, and the more general idea is more likely to be understood. Our text uses many

examples from church ministry to help accomplish this -- I have found that most students have a difficult time applying abstract concepts on their own. This is obviously because the ideas are so new to them. If the text and teacher can introduce students to ideas and applications, perhaps they can begin to generate their own applications outside class and in their future lives. Examples become "life-links" that are more likely to translate into changed behavior.

Revising Lectures

Good lecturers regularly update their lectures with new information and illustrations. This is a continual process that is never completed, as new research comes out all the time that may have relevance for the topics dealt with. Many teachers keep newspaper clippings and references to articles that update or help make a point, summarizing them or adding them verbatim (with credit) in lectures. A good rule of thumb is to try to add something to each lecture each year, although I found myself adding much more

than this especially during the first few years of teaching.

Revising lectures also involves deleting content from time to time. Sometimes ideas must be discarded because new research contradicts them. More often, however, content will be deleted (at least during the first few years of teaching) because the ideas, applications, or overheads simply do not "take" with students. Sometimes ideas and examples will work for a few years and then are no longer helpful and relevant because students change from generation to generation. If the concept is essential, try developing a new approach to the presentation with new examples.

Deleting content should occur not only as a result of one's own critique, but also from student reactions. Student evaluations were considered in detail in section 3 of this manual, but an effective teacher should also learn to read his or her audience during the lecture. Body posture of students, alertness, facial expressions, questions raised, and other kinds

of feedback during the lecture may provide important cues as to what lecture material needs to be changed. Video or audio tapes of a lecture or two may also provide helpful self critique as well.

Again, certain concepts are crucial to an introductory class. But if the presentation is unpleasant for students, behavioral psychology tells us students will avoid the presentation and perhaps psychology in general as a result. Saint Paul said "I have become all things to all people that I may save some." He did not change the gospel message, but rather the presentation of it, to fit the audience. He is a worthy model to emulate in teaching introduction to psychology and counseling.

5. Chapter Outlines

The following chapter outlines are intended to help teachers view the chapters in skeletal form for a quick overview of topics and to observe likely topics for lectures. These outlines can also be copied and handed out to students to help them in reviewing for exams. Each chapter is summarized in two pages, thus making possible a single page handout printed on both sides. Permission is granted for making one copy for each student taking a class in which Introduction to Psychology and Counseling is a required textbook.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY

Definition of Psychology

The Growth of Psychology

Wundt

James

Watson

Freud

Ways of Knowing

Tenacity

Authority

A Priori Beliefs

Reason and Common Sense

Scientific Method

The Scientific Method

Approaches

Correlational Research

Case Study

Experimentation

Sources of Bias

Selection

Placebo Effect

Experimenter

Ways of Relating Psychology and Theology

Christianity Against Psychology

Psychology Against Christianity

Christianity and Psychology

Integration

Eclecticism

Sources of Data: Special and General Revelation

Sources of Tension

Definitions

Non-observable Concepts

Beliefs

Evaluation of Psychology

Advantages of a Christian Perspective

The Non-Christian and Truth

Limits of Psychology

Human Beings in Holistic Perspective

Holism Defined and Illustrated

Christian Holism

Christian Contributions to Psychology

Historical Figures

Current Contributions

SPOTLIGHTS

CHAPTER TWO

THE BIOLOGICAL BASIS OF BEHAVIOR

The Neuron

The Neuron Sheath

The Depolarization Process

The Central Nervous System

The Upper Brain

Fissures

Four Lobes

Parietal

Occipital

Temporal

Frontal

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The Split Brain

Sperry's Research

The Lower Brain

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Spinal Cord

Limbic System

Brain Development

First Stage

Second Stage

Third Stage

Fourth Stage

Fifth Stage

The Peripheral Nervous System

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Autonomic System

Sympathetic

Parasympathetic

The Endocrine System

Gonads

Pituitary

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Parathyroid

Pancreas

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Suggestion & Hypnosis

Dissociation

Sleep

Stages

REM sleep

Dreams

Insomnia

SPOTLIGHTS

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SENSATION AND PERCEPTION

Sensation

General Aspects

Absolute Threshold

Subliminal Perception

Vision

Two Visual Systems

Rods

Cones

Hearing

The External Ear

Bones of the Internal Ear

Other Senses

Skin

Motion

Taste

Smell

Habituation

Sensory Deprivation

Perception

Size Constancy

Depth Perception

Recognition of Stimuli

Template Theory

Perception as Active

Grouping Sensations

Figure and Ground

Gestalt Rules

What Influences Our Perceptions?

Past Experience

Situation

Values

Expectation

The Autokinetic Effect

Perception as Veridical

SPOTLIGHTS

CHAPTER FOUR

EMOTIONS

Emotions and Feelings

Emotions vs. Moods

Overreliance Upon Feelings

Theories of Emotion

James-Lange Theory

Cannon-Bard Theory

Schachter and Singer Theory

Cognitive Appraisal

Physiological Theory

Nonverbal Communication

Paralanguage

Eye Contact

Body Language

Contradictions Between the Verbal and Nonverbal

The Positive Emotions

Love

Joy

Peace and Awe

The Negative Emotions

Hatred

Sorrow

Envy and Jealousy

Anger and Depression

Express or Repress?

Common Depression

Biblical Descriptions

Causes

Manipulation

Genetic Factors

Stresses

Guidelines

SPOTLIGHTS

CHAPTER FIVE

MOTIVATION

Various Definitions

Theories of Motivation

The Drive Theory

Increased Intensity

Homeostasis

The Arousal Theory

Reticular Activating System

Levels of Arousal

Maslow's Theory

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6. Projects and Demonstrations

This section deals with two basic components in teaching psychology and counseling: projects students can do outside class, and demonstrations the students and/or professor do inside the classroom. These are two different ways students can begin to relate the concepts of the course to everyday life.

Before we look at these two areas, however, perhaps the topic of course requirements in general needs to be addressed. In my research of general psychology classes in Bible colleges (Journal of Psychology and Theology, vol. 14, no. 4, pp. 330-333), I found that many instructors required a large number of requirements. One instructor, for example, required twelve quizzes and tests and six projects, including a personal journal, a detailed Bible study of the mind, a critique of a professional article, developing a biblical model of personality (!!), giving an oral

report, and writing two other papers! Another instructor required twenty-one quizzes and tests, summaries of five scholarly articles, daily homework assignments, and oral and written book reports!

I am afraid that a lot of extra assignments, on top of the already imposing task of surveying all of psychology, is far too much to ask of introductory students. It is likely to kill interest in the topic. One or two outside projects may be a fine adjunct to the class, but be careful of overloading.

Projects

Outside projects can be a valuable way students can learn more about applying psychology personally, as well as learn more about research in general. These may be assigned individually or by groups. Some instructors require students to give an in-class report on the results of the project.

The appendix of the Meier text includes two self-change projects that make excellent, relevant projects for students. I have found that it helps a great deal

for students to use graph paper to chart baseline data, initial results, and extended results as reinforcers are eliminated. A signed contract at the beginning may also be helpful. The self-change project may be remembered by students long after a lot of the other ideas studied in class are forgotten. This is because it is of benefit immediately and so relevant to individual's lives.

Another outside project to consider is systematic observation of people. Here the goal is for students to casually observe people in various contexts, such as malls, on campus, in church, at public or Christian schools, and so on. They then relate what is observed to various concepts studied in class. For example, observing a group of preteens in a mall might reflect the reinforcing effects of group membership (from the chapter on learning) or concepts from chapters on child development and adolescent development. A sample form for reporting observations is included at the end of this section.

Some instructors prefer more experimental projects, using animals and specially designed cages to control conditions. Generally this is more appropriate for upper division students taking experimental psychology, after they have had several classes in psychology. Yet it may be possible to simplify such experiments to make them appropriate for introductory students. Other kinds of experiments may be used as well, such as simple replications of classic experiments in psychology. Be sure to follow appropriate ethical guidelines for conducting experiments, including informed consent, if you use this option.

Social involvement may also take place as a student project. Taking part in alleviating the ills of society may help sensitize students to the problems in society and thus help prepare them for counseling ministry. Involvement in Salvation Army activities, church soup kitchens for the needy, children's ministry, inner city work, hospital ministry, and even

some of the functions of a community mental health center may provide opportunities for pseudo-counseling and genuine counseling work. If you use this option, be sure to advise students about the limits of their involvement -- they must not think they are qualified to be full counselors with only part of an introductory course under their belts! Again, a report in class about their experiences may be very enlightening to others.

Systematic interviews are another way for students to learn from projects. They may want to talk with different kinds of counselors to compare and contrast perspectives and approaches. For example, Christian and non-Christian counselors might be compared to find their differences (and similarities) in dealing with problems. Students might contrast the work of a social worker with a psychiatrist and school psychologist.

The work of a Christian counselor in private practice

might be compared with that of a Christian counselor in a mental hospital, or even a comparison made of

Christian and non-Christian mental health clinics. Yet another comparison would be different kinds of psychologists in various branches of the department of psychology in a university -- how is their work similar, and how is it different?

Students might be interested in visiting a mental hospital, perhaps visiting a unit for several hours. Interviews with clients and general observation of the surroundings can be very helpful in understanding what aspects encourage improvement and what aspects may perpetuate the problems. I have even had students role-play mental illness in public to see how strangers react to their actions! (I have some ethical reservations about this idea.)

Perhaps the classic approach to involving introductory students in psychology is for them to participate in experiments conducted by the instructor. While we usually think of universities doing this kind of research, seminaries and Christian colleges might consider doing this kind of work as well, thus

contributing to the literature of the psychology of students in a Christian college (what little exists has been published primarily by the *Journal of Psychology and Theology* and the *Journal of Psychology and Christianity*). For example, Wheaton College repeated the famous Darley and Batson experiments on altruism with interesting results (see pp. 170-171 of Meier). Perhaps you can add to the literature about Christian college students!

These are but a few ideas to consider in developing outside projects. Perhaps one or more of the above ideas will spark an interest and become an important addition to your course requirements.

Classroom Experiments and Activities

Classroom experiments and activities that illustrate concepts can be a helpful addition to a lecture. Students participating in experiments and role playing can add a great deal of interest in the course. Often you may need to prompt a student ahead of time regarding exactly what they need to do.

The down side of these classroom activities is that, even with the best of circumstances, the experiments may not come out exactly as planned. In addition, if they become a routine part of the class they may not be as interesting -- there is something to be said for the unexpectedness of such an activity. I use them sparingly.

For chapter one you might have a student role play several activities in front of the class (walking to a chair, sitting down, turning pages in a book, and throwing it down on the floor). Then ask students what took place. Usually they will come up with various feelings and motivations of the actor. After writing student ideas on the board, you can refute the conjectures about feelings and motivations by pointing out that these cannot be directly observed. Good researchers use measurable and often observable criteria in their research (see pp. 20-22 of Meier). Then ask them what really did happen. If they are stumped, point out that the student walked up the desk.

Is that measurable? (Yes: how far he walked, speed, etc.). Then ask what he did next, and so on.

In chapter two, you might bring a model of the brain to class. Have a student toss a ball gently in the air. Then, holding the brain up to the side of the student's head, have the class trace where the touch of the ball arrives in the brain (the brain stem) and where that information is processed (the parietal lobe). You might do the same for the visual information, the sounds involved, and the muscles used. Sensation and perception could include numerous experiments. I like to use optical illusions that I have on overhead transparencies. One might also have examples of habituation (point out that the lights or air circulation system have been making noises, but most people do not notice them). Perhaps an illustration of rods and cones could be used by varying the amount of light in the classroom, pointing out that in dim light one only sees in black and white because the cones are not functioning.

For emotions, you might surprise students with some kind of announcement (everyone failed the last exam, everyone got an A on the last project, tuition had been doubled, a surprise guest, whatever would be likely to produce anger, sadness, or delight in your students). Then tell them the truth, and ask how they felt about the announcement. Have them examine the various theories of emotion (pages 74-75 of Meier) and ask them which best recounts their experience. Another possibility is to have a student role play verbal communication that is at variance with nonverbal communication (crying while saying they became engaged last night, etc.).

The motivation chapter might be illustrated by having students analyze Maslow's hierarchy (pp 88-90 of Meier) in terms of what would motivate them at present. You should find some students that are hungry (physical), some that reflect safety needs, and so on. Perhaps pictures representing each of these could be used.

For the learning chapter, I sometimes point out that money is a powerful secondary reinforcer, taking out a five dollar bill and saying "I suspect several of you would rush towards me if I would give this money to the first person to come forward." If you pause for a moment, inevitably you have one or more students begin to leave their seats at this point, which adds to the interest and levity! Putting your money away (or giving it away!) you can point out that their reaction is not all that different from Skinner's rat pushing the bar for a pellet of food.

By the time you get to the memory chapter, you can graphically point out that they have probably had an exam by this point and that therefore they are probably motivated to study this chapter carefully. I like to have the class recite John 3:16, pointing out that they inevitably pause after five to seven words -- indicating that they have come to the end of short term memory and are now accessing long term storage for the next phrase to be entered into short term memory.

One illustration I use from the intelligence chapter relates to mental retardation. I have a student volunteer to help me in class, without my telling them what they will be doing. After they are seated on top of the desk or on a chair I tell them they will role play a profoundly retarded person learning to eat. I then use a spoon (or a pencil that substitutes for a spoon) and show the class how to teach a mentally retarded person to feed themselves. This process involves shaping and chaining (see page 112) the following sequence: holding the spoon, scooping the food, lifting the spoon and food to the mouth, and entry of food and spoon into the mouth. Profoundly retarded individuals, if they can be spoon fed, usually have the reflex of opening the mouth and swallowing. Going through this sequence, using hand over hand training of the role playing student, is usually interesting as well as enlightening to students who know little about teaching the mentally retarded. It is usually a lot of fun as well.

Social psychology includes the topic of cognitive dissonance. Students might be presented with the contrived example of a young single woman trying to decide between two eligible men she is interested in dating. You might have students become involved at this point by imagining pros and cons about each of the possible men. Listing these on the board will help students see how dissonance is aroused by the near even balance of positives and negatives for each. Now state that the woman decided to date one of the men and told the other to get lost. Ask students what she is likely to do to relieve the dissonance that results from gaining the negatives of the chosen man and from losing the positives of the other.

In the child development chapter, you might bring in one or more children and perform one of the Piagetian tasks for concrete operational thinking. The easiest to use in class would probably be the pennies separation task (see any good child development text for a description of this task). The beakers

experiment could also be used (described on page 178 and illustrated on page 177 of Meier). You might also illustrate Kohlberg's theory by presenting the class with the classic Heinz dilemma (again, see any good child development text) and having the class discuss the possible options, giving reasons for their decisions (write these on the board). These could then be analyzed using Kohlberg's stage theory. If you do this experiment, be sure to emphasize that just because a person reflects a stage in the dilemma does not mean they are at that stage in all their thinking. Also emphasize that Christians need to emphasize the ethics of the decision, not just the quality of the reasoning. This will minimize any embarrassment from some student giving a low stage response.

In the adolescent section, I sometimes ask students to follow the logic, "If A is shorter than B and B is shorter than C, which is the longest?" If students say C, I point out that this is one test of formal operations thinking (deductive reasoning, see

pages 202 (as well as pp. 177-178). You might also consider having several reflective adults come to class and talk about their views of life, after which students may be able to relate concepts from the text to what was stated.

Personality can be examined through presenting the four traits suggested by the ancient Greeks. Have each student try to fit themselves into one of the categories. If they have difficulty, point out that this is because the four categories are too neat for the reality of personality. For those who are able to locate themselves in one of the categories, describe some of the characteristics of another category and ask them if they ever have some of those traits. Another possibility is to repeat the experiment described in detail in the first paragraph on page 230. Finally, you might consider reciting a few questions from the MMPI in class and then showing how those items would be scored (some abnormal psychology texts and psychological testing books give this information for a

few items).

To demonstrate the psychology of religion, you could bring in different age children -- much as was suggested in the section on child development -- and interview them regarding their views of God. It might be even better to videotape the interviews, so they would not be distracted by students. Then students could evaluate the reactions by the characteristics listed in the text (Meier pp. 249-250).

Sometimes you may be able to locate a student on campus who has had mental illness and is willing to openly talk about their previous problems. That individual may be willing to come to class and talk about their experiences and the counseling they received, which relates to the abnormal psychology and counseling units. You might also want to have students anonymously (via unsigned statements) describe past experiences that relate to some of the causes of mental illness. After reading one or more of these, it might be pointed out that many people who have some of the

"causes" of mental illness never become mentally ill. You might also have students analyze the various personality disorders, looking at individual traits, and see for which they have the most traits. Again, the instructor needs to emphasize that everyone has some of the traits, but that is a far cry from having the actual disorder. The instructor should definitely include some cautions about iatrogenic illness if this is done (see spotlight 14.1 on page 266).

Role playing various kinds of counseling can be helpful for students. This could be done in small groups, or could be role played with the instructor being the counselor and a volunteer playing the counselee. The instructor might include a tape recording of counseling taken from one of the live radio programs featuring counseling on the air. A guest from the regional Christian Association for Psychological Studies could be invited to class to talk about the value of membership for psychologists and counselors. Various counselors could also be invited

to class.

The stages of group function (Meier pp. 326-327) could be role played in class. In the process of the role play, or following it, the instructor could talk about the dynamics of leadership (pp. 324-326) as well as the dynamics of change (pp. 327-329). You might have students fill out the premarital counseling inventory on page 331 of the Meier text.

I have tried to include at least one in-class demonstration for each chapter in the above descriptions. I trust that several will prove useful to you in your teaching. I would like to know which work best for you, as well as any other ideas you may come up with (if used in a future manual, I'll be sure to give you credit). My address is at the end of the first chapter of this manual. Thanks!

Student Observation Report Form

Date & Situation: ____________________________________

Behavior Observed: ____________________________________

____

____

Concept from Class this Represents: ____________________

____

Page of Text or Lecture Date: __________________________

Date & Situation: ____________________________________

Behavior Observed: ____________________________________

____

____

Concept from Class this Represents: ____________________

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Page of Text or Lecture Date: __________________________

Date & Situation: ____________________________________

Behavior Observed: ____________________________________

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____

Concept from Class this Represents: ____________________

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Page of Text or Lecture Date: __________________________

7. Media Resources

Using various media in your classroom is an important adjunct to lectures. Today we are blessed with many different forms of media that help teach introduction to psychology and counseling. While some publishers "give away" various media by charging huge prices for introductory texts, too often these media are either not very high quality or not very useful. I have a number of computer programs, sets of transparencies, tapes, and other media that sit on my shelf unused because of such policies. I appreciate Baker Books' policy of avoiding this practice so they can keep textbook costs low. Most schools can afford to purchase a few videotapes or other materials, and that way the instructor can get exactly what he or she wants. Less waste and less expense for students makes sense. And, frankly, I wonder about the quality of teacher who must lean constantly on media to have a

successful class.

Transparencies

Transparencies are helpful in some, though not all, situations. An occasional cartoon can grab the interest of students, but can be overdone. Cartoons for overhead transparencies often can be obtained from Leadership or one's local newspaper (these may require permission to be reproduced).

Drawings and diagrams placed on an overhead may clarify a difficult area. If they are too complex or have too many words on them they can confuse students. The rule of thumb is that drawings and diagrams are the best overheads, but overheads that only have words on them do not help a great deal. Be sure that all words on drawings or diagrams are large enough to be read at the back of the room.

I tried putting my lecture outline on overheads for a couple of years, but found that students copied the outline but did not write down anything else and sometimes didn't listen to the lecture. If you

genuinely feel providing an outline helps students, try handing out the outline on paper with plenty of space between major points and encouraging students to fill in the spaces with details.

When using transparencies, be sure you do not stand in the way of either the projected light or students. If you point to something on the transparency, it generally works best if you do so on the top of the machine rather than on the projected image. By looking at the machine from an angle, rather than directly down on the transparency, the light should not be blinding.

Computer Programs

Computer programs for introductory psychology and counseling classes are widely available. Three basic kinds of programs are most likely to be found: classroom management programs that keep track of grades, test generators that create and modify tests, and programs for classroom demonstrations.

Classroom management programs keep track of

student grades and ongoing averages, print average grades periodically, sort grades and student names in various ways, convert numerical grades to letter grades and vice versa, and so on. Examples include "Grade Performance Analyzer " (Delta Software, 2526 Brookside Ave, Omaha, Neb. 68124), "Micrograde" (Chariot Software Group, 3659 India St., Suite 100, San Diego, Cal. 92103, telephone 619-298-0202), and "Diploma II" (Brownstone Research Group, 140 W. 11th Ave., Denver, Colo. 80204, telephone 303-892-0570)

In my opinion, classroom management programs are not very helpful. I have gone through several of these, and generally they take a fair amount of time to learn, and then take about as much time to run as it would simply to use an old fashioned gradebook and calculator. The rule of thumb for any computer program is that if you can do the same thing without a computer in the same amount of time and with the same amount of ease, the program probably is not worth it.

On the other hand, the averaging function and

ability to print up student grades periodically is nice, but I find I just don't take the time to print the grades, and averaging in a gradebook (if done once a semester) does not take all that much time if you use a calculator. I'm not computer phobic, but I haven't seen a program in this area worth learning and using (let alone buying).

The second kind of computer program is test generators. These allow the teacher to create tests, juggle items in different orders, add and delete test items from existing test banks, and so on. I believe all three of the examples cited above also include test generators.

Are these programs worth having? Quite frankly, I don't think so. A good word processor can do the same thing (and a whole lot more). If you spend your time learning how to use a good word processor program, you can use it to write manuscripts, develop handouts, type letters, and perform other tasks in addition to creating tests. With a test generator program you can

only do one thing -- generate and change tests. Some day they will come up with a good, cheap, user-friendly test generator that will be able to read student answer sheets directly, do sophisticated item analysis with answers, regrade tests after an item analysis, enter grades into student files, and other complex tasks. When they do, I'll be the first one to support using them. I suspect that day is many years away.

Finally, a number of computer programs are available which can be used in or out of class to show experiments and other illustrations. Examples include "Animal Behavior Data Simulations" from Oakleaf Systems, P.O. Box 472, Decorah, Iowa 52101, "Mind Scope" from West Publishing Company, College Division, 50 W. Kellogg Blvd, St. Paul, Minn. 55164-1003 and several programs available from Artificial Behavior, Inc., 2124 Kittredge, Suite 215, Berkeley, Cal. 94704, telephone 415-522-3107. Generally these are available on standard computer disks, but recently some have become available on compact video disks for computers,

in which computer simulations are combined with overhead transparencies, video segments, and so on.

I have found the computer-based formats to be prohibitively expensive and cumbersome for my use in the classroom, as they require a computer in the class as well as monitor hookups or special overhead interfaces so the entire class can see. The compact video disk format is intriguing but both the disks and the machines to run them are prohibitively expensive for most schools. However, for those colleges and seminaries that have the funding required, these can be helpful.

Films and Videos

Films and videos can add considerable interest in a class, although they can easily be overdone. One must continually ask, "What will students get out of this?" and "Is this academically significant?" If your school has videotape recorders readily available for the classroom, this is probably the best medium to use -- most of the best films are now available on video.

The films that are not on video are usually very dated and can bring laughter from students because of dated haircuts, styles of dress, and so on.

I have found that feature length movies, slides and filmstrips are also not very viable for the classroom -- often movies do not provide much academically, while slides and filmstrips are usually boring for students. Of course a lot of videos are also less than helpful (some of them are dated and boring as well). To maximize the value of videos and films, distribute an outline of the content prior to the film, leaving space for students to insert details. Philip Zimbardo released the "Discovering Psychology" series of videos in 1991, which has found a warm welcome in many college classrooms. The twenty-six episodes are very current and interesting. I have not used many of the videos in my classes because I found that some freshmen and sophomores at the undergraduate level get distracted by his personality (they sometimes perceive him as effeminate). Before

buying this rather expensive series, get an episode or two "on approval" to use with your students and judge for yourself. "Discovering Psychology" is available from The Annenberg/CPB Project, 1111 16th Street N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, telephone 800-LEARNER. Another telecourse, titled "Psychology: The Study of Human Behavior" is available from Coast Telecourses, Coastline Community College, 11460 Warner Ave., Fountain Valley, CA 92708-2597, telephone 714-241-6109. They also have a series titled, "Understanding Human Behavior." I have not seen either series, but other Coastline videos I have seen have been somewhat dated and not too interesting. As with every form of media, get a sample before you buy.

In the 1980's two major series appeared on the Public Broadcasting System: "The Brain" followed by "The Mind." These were both very high quality and quite interesting, but did not follow the topics of general psychology too well. However, there were excellent segments that do relate well to introductory

psychology topics. Fortunately, these brief segments have been collected separately and are useful for introductory classes (they make great introductions for lectures, since they last only a few minutes each). At this writing they are available on two videotapes for each series, at under $100 for each set. These are called "Brain Teaching Module tapes 1 and 2" (and a similar "Mind" set of tapes), available from "The Annenberg/CPB Project, 19 Gregory Dr., So. Burlington, VT 05403, telephone 800-LEARNER.

Two other sources that have a wide variety of videos available are Insight Media, 121 W. 85th St., New York, NY 10024, telephone 212-721-6316, and Films for the Humanities and Sciences, PO Box 2053, Princeton, NJ 08543-2053. Ask for catalogs

Let me make a few comments regarding specific videos for certain chapters of the Meier text. These are in addition to the many fine video series listed above.

You may find that one of the full hour videos from

the Brain or Mind series would be helpful in conjunction with chapter two of Meier. These are available from The Annenberg/CPB Project, c/o Intellimation, Attn.: Psychology Department, PO Box 1922, Santa Barbara, Cal. 93116-1922, telephone 800-LEARNER. (I have no idea why Annenberg/CPB has so many addresses.)

There is an old film put out by CRM films titled "Learning" that fits well with the chapter by the same title in Meier. The film is quite dated, but has several cute parts to it. It needs to be redone with people in modern clothes, but some of the cartoon sequences are cute (a couple sections may be offensive).

Developmental psychology is beautifully illustrated in the new series titled "Childhood," available from Annenberg/CPB. This seven hour series is much too long for an introductory psychology and counseling class, but the last couple of episodes are usable. There is a strong emphasis upon cross-cultural

aspects of development. This is one of the best videos for teaching I have ever seen. Another good series that surveys child and adult development (majoring on the latter) is titled "Seasons of Life," also available from Annenberg/CPB. The episodes on child development are more succinct and abbreviated than the "Childhood" series, perhaps making them more viable for an introductory class. Finally, a remarkable video titled "Miracle of Life" might be considered, also from Annenberg/CPB. It chronicles the development of sperm, egg, zygote, embryo, and fetus, ending with a birth. It includes truly amazing in-vitro photography, but some might be offended by a thermogram of a penis becoming erect and the graphic quality of the birth. When I use this video I also skip past the first three or four minutes, which deals with evolution. But do take a look at this marvelous video -- you may want a copy for your home as well!

For the psychology of religion, you might want to get a film made in 1970 by the Presbyterian church

titled "What Do You Think?" The second half of the film has David Elkind interviewing children to determine their religious concepts. This is excellent material, although the styles of dress are seriously dated (wait long enough and perhaps it will be back in style!). This film can be rented from Pennsylvania State University Media Center.

A thirteen hour series of videos on abnormal psychology became available in January, 1992 titled "The World of Abnormal Psychology." Again, this is far too detailed for an introductory course, and most of the videos are not very captivating for introductory students. However, you might consider using the video on children's disorders (#11) and one on psychotherapies (#12) in conjunction with the Meier chapters in abnormal psychology (or possibly child development) and the counseling chapters.

The Frank Minirth and Paul Meier have released several videos that might be considered for use in class -- check with you local Christian bookstore

regarding rental or purchase. There are hundreds of other films and videos available, and quite frankly no one has the time to go through them all. Many of them are older films and not worth the trouble of renting (rentals are fairly cheap -- usually $10 to 20 -- but often $30 to 50 can purchase a video of equal length that is much better quality.

8. Suggested Readings

Throughout the Meier textbook, especially in the spotlights, a large number of Christian sources are cited that would be excellent for student reading. Rather than repeat those here, it is suggested that you browse through the reference sections at the end of each chapter for relevant sources.

Since the writing of the Meier text was completed, several dozen additional Christian books related to psychology have been released. Checking out a good sized Christian bookstore will help acquaint you with some of the most recent books in this area. In addition, distributors such as Spring Arbor Books release microfische sheets listing religious books that are in print (often these come out every few weeks). There is a section in which books are listed by topics, which may be examined at most Christian bookstores. Checking the psychology, counseling, and recovery

categories will be the most fruitful areas for promising books.

Often the topical microfische listings are available at your campus bookstore. Recently I was able to borrow the microfische sheets, take them to the college library, and have the pages reproduced on sheets of paper. The listing of books ran about twenty pages! If repeated every year, this would provide a very current and complete list of books in print on psychology and counseling written from a Christian (or at least religious) perspective.

For the remainder of this section we will survey a number of readings, most of which are not listed in the textbook. We will concentrate upon sources that relate to the church professions, including pastoring, Christian education, missions. In one way or another the articles and books reflect something of a psychological perspective, most of them are written by psychologists and many are from psychology journals reflecting a Christian perspective. In my classes I

allow students to read materials from this list related to their chosen major area, for extra credit. I have sometimes asked them to relate what they read to their lives or to outside observations (see chapter six). A sample form for reporting and grading readings follows on the next page.

Reading Report Form

Idea from Book or Article : ______________________________

____

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Source: ____

Application: ____

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Idea from Book or Article : ______________________________

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Source: ____

Application: ____

____

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Idea from Book or Article : ______________________________

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Source: ____

Application: ____

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Criteria for Grading Reading Reports

___ equivilent of four typed double spaced pages

___ 200 pages read outside of required text

___ books/articles named

___ pages listed and totalled

___ brief description of idea -- at least one sentence

___ specific application related to

___ future work (preferred)

___ family (current or past)

___ past or present experience

___ application is valid use of stated concepts

___ ideas come from reading

Psychology Readings Related to Church Ministry

Pastoral Ministry

Rodger Bufford. (see description under Christian Education)

John Carter. "The Psychology of Gothard," in J. Roland Fleck's Psychology and Christianity: Integrative Readings, 1981.

--Bill Gothard is well known in conservative Christian circles. Is what he teaches good psychology? Is it good sense? Is it biblical?

Bonnidell Clouse. "Church Conflict and Moral Stages." Journal of Psychology and Christianity vol. 5 #3.

-- how do Kohlberg's stages and other aspects of moral development relate to conflicts in the church? Clouse, who wrote a full book on theories of morality as they relate to Christianity, does a fine job of exploring this topic.

Cedric Johnson. The Psychology of Biblical

Interpretation. Zondervan, 1983.

-- Describes how psychological factors affect people's interpretation of the Bible.

H. Newton Malony and A. Lovekin. Glossolalia.

-- Christian psychologists take a close look at speaking in tongues, observing misconceptions held by those on both sides of the issue.

Willa Maylink and Richard Gorsuch. "New Perspectives for Clergy-Psychologist Referrals." Journal of Psychology and Christianity, vol. 5 #3

-- One important contribution of an introductory class like psychology and counseling is to help pastors know when they are over their heads with an advisee. This may help, as might a class in abnormal psychology.

Samuel Moy and Newton Malony. "An Empirical Study of Ministers' Children and Families. Journal of Psychology and Christianity, Spring 1987.

-- an interesting study of the psychological effects of clergy life.

Virginia Owens. "Seeing Christianity in Red and

Green." Christianity Today, 1983.

--this shows how many churches use only part of the brain's functions and how we need to appeal to the whole person.

Kenneth Pargament. "What Was that Sermon About?" Journal of the Scientific Study of Religion, vol 24, #2.

-- Describes the psychological factors involved in remembering sermon content. Relates strongly to Meier's chapter on memory.

David Pecheur. "Cognitive Theory/Therapy and Sanctification." Journal of Psychology and Theology, vol. 6 #4.

-- for students with a more theological bent. Relates sanctification to psychological theory.

Jack Presseau. I'm Saved, You're Saved Maybe. Creatively applies Kohlberg's theory to church life, very clever. Chapters 7 and 8 are especially interesting for pastors and church musicians (at what stage are most of our hymns?).

David Seamands. Healing for Damaged Emotions. Victor Books.

-- this is probably the most popular of all the books on my reading list. Time and again students have thanked me for including it. A fine book for students to use in teaching Sunday school as well.

David Seamands. Healing of Memories. Victor Books.

-- one summer I made an in-depth study of the memory healing books written by Christians. This is the best of the batch, seriously considering the topic yet avoiding the unhealthy extremes.

Paul Wright and Tegan Blackbird. "Pastors' Friendships" (parts 1 & 2), Journal of Psychology and Theology, vol. 13, #4, vol. 14, #1.

-- an innovative treatment of an important topic.

Christian Education

Ruth Beechick. A Biblical Psychology of Learning. 1982, Accent Books. Also see Beechick's Teaching

Primaries, 1980, Accent Books.

--These two sources are seriously flawed and rather anti-psychology in most sections. However chapter 8 of the first and chapter 4 of the second book give a good application of memory theory within the context of Christian education.

Roger Bufford. The Human Reflex, Harper and Row, 1981.

--Chapter 8 relates to using behavioral psychology in Christian education, emphasizing curriculum. Some of the other chapters relate to other aspects of church ministry as well.

Norman DeJong. Christian Approach to Learning Theory.

--chapter 10 applies cognitive dissonance theory to Christian learning.

Robert Pazmino. Foundational Issues in Christian Education, Baker.

--Pazmino is a fine Hispanic Christian educator who gives a chapter to the contributions of psychology to

Christian education (chapter 6).

Jack Presseau (see description under pastoral ministry). His book also has fine applications for Christian education in chapters 3, 4, and 5.

Donald Ratcliff, editor of Handbook of Preschool Religious Education, Handbook of Children's Religious Education, and Handbook of Youth Ministry, published 1988, 1982, and 1981 respectively by Religious Education Press.

--Several chapters survey child development and religious development at these various age ranges. A number of my journal articles listed in the Meier text under the child development and learning chapters also relate closely to Christian education.

Ted Ward, Values Begin at Home. Scripture Press.

--Ted is the director of the doctoral program in Christian education at Trinity Evangelical Divinity School. He is a superb speaker and researcher (he spent about 20 years at Michigan State before going to Trinity). I wish he would write more, but this is a

fine contribution on moral development and values development.

Jim Wilhoit. "The Impact of the Social Sciences on Religious Education." Religious Education, Summer 1984. Also see his recent book on the topic.

--Jim Wilhoit is a fine example of an evangelical on the cutting edge of Christian education today. This article indicates how clearly psychology and the other social sciences are being integrated with Christian education today.

Fred Wilson. "Professional Ministry Satisfaction in Evangelical Agencies." Journal of Psychology and Theology, vol. 15 #2.

-- Fred is another top notch writer and researcher in Christian education today.

Nicholas Wolterstorff. Education for Responsible Action, Eerdmans.

-- A solid book by a fine philosopher/educator that relates to moral development and values clarification.

World Missions

Austin and Jones. "Reentry Among Missionary Children." Journal of Psychology and Theology, vol. 15, #4.

--a good research study of this topic in a special issue of JPT that deals with missionary work and psychology.

James Beck. "Women in Missions." Journal of Psychology and Theology vol. 14 #3.

--Good research article, but a pity the author wasn't a woman. Well worth reading, authored by a good writer.

Marjory Foyle. Overcoming Missionary Stress.

-- A good little book on this important topic.

N. Frisbey. "Retirement of Evangelical Missionaries." Journal of Psychology and Theology, vol. 15 #4.

--We often forget to look at the end of a missionary's work and its implications psychologically.

L. Gardner. "Proactive Care of Missionary Personnel." Journal of Psychology and Theology vol. 15

#4. Also consider his article "A Practical Approach to Transitions," Journal of Psychology and Theology, vol. 15 #4.

--The way missionaries are treated both overseas and while in the homeland is an important topic rarely addressed and researched.

Dorothy Gish. "Sources of Missionary Stress." Journal of Psychology and Theology, 1983.

-- Summarizes a study of what produces the most stress in missionaries.

David Hesselgrave. "Missionary Psychology and Counseling." Trinity Journal, 1983. Also see his book on Cross Cultural Counseling, and an article titled "Can Psychology Help Us?" in Journal of Psychology and Theology vol. 15 #4.

--Hesselgrave is a well-known writer in missiology. Counseling is an important need for missionaries, as well as an important task for missionaries. As a former missionary, I can testify that more counselors are desperately needed on most fields to help people

cope with the stresses of cross-cultural work.

Leroy Johnson. "Should I be a Missionary?"
Journal of Psychology and Christianity, vol. 2 #4.
-- A good topic from a psychological perspective. Some of your students may be wrestling with this question and this article may help.

O'Donnell. "Developmental tasks in Missionary Families." Journal of Psychology and Theology vol. 15 #4
--We need more good research like this on the adjustments that missionary families make.

Donald Ratcliff. See my chapter on social contexts in Handbook of Children's Religious Education (Religious Education Press, 1992) in which I consider the effect of boarding schools on missionary children. I also considered this topic in a letter to the editor in Journal of Psychology and Theology, vol. 11 #3.

Charles Ridley. "Cross-Cultural Counseling in Theological Context." vol. 14, #4
--Another good article on this topic, from the special

journal issue on missions.

Francis White. "Some Reflections on Separation . . . of Missionaries and their Children." Journal of Psychology and Christianity, vol 2 #4.

-- a fairly even handed treatment of the topic of boarding schools for MK's. I'm more negative about this topic (see my references in this section) but I feel we should look at all perspectives on the topic.

9. Creating Good Tests

Testing, like many aspects of teaching, is an art. The kind of testing one uses has more to do with the teacher's perspective of what tests should do than any idea of what is absolutely the best. I will share my own bias here, but will try to give pros and cons about each form of testing.

One of the easiest test items to make is the essay variety. The "compare and contrast" sorts of items can get students to think at a more abstract level about psychological concepts, as can other kinds of probing questions. They are also recall kinds of questions, in contrast to recognition questions (such as multiple choice) -- students must thoroughly know the material being questioned to get full credit, not just recognize the most plausible option. Whether recall or recognition is most important relates to the teacher's philosophy of what students need to do with what is

learned -- is it crucial that they recall specific psychological terms in the future, or is it better to recognize what those terms mean when they see them? Many teachers see introductory psychology as foundational to later classes in psychology and counseling, thus recognition may be more appropriate. On the other hand, if this is the only psychology class they have, recall (and application) may be more important.

The problem with essay test items is their subjectivity in grading. More objectivity is likely if you grade all students on the same item before you move on to another item. But even then I have found that by the time I have graded the last student on that item, my criteria for a correct answer has often changed. That means I have to go back and grade the first ones again. The criteria for a correct answer change because I will find some student that is "almost right" or brings in a different perspective, then another student is just a little further off, and before long a

teacher may give partial credit for something that they gave no credit at all to begin with! Perhaps some teachers can keep a more objective perspective than I. But I have found that students can be very creative with essay tests, and good and interesting answers are not always correct. (Should we give partial credit for creativity?) One thing that helps is to have a guidesheet for what does and does not decide is a correct answer and what can result in partial credit. Often such a guidesheet is easier to make after you have graded a few tests. Another problem with essay tests is that you cannot have very many items, because each is time consuming to answer, and thus you may not be able to assess the entire unit comprehensively. Short answer items have many of the same problems as essay tests. They are somewhat easier to grade because answers are shorter, but many of the same subjective aspects enter as with essay tests. More short answer items are needed so that the content of a section will be adequately covered. Sometimes using a

lot of short answer items results in students attempting to outguess the professor as to what will be on the test. Short answer test items also assess recall, not recognition. If the student would recognize the correct answer, but not recall it without several options, that knowledge would not be tapped by a short answer item. Short answer items may also cause students to memorize terms rather than understand concepts (this can be a problem with any test item, but perhaps is more likely with short answer items).

Fill-in blank items are quite similar to short answer items in many respects. They assess recall, not recognition. The tendency is even stronger towards assessment of terms and names, rather than concepts. There is also the problem of subjectivity -- do you count synonyms? How close to the desired answer can the student's answer be? Given five different teachers you will probably get five different scores for the same test because the criteria for a correct answer is so different (this is also true with the other

preceding types of questions). Probably the best fill-in blank tests include a bank of possible answers, which in essence makes these fill-in blanks the same as matching items.

True-false items are popular with many teachers. They are fairly easy to make up. They tend to tap recognition of concepts, rather than total recall. However, the student has a guess ratio of 50% -- sheer guessing will result in a correct answer half of the time. To counteract this, some teachers tend to make true-false items that are very tricky so students are likely to give the wrong answer more than 50% of the time if they don't know the answer. This trickiness can backfire because students may assume the teacher is trying to trick them, and thus try to see any possible unusual ways of interpreting the question. In addition, it seems counterproductive -- the teacher is trying to outfox the student and the student outfox the foxy teacher, which hardly would seem to produce a climate for learning! If you use true-false items, I

would suggest they be a minor part of any test and I suggest that you avoid trying to mislead the student -- ask straightforward questions.

Multiple choice questions have better guess ratios than true-false items (33% for three option questions, 25% for four option questions, and 20% for five option questions). They assess recognition, not recall. They are subject, however, to the same possibility of trickiness as true-false items, if the teacher is not careful.

Conceptual understanding can be assessed with multiple choice items if the tester is careful in constructing items. This kind of item is harder to create and harder for the student to take than simple fact recognition. One approach, which really gets at conceptual understanding, is to give a new example of a concept that the student has never met before and ask what concept it exemplifies. Another approach is to give the concept, and then provide options that are good or poor examples of using that concept in the

example. The problem with giving new examples on tests is that students generally hate them ("we never studied this example"), but they are very good at sorting the best from the average students (i.e. those who know the material thoroughly from those that have only briefly exposed themselves to it). A few items of this nature can be helpful.

How many options should be used in multiple choice items? I generally use three, because this is less confusing for students and I can live with a 33% guess ratio. But most teachers prefer at least four options. Matching items have many of the advantages of multiple choice items. The disadvantage is that having so many options can make it confusing. In addition, the student may not know the answer to one or more items, but guess correctly because options are already taken. If you use matching items, try to keep the options to ten or less in each grouping of items, and groups of five are probably better (actually a group of five is not far from a five option multiple choice

item!). Also include several options that are not used.

With both multiple choice items and matching items, it is important that the options be fairly short (one line long or less), to minimize confusion for students. It is generally best to avoid negatives in the opening statement -- for example, "Which of these is not a consequent of punishment." If you must use negatives, be sure to underline them, as I did in the above example. I also try to keep "all of the above" options to a minimum, but sometimes the material does not lend itself to other kinds of options.

Multiple choice items are harder to make, but easier to grade than essays and short answer items. In fact many schools now make use of computerized grading machines, or computers, that can grade dozens of tests in a few minutes. If you have more than a few students in your class, you will probably stick with multiple choice, true-false, and possibly matching items so you can use the machines.

In the final analysis, the type of items you use is a very subjective decision. I use multiple choice items exclusively. But then, I have large classes which makes this almost a necessity. A good case can be made that using several different kinds of items makes it more likely that various kinds of understanding and knowledge can be assessed.

How many tests should you give in a course? Some teachers give way too many, others too few. My students and I both feel four or five for a three semester hour class (or four to five quarter hours) is ideal. With fewer tests there will be too much content for one test. With more than that too much valuable class time is spent in evaluation instead of learning.

Should you hand tests back to students? I did this the first few years of teaching, but found I was creating a lot of work for myself by being forced to create completely new tests ever time the course was taught. By only posting grades I find that only one student in fifty to one hundred ever asks to look at

the exam after it is graded in a given semester. That one student can look over the test in the instructor's office, and ask any questions they like of the instructor, but the exam stay in the office. It is the rare student that ever looks at a test a second time, so why discard valuable test items?

Doing an Item Analysis

There is a statistical procedure that is fairly easy to perform by which multiple choice items can be analyzed for their effectiveness. It can also be used with some modification to assess the effectiveness of matching and true-false items. The assumption behind this procedure, called an "item analysis," is that the purpose of testing is to separate students who understand the material from those that do not. That may sound crass and insensitive, but the fact is that this is what grading students is all about. The procedure is a means for separating those students more precisely and increasing the degree of separation, so a student that receives an "A" on the test is clearly

distinct from one who receives a "B" and so on.

To do an item analysis, you first grade all the test items as correct or incorrect. Then the scores are separated into three stacks, one-third of the tests (or answer sheets) in each stack. The first stack contains the one-third of the students who received the best scores on the test. Perhaps the easiest way to create this first stack is to place all the tests in a sequence of descending order (the top scoring student on top, the next highest under it, and so on). Then total the number of students who took the test and divide by three. Go through the stack of tests (or answer sheets) until you reach this number.

Now take this top third of the students and tabulate how many missed which test items. This gives you an indication of how hard these test items were for your best students. You may want to adjust the test for difficulty level at this point. For example, you might decide that if over half of the students in the top third of the class miss an item, it is probably too

difficult (statistically this is probably a valid assumption). I generally use an even less stringent level (30 to 40% missing the item in most cases). If an item is too difficult for most of the best third of the class to get it right, it is deleted from the test.

The next step is to go back to your original stack of papers (or answer sheets) and separate the bottom third of the tests. Like the top third, these are also tabulated using another color of ink. You can then compare the tabulations of the top third and the bottom third of the test scores. Good items will result in a high discrimination between the two groups -- far more students in the top third will get it right than in the bottom third. Mediocre items will have low discriminations -- those in the top third will be somewhat more likely to get it right. Poor items have no discrimination or inverse discrimination -- the best students are equally or more likely to get them wrong than the poorest scoring students.

Again, those items that do poorly at

discriminating need to be tossed out. I find that by giving everyone credit for items that do not discriminate very well results in test scores that, over a period of years, results in a standard distribution of scores. The net result is approximately the same as curving the grades (at least over time), yet you do not add the arbitrary grade inflation that goes with curving. Item analysis also allows for the possibility of everyone getting A's if it is an exceptionally good class, or everyone flunking if the group is exceptionally poor -- you are not confined with the assumption that every class is average (they most assuredly are not). Finally, using the item analysis results in improvement of tests over time -- you can use highly discriminating items again and again, and discard those that do not discriminate very well.

It is good to repeat the item analysis each time you give test. I have found that the analysis will vary somewhat with different groups of students,

perhaps because I taught the class slightly different or perhaps because of different characteristics of students. Over time, certain test items are regularly discriminating, others never discriminate well, and still others vary from group to group. I have discovered that you need at least 25 to 30 students taking each test for the item analysis to be reliable (if you have fewer students than this, you might do the analysis over several semesters/quarters). In some cases, especially if you have a lot of high scores on a particular test or you have little time to do the analysis, you may only need to do the first step in the procedure (analyzing the top third).

In sum, the item analysis procedure sounds more complicated than what it really is. After you do it a couple of times, you can accomplish it in just a few minutes. Secretaries can be taught the procedure fairly quickly (show them; telling tends to take longer). Some day I hope to find a computer program that can do it all!

Conclusion

I hope this instructor's manual has helped you in teaching psychology and counseling classes. May the Lord bless you!

Deo solo gloria