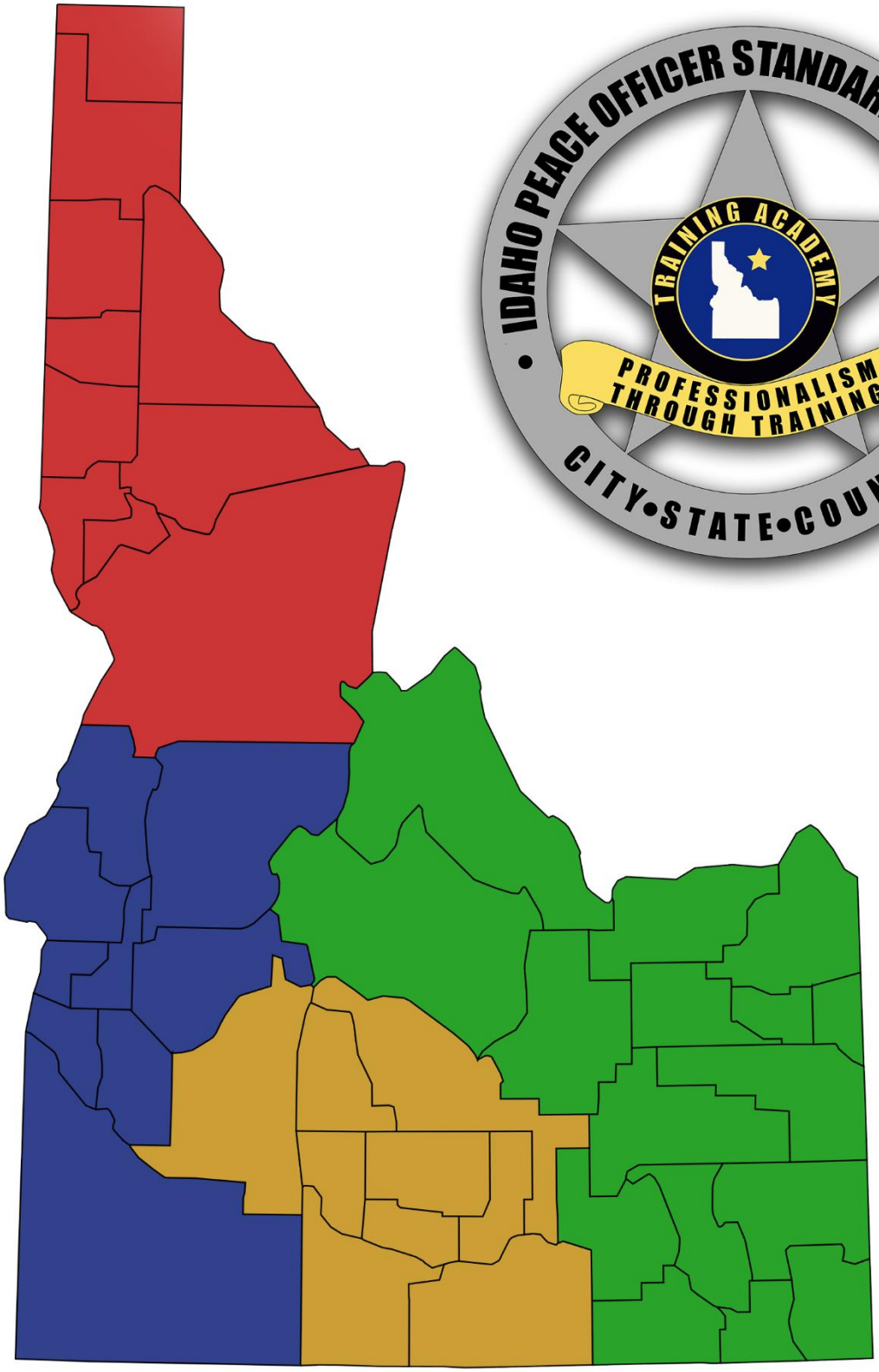
Instructor Development
Student Manual



IDAHO PEACE OFFICER STANDARDS & TRAINING
TRAINING ACADEMY
PROFESSIONALISM THROUGH TRAINING
CITY•STATE•COUNTY

Instructor Certification Course

State of Idaho
Peace Officer Standards and Training

700 South Stratford Drive, Meridian, Idaho 83642-6202
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POST Instructor Development Students:

Congratulations on your decision to become a POST certified instructor and enhance your profession through the basic and/or continuing education of law enforcement officers in Idaho. On behalf of the staff and instructors here at the Idaho POST Academy, I am pleased to welcome you to the newly updated Instructor Development Course. This course has been carefully developed to teach those wishing to enter into the adult training environment, providing the basic teaching skills necessary to become a POST certified instructor/trainer.

POST takes great pride in and highly values our skilled instructor cadre. We recognize the time and effort that you are committing to this endeavor, both now and in the future, in your desire to better yourself, your agency and the profession. We believe that we have the highest performing law enforcement trainers in the business and maintain stringent standards to ensure our instructors possess the highest integrity and professionalism. Nowhere is this better illustrated than in the POST Instructor Code of Conduct and Ethics to which you will attest upon the successful conclusion of this course.

Thank you again for your decision to become a certified POST instructor. In teaching and training your peers, you are truly shaping the future of law enforcement in the State of Idaho.

Brad Johnson
POST Administrator

Idaho POST Instructor Certification Course

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Course Overview

Things are changing, and not just a little bit.
The way in which we teach our officers is transitioning from traditional lecture, test, and memorization to a learner-centered, active learning environment. In the learner-centered classroom officers will be expected to demonstrate their ability to perform tasks and apply knowledge in a manner consistent with what our communities expect from those charged with their safety. To achieve this goal, academy training is moving to active learning in a classroom that will emphasize problem solving skills and conflict resolution competence.
The overarching goal of the academy experience is to develop an officer or deputy who comes away with competency in three core areas. First is the ability to communicate effectively. Second is an understanding of Community policing principles and how to apply them in the field. Third is the ability to apply principles of ethics and integrity when faced with the myriad of issues presented in their duties as peace officers. Your role, as their instructor, is to mentor them, coach them and facilitate their learning. Effective facilitation will support the transfer of knowledge and skills necessary in, perhaps, the most important educational experience of their careers.
The purpose of this course is to provide specific tools and strategies for you to use as you introduce officers to important concepts, and then transfer that content to them in a way that encourages them to think critically and apply the skills you have taught. The strategies you will learn in this course will connect the skills and concepts learned in the academy with the context of policing once beyond the classroom. Your role as a trainer and instructor is expanding to that of facilitator, mentor, coach, and advisor.
In this course, you will see concepts and practices modeled by the instructors. To support the transfer of these concepts and skills to you, you will also practice them in small groups and with the entire class. You will learn the importance of “context” and solve the mystery of the “dead cat.” Each person will also have a chance to assess their own learning styles, and how those learning styles might enhance or inhibit the transfer of knowledge to your students. To further develop your learning, there is time for frequent reflection through paired discussions and writings to encourage you to retain and utilize the concepts presented.
As an active participant in this course, you will be given tools to first increase your content knowledge of effective teaching and second, develop an awareness of how teaching processes used can support the learner focused classroom environment.

Goals

Teachers and trainers who attend this course will learn how to:

- Enhance learning processes while using POST lesson plans and material or while developing their own courses

- Use a variety of instructional and facilitation strategies to deepen the trainee's understanding, retention and application of concepts taught in any course
- Create a learner-focused classroom environment that promotes critical thinking and problem solving consistent with what trainees will use in the field
- Apply adult learning concepts to the planning and delivery of their training and instruction
- Strategically apply non-verbal communication strategies to promote a powerful learner-centered classroom
- Design "real world" training that supports critical thinking skills
- Implement and promote a "learning by doing" environment

Why We're Here

Over the years, some instructors viewed academy officers as "blank slates" who could be fed code sections, case law and department policy. The officers' role was to memorize facts, pass tests and prepare physically to meet the rigors of the world beyond the walls of the academy. Unfortunately, some who did quite well in the academy would fail miserably in the field. They knew things, but they never had to apply skills they would need as cops until they hit the field training process. Changes to the Basic Academy are working to address the gap between knowing and applying, and as instructors you are a critical component in the success of that effort.

As we transition from focusing on mere memorization and receiving information from PowerPoint or other mediums to the learner-focused classroom, officers will now be actively responsible for their learning. Officers will not only need to know concepts, but they must now demonstrate competency in the application of skills necessary to succeed on the street. We will turn them into thinkers, problem-solvers and peace officers who have demonstrated the common sense and communication skills worthy of someone you would want as a partner. Academy instructors will facilitate learning and manage the learning process for officers as they wrestle with the essential life-long concepts necessary for effective policing.

Your willingness to move your knowledge forward by enhancing your facilitation skills is commendable.

Thank you for your dedication to our next generation of learners, and for the success we will see as a result.

Goal and Objectives

POST Instructor Development Course

Goal:

The student will become proficient in adult oriented instruction using both enhanced oration and advanced presentation skills to instruct the adult learner. To this end the student-instructor will be able to use a variety of educational and facilitation strategies, including in-person and online presentations, to assist future student's understanding, retention, and performance.

Performance Objectives:

At the end of this 40-hour block of instruction, the student will be able, as presented in the Instructor Development course, to:

1. Explain what POST expects of an Idaho Instructor Development instructor as explained by POST for Certification Purposes.
2. Define Instructor Centered Instruction and Student-Centered Instruction and their proper application in the classroom.
3. Describe the impact that Bloom's Taxonomy and the Knowle's Hierarchy has on student thinking and learning.
4. Demonstrate the application of Bloom's Taxonomy and Knowle's Hierarchy as they apply to the individual student's disciplines of instruction.
5. Demonstrate the creation and use of a learner-centered classroom environment to promote critical thinking, decision making, and problem-solving skills.
6. Demonstrate nonverbal teaching tools and their proper application.
7. Demonstrate student involvement activities as an instructional tool in a classroom setting.
8. Design proper instructional goals, learning objectives, and test questions intended to encourage students to use higher order thinking skills.
9. Demonstrate and explain why surfacing student's thinking and paraphrasing is critical to effective teaching.
10. Describe the learning styles and generational characteristics that impact learning in the classroom.
11. Explain the use and application of a safe and effective scenario-based training activity.
12. Deliver a 20-minute presentation to teach the application, analysis, synthesis or evaluation levels of Bloom's Taxonomy and Knowle's Hierarchy of Learning using all the applicable tools demonstrated during the course of learning.
13. Describe the liability considerations associated with instruction, as well as correctly identify instructor responsibilities to minimize liability.

Expectations and Concerns

What? An "expectations and concerns" activity helps adults learn more and faster in a workshop or course. It is especially useful when competent and confident adults are being asked to learn something new.

Why? It is normal for adults to have concerns about learning new ideas or skills in a group. An "expectations and concerns" exercise encourages adults to reflect on hopes and fears they might have in learning new material. By making concerns public, adults usually discover their concerns are not unique. Finding common ground around common concerns no longer remains a potential source of resistance.

"Expectations and concerns" activities also cause adults to think about their positive expectations. This motivates learners and influences how they focus their attention and therefore, increases student learning.

How? At a signal from the instructor, take some personal time to think and then write. In the "expectations column" list what you expect to happen and hope to learn. In the "concerns column" list some personal concerns about this training.

Expectations:	**Concerns:**

Adult Learning

Andragogy
Adult Learning Theory

Malcolm S. Knowles' theory of andragogy is a learning theory that was developed to address the specific needs of adult learners. In contrast to pedagogy, or learning in childhood, Knowles emphasizes adults are self-directed and expect to take responsibility for decisions. Adult learning programs must accommodate this fundamental aspect. The following chart summarizes the assumptions and processes of pedagogy and andragogy:

	Pedagogy	**Andragogy**
Self-Concept	Dependency	Increasing self-directedness
Experience	Of little worth	Learners are a rich resource for learning
Readiness	Biological development - social pressures	Developmental tasks of social roles
Time perspective	Postponed application	Immediacy of application
Orientation to learning	Subject centered	Problem centered
Learning Climate	Authority oriented Formal Competitive	Mutuality Respectful Collaborative Informal
Planning	By teacher	Mutual self-diagnosis
Formulation of objectives	By teacher	Mutual negotiation
Design	Logic of the subject matter Content Units	Sequenced in terms of readiness Problem Units
Activities	Transmittal techniques	Experiential techniques (inquiry)
Evaluation	By teacher	Mutual re-diagnosis of needs Mutual measurement of program

Andragogy makes the following assumptions about the design of learning:

- Adults need to know why they need to learn something
- Adults need to learn experientially
- Adults approach learning as problem-solving

- Adults learn best when the topic is of immediate value.

Andragogical Principles:

- Adults need to be involved in the planning and evaluation of their instruction.
- Experience (including mistakes) provides the basis for learning activities.
- Adults are most interested in learning subjects that have immediate relevance to their job or personal life.
- Adult learning is problem-centered rather than content-oriented.

Characteristics of Adult Learners:

1. The adult learner usually has an identifiable purpose.
2. The adult learner usually has had earlier experiences, both positive and negative, with organized education.
3. The adult learner wants immediate usefulness of his learning.
4. The adult learner's self-concept is one of self-direction.
5. The adult learner brings with him a reservoir of experiences.
6. The adult learner brings extensive doubts and fears to the educational process.
7. The adult learner is usually very strong to the resistance of change.
8. The adult learner's style is usually set.
9. The adult learner has "adult goals".
10. The adult learner's problems are different from children's problems.
11. The adult learner usually has an established family.
12. The adult learner's reaction time is often slow.
13. The adult learner's educational interest usually reflects vocational concerns.
14. The adult learner values himself as an adult more than he values a program.

In practical terms, andragogy means that instruction for adults needs to focus more on the process and less on the content being taught. Strategies such as case studies, role playing, simulations, and self-evaluation are most useful. Instructors adopt a role of facilitator or resource rather than lecturer or grader.
Knowles (1984, Appendix D) provides an example of applying andragogy principles to the design of personal computer training:

- There is a need to explain why specific things are being taught (e.g., certain commands, functions, operations, etc.)
- Instruction should be task-oriented instead of memorization -- learning activities should be in the context of common tasks to be performed.

- Instruction should take into account the wide range of different backgrounds of learners; learning materials and activities should allow for different levels/types of previous experience with computers.
- Since adults are self-directed, instruction should allow learners to discover things for themselves, providing guidance and help when mistakes are made.

Research study results reveal that adults can and do experience significant personal growth at midlife. However, adult students grew significantly only in one type of learning environment; they tended not to grow or to regress in another type.

Key Factors Found in Successful Adult Learning Programs:

- An environment where students feel safe and supported, where individual needs and uniqueness are honored, where abilities and life achievements are acknowledged and respected.
- An environment that fosters intellectual freedom and encourages experimentation and creativity.
- An environment where faculty treats adult students as peers--accepted and respected as intelligent experienced adults whose opinions are listened to, honored, and appreciated. Such faculty members often comment that they learn as much from their students as the students learn from them.
- Self-directed learning, where students take responsibility for their own learning. They work with faculty to design individual learning programs which address what each person needs and wants to learn in order to function optimally in their profession.
- Pacing, or intellectual challenge. Optimal pacing is challenging people just beyond their present level of ability. If challenged too far beyond, people give up. If challenged too little, they become bored and learn little.
- Active involvement in learning, as opposed to passively listening to lectures. Where students and instructors interact and dialogue, where students try out new ideas in the workplace, where exercises and experiences are used to bolster facts and theory, adults grow more.
- Regular feedback mechanisms for students to tell faculty what works best for them and what they want and need to learn--and faculty who hear and make changes based on student input.

In contrast, in learning programs where students feel unsafe and threatened, where they are viewed as underlings, their life achievements not honored, those students tend to regress developmentally, especially in self-esteem and self-confidence. In programs where students are required to take identical lockstep courses, whether relevant to professional goals or not, grow less. In other words, students grow more in student-centered as opposed to faculty-centered programs.

Motivation of Adult Learners:

The following have been found as motivators to adult learning:

- Social relationships: to make new friends, to meet a need for associations and friendships.
- External expectations: to comply with instructions from someone else; to fulfill the expectations or recommendations of someone with formal authority.
- Social welfare: to improve ability to serve mankind, prepare for service to the community, and improve ability to participate in community work.
- Personal advancement: to achieve higher status in a job, secure professional advancement, and stay abreast of competitors.
- Escape/Stimulation: to relieve boredom, provide a break in the routine of home or work, and provide a contrast to other exacting details of life.
- Cognitive interest: to learn for the sake of learning, seek knowledge for its own sake, and to satisfy an inquiring mind.

Barriers to Motivation

Unlike children and teenagers, adults have many responsibilities that they must balance against the demands of learning. Because of these responsibilities, adults have barriers against participating in learning. Some of these barriers include lack of time, money, confidence, or interest, lack of information about opportunities to learn, scheduling problems, "red tape," and problems with childcare and transportation.

Curriculum Design

- Adult learners tend to be less interested in, and enthralled by, survey courses. They tend to prefer single concept, single-theory courses that focus heavily on the application of the concept to relevant problems. This tendency increases with age.
- Adults need to be able to integrate new ideas with what they already know if they are going to keep - and use - the new information.
- Information that conflicts sharply with what is already held to be true, and thus forces a re-evaluation of the old material, is integrated more slowly.
- Information that has little "conceptual overlap" with what is already known is acquired slowly.
- Adults tend to take errors personally and are more likely to let them affect self-esteem. Therefore, they tend to apply tried-and-true solutions and take fewer risks.
- The curriculum designer must know whether the concepts or ideas will be in concert or in conflict with the learner. Some instruction must be designed to effect a change in belief and value systems.

- Adults prefer self-directed and self-designed learning projects over group-learning experiences led by a professional, they select more than one medium for learning, and they desire to control pace and start/stop time.
- Nonhuman media such as books, programmed instruction and television have become popular with adults in recent years.
- Regardless of media, straightforward how-to is the preferred content orientation. Adults cite a need for application and how-to information as the primary motivation for beginning a learning project.
- Self-direction does not mean isolation. Studies of self-directed learning indicate that self-directed projects involve an average of 10 other people as resources, guides, encouragers, and the like. But even for the self-professed, self-directed learner, lectures and short seminars get positive ratings, especially when these events give the learner face-to-face, one-to-one access to an expert.

Teaching Delivery in the Classroom

- The learning environment must be physically and psychologically comfortable; long lectures, periods of interminable sitting and the absence of practice opportunities rate high on the irritation scale.
- Adults have something real to lose in a classroom situation. Self-esteem and ego are on the line when they are asked to risk trying a new behavior in front of peers and cohorts. Bad experiences in traditional education, feelings about authority and the preoccupation with events outside the classroom affect in-class experience.
- Adults have expectations, and it is critical to take time early on to clarify and articulate all expectations before getting into content. The instructor can assume responsibility only for his or her own expectations, not for those of students.
- Adults bring a great deal of life experience into the classroom, an invaluable asset to be acknowledged, tapped, and used. Adults can learn from dialogue with respected peers.
- Instructors who tend to lecture rather than facilitate open dialog can hold that tendency in check--or compensate for it--by concentrating on the use of open-ended questions to draw out relevant student knowledge and experience.
- New knowledge has to be integrated with previous knowledge; students must actively participate in the learning experience. The learner is dependent on the instructor for confirming feedback on skill practice; the instructor is dependent on the learner for feedback about curriculum and in-class performance.
- The key to the instructor role is control. The instructor must balance the presentation of new material, debate and discussion, sharing of relevant student experiences, and the clock. Ironically, it seems that instructors are best able to establish control when they risk giving it up. When they shelve egos and stifle the tendency to be threatened by challenge to plans and methods, they gain the kind of facilitative control needed to effect adult learning.

- The instructor has to protect minority opinion, keep disagreements civil and unheated, make connections between various opinions and ideas, and keep reminding the group of the variety of potential solutions to the problem. The instructor is less advocate than orchestrator.
- Integration of new knowledge and skill requires transition time and focused effort on application.
- Learning and teaching theories function better as resources than as rules. An eclectic, rather than a single theory-based approach to developing strategies and procedures, is recommended for matching instruction to learning tasks.

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Getting Students to Discuss by Channeling the Affective Domain

By Nikole D. Patson, PhD

One of the most satisfying moments in teaching is leading a lively discussion in which students are deeply engaged in the material and contributing thoughtfully. However, as I'm sure most instructors can relate, far too often I've found myself in the opposite situation. Students are reluctant to talk out loud or they offer simple responses to the questions posed.

There are a number of strategies for improving the quality of classroom discussion, such as breaking students into smaller groups or having stations set up around the classroom. But perhaps the most important part of leading an engaging discussion is developing good discussion questions. One strategy I have for writing good discussion questions is teaching in Bloom's Affective domain (Krathwohl, Bloom, Masia, 1973). Most of us are familiar with Bloom's cognitive hierarchy, as any instructional design course relies heavily on those concepts. However, Bloom also developed two other hierarchies, the psychomotor and the affective.

The affective domain involves our feelings, emotions, and attitudes, and includes the manner in which we deal with things emotionally (feelings, values, appreciation, enthusiasm, motivations, and attitudes). Like Bloom's cognitive domain, the affective domain is arranged in a hierarchy whereby learners move from simpler feelings to more complex feelings. The guiding principle for movement through the hierarchy is internalization. Internalization is the process whereby your affect—*relating to, arising from, or influencing feelings or emotions*—toward something goes from a general awareness level to a point where the affect is internalized and consistently guides or controls your behavior.

I'll admit that I stumbled into the affective domain by accident during a somewhat frustrating discussion in an introductory psychology course. I was trying to lead a discussion about the treatment of psychological disorders by comparing and contrasting two case studies. I wanted students to understand the limits of treating psychological disorders just like any other kind of medical issue, however they were not engaging at all. Finally, exasperated, I asked, "How do you *feel* about these two different cases?" A woman in my class who had never spoken up said, "I feel bad!" A few other students agreed, and as I probed why they felt that way, they began to talk about inequitable access to mental healthcare and the limits of the medical model, exactly the issues I wanted them to consider.

One thing that I realized during that discussion was that the feelings were in the room whether or not I acknowledged them. In fact, the unacknowledged feelings were likely getting in the way of having a discussion in the first place. Students were reacting to both case studies as individual human beings who deserved compassion and empathy. They felt uncomfortable talking about these cases in the abstract, until their feelings about the people in the cases went acknowledged.

After that successful discussion, I began to wonder about other ways to engage with students' feelings about course material. Shortly after that discussion, I happened to

take part in a course design workshop that introduced me to Bloom's affective domain. In that workshop, I realized what had made that previous discussion so successful was that I had inadvertently tapped into the affective domain in a way that was appropriate for where my students were.

Upon further reflection, I came to realize that many of the goals of higher education are affective in nature, although we don't always think of them in that way. For example, the Association of American Colleges and Universities describes developing critical thinking skills and ethical reasoning and action as two of the desired outcomes of a liberal arts education. Critical thinking encompasses many affective skills such as a willingness to consider new evidence and revise judgments in light of new evidence. When it comes to ethical reasoning, we don't simply want graduates to understand the logic of ethical principles, we want them to internalize these principles and use those principles to guide their future behavior. Both are represented in the final stage of Bloom's affective hierarchy (internalizing values), learners should commit to ethical practice and be able to revise judgments or change behavior in light of new evidence.

Since that semester, I have worked to develop discussion questions that tap into the affective domain that go well beyond simply asking, "How do you feel about…". Specifically, in the final stage of Bloom's affective hierarchy, learners are expected to have developed a value system that is used to guide their behavior. As a social scientist, I want students to appreciate the value of the scientific method, be comfortable facing ambiguity, and to recognize that science is not always prescriptive. Throughout the semester, I constantly return to these issues by having students discuss the implications of constantly changing knowledge.

It's also important to recognize that the cognitive and affective domains are inextricably linked. Students learn more when they are motivated to do so. Most of us have had students ask, "Why do I need to learn this?" When will I ever use this?" or the dreaded, "Will this be on the test?" While some students intrinsically enjoy learning about new topics for the sake of learning, this isn't true of all of our students. For example, first generation college students often report being motivated to go to college to help their families (Bui, 2002). They want to know how the information will be useful to them. The affective domain answers the questions about why we are learning what we are learning.

Whether we recognize it or not, we do care about our students' feelings about our material. This is reflected in statements I often hear from my colleagues that they are less concerned with teaching content, but more concerned with teaching a way of thinking. Thinking critically requires affective skills just as much as cognitive skills. Teaching in the affective domain, then, helps us achieve those most important learning outcomes.

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Effective Instructional Skill

Nonverbal Communication Skills for Instructors

Adults can quickly evaluate the quality of a lesson or presentation. Their reactions are based on processes that happen below the surface of consciousness.
Often their judgment is based on nonverbal (also called “paralanguage”) signals being used by the presenter. Nonverbal communication plays a major role in how we establish, maintain, and re-establish credibility as an instructor or facilitator.

Experienced instructors are generally good at making these kinds of judgments. We draw upon a set of skills and experience to project the nonverbal communication we need to build and maintain credibility. This intuition draws from a database built in your subconscious as a result of your experience and reflection. The purpose of this chapter is to bring your intuition to the surface and give you more control and effectiveness when teaching. Current research reveals communication outside of the content of our speech makes up to 80 percent of the message received (Miller, 1981). What we do with our gestures and voice has an influence on how much learners learn. Not surprisingly, the gestures of learners also inform teachers what students know and almost know as well as what needs to be covered a second time.

Research also reports the learner’s memory is enhanced when a teacher’s gesture is “coherent and congruent” (Alibali, 1997; Goldin-Meadow, 1999). Essentially the research found information flow can be enhanced though the conscious use of gestures and other nonverbals. What you do with your voice, body, breathing, and gestures add information to verbal content (Kelly, 1999) helps develop your credibility, and it can increase your influence. Planning nonverbal skills is as important as planning teaching strategies and content. Planning allows you to be proactive. To be reactive restricts your options. If we can plan and anticipate, we have at our disposal our entire range of nonverbal communication skills.

Nonverbal communication in and of itself is not new. What is new is a body of knowledge and credible research that details the results of varying teacher’s non-verbal skills on memory, energy and learning environments. We can think of the set of nonverbal skills as being the foundation of facilitative learning. Our purpose in this training is to develop and increase your nonverbal awareness and skillset. Like any intriguing natural phenomena, such as skipping rocks on the surface of water or watching the falling rain, what we see looks simple but what lies underneath is rich with complexity and nuance. This is true, too, about non-verbal communication.

Establishing and Maintaining Credibility

Credibility is simply defined as the quality of being trustworthy and believable. It is the foundation of not only successfully facilitating a class, but also to responding to classroom and

student challenges when they arise. Without that relationship, there is a decreased flow of information. Without information, there is no learning. In Wheatley's Leadership and the New Science (1992), leadership (like facilitating a class) is always dependent on the context, but the context is established by the relationship we value. Our relationships influence the flow of information. With relationships, information flows. Without relationships, information is impeded. The nonverbal communication skills that enhance relationships and thus facilitate information flow is explored in this section.

Let's examine how some nonverbal skills are useful in class facilitation. Think of a lesson as four distinct parts. Some of these parts flow together and some stand alone, but each play a role in creating a positive environment for class facilitation. First, an instructor must establish credibility with the class. Second is learning facilitation, where content is both teaching and engagement with the students. This back and forth of being both the "expert" in your topic or lesson and the "class discussion" requires us to maintain our credibility. Third is the critical 'transition' phase where the instructor is finished presenting and facilitating and then shifts the energy and focus to the students. Their job is to engage in an activity that will develop the learning of new material with the proper guidance of the instructor. This part is where students engage with the content of the lesson. This requires a unique form of maintaining credibility and a different set of nonverbal skills. Finally, the instructor must then re-establish credibility when the group or individual activity is completed, and the lesson will continue as facilitated by the instructor.

After finishing an activity, it is back to "getting their attention" and parts of the lesson may repeat as needed for facilitative learning. What follows explores specific paralanguage skills for each part of instruction.

Establishing Credibility/Re-establishing Credibility

Though knowledge, likability and professionalism are all attributes of a good instructor, being credible is the most important. Here are some nonverbal communication skills that can help with both establishing and re-establishing credibility.

Freeze Body – This skill is designed to get the attention of the students by visually saying "listen to me." It works best if you are in front of the students and stand perfectly still. You can also make brief eye contact with your students, while giving no expression. This passive expression tells the class that you are removed from the activities prior to your positioning and ready to receive their focus and attention.

Breathe – This means simply what it is called. Maintain a normal pattern of breathing. Do not fall into the trap of holding your breath. What happens to your speech when you hold your breath? What impact can that have on your credibility? Taking a moment to breathe will appear that you are taking a moment to ponder a question or statement. A great way to use this skill is when a student asks a question or offers an answer to a question of yours – take a few steps

and a couple of breaths before you respond. Additionally, the brief silence in the environment can refocus attention back to the front of the room, and by extension, the instructor. Do not pause too long or this could be a detraction from credibility if perceived as a lack of flow or ability to answer a question.

Hands at 90 Degrees – This position is viewed as most credible. To use it, simply keep your arms parallel to your body and your elbows at a 90-degree angle. Avoid crossing your arms, putting your hands in your pockets, or holding them behind your back. Try to keep your hands free of objects or papers that may cause fidgeting. This can harm or detract from credibility.

Equal Weight on Both Feet – This skill is accomplished by standing up straight with your weight equally distributed on both feet. Leaning against a wall or table, rocking back and forth, or shifting your weight frequently is perceived as less credible, and potentially distracting to the student. Proper balance and composure convey confidence to the class and demonstrates a secure knowledge of the lesson material.

Maintaining Credibility

Once you have established credibility, you must maintain it. This can be a challenge depending on the circumstances that occur within your training. You can maintain credibility as both the main instructor as well as when the class is divided into groups or individual activities. Although the role of facilitation is different depending on the part of the lesson, each role is equally important for maintaining a credible relationship with the class.

Feel-Felt-Found – This is an effective method of dealing with a moderate challenge to information being discussed. To model, in response to someone questioning the use of written evaluations as opposed to verbal de-briefs after a lesson, you would say, “You feel that on-the-spot verbal feedback is better than a written evaluation at the end of the day. I felt the same way when I started teaching for my agency, and I did not encourage many written evaluations. But since then, I have found that giving students the chance to process what they have learned, as well as the opportunity to organize their written thoughts, results in more usable feedback and a better tool to revise the instruction.” You can see that you acknowledge the student’s feelings, you empathize with their understanding, and you redirect towards your desired learning outcomes.

Room Positioning – The front of the room generally has an agreed upon authority or credibility that has been built into us since childhood schooling. We use this to help maintain credibility. As we mentioned earlier in this presentation, where you stand can make or break you, depending on the way you respond to questions. If you have already built your credibility, it is important to remember that if you are front and center, you must answer the questions truthfully!

Break and breathe – Having a difficult time answering a hard question? This nonverbal skill helps defer some of our time thinking and answer in a manner that will take responsibility for the question and respond by noting you will get an answer to them as soon as you can. As noted earlier, pause, take a few steps, and breathe. Then respond. Move away from the "expert circle" if you do not know or cannot answer the question. Do not run away from it, there are many ways to defuse the question, and we will talk about that later. The point is to move away from the expert area to maintain your credibility.

Part of maintaining credibility also includes other nonverbal tools that may not be easily visible. Controlling the classroom experience to reduce noise or maintain comfortable temperature is a way to keep the class running smoothly behind the scenes. Ask students if the temperature is ok or if other environmental factors exist that are inhibiting learning. If learning is reduced, credibility is reduced. Pre-plan for you class. Arrive early and arrange the classroom as needed. Work with hosts or managers to ensure the equipment is functional and works with your materials. Develop alternate communication tools if there is an emergency or storm that prevents the class from taking place. Appearing like you have thought of all contingencies for a well-run class helps put the students at ease and facilitates a good learning environment.

Preparation also includes the planning for problem students. This can range from a shy, socially withdrawn student to the loud, "know-it-all" that attempts to steal your credibility. Every instructor develops their own methods for dealing with problem students, but it's important to note that no one student is more important that the rest of the class. Persistent disciplinary, ethical, or disruptive behavior can ultimately take your credibility from the students and remove your ability to facilitate a learning environment. If the problem student will not change their behavior, removal from the class may be your only option.

The more you practice responding to inappropriate classroom behaviors, the more smoothly your classroom will continue to run. Remember that when your administration, command staff, executive staff or whomever requests that you teach a course, you are the expert and your credibility matters. You are given functional authority over your class. You have been chosen to teach certain topics within your agency, and your credibility is the key to ensure your courses have a lasting impact on your agency.

Nonverbal Communication for use in various situations.

As mentioned earlier in this section, nonverbal communication is a skillset that can be used for a multitude of situations to help facilitate a class and lend to credibility. Practice is what will help the instructor become comfortable with their own skillset. Most instructors already practice these skills but have not been able to apply it in the context of being "an instructor" for a lesson or block of instruction. First and foremost, our use of proper tone or

“voice” is how we can establish everything from the kind of words we are using to the intent behind those words.

Choosing a nonverbal communication skill requires a conscious selection of voice modulation. The modulation continuum can be labeled “**credible**” at one end and “**approachable**” at the other. Either extreme on the continuum evokes a perception from the group. Credibility in many cultures is represented by a flat voice tone that drops at the end of a sentence.

For example, think of the following pattern spoken by the former newscaster, Tom Brokaw: “This is Tom Brokaw, and this is the news.” A voice and chin drop at the end of the sentence signals to the group that what follows is information worth hearing.

On the other end of the continuum, the approachable voice sounds a bit – but not exactly – like asking a question. In fact, it is the voice you want to use when eliciting information – it sends the message that this is about interest, not interrogation. The approachable voice signals the speaker is seeking information or being tentative in the delivery of the message if the message may be pointed or not well received. The speaker’s intention should be supported by the appropriate paralanguage pattern. If the intention is to send information, select the credible voice. If the intention is to seek input and ideas, then use the approachable pattern. Congruency of words and voice make good oration. If your voice pattern is not compatible with your words, then learning is inhibited. Proper pace or speed as well as volume are also key factors in using the right voice for the right words. Instructors should know their limitations and practice on improving those skills throughout their instructional career.

Yellow Light – This is a verbal strategy to use when you want to give the students an idea of what is coming up next. Much like a flashing light before a bridge or railroad tracks, this skill acts like a heads-up of what is coming up for the students. This is a quick two or three sentence statement that allows students the opportunity to anticipate the lesson or topics of the day.

The Pause – This is a nonverbal strategy that involves simply standing still and remaining silent. It’s useful for emphasizing a point, transitioning between points, allowing time for breathing, allowing time to consider a question or response from a student or for getting the attention of the class. The pause is slightly different than the “breath” as you are not making a point of emphasizing the breathing movement. This is intended to remain still and calm, letting the students know to either begin an activity or regroup as a class.

Above-Pause-Whisper – This is a nonverbal strategy that involves changing the volume of the voice mid-phrase, while including a pause. For example: “[in a louder tone] The student was surprised to find – [pause for one second, continue in lower volume] – that the strategies actually worked.” This strategy emphasizes the information at the end of the sentence you are

saying by drawing the student's attention in. This also helps refocus students who may only be partially engaged with your instruction as they could be distracted by other students or objects.

Minute Fingers – This is a nonverbal strategy used to signal your participants that they only have a certain amount of time left to complete a group discussion or assignment. To use this skill, silently move around the room, holding up the number of fingers representing the number of minutes remaining for the groups to work. For this skill to be effective, you must make eye contact with at least one person in each group to ensure that they saw your signal. It's best to not verbalize the time left but force the students to look your direction as a means of starting to re-establish credibility needed for classroom discussion after group activities.

Most Important Twenty Seconds (MITS) – This is a strategy that involves silently standing at the instruction point (usually the front of the room) for twenty seconds after giving the class instructions for a small-group activity or discussion. The purpose of this skill is to wait and remain available for anyone in the class who many have a question about the instructions you just gave them. Your stillness and silence also signal the class to begin working. Twenty seconds is generally the time it takes for a student to determine if they have questions about the activity, information covered, or questions on the material.

Frozen Hand Gesture – This strategy is used to encourage thinking, reflection, or activity in the class, or to influence the flow of participation in the class. To use it, simply extend an arm and hold it still, holding the hand with palm facing outward. It can also be used with the palm facing upward to solicit questions or responses from the class.

PAG-PAU –

PAG is the 'process as given' of the steps of the activity. Once the activity steps have been presented it is useful to assess group understanding of the activity that follows. Participants often interpret instructions differently. You can go slowly in giving direction to allow participants to go fast in task accomplishment. Process as given: Process as understood is a strategy that supports group understanding.

PAU, 'process as understood' is simply asking, "Can someone please repeat the process steps we are about to do?" Followed by, "Are there any questions or items that need clarifying before we begin?"

AVOID the following common errors that can reduce or in some cases destroy instructor credibility.

Profanity – There have been many arguments both for and against the use of profanity in a classroom environment. While it can be conceded that when training students to learn how to deal with difficult environments, such as a prison setting or belligerent customer or arrestee, the general rule is that profanity should be avoided in a classroom setting. Even working in environments where profane language may be common, when it comes to instructor credibility, the point is to be ABOVE what is common and establish authority over the class derived from

trust and knowledge. Profanity tends to take away from those characteristics we want to represent in our facilitation skills.

Social Utterances – Social utterances (also known as “audible pauses”) are the filler words or noises that we all revert to speaking, especially when we are nervous. Some people say “um” or “uh” or “you know”. You should try to do your best to minimize the use of these as much as you can. You’ll get better at that over time if you practice.

Distracting Items – There are many things that an instructor can do to distract their students without even trying. Playing with items such as car keys or change in your pocket, chewing gum or eating candy while talking, or holding note cards or a lesson plan are all things that can create a barrier between what you are trying to convey and your listeners. To the best of your ability, minimize these distractions.

Other Nonverbal Tools for Facilitation and Credibility.

Presentation Skills – These are practiced skills that may not be verbal but will send nonverbal language to your class that you are trustworthy and an authority in the subject matter.

How you dress plays a big part in credibility. Dress appropriately for the topic you are choosing and the environment you are teaching in. If you’re teaching a firearms safety class, it may be more appropriate for the environment to wear comfortable, loose-fitting clothing rather than a three-piece suit. If you’re giving a presentation to management on current trends or statistics, then maybe a suit is the most professional and credible dress for your presentation. A good rule of thumb is to try to dress one step higher than the expectations for the students.

Preparing visual aids for your lesson or learning environment helps engage the learners in something other than simply your voice and your presence. It gives students a chance to have visual representation of the material you are covering. It gives students that may have visual learning styles the ability to link your material to a visual queue that helps them retain the information. Beware a pitfall in visual aids. They can detract from your facilitative technique if not used properly. For example, if you are verbally emphasizing a certain part of your subject matter for your class, do not give a handout or other distracting materials that may cause them to become unfocused.

Visual aids should be relevant to your material and fall within the ethical guidelines your business or agency expects for their employees. An inappropriate visual aid like a video or picture could reduce instructor credibility and create a deficit that will be difficult to overcome, not to mention potential consequences for ethical violations.

Demonstrations and groups activities for students are a great way to help assist with facilitative learning. It allows students to engage with the learning material taught by instructors and allows instructors to gauge how well the material is being learned by the students. Each can help with credibility and build better rapport with the class. As with all tools discussed in this section, beware of potential problems that can exist with a chosen activity. If a class gets too far out of control, for example, it will be difficult to maintain credibility while trying to redirect

behavior that strayed too far from the lesson. As instructors, it’s best to keep note of class noise and activity level, even while allowing students the freedom to participate in a planned group activity.

This section serves as a reminder of some of the nonverbal communication tools covered in Instructor Development. While not exhaustive, this section is a summation much of what was covered in class. It is highly encouraged instructors learn new skills and teaching techniques that they can use to help build and maintain credibility for any learning environment they create. A tool that works well for one person may not work very well for another. Practice new and old techniques alike to ensure both a fun teaching experience and a facilitative learning environment for students.

10 Tips for Public Speaking

From Toastmasters International

Feeling some nervousness before giving a speech is natural and even beneficial, but too much nervousness can be detrimental. Here are some proven tips on how to control your butterflies and give better presentations.

1. Know your material. Pick a topic you are interested in. Know more about it than you include in your speech. Use humor, personal stories, and conversational language; that way you won't easily forget what to say.
2. Practice. Practice. Practice! Rehearse out loud with all equipment you plan on using. Revise as necessary. Work to control filler words; Practice, pause and breathe. Practice with a timer and allow time for the unexpected.
3. Know the audience. Greet some of the audience members as they arrive. It's easier to speak to a group of friends than to strangers.
4. Know the room. Arrive early, walk around the speaking area and practice using the microphone and any visual aids.
5. Relax. Begin by addressing the audience. It buys you time and calms your nerves. Pause, smile, and count to three before saying anything. ("One one-thousand, two one-thousand, three one-thousand. Pause. Begin.) Transform nervous energy into enthusiasm.
6. Visualize yourself giving your speech. Imagine yourself speaking, your voice loud, clear, and confident. Visualize the audience clapping - it will boost your confidence.
7. Realize that people want you to succeed. Audiences want you to be interesting, stimulating, informative and entertaining. They're rooting for you.
8. Don't apologize for any nervousness or problem-the audience probably never noticed it.
9. Concentrate on the message - not the medium. Focus your attention away from your own anxieties and concentrate on your message and your audience.
10. Gain experience. Mainly, your speech should represent you -as an authority and as a person. Experience builds confidence, which is the key to effective speaking. A Toastmasters club can provide the experience you need in a safe and friendly environment.

Provided by Pioneer Toastmasters Club, Club No. 2308-chartered May 1, 1957

Evaluations

Evaluation processes this week: During the week-long POST Instructor Development (ID) course, you will be asked to provide formal (written) feedback on four occasions:

- Monday end of day – Gots and Needs Evaluation (less formal method, using two POST-IT notes per student to gather key feedback after Day 1)
- Tuesday end of day – One-page Daily Evaluation (short)
- Wednesday end of day – One-page Daily Evaluation (longer)
- Thursday end of day – One-page Course Final Evaluation.

In addition, you will be asked to provide informal, verbal feedback throughout the course, both on instructor presentations and on course content. We welcome ALL feedback, as it helps us improve as an instructor cadre and provides valuable input for ongoing course updates and revision.

Reasons for evaluations: There are several key reasons we ask for your feedback during this course:

- To receive formative evaluation feedback during the course that you can address during the delivery of the five-day session (Monday-Wednesday surveys)
- To gather formative/summative evaluation feedback on Thursday afternoon for the entire course (all but Student Presentations taught by that point)
- To help identify (real-time) any instructor organization or delivery issues
- To focus attention on a particular challenge or area requiring additional coverage
- To assist POST and its POST ID instructor cadre in making updates and revisions.

Evaluations and you after the course: There are also several reasons we teach and model this evaluative process during the week. They include:

- To let you see what a logical day-by-day evaluation process looks like for a multiple-day course
- To model four different evaluation tools so you can compare each of them, and see how they are applied and then discussed (Monday-Wednesday evaluations)
- To provide you with workable templates that you can adopt, adapt, or revise for your own use at your agency.

Examples: Please see the attached for the forms used on TUE, WED, and THUR. You are free to use these as models for your own courses going forward. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact one of your course instructors.

Outcome-Based Education

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January 3, 2011

The following document based on the Ontario Universities Quality Council. Outcome Based Education webinar (Goff, 2010) provides a brief overview of outcome-based education.

Outcome-Based Education, Outcome-based education, or OBE is a student-centered approach to education that focuses on the intended learning outcomes resulting from instruction. The three components that comprise an outcome-based approach to learning are:

- An explicit statement of learning intent expressed as outcomes which reflect educational aims, purposes, and values.
- The process or strategy to enable the intended learning to be achieved and demonstrated (curriculum, teaching, learning, assessment and support and guidance methods); and
- Criteria for assessing learning which are aligned to the intended outcome. (Jackson, 2002, p. 142) Biggs and Tang (2007) identify three versions of outcome-based education, each of which is briefly discussed below.

Outcome-Based Education Version 1 (Spady)

Developed in the 1980's and '90's, the concept of outcome-based education is most commonly associated with William Spady (Harden, 1999; Killen, 2000; Biggs & Tang, 2007). According to Spady (1994), Outcome-Based Education means clearly focusing and organizing everything in an educational system around what is essential for all students to be able to do successfully at the end of their learning experiences. This means starting with a clear picture of what is important for students to be able to do, then organizing the curriculum, instruction, and assessment to make sure this learning ultimately happens. (p. 12)

Outcome-based education is designed so that "all students are equipped with the knowledge, skills and qualities needed to be successful after they exit the educational system" (Spady, 1994, p. 9). Spady (1994) describes learning outcomes as "…clear learning results that we want students to demonstrate at the end of significant learning experiences" (p. 2). While "exit outcomes" represent the culmination of a student's career, "enabling outcomes" provide the "key building blocks" upon which these are developed (p. 8). Once the exit outcomes have been identified, curriculum, instructional strategies, assessment, and performance standards are organized to ensure that students are able to achieve them.

Spady's "OBE Paradigm" (1994) is based on three premises and four principles. The premises are:

1. All students can learn and succeed but not on the same day and not in the same way.

2. Successful learning promotes even more successful learning; and
3. Schools control the conditions that affect directly affect successful learning.

The four "power principles" are:

1. Clarity of focus on culminating outcomes of significance.
2. Expanded opportunity and support for learning success.
3. High expectations for all to succeed; and
4. Design down from your ultimate, culminating outcomes.

The first principle, clarity of focus, requires instructors to make deliberate, informed choices when designing instruction in order facilitate student's achievement of the intended learning outcomes. The second principle, expanded opportunities, "…is based on Spady's first premise that, while all learners can be successful, they may require different instructional strategies and additional learning opportunities to do so.

Most students can achieve high standards if they are given appropriate opportunities" (Killen, 2000, pp. 3-4). This is linked to the third principle, high expectations, according to which success reinforces prior learning, heightens self-confidence, and provides motivation. Finally, according to the last principle, designing down, the instructor begins by identifying the exit outcomes, followed by the "building blocks" of learning that enable students to achieve these. For an educational system to be described as outcome-based, these four principles must provide its philosophical foundation.

Two approaches exist within Spady's outcome-based education paradigm: "traditional/transitional" OBE and "transformational" OBE. The traditional/transitional approach "…emphasizes student mastery of traditional subject-related academic outcomes (usually with a strong focus on subject-specific content) and some cross-discipline outcomes (such as the ability to solve problems or to work co-operatively)" (Killen, 2000, p. 2).

In contrast, the transformational approach "…emphasizes long term, cross-curricular outcomes that are related directly to students' future life roles (such as being a productive worker or a responsible citizen or a parent)" (Killen, 2000, p. 2).

Outcome-Based Education Version 2: Ensuring Accountability

In the 1980's and 90's, outcome-based education was widely adopted in the United States, Australia, and the United Kingdom to provide evidence of accountability to meet the needs of accreditation agencies and external stakeholders, such as government and employers (Killen, 2000; Biggs & Tang, 2007). Accountability requires quality measures, metrics, or performance indicators, typically defined as inputs, outputs or outcomes (Woodhouse, 1999).

Outcome-Based Education Version 3: Enhancing Teaching and Learning:

In the third version of outcome-based education, learning outcomes are used for the sole purpose of enhancing teaching and learning (Biggs & Tang, 2007). In this model, instructors must first clearly state and communicate the intended learning outcomes (ILOs), and minimum acceptable standards for success are established so that students understand what is expected of them. Instructors then select instructional strategies that will help students

to gain the desired skills, knowledge, or values. Finally, instructors choose assessments that are constructively aligned with the learning outcomes and provide evidence that these have been achieved.

Conclusion

In this document and the accompanying webinar, Ontario Universities Quality Council. Outcome-Based Education webinar (Goff, 2010), we have presented a brief overview of outcome-based education. Additional information on outcome-based education can be found in the resources listed below.

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Writing Effective Multiple-Choice Questions

Pedagogies: Exploring Teaching Practice - Vol. 2 No. 4

For all Pedagogies: http://edu.georgianc.on.ca/teaching/pub/pedagoggles/

Lens on Learning Theory
Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs) may be used in both summative and formative tests, as well as for diagnosis of student learning problems. MCQs have a reputation for being easy; this misconception suggests that they can only test recall but not the higher levels of learning indicated by Bloom's taxonomy. As with any assessment mechanism, the key is in creating questions that test the required skills at the appropriate level. Increasing student numbers and greater assessment burdens may make use of MCQs particularly attractive, especially if marking and provision of feedback can be automated (for example online).

"I had previously thought that higher-level MC questions would require a lot more work than they do. I also enjoy being more creative as I cast the topic into a unique setting that requires my students not only to recall but also to apply concepts. However, what has surprised me most is how much more my students 'enjoy' higher level assessment questions than recall questions."
~Anonymous Faculty Member

Reflection on Practice
How can I write MCQ test questions that prevent overall scores from being unrealistically high?
How do students guess correct answers, and how can I defeat this?
How can I use MCQs and still measure higher level thinking?
Is there a way to provide feedback when using MCQs?

Expanding Your Teaching Toolkit
Stem- The stem is the introductory question or incomplete statement at the beginning of each test item.
Options- The options consist of the answer. This includes the correct option and the distractors.

1. ***Write distractors (wrong-response options) that are plausible***

Do not write distractors that are obviously wrong or nonsense words and unreasonable
Write the options so they are homogeneous in content
Employ as distractors answers from previous open-ended exams to provide plausible answers

2. ***Use a question format***

MCQs should ideally be prepared as questions (rather than incomplete statements)
Incomplete Statement Format: Jack Sprat could eat no___ _
Direct Question Format: What food does Jack Sprat **NOT** eat?

3. ***Emphasize critical thinking and higher-level cognitive skills beyond simple recall***

Use *memory-plus application* questions.
Memory-plus application questions place the concept in a life situation or context that requires the student to first recall the facts and then apply or transfer the application of those facts into a situation.

4. ***Keep Option Lengths Similar***

Avoid making your correct answer the long or short answer.

5. ***Balance the Placement of the Correct Answer***

Correct answers are usually the second and third option, use the other positions.

6. ***Be grammatically correct***

Use simple, precise, and unambiguous wording. Grammatical errors hint at the right answer.

7. ***Do not write clues that hint at the correct answer***

You might answer one question in a test by giving the answer in the stem of another question.

8. ***Avoid negative questions and questions that use the words never, always, and only***

Students may be able to use these to find an incorrect answer without knowing the correct answer.

9. ***Use only one correct option (ensure that none of the distracters might be argued as correct)***
   - The distracters should include one and only one correct or clearly best answer.
   - With one correct answer, alternatives should be mutually exclusive and not overlapping.
   - Using MC with questions containing more than one right answer results in arguments over grades.

10. ***Give clear instructions-*** explain the purpose and aim of the questions.

11. **Use a single, clearly defined problem and include the main idea in the stem**

Students should understand the problem without having to read the response options.

12. Avoid the "All the Above" & "None of the Above" options

Students only need to recognize two correct options to get the answer correct and you will not determine if students know the correct answer.

13. Don't use MCQs when other types are more appropriate.

14. Remember that tests are for measuring learning, not teaching

Avoid devising questions that are really teaching moments. For example, many teachers develop TF questions where the majority of the answers are true.

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Matching Test Questions

Good for:

- Knowledge level
- Some comprehension level, if appropriately constructed

Types:

- Terms with definitions
- Phrases with other phrases
- Causes with effects
- Parts with larger units
- Problems with solutions

Advantages:

- Maximum coverage at knowledge level in a minimum amount of space/prep-time
- Valuable in content areas that have a lot of facts

Disadvantages:

- Time consuming for students
- Not good for higher levels of learning

Tips for Writing Good Matching items:

- Need 15 items or less
- Give good directions on basis for matching.
- Use items in response column more than once (reduces the effects of guessing)
- Use homogenous material in each exercise
- Make all responses plausible
- Put all items on a single page
- Put response in some logical order (chronological, alphabetical, etc.)
- Responses should be short

True/False

Good for:

- Knowledge level content
- Evaluating student understanding of popular misconceptions
- Concepts with two logical responses

Advantages:

- Can test large amounts of content

- Students can answer 3-4 questions per minute

Disadvantages:

- They are easy
- It is difficult to discriminate between students that know/don't know the material
- Students have a 50-50 chance of getting the right answer by guessing
- Need a large number of items for high reliability

Tips for Writing Good True/False items:

- Avoid double negatives
- Avoid long/complex sentences
- Use specific determinants with caution: never, only, all, none, always, could, might,can, may, sometimes, generally, some, few
- Use only one central idea in each item
- Don't emphasize the trivial
- Use exact quantitative language
- Don't lift items straight from the book
- Make more false than true (60/40). Students are more likely to answer true.

Short Answer

Good for:

- Application, synthesis, analysis, and evaluation levels

Advantages:

- Easy to construct
- Good for "who," what," where," "when" content
- Minimizes guessing
- Encourages more intensive study-student must know the answer vs. recognizing it

Disadvantages:

- May overemphasize memorization of facts
- Take care - questions may have more than one correct answer
- Scoring is laborious

Tips for Writing Good Short Answer Items:

- When using with definitions: supply term, not the definition-for a better judge ofstudent knowledge
- For numbers, indicate the degree of precision/units expected
- Use direct questions, not an incomplete statement

- If you do use incomplete statements, don't use more than 2 blanks within an item
- AITange blanks to make scoring easy
- Try to phrase question so there is only one answer possible.

Essay

Good for:
- Application, synthesis, and evaluation levels

Types:
- Extended response: synthesis and evaluation levels; a lot of freedom in answers
- Restricted response: more consistent scoring, outlines parameters of responses

Advantages:
- Students less likely to guess
- Easy to construct
- Stimulates more study
- Allows students to demonstrate ability to organize knowledge, express opinions,show originality

Disadvantages:
- Can limit amount of material tested, therefore has decreased validity
- Subjective, potentially umeliable scoring
- Time consuming to score

Tips for Writing Good Essay Items:
- Provide reasonable time limits for thinking and writing
- Avoid letting them to answer a choice of questions (You won't get a good idea ofthe broadness of student achievement when they only answer a set of questions.)
- Give definitive task to student-compare, analyze, evaluate, etc.
- Use checklist point system to score with a model answer: write outline, determinehow many points to assign to each part
- Score one question at a time-all at the same time

Oral Exams

Good for:
- Knowledge, synthesis, evaluation levels

Advantages:

- Useful as an instructional tool-allows student to learn at the same time as testing.
- Allows teacher to give clues to facilitate learning
- Useful to test speech and foreign language competencies

Disadvantages:

- Time consuming to give and take
- Could have poor student performance because of lack of practice
- Provides no written record without checklists

Test Questions and Bloom's Taxonomy

Knowledge

Useful Verbs	Sample Question Stems	Potential activities and products
tell list describe relate locate write find state name	What happened after...? How many...? Who was it that...? Can you name the...? Describe what happened at...? Who spoke to...? Can you tell why...? Find the meaning of...? What is...? Which is true or false...?	Make a list of the main events. Make a timeline of events. Make a facts chart. Write a list of any pieces of information you can remember. List all the.... in the story. Make a chart showing... Make an acrostic. Recite a poem.

Comprehension

Useful Verbs	Sample Question Stems	Potential activities and products
explain interpret outline discuss distinguish predict restate translate compare describe	Can you write in your own words...? Can you write a brief outline...? What do you think could of happened next...? Who do you think...? What was the main idea...? Who was the key character...? Can you distinguish between...? What differences exist between...? Can you provide an example of what you mean...? Can you provide a definition for...?	Cut out or draw pictures to show a particular event. Illustrate what you think the main idea was. Make a cartoon strip showing the sequence of events. Write and perform a play based on the story. Retell the story in your words. Paint a picture of some aspect you like. Write a summary report of an event. Prepare a flow chart to illustrate the sequence of events. Make a coloring book.

Application

Useful Verbs	Sample Question Stems	Potential activities and products
solve show use illustrate construct complete examine classify	Do you know another instance where...? Could this have happened in...? Can you group by characteristics such as...? What factors would you change if...? Can you apply the method used to some experience of your own...? What questions would you ask of...? From the information given, can you develop a set of instructions about...? Would this information be useful if you had a ...?	Construct a model to demonstrate how it will work. Make a diorama to illustrate an important event. Make a scrapbook about the areas of study. Make a paper-mache map to include relevant information about an event. Take a collection of photographs to demonstrate a particular point. Make up a puzzle game suing the ideas from the study area. Make a clay model of an item in the material. Design a market strategy for your product using a known strategy as a model. Dress a doll in national costume. Paint a mural using the same materials. Write a textbook about... for others.

Analysis

Useful Verbs	Sample Question Stems	Potential activities and products
Analyze distinguish examine compare contrast investigate categorize identify explain separate advertise	Which events could have happened...? I ... happened, what might the ending have been? How was this similar to...? What was the underlying theme of...? What do you see as other possible outcomes? Why did ... changes occur? Can you compare your ... with that presented in...? Can you explain what must have happened when...? How is ... similar to ...? What are some of the problems of...? Can you distinguish between...? What were some of the motives behind...? What was the turning point in the game? What was the problem with...?	Design a questionnaire to gather information. Write a commercial to sell a new product. Conduct an investigation to produce information to support a view. Make a flow chart to show the critical stages. Construct a graph to illustrate selected information. Make a jigsaw puzzle. Make a family tree showing relationships. Put on a play about the study area. Write a biography of the study person. Prepare a report about the area of study. Arrange a party. Make all the arrangements and record the steps needed. Review a work of art in terms of form, color, and texture.

Synthesis

Useful Verbs	Sample Question Stems	Potential activities and products
Create invent compose predict plan construct design imagine propose devise formulate	Can you design a ... to ...? Why not compose a song about...? Can you see a possible solution to...? If you had access to all resources how would you deal with...? Why don't you devise your own way to deal with...? What would happen if...? How many ways can you...? Can you create new and unusual uses for...? Can you write a new recipe for a tasty dish? can you develop a proposal which would...	Invent a machine to do a specific task. Design a building to house your study. Create a new product. Give it a name and plan a marketing campaign. Write about your feelings in relation to... Write a TV show, play, puppet show, role play, song or pantomime about...? Design a record, book, or magazine cover for...? Make up a new language code and write material suing it. Sell an idea. Devise a way to... Compose a rhythm or put new words to a known melody.

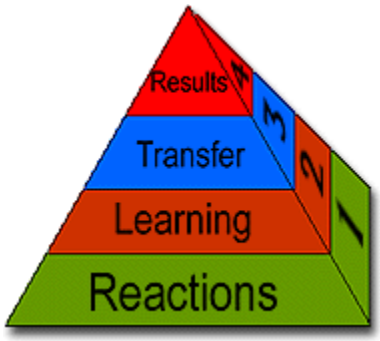
Evaluation

Useful Verbs	Sample Question Stems	Potential activities and products
Judge select choose decide justify debate verify argue recommend assess discuss rate prioritize determine	Is there a better solution to... Judge the value of... Can you defend your position about...? Do you think ... is a good or a bad thing? How would you have handled...? What changes to ... would you recommend? Do you believe? Are you a ... person? How would you feel if...? How effective are...? What do you think about...?	Prepare a list of criteria to judge a ... show. Indicate priority and ratings. Conduct a debate about an issue of special interest. Make a booklet of about 5 rules you see as important. Convince others. Form a panel to discuss views, e.g., "Learning at School." Write a letter to ... advising on changes needed at... Write a half yearly report. Prepare a case to present your view about...

From: Dalton, J. & Smith, D. (1986) "Extending Children's Special Abilities - Strategies for primaryclassrooms" pp.36-37

Available at: http://www. teachers. ash.org.au/researchskills/dalton. htm#knowledge

Kirkpatrick's Four Levels of Evaluation



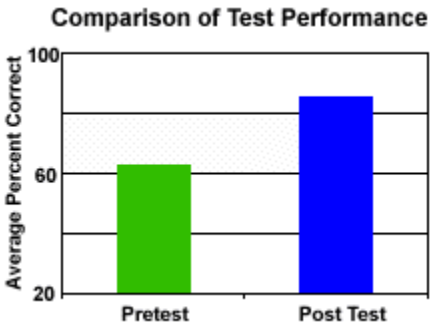
In Kirkpatrick's four-level model, each successive evaluation level is built on information provided by the lower level.

ASSESSING TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS often entails using the four-level model developed by Donald Kirkpatrick (1994). According to this model, evaluation should always begin with level one, and then, as time and budget allows, should move sequentially through levels two, three, and four. Information from each prior level serves as a base for the next level's evaluation. Thus, each successive level represents a more precise measure of the effectiveness of the training program, but at the same time requires a more rigorous and time-consuming analysis.

Level 1 Evaluation – Reactions

Just as the word implies, evaluation at this level measures how participants in a training program react to it. It attempts to answer questions regarding the participants' perceptions – Did they like it? Was the material relevant to their work? This type of evaluation is often called a "smilesheet." According to Kirkpatrick, every program should at least be evaluated at this level to provide for the improvement of a training program. In addition, the participants' reactions have important consequences for learning (level two). Although a positive reaction does not guarantee learning, a negative reaction almost certainly reduces its possibility.

Level 2 Evaluation – Learning



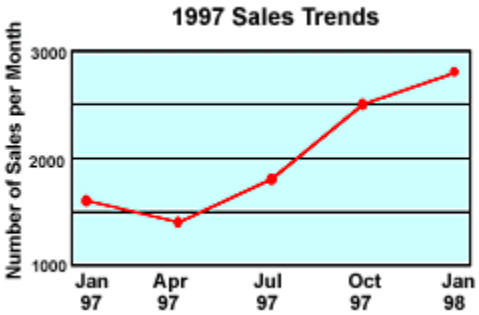
To assess the amount of learning that has occurred due to a training program, level two evaluations often use tests conducted before training (pretest) and after training (post test).

Assessing at this level moves the evaluation beyond learner satisfaction and attempts to assess the extent students have advanced in skills, knowledge, or attitude. Measurement at this level is more difficult and laborious than level one. Methods range from formal to informal testing to team assessment and self-assessment. If possible, participants take the test or assessment before the training (pretest) and after training (post test) to determine the amount of learning that has occurred.

Level 3 Evaluation – Transfer

This level measures the transfer that has occurred in learners' behavior due to the training program. Evaluating at this level attempts to answer the question – Are the newly acquired skills, knowledge, or attitude being used in the everyday environment of the learner? For many trainers this level represents the truest assessment of a program's effectiveness. However, measuring at this level is difficult as it is often impossible to predict when the change in behavior will occur, and thus requires important decisions in terms of when to evaluate, how often to evaluate, and how to evaluate.

Level 4 Evaluation- Results



Level four evaluation attempts to assess training in terms of business results. In this case, sales transactions improved steadily after training for sales staff occurred in April 1997.

Frequently thought of as the bottom line, this level measures the success of the program in terms that managers and executives can understand –increased production, improved quality, decreased costs, reduced frequency of accidents, increased sales, and even higher profits or return on investment. From a business and organizational perspective, this is the overall reason for a training program, yet level four results are not typically addressed. Determining results in financial terms is difficult to measure, and is hard to link directly with training.

Methods for Long-Term Evaluation

- Send post-training surveys
- Offer ongoing, sequenced training and coaching over a period of time
- Conduct follow-up needs assessment
- Check metrics (e.g., scrap, re-work, errors, etc.) to measure if participants achieved training objectives
- Interview trainees and their managers, or their customer groups (e.g., patients, other departmental staff)

Summarize the main point(s) of this article below in three sentences or less.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Course Evaluation

I came expecting…	I got…
I value…	I want next…

Peer Coaching

During this course, you will work closely with another member of the class who will serve as your learning partner and peer coach. You are expected to support your learning partner throughout the week as you create and modify lesson plans, brainstorm learning activities, assess performance and give valuable feedback during and after each presentation.
When prompted, you will select a learning partner/peer coach.
As a learning partner, your responsibilities include:

- Serving as a coach, FTO, assessor and brainstorming partner to another member of the classer
- Providing ideas and guidance to your partner while developing the lesson plan
- Assisting your partner in the creative process of developing learning activities to be delivered on the last day of the course
- Observing your partner's training presentations and providing constructive feedback
- Facilitating the feedback protocol for your partner’s final presentation.

Constructive Feedback Timeline (for 20-minute lesson presentation)

While your partner is instructing, you will observe and provide nonverbal guidance (time cues, as an example) if needed. Pay attention to signs and signals related to thinking and attention. Watch for various things your partner attempts as an instructor and how those choices impact the group and the lesson.
Immediately following your partner's 20-minute block of instruction, you will provide feedback using this 4-step constructive feedback process:

- ***Personal Reflection*** **(2 minutes)**
  Student instructor and peer coach leave the room to discuss the lesson and the outcome. The rest of the group remains at the table to discuss their observations and to prepare for thinking questions to be asked during the next step of the feedback process.

- ***Surface the Student Instructor's Thinking*** **(4 minutes)**
  Group members ask thinking questions to the student instructor to help them analyze their lesson and the decisions they made about it. (*See page 44 in the student manual for sample thinking questions*.) Write down any relevant issues or ideas presented by the group. The group should strive to engage the student instructor so that the instructor is doing most of the speaking as they respond to well-constructed thinking questions.

- ***Brainstorming*** **(2 minutes)**
  During this block, the student instructor and peer coach turn their chairs away from the group and only listen. Group members brainstorm ideas, share observations, and suggest other options the student instructor might consider when delivering the training. The student instructor does not respond. The peer coach will write down ideas and impressions to share with the student instructor.

- ***Student Instructor Reflects*** **(1 minute)**
  The student instructor reflects on what they learned during the process of teaching, the thinking questions, and the ideas shared by the group while brainstorming.

Success! Congratulate the student instructor on a job well done and take a short break while the next student instructor prepares to deliver their lesson.

Thinking Questions for Facilitator Conversations

General queries:

- How do you think it went?
- What parts of the training went as you envisioned it in your planning?
- What might you do differently based on this experience?
- What learning outcomes were you seeking?
- How might you have known the learners had acquired the skills or knowledge you were intending?
- What led you to choose the learning activities delivered in the training?

For training intended to engage learning above Knowledge and Comprehension on Bloom's:

- How did you plan for teaching at the levels you were seeking?
- What evidence do you have to indicate learning was occurring? What specific things could you observe to support that evidence?

For Facilitation Strategies and Paralanguage Skills:

- Which strategies and skills were you conscious of practicing?
- What did you notice from learners as you used the strategy or skill?
- Did the responses or reactions from learners alter the way you were delivering the training?

Surfacing the Instructor's Thinking

Below are sample questions that may be used for surfacing the instructor's thinking following their 20-minute lesson. These are simply a guide. You are encouraged to create your own questions most relevant to each presentation.

1. What parts of the presentation went as you envisioned it in your planning?
2. What parts of the presentation went differently today than in practice?
3. How might you do things differently based on this experience?
4. What were your learning objectives?
5. How did you know if the students were acquiring the skills or knowledge you were intending?
6. What led you to choose the learning activities delivered in the training?
7. What types of nonverbal communication were you aware of using? What did you notice from learners as you used those skills?
8. Did the responses or reactions from learners alter the way in which you delivered any parts of the lesson?

Learning Styles and Generations

Workplaces, including law enforcement agencies, usually have a mixture of employees of different ages and learning styles. An effective instructor will use multiple styles and approaches to best meet the various needs of your students. Whether in a classroom or in a meeting, knowing how best to collaborate and communicate in different ways is critical to your success. This includes working with and teaching employees of varied ages. An instructor must have a strong knowledge of how generational differences may influence a person's learning and communication preferences.

Learning Styles

We realize that not every student learns in the same fashion as the next. Learning styles can develop from unique personality types. The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is the most widely used tool to identify the personality preferences related to how we take in and make decisions about information. Your MBTI type helps to explain whether you naturally think abstractly or in a more step-by-step way. It also gives us insight into whether you learn best by talking through ideas or thinking about them on your own first. We need to keep this in mind as we work with our students and with fellow instructors. Here is a list of the four learning styles identified through the MBTI personality assessment. All learners fall into one of these four categories:
Introverted Sensor, Introverted Intuitive, Extraverted Sensor, or Extraverted Intuitive.
FOUR LEARNING STYLES and their commonly preferred learning traits:

1. Introverted Sensors: Taking formal classes, shadowing, following written examples or instructions, practicing in low-risk situations, and completing journaling exercises
2. Introverted Intuitives: Reading, conducting research, using self-paced tutorials, doing independent study, and working on independent projects
3. Extraverted Sensors: Watching videos, shadowing, experiencing hands-on learning, engaging in discussion, and participating in simulations
4. Extraverted Intuitives: Problem solving, performing (improvisation, drama, role-playing), engaging in discussions and debates, undertaking self-instruction, and interacting/learning side-by-side with experts.

A quick matrix comparing Sensors with Intuitives:

Sensing	Intuition
Concrete - depend on verifiable, factual information and direct perceptions. literal, mistrust fuzzy information	**Abstract** - comfortable with and inferring meaning from ambiguous and non-literal information. Perceptive.
Realistic - value being practical, cost-effective, and exercising common sense.	**Imaginative** - enjoy being ingenious, clever and novel . . . for its own sake.
Pragmatic - highly values the usefulness or applications of an idea - more interesting than idea itself.	**Intellectual** - learning, acquiring knowledge, mental challenges are valued as an end in itself.
Experiential - heavily grounded by first hand, past experience. Reluctant to generalize beyond direct experience.	**Theoretical** - conceptual, automatically search for patterns in observed facts, comfortable with theories and inventing new ones. Resourceful.
Traditional - trust what is familiar, support established groups and methods, honor precedents.	**Original** - values initiative and enterprising, inventive, and novel solutions. Often mistrusts conventional wisdom.

Learning Styles Matrix:

Learner Type	Learning Channel	Learning Preferences	Dislikes
Concrete Sequential	Physical senses	Computers, demonstration, guided practice	Long lectures
Concrete Random	Intuition and trial-and-error	Simulations, games, independent study	Structured lessons
Abstract Sequential	Intellect	Lectures, reading, slide shows	Hands-on projects
Abstract Random	Emotions	Short lectures, media, the arts	Structured assignments, drills

To learn what your students may prefer for a learning style, you can use a simple assessment tool. That isn't always possible, depending on the access and time you have with students ahead of your instruction. If an assessment isn't an option, use your facilitative skills to observe their preferred learning styles. (Or ask them simple questions to determine how they learn best).

You should expect a cross-section of all four types of learners in your classes. Design your lesson plans to include different delivery methods and activities so that all students have an opportunity to take in information in a way most meaningful to them.

Generations and Learning

Out of the Workforce, but still influential on older generations
G.I. (or Greatest) Generation – born 1910-1924
Silent Generations – born 1925-1942

Still in the Workforce
Baby Boomer Generation – born 1943-1964
Generation X – born 1965-1981
Millennials (Gen Y) – born 1982-1994
Generation Z – born 1995-2009

Coming into the Workforce
Generations Alpha – born 2010-today

Each generation has a general preference for:

- Learning environments
- Basic types of communication

Find common ground between the generations, and mentor members of ALL generations, not just someone your age

*George Orwell, famed author of **1984,** and **Animal Farm**: "Each generation imagines itself to be more intelligent than the one that went before it, and wiser than the one that comes after it."*

Thinking Questions and Paraphrasing

Teaching to Inspire Critical Thinking in Students

In the most effective lessons, teaching and learning come together fluently. Instructors ask questions but don't dominate the talk in the classrooms. Students ask questions of the instructor and engage in productive discussions with other students.

This chapter will explain specific ways instructors can engage students and facilitate dynamic discussions in a way that furthers learning. These tools help students think critically, reflect on their own experiences, and interact with information being shared. Used effectively, these strategies allow students to develop a deeper understanding of material so they can apply the ideas to real-life situations.

Paraphrasing

Paraphrasing simply means repeating another person's statement or question in your own words while retaining the thought or meaning. It is a useful technique to clarify what a student is asking or verify that your understanding of a student's statement is correct.

Paraphrasing is also a way to show you are paying attention to the student and value what they are saying. This helps to build rapport and increase trust in the classroom.

When there is a high level of trust, learners feel safe and are more likely to ask questions and share thoughts honestly and openly. Paraphrasing aligns instructors and students as they work together toward a shared understanding.

Paraphrasing in the learning environment is used to:

- Clarify what was said by the student or speaker
- Minimize discrepancies between the speaker's intent and the listener's perceptions
- Help the student speaking to move from one level of understanding to another level of greater understanding
- Constructively manage emotionally-charged content in a way that does not escalate tension or Create more disconnect between the speaker and receiver of the communication
- Surface generalizations, deletions or distortions (e.g. "everybody does it" or "they would never let me do it that way").

Structure and Flow of Effective Paraphrasing

The effective paraphrase is focused on the thinking of the speaker and not to the person who is paraphrasing. When you choose to paraphrase, you are attempting to reflect the speaker's thoughts, words, and emotional state. The paraphrase is *not* used to add your own

thoughts or opinions. You are a mirror to the speaker's words, not a spotlight highlighting your own thoughts or perspectives.

When used to help surface thinking, paraphrasing does not include the pronoun "I". Using the first-person "I" indicates you are interpreting and reframing the speaker's thoughts. When we interpret or reframe someone else's thoughts they can perceive that as their ideas being challenged which can lead to unnecessary conflict. Good paraphrases are not agreements, but they give a person the sense of being "heard."

Well-formed paraphrases reflect the speaker's content and the speaker's reaction to or emotions about the content. A paraphrase also helps further a conversation, because what is paraphrased is most likely what the speaker (whose words are being paraphrased) will respond to next. Well-formed paraphrasing creates permission to ask for more details and encourages elaboration. Without the paraphrase, asking questions may be perceived as interrogation.

Before paraphrasing, listen and observe carefully to "hear" the content and "feel" the emotions of the speaker. Signal your intention to paraphrase. This is done by using an approachable voice and opening with reflective words that puts emphasis on the speaker's ideas, not on the paraphraser's interpretation of those ideas.

The following phrases signal that a paraphrase is coming:

- You're suggesting
- You're proposing
- So, what you're wondering
- So, you are thinking
- Your pondering the effects of
- Your hunch is…

How to Use Paraphrasing

Three ways paraphrasing may be used depending on the context and intent of the conversation:

1. To acknowledge and clarify content and associated emotion. If the paraphrase is not completely accurate, the speaker will offer corrections. Examples: "Your father fell from his chair and the bruises on his arms are from you lifting him back to a seated position?" in response to declarative statements about what caused the person's father to be injured; or "The way your boss is treating you is making it impossible to do your job?" in response to a person's belief that their job can't be done due to interference from a supervisor.
2. To summarize and organize**.** Paraphrasing can be used to offer themes**,** organize several statements, or separate jumbled issues. This is an especially important of paraphrase to use when multiple speakers contribute to a topic: "There are two ideas here. One is that the officer was correct in making the arrest. Another idea being expressed is that perhaps this was not a clear violation of the law." This paraphrase is appropriate when the speaker has addressed multiple issues, is wrestling with decisions between two or more distinct futures, or has declared beliefs about a series of facts.
3. To shift focus to a higher or lower logical level. Paraphrasing within a conversation often moves through a sequence of acknowledging, summarizing, and shifting focus to a higher or lower logical

level.

Logical level refers to levels of thinking. When concrete and fact-driven, we are on a low logical level. Here our thoughts are linear and predictable. When we talk about a topic, include our beliefs or values, and focus on insights and solutions, we shift to a higher logical level where we are able to incorporate more complex ideas.

Often, a person's beliefs and values are unconsciously present. Paraphrasing helps us surface and clarify thoughts and assumptions. If a person says, "I think written tests are stupid in a CPR class." A shift focus paraphrase might be, "Your concern is about being evaluated in a way that is relevant to the topic – is that correct?" Paraphrasing in this manner can shift a person's thinking about their own personal experience to a more complex or broader perspective.

Paraphrasing can also help move a person to a lower logical level when abstract or conceptual ideas need grounding in specific, concrete facts. If someone says, "It is not fair for Tom to run the meeting and only share his ideas." A paraphrase that downshifts the shift focus might sound like, "Managing the meeting in a fair way might mean every person gets an opportunity to share ideas without being interrupted." This manner of paraphrasing is especially effective to dissipate emotional distress by reflecting the speaker's values statements or deeply held beliefs in a way that allows them to examine them from a different, less personalized perspective.

Learning Styles and Paraphrasing

Paraphrases that summarize or shift the logical level of conversation support and challenge students differently, depending on their thinking styles. Global thinkers usually focus first on "big picture" large-scale issues appreciate paraphrases that separate and organize thinking as it happens. The shift to a lower logical level can also ground global thinkers in specific examples and concrete details.

Concrete, sequential thinkers learn from specific instances or facts and then apply that knowledge to a larger framework. Paraphrasing that shifts to a higher logical level helps concrete thinkers explore a broader perspective and create a wider context for thinking.

Questions in the Classroom

'Be a good listener," was Dale Carnegie's advised in his 1936 classic *How to Win Friends and Influence People.* "Ask questions the other person will enjoy answering." More than eight decades later, most people still fail to heed Carnegie's wisdom.

Questioning in the classroom is a uniquely powerful tool. It spurs learning and the exchange of ideas; it fuels innovation and creativity; it improves performance; and it builds rapport and trust among students and the instructor. Effective questioning can also identify gaps in a lesson and help you avoid confusion.

Information Questions and Information Statements

Research shows a vast majority of questions instructors ask in a classroom are information questions. These are "closed" questions that ask who, what, where, or when. Questions most

appropriately answered with either “yes” or “no” are also information questions. There is almost always a correct or “right” answer to information questions.

In a learning environment, these questions are used to request information from a student or to gauge their understanding of specific knowledge. They are necessary when teaching knowledge and evaluating comprehension. Instructors may also solicit information using a phrase rather than asking a question: “Please tell me the proper call type for a report of a man with a gun.” This would be an example of an information statement. They serve the same purpose as an information question but are presented in a slightly different way.

Thinking Questions and Thinking Statements

Thinking questions differ from the simpler fact-based information questions because they ask the students to think more broadly and to rely on their own experiences and evaluation to respond. Thinking questions most often do not have “right” answers but explore, instead, the way students think about and approach problems or situations. They focus on student’s perceptions, thoughts, and decisions.

Thinking questions help learners develop analysis, problem-solving and decision-making skills. They can encourage students to see a topic from multiple perspectives and evaluate short- and long-term impacts of decisions. Like paraphrasing, thinking questions also show students the instructor is interested in their ideas and values their perspective.

Like information statements, there are also thinking statements. These are used when an instructor prompts a student to share their perspective by making a statement rather than asking a question. “Tell us how you know when you are experiencing a high level of stress” is an example of a thinking statement.

Structure and Flow of Thinking Questions

Thinking questions have three main characteristics:

1. **They are invitational.** These are not interrogations, but an invitation for a student to share. They should be asked using an approachable voice and non-aggressive language. The student must feel safe and comfortable answering openly and honestly.
2. **They are open-ended.** Open-ended questions allow for many possible answers. There is no right or wrong response. When asking thinking questions, use plurals such as “what are some ways…” (instead of “what is the way”) or “what approaches might you take?” (instead of “what approach might you take?”). Substitute limiting words with exploratory language that offers choice and promotes broader thinking.
3. **They focus on the student’s personal insight.** Thinking questions ask a student to reflect their own thoughts, perceptions, decisions. They seek out a student’s own hypotheses, conclusions, and thought patterns about something they saw or heard about. When used effectively, thinking questions can help a student expand their thoughts and deepen their learning.

Examples of Thinking Questions & Thinking Statements

- What were you feeling when that happened?
- Why might that be important?
- How might you modify your approach next time based on this experience?
- What did you want to see and hear from the witness to trust he was credible?
- What might be your emotional reactions when required to investigate a report of animal abuse?

One more note about questions…

This chapter focuses mostly on how instructors can use questions to facilitate classroom discussions in a way that encourages critical thinking and deepens learning. But what about questions asked by students to the instructor? The paraphrasing skills presented here can be very helpful in clarifying a student's question and ensuring you are responding most appropriately. Thinking questions can also be used to diffuse frustration by helping a student shift their focus to see a broader perspective or

Here is how that might sound in a learning environment:

"Why are you making us take a test? There's no way I'm going to pass!," exclaims a student. "It sounds like you don't feel confident about the material just yet. Is that your worry?," the instructor responds. "No, I understand all that we're learning, but I'm afraid I won't have time to study," the student says. Better understanding the student's concern, the instructor answers, "We will be doing a review on Thursday and will finish class a little early, giving you some time to go over all of the material." The use of paraphrasing helped the student and instructor have a clearer understanding of concerns and expectations and move them toward a solution. It also helped build rapport and trust by allowing the instructor to show they value the student's opinion and wants them to succeed.

Hearing the discussion about the test, another student comments that they shouldn't have to take a test at all. "Can anyone tell me some reasons an exam is a requirement for this class?" One student answers, "We took a pre-test so it would be nice to know if we score higher at the end." "I would like to show my sergeant this class was worth my time. I think doing well on the test would show I took it seriously," another responds. "I have to show I successfully completed this course before I can register for the advanced class I am hoping to take in the fall."

Rather than avoid the complaint or respond to it directly with his own thoughts or beliefs, the instructor instead facilitated a discussion among the students that allowed for varying perspectives to be shared in a way that didn't imply the initial complaint was wrong or invalid, but it also wasn't shared universally by everyone else in the class. By using thinking questions, students were able to have a direct, respectful conversation and analyze the situation from multiple perspectives where everyone's thoughts and beliefs are able to be heard – a critical part of a successful learning environment for adult learners.

Activity

In the passage below, the author takes you inside an academy class where an instructor is demonstrating several of the concepts discussed in this chapter. It is intended to highlight ways you may be able to intentionally and deliberately use interactive discussion as an effective teaching tool. As you read, make note of the specific strategies the instructor uses to surface the students' thinking and encourage further learning. Mark and label each example you find of Paraphrasing (P), Information Statements (IS), Information Questions (IQ), Thinking Questions (TQ), and Thinking Statements (TS). You may use the chart on page 60 as a guide.

Adapted from:

"Surfacing Thinking – the Academy Class"

By Bob Harrison

"Good morning, everyone. As you know from our syllabus, we will spend a number of hours together studying criminal law and its relevance to your work as peace officers. Before we start, though, I wanted to throw out a question. Why should we spend your valuable time studying this subject?"

The class hesitates, and then a student in the back raises her hand, is acknowledged, and says, "Because we are in law enforcement."

"Say more about that."

"Well, we are going to enforce laws, so we need to know what the laws are."

"How many laws do you need to know?"

The student ponders that for a moment, and then says, "Probably the most important ones."

"So, there are laws that are unimportant…?"

"No, I guess not," the student says.

"But are there laws one might need to know more completely?" The class nods and voices agreement with the statement as the instructor continues, "Might it not be more effective to assess what the law means and is trying to do?".

The class falls silent; most lean forward as the instructor lowers his voice. "No, I guess not," he says, almost seeming to talk as if thinking aloud.

"Understanding the intent of the law may be one of the most important things for you to learn. That could allow you to act quickly without relying on rote recall."

He continues, "What comes to mind for you when you say, or hear others say, the word 'important'?"

"Important means we need to enforce it," a student volunteers.

"So, you enforce more important laws?"

"No, we enforce all the laws."

The instructor pauses, sweeping his arm across the room. "What does it mean to 'enforce' a law?"

The same student replies, "To arrest people who break it.,"

"Do you arrest everyone who breaks a law with whom you come into contact?"

Another student in the back of the room raises her hand and is acknowledged. "Sir, we sometimes let traffic violators go with a warning, and I think that is the right thing to do."

"I hear you saying your decisions to enforce are based on a lot of information in code books, reference manuals, case law and other sources. Is that correct?"

Several heads nod affirmatively around the class. They appear to know a little about where they can find the law.

The instructor continues, "Think for a second; how many code sections might you possibly be able to memorize, and how would you use that information?"

The class murmurs, and then another student raises her hand. "Sir, we need to know the sections related to arresting people, and for the felonies and other serious crimes."

"OK, so we don't really need to know the laws for minor crime?"

"I guess we need to know them, too. It's just that we need to know the important ones first."

"So, you believe there are important and unimportant laws?"

"No, there are just laws we need to know on the spot, and others we can look up."

"OK, someone else, why spend time studying criminal law?"

"Like she said, so we can enforce them," a student blurts spontaneously.

"So, enforcement is the intent of the law?"

"As police officers, we have laws we are expected to enforce, yes" the same student replied.

"In what situation might there be laws the police don't enforce?"

"There are criminal laws, and then there are laws for civil things."

"Interesting point. Anyone, what are some differences between criminal law and civil law?"

You see the students sit for a moment without saying anything, and then start turning to furtively look at one another. They seemed to be silently pleading for someone, anyone, to pronounce the answer. As the tension builds, the teacher breaks the silence.

“Alright, it seems that might be a question for you to discuss amongst yourselves for a minute. Take sixty seconds; turn to the person next to you to discuss what the differences might be between criminal and civil law.”

The class immediately buzzes with conversation in pairs. The volume rises, then drops for a few seconds, then rises again. Several students start nodding their heads, then turn towards the front of the room.

“OK, what kinds of things were being discussed in your pairs?”

Several students raise their hands. The instructor nods to one of them.

“Well, sir, criminal laws are the ones you can be arrested for and be put in jail or prison. Civil laws are the ones used to settle differences in civil court.”

“What defines a crime under the law?”

“It is an act committed in violation of a law for which you can be punished when convicted” a student explains.

“And…” the instructor comments. The student looks up to the ceiling, squinting, and then continues “It can also be a failure to act.”

“So, an act or failure….”

“Yes, an act or failure to act in violation of a law demanding it or prohibiting it”

“So, punishment. What’s that?”

Several begin to respond. “Going to jail.” “Going to prison for a felony, to county jail for a misdemeanor.” “Being put in jail when you get convicted”

“Don’t civil laws also have punishment? What punishment do they have?”

Students fall silent momentarily, and then one speaks “you can have property taken away from you, or be made to pay someone else, but you can’t go to prison.”

“So, the big difference between civil and criminal law is…?”

“For crimes, you can lose your freedom. For civil law, you can just lose money or property.”

“Might one of you be able to give some examples of civil law?” the instructor prompts.

More students raise their hand. “Like when neighbors have an argument over a fence; or your roommate moves out and doesn’t pay their share of the rent.”

"Those are some…what others might be out there?" Students nod, and a number raise their hands to speak. Instead of selecting one, the instructor says "OK, there are obviously a lot more. Rather than thinking about specific examples, someone please tell us what distinguishes civil from criminal laws."

Hands go down across the room with one exception. Once recognized, the student adds "Criminal laws are those for which you can be sentenced to jail or prison. Civil laws are those where you would have to pay damages if you were at fault, but you can't go to jail."

"And how might one know if she or he were reading a section of criminal or civil law?"

The student continues, "Well, the section would tell you what the punishment is. If it says you can go to jail, it is a crime. If not, it is civil. For murder, it says you can be imprisoned, so it is a crime"

"Alright, let's switch gears for a moment. We talk about 'the law.' When we use that term, what, exactly are we referring to?"

Once again, the class falls silent. Brows furrow, and glances from one student to another reflect a quizzical air. The instructor continues, "We have been talking about 'black letter law', or those things enacted by legislators. What other types of law are there?"

"Well," one student begins, hesitantly, "there is the law created by the Constitution, and there is case law created by judges' rulings in court."
"How might case law impact your work?"
Hands go up across the room. "Judges can keep us from enforcing certain laws, or rule that we did something wrong, which means we would have to do things differently in the future" one student says.
The instructor responds "Judges making you do things differently seems to be a point of frustration. Is that the feeling?"
"Well, yes. I know a lot of cops who get really mad that a criminal may go free just because a minor rule was skipped. The judges should see we are trying to do the right thing, and not let someone who is guilty get off."
"So…judges don't care about the police?"
"No…I think they probably care; they just need to remember the law was written to be enforced, not changed."

Another student voices disagreement. "It's more than that. Case law is where judges try to apply the spirit of the law to how the law is written; to interpret what the law really means."

"So they are bringing morality into the law?"

The class falls silent. The instructor continues "consider as you ponder the study of law that the law seems to try to represent what we think people ought to do or not do. Think about how the law has changed over the years, and how that might impact your role as law enforcers."

"Sir, are you saying the law is written, but then we add morals and ethics to it when we apply it?"

The instructor pauses, and then speaks in a low, paced tone. "That brings up an interesting issue. How might the concept of the spirit of the law and the letter of the law apply to your world as police officers or deputies? Each pair; find another pair to form a group of four. Take five minutes to discuss those two questions."

The Power Point screen, which has been on all the time, but barely noticed, now displays "exit directions" for the next chunk of work.

"I encourage you…" begins the instructor, "to think about what the law says and how you might interpret it in police work." The instructor turns to look at the Power Point, continuing, "In your groups, take five minutes to discuss." He points to the visual, and students seem to be reading it to themselves. "We'll come back as a class in five minutes to see what responses your teams have developed."

Paraphrasing	Paraphrasing is a restatement of speech (or text) using different words, that allows a person to know you are listening and helps to clarify the meaning or intent of the communication. It lets a person know you value what they are saying and want to be sure you understand. In a learning environment, paraphrasing helps foster a safe environment for thinking and the open sharing of ideas. It is often used to surface others' thinking.
Information Statements	Information statements are used to communicate necessary facts, instructions or knowledge (from management of the class to the introduction of cognitive concepts).
Information Questions	Information questions seek fact-base information and are direct and may infer there is a correct or most appropriate response. They can be used to assess or evaluate the level of understanding and comprehension in a class. Instructors can use that information to adjust their approach during a lesson.
Thinking Questions	Thinking questions are open-end and are used to stimulate thought and encourage reflection. They allow teaching at higher levels of Bloom's Taxonomy and most often do not have a correct answer. The most effective thinking question will generate additional thoughts and deeper understanding on the same topic.
Thinking Statements	Thinking statements have the same purpose as questions but are presented as a statement rather than an inquiry. They are intended to prompt thought, but not necessarily a direct response. The thinking statement should be purposeful, reasoned and goal-directed. It is often used to promote the reasoning process, formulate inferences, or evaluate concepts.

Online Delivery Overview

During the Instructor Development course, you will be given an overview of Online Delivery strategies and methods. This is NOT a detailed course, but instead a high-level review of things to consider when building and/or delivering an online course.

Several platforms that are commonly used for meetings and class delivery include WebEx, Go to Meeting, Zoom, Microsoft Teams, Thinkific, FaceTime, YouTube, and even PowerPoint slides shared online. Some programs work well with one-on-one coaching, while others are more suited for a remote classroom environment. Review the programs your agency uses before attending the Instructor Development course.

Factors that must be considered in selecting a platform for your online class delivery:

- The subject of the class
- The online platforms commonly used by your students
- Your student's individual accessibility
- Other factors unique to your agency or your workspace.

Benefits of online training are many and varied. They include, but are not limited to:

- Flexibility
- Tailored Content
- Time and Task Efficiency
- Accessibility
- Cost Savings
- Continuity
- Library Expansion.

Despite the benefits, online training also presents challenges, including:

- Digital Literacy
- Technical Issues
- Time
- Motivation/Attention
- Low Quality Content
- Inapplicability to the Subject
- Permanent Archival Dangers.

Online training is, like it or not, the way of the future for many of our Corrections, Juvenile Justice, and Law Enforcement training subjects. Learn more and be prepared!

If you have any questions regarding online delivery, please feel free to contact one of your course instructors.

Legal and Liability

Key legal definitions for trainers

- **Liability.** The lawful accountability and obligations required by civil actions (or lawsuits), torts, or contracts.

- **Third Party Liability.** The responsibility of a third person – neither the plaintiff, nor the person suing, nor the defendant, the person being sued – for their actions.

- **Negligence.** The omission to do something which a reasonable man, guided by those considerations which ordinarily regulate the conduct of human affairs, would do. There are four elements required for negligence: a duty or obligation to conform to a certain level of conduct; failure on the person's part to so conform (breach of duty); a causal connection between the conduct and the injury; and actual loss or damage resulting from this failure

- **Negligent Training.** When an employer does not provide sufficient training for an employee to do their job safely, which would include trainers delivering instruction to others.

- **Failure to Train.** The failure to provide training in how to conduct a class in a manner which is consistent with generally accepted practices in law enforcement.

Documentation for Trainers:

- Class Rosters (POST or agency)
- Lesson Plans and Supporting Training Documents (handouts, tests, etc.)
- Certification paperwork
- Safety Plans (for scenario-based training events)
- Your Curriculum Vitae (CV)
- Other key documents.

Curriculum Vitae (CV)

- Form found on POST Website under FORMS
- Key data points: name/contact information, education, law enforcement training academy information, certifications, law enforcement experience, instructor experience, and references
- CV's must be updated regularly!

Key Legal Cases for Trainers

Federal Case Law

City of Canton v. Harris, 489 U.S. 378 (1989); City of Oklahoma City v. Tuttle, 471 U.S. 808 (1985); County of Sacramento v. Lewis, 523 U.S. 833 (1998); Lewis v. Sacramento County, 98 F.3d 434 (1996); Monell v. New York City Dept. of Soc. Servs, 436 U.S. 658 (1978); Sager v. City of Woodland Park, 543 F.Supp. 282 (1982); Zuchel v. City and County of Denver, Colo., 997 F.2d 730 (1993); Whiteley v. Warden, Wyo. State Penitentiary, 401 U.S. 560 (1971)

Idaho Case Law

Anderson v. City of Pocatello, 112 Idaho 176 (1986); Blackhawk v. City of Chubbuck, 488 F. Supp. 2d 1097 (2006); James v. City of Boise, 160 Idaho 466 (2016); Kessler v. Barowsky, 129 Idaho 647 (1997); Olguin v. City of Burley, 119 Idaho 721 (1991); Sprague v. City of Burley, 109 Idaho 656 (1985); Walker v. Shoshone County, 112 Idaho 991 (1987); Wimer v. State, 122 Idaho 923 (1992)

Training Delivery vs. Training Design or Development

There are two concerns in liability. One is for the content of the information taught – this goes back to how the course was designed (its objectives, supporting material and references used, handouts, and more). The design and development of a course can invoke liability concerns if, for example, an outdated agency policy is included, or a court decision is relied upon when it had been overruled.

On the other hand, liability may result from a course that has very supportable content, but the delivery itself exposes the instructor (and the agency) to a lawsuit. An example of this challenge would be an instructor who begins teaching off the lesson plan and adding their own objectives or learning points (such as adding new firing positions in a firearms course).

In both cases an instructor must NOT go beyond what has been approved by the agency, either in content or delivery. Instead, work closely with your training team and your legal advisor to build and deliver a legally strong lesson plan.

Proactive Steps to Limit Liability

- Provide all officers and employees with new hire and Academy training
- Train staff before they are transferred or promoted into a new position
- Train, evaluate, and approve all trainers (POST Instructor Development!)
- Conduct regular and refresher training
- Conduct realistic training when you train
- Test for knowledge
- Discuss and teach actions to limit liability exposure
- Provide supervisory training to all leaders
- Document, document, document
- Include the results of summative evaluations in your review of your teaching materials; those summative comments put you on notice to update or revise your class, so put them to good use.

Cultural Sensitivity and Harassment Prevention by Trainers

Always remember that you, as the trainer, are legally and operationally responsible for the classroom and everything that goes on in training. This area of the law has come under intense scrutiny in the last few years. The “Me Too” movement, high profile civil lawsuits, and evolving agency policies make this a key focus area for every instructor.

A few key reminders for instructors. First, do not permit harassment (sexual or any other type, including bullying) to occur in your classroom; you have functional supervision over all students while teaching. Model respectful behavior and communication. Intervene IMMEDIATELY if a student harasses or embarrasses another student – your failure to act is seen as approval of the inappropriate behavior. Be sensitive to language difficulties or differences (English as a Learned Language students), cultural differences (such as refugee or foreign students) and learning styles and differences in processing information.

Tips for Instructors – Legal and Liability Concerns

- Never give a negative/bad example in a class without adding the correct or positive way to do it. Leave your students with the right process fresh in their mind.
- If a student brings up an outdated (or even illegal) procedure, action, or policy in a class, ensure you clearly refute their point and cite the correct, agency-approved source. Then reach out to agency leadership after class to ensure no invalid or out of date information is being disseminated elsewhere.
- In Reality-Based Training (RBT), or any role play in a classroom delivery, monitor role players to make sure they do NOT go off-script. This is not only a safety issue – this

goes straight to what is being taught and retained by students. You must stay within the bounds of the class itself.

- In working with leadership, you will need to express concerns to any direction from a supervisor that runs counter to agency policy or your lesson plan. You should respectfully request immediate reconsideration of the contrary direction. Do not allow teaching of an unapproved item!
- Finally, remember that there are aspects of training that cannot be attacked legally (such as adhering to existing agency policy) and there are things that can be challenged (such as the methods for delivering instruction). Always follow procedure taught in the class and ensure your students do the same.

"Lawyers spend a great deal of their time shoveling smoke." – Famed jurist Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr.

Definitions for Legal and Liability

- **Liability.** According to Black's Law Dictionary, liability is the lawful accountability and obligations required by civil actions (or lawsuits), torts, or contracts. EXAMPLE: the liability a sheriff's office would have if an employee caused injuries to another motorist when the employee struck the car in the line of duty.

- **Third Party Liability.** Again, per Black's Law Dictionary, this is the responsibility of a third person – neither the plaintiff, nor the person suing, nor the defendant, the person being sued – for their actions. EXAMPLE: an Idaho corrections officer trainer who is asked to teach a class to Utah corrections officers; if a resident in a Utah prison later alleges the training was inadequate, the Idaho trainer could be liable under third party liability.

- **Negligence.** Black's Law Dictionary defines negligence as the omission to do something which a reasonable man, guided by those considerations which ordinarily regulate the conduct of human affairs, would do. EXAMPLE: a police officer who leaves his unit for a foot pursuit parked on a railroad crossing. When the vehicle is struck by a train a few minutes later and damages the train locomotive, the police officer would be considered negligent for leaving the vehicle parked that close to the tracks. There are four elements required for negligence: a duty or obligation to conform to a certain level of conduct; failure on the person's part to so conform (breach of duty); a causal connection between the conduct and the injury; and actual loss or damage resulting from this failure.

- **Negligent Training.** Reference.com describes this as when an employer does not provide sufficient training for an employee to do their job safely, which would include trainers delivering instruction to others. EXAMPLE: a juvenile detention officer who is improperly trained in the use of oleoresin capsicum (OC) spray; because of this inadequate training she is injured during an altercation at the juvenile detention center.

- **Failure to Train.** The Legal and Liability Risk Management Institute defines failure to train as the failure to provide training in how to conduct a class in a manner which is consistent with generally accepted practices in law enforcement. EXAMPLE: a sheriff's office that purchases conducted energy weapons and issues them to deputies but does not provide training on how to operate them; when a suspect is later injured by a deputy employing the weapon, the liability for the injuries results from the failure to train.

Curriculum Vitae

During the Legal and Liability portion of the Instructor Development course, you will be given an overview of a curriculum vitae (CV) and how it is used by POST-certified instructors. The overview is meant to introduce you to the creation and use of the CV.
The CV is required for all High Liability Instructor Endorsements, as noted on the POST Website under the High Liability Instructor Certification Packet. Specialized schools attended for that high liability subject are part of the CV. In addition, General Topics instructors are strongly advised to keep an updated CV to track the classes you have attended as well as the classes you have taught.

Your CV should be updated regularly (not less than once every six months if possible) and it should reflect your CURRENT level of Education, Academy Completions, Certifications, Job Experience, and Instructor Experience. This includes items such as promotions, assignments, specialized certifications, and completed training classes that are applicable to your instructor role. Don't forget to include awards and update your references (as some may retire, move, or otherwise become unavailable).

Please see the next two pages for the CV template from Idaho POST. You can also access it directly from the website; go to the start page, click on Forms, and then click on "I" (for Instructor); you will see the downloadable Word template listed as one download option. If you have any questions regarding preparing or updating your instructor CV, please feel free to contact one of your course instructors.

CURRICULUM VITAE

NAME:

TITLE:
DEPARTMENT/AGENCY:
ADDRESS:
PHONE: (w) (c)
EMAIL ADDRESS:

EDUCATION

COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY/GRADUATION YEAR/DEGREE

LAW ENFORCEMENT TRAINING ACADEMIES:

YEAR/PROGRAM/TRAINING HOURS/AGENCY/LOCATION

CERTIFICATIONS:

CERTIFICATION TITLE/AGENCY/CLASS #/RECERTIFICATIONS

LAW ENFORCEMENT EXPERIENCE:

YEAR/TITLE/AGENCY/LOCATION

- *ASSIGNMENTS/AFFILIATIONS*

INSTRUCTOR EXPERIENCE:

YEAR/INSTRUCTOR TITLE/CLASS/LOCATION
TRAINING:

YEAR/TRAINING TYPE/ LOCATION/TRAINING HOURS:

REFERENCES

(UPON REQUEST)

NAME/TITLE/LOCATION (CITY, STATE)/PHONE

SAMPLE CURRICULUM VITAE

NAME:
TITLE:
DEPARTMENT/AGENCY:
ADDRESS:
PHONE:
EMAIL ADDRESS:

EDUCATION

Boise State University, May 2019, BS in Criminal Justice
Boise State University, December 2012, MA in Criminal Justice

LAW ENFORCEMENT TRAINING ACADEMIES:

2013, Basic Correction Academy, 168 hours, Idaho POST
2016, Basic Probation/Parole Academy, 214.50 hours, Idaho POST

CERTIFICATIONS:

ILETS/NCIC Certification, October 2013-current
Basic Probation and Parole Academy #23, Idaho POST, May 15, 2017-current
Idaho POST General Topics Instructor, June 2019-current
Idaho POST High Liability, Instructor Development Endorsement, December 2019-current
Idaho Department of Correction, Field Training Officer (Training and Coaching), April 2020-current

LAW ENFORCEMENT EXPERIENCE:

- *August 2012-March 2013, Pre-Sentence Investigator Intern/Volunteer, Boise, ID*
- *March 2013-August 2013, Correctional Officer, IDOC, Boise, ID*
- *August 2013-February 2016, Pre-Sentence Investigator, IDOC, Boise, ID*
- *February 2016-current, Sr. Probation/Parole Officer, IDOC, Boise, ID*
- *July 2020-October 2020, Correctional Officer, IDOC, Boise, ID (COVID19 temporary departmental opportunity)*

INSTRUCTOR EXPERIENCE: (what I have taught)

YEAR/INSTRUCTOR TITLE/CLASS/LOCATION

June 2019, Effective Communication Class, PO Academy, Meridian ID
July 2019, CIS Database, IDOC D4West, Boise ID
July 2019, Instructor Development, Nampa PD, Nampa ID
August 2019, Effective Communication Class, PO Academy, POST, Meridian, ID
August 2019, Advanced Effective Communication Class, PO Academy, Meridian ID
December 2019, Instructor Development, POST Meridian, ID
March 2020 Caseload Management, 4 blocks/days, POST Meridian, ID
March 2020 Instructor Development, Boise, ID
July 2020 Instructor Development, Nampa, ID
August 2020 Instructor Development, Coeur d'Alene, ID
March 2021 PO Academy, various blocks, 32 hours, POST Meridian, ID
May 2021 Instructor Development, Boise, ID
June 2021 Instructor Development, St. Anthony, ID

TRAINING:

YEAR/TRAINING TYPE/ LOCATION/TRAINING HOURS:

2013 Basic Correction Academy #38, Idaho POST, 168 hours
2016 Basic Probation and Parole Academy #23, Idaho POST, 214.50 hours
2017 Static/Stable Assessment, Boise, ID, 12 hours
2018 Fusion Liaison Officer, Meridian, ID, 8 hours
2018 ILETS Conference, Garden City, ID, 13 hours
2018 Sex Offender Management Board Conference, Boise, ID, 8 hours
2018 FACES Stalking Investigations, Boise, ID, 8 hours
2019 ILETS Conference, Garden City, ID, 13 hours
2019 Investigative Techniques Using Social Networking Sites, Columbus, OH, 20 hours
2020 Static/Stable Assessment refresher, Boise, ID, 8 hours
2021 ILETS Conference, Garden City, ID 12 hours
2021 American Probation and Parole Association conference, Boston, MA

REFERENCES

NAME/TITLE/LOCATION (CITY, STATE)/PHONE

Tara Lap, Vocational Rehabilitation Counselor, Boise, ID, 209-697-5174 (w), 209-773-2140 (c), tara.lap231@vr.idaho.gov

Larry Bern, PhD, Associate Clinical Professor, Salt Lake City, UT, 891-449-3889 (w), 699-3369-0282 (c), larry_bern@bhu.edu

Reality Based Training

History:

The term “role” comes from the “rolled-up scripts” actors used over two thousand years ago, in Ancient Greece. In time, the script became the part, and the actors then were said to “play the part” or “play the role”. Playing the part or playing the role = “role playing” as we know it today.

In 1910, Dr. Jacob L. Moreno (1889-1974) designed the first known role-playing techniques
to be used in area of training. Role-playing became more widely known and used after he moved from Vienna, Austria to the United States in the 1930’s.
Role-playing is the primary technique to provide participation and involvement in the learning process. In a training environment, role-playing allows the learner to receive objective feedback about one’s performance. Role-playing techniques can be used to diagnose interactive skills, to provide models and practice, and to motivate individuals to pay more attention to their interpersonal impact. One of its primary benefits is that it allows the learner to experience a real-life situation in a protected environment. In many cases, Role Playing Scenario training has become known by a more commonly used term, “Reality Based Training.”

In recent years, there has been greater interest in employing active learning techniques in the college classroom. Faculties have recognized that learners gain knowledge and insight through action. In addition, professors are more aware of differences in learning styles, and they understand the importance of using a variety of instructional techniques to address as many of these as possible. There has also been increased emphasis on creating community in the classroom, whereby students learn through interactions with each other and assume joint ownership of the educational experience.

Current Trends:

As discussed in previous portions of the student manual, the key component that has driven the push for Reality Based Training (and more realistic training) is liability. Courts have ruled that the most realistic training that can be provided for officers or employees is what should be emphasized in law enforcement and other agencies.

Reality Based Training, or RBT, is an increasingly litigious aspect of training. As such, many states’ certification boards, agencies, and training departments are starting to separate the instructional learning in classroom environments from the learning in RBT environments. This has started a trend of making RBT a separate teaching certification. Idaho POST is currently evaluating the process to certify a RBT instructor. Right now, Idaho POST’s stance is that as long as you are certified in the aspects of an RBT scenario used for training (i.e.,

firearms, EVOC, emergency care, etc.) then you are considered certified to create RBT scenarios. Be cautious, however; although you may have a Firearms teaching credential, an RBT scenario involves many moving parts and interwoven skill sets that may also be involved.

Before creating a RBT scenario, carefully consider what is involved in the scenario and whether you and your agency are covered, in terms of liability, for the elements of the scenario that are being trained.

As a rule, taking and completing Instructor Development does not certify students to become Reality Based Training instructors. Discuss with your agency and with POST how to take the steps to safely create RBT trainings and ensure you have a proper training history to avoid liability.

Reality Based Training is a key learning experience that improves training for all aspects of job performance. RBT allows a group (or two employees in a one-on-one) to "act-out" work-related scenarios. RBT allows for realistic and real-time training in a low-stress environment where mistakes can be safely made, causing no damage. When errors are made, it is easy to make corrections immediately. RBT is also the systematic building of correct habits while learning the acceptable methods of performing the duties of a job. RBT is an excellent exercise for:

- Analyzing problems
- Developing creative "problem-solving' skills
- Developing teamwork and cooperation
- Developing communication and listening skills
- Aiding in establishing "Skill Acquisition" and "Skills of Initiative," improving one's performance.
- Aiding in establishing "Habits" – automatic responses (memory/muscle retention)
- Aiding in effecting changes in attitudes and values
- Allowing students to develop an understanding of others' perspectives
- Encouraging students to work with others in analyzing situations and developing workable solutions
- Providing students an opportunity to apply concepts they have learned in a rich and realistic environment
- Giving students the chance to gain insight into interpersonal challenges they are likely to have in their careers and private lives
- Enabling students to effectively contrast problem-solving methods by role playing a situation several times from diverse perspectives
- Offering a constructive channel through which feelings can be expressed and feedback processed
- Presenting students with a forum for building self-esteem and confidence
- Helping students realize that the training process CAN BE FUN!!!!

Key thoughts about setting up RBT Scenarios:

Remember, additional training is always important before considering the creation of a RBT scenario, but remember the method and elements needed to create a safe and effective learning environment.

- **Defining the Goal and Performance Objectives of a RBT or simulation scenario.**

Reality Based Training rules are relatively simple. All role-plays must be focused; the objectives must be clear and understood. Role-playing can become ineffective if people are unclear about what they are supposed to do. Instructions must be clear and understood; be clear about the purpose, the goal, and the performance objectives. Be very clear about what you want people to get out of the RBT experience. Muddy thinking at the outset will result in muddy outcomes. Clear thinking and role-play preparation result in clear outcomes. Ask yourself, "what is it, as an instructor, that I hope the students will learn by participating in the exercise?" As for defining the goal and performance objectives, the details of what you need to do depend entirely on why you want to include role-playing exercises in your course. What topic do you want the exercise to cover? How much time do you and your class have to work on it? What do you expect of your students? For example, are they to research, report, or do a presentation? Do you want the students role-playing separately or as a group? Do you want to include a challenge or a conflict element?

- **Reality Based Training and simulation scenarios must be 'realistic'.**

All RBT scenarios and all simulation scenarios must be realistic. For instance, if you are teaching a complex behavioral block, break it down, rather than have people role-play it in one huge chunk. Just as actors do not rehearse a play in one huge lump, they break it down into tiny micro-units and rehearse until they really feel confident with each bit. The same principles apply to any complex new skill to be learned. Being overly ambitious causes people to lose confidence in themselves and in role-playing as a tool. Like any technique, RBT must be used properly, or it will not work. If you do not have time to eventually have the participants doing the whole thing properly, in depth, with plenty of rehearsal and revisiting, then just do a part of it.

- **RBT must fit within the scope of job (scope of the employment).**

Reality Based Training and simulation scenarios not only have to be realistic, but they also need to be within the scope of employment. Training must fit the job; it must be job-related. RBT must be well scripted (the script must be "standardized"). The most important component of successful, meaningful simulation training remains the development of well-trained, fully controlled actors. Instructors must assign these actors roles that are specific, limited, and carefully supervised to prevent a deviation-from-role that can lead to poor training or injuries. Tell actors specifically, and in writing, what they can do and, equally important, what they cannot do. Remember, if you use officers for role players (and most of us do), they love to win. With adrenaline pumping, it is hard for an untrained, unsupervised role player to remember that the goal of the actor is eventually to lose (i.e., be controlled by the officer in the simulation). Yes, actors need to be challenging and realistic, but if the trainee performs effective tactics, the actor should give realistic responses and allow the technique to succeed.

- **The script can have alternatives.**

It is true that the scenario needs to be written out, well scripted, and standardized; however, in that script, you need to write in "alternatives". If the officer being tested does one thing, the

actor may do one thing; if the officer does another thing, the actor will counter accordingly. Limit the scenarios to one or two alternatives before instructing evaluators or observers to cancel the scenario and start again.

- **The evaluation needs to be pre-written.**

The areas that were taught and need to be tested must be written down. The areas that are to be tested must be based on the performance objectives. Take the time to write out a clear evaluation, and then review it with fellow instructors and leaders to ensure it addresses the objectives.

- **The evaluators need to be instructed as to what they are evaluating.**

For the observers, explain clearly what you want them to look out for. Again, this should be in line with our performance objectives. Have the observers re-state to you what they are watching for in the scenario so there is no doubt that they are focused on the objectives. Safety personnel should also know what is being evaluated, so they are prepared to step in if a role player begins to deviate.

- **Debriefing and Feedback needs to be provided.**

Debriefing also refers to “closure” or “wrap up,” a verbal (and in some cases written) assessment of the program, and an opportunity to change and tweak the scenario. Feedback is what is given to the student by the instructor, based on the performance objectives and the expected outcome of the scenario. Feedback is crucial to learning and developing behavior options; it also assists the student in knowing what works, what does not work, and the range of behavior available to an individual. Feedback provides an opportunity to make another attempt (or several attempts) at bits of the role-play and/or the whole role-play. Feedback should broadly follow the SMART principles (Specific, Measurable, Agreed, Realistic, Time-bound) of goal setting. Role-play feedback should describe specific things that the observer saw and heard, relevant to the exercise and to the person(s) doing the roleplaying. Role-play feedback should not contain subjective judgments or comments based on personal knowledge or assumptions. Feedback should be meaningful and specific and provide something that the role player can act upon. RBT feedback is not helpful if it suggests that the role player should “get a new personality” or “be nicer.” Remind participants that the purpose of the role-play is for the development of the person or people doing the role-play. Objectivity facilitates learning.

- **Verbal Debrief and Use of Video Recordings in a Debrief**

Generally, a debrief is done directly following the student’s participation in the scenario. In most cases, the debrief is done verbally. The debrief can be done with the individual officer, or with a group of participating officers. In a few cases, the debriefing is done with all the officers being involved, so that the other officers can provide feedback. Using a video or DVD recording of the scenario is a good technique to employ. On one occasion, using the ASP and the Red Man suit, an officer struck the role player in a red man suit. The red man went down to the mat as he was instructed to do if the strike was done correctly. One participant kept striking the downed red man. In the debrief the student was asked why he kept hitting the red man when he was down. The officer said he did not. The trainer said you did, and the student insisted he did not. There was a simple solution: “let’s roll the recording.” Sure enough, the student observed that he had repeatedly struck the red man. There was no more argument. People tend to watch themselves and critique themselves more fairly and accurately when

watching themselves on a recording. **Word of caution**: Always erase or dispose of the recording following the debrief. Training is a time for people to make mistakes, and they will make mistakes. By keeping or filing such recordings, they can be used against the trainee in court, and they reinforce less than desired behaviors. In the case above, when the officer kept striking the red man, correction was given, the student was retested, and all was well. If the recording had been stored or kept on file (and it was known), it could have been brought out in a trial and used against the officer.

- **Failing Forward - How Failure Can Equal Success**

Simulation training must contain two components that are missing from most training programs: the ability to fail and the ability to succeed. The ability to fail implies training must be challenging enough to reduce the possibility the trainee might get lucky and guess the correct behavior. Additionally, the instructor has a difficult job in convincing students (who, by the nature of their jobs, are expected to always win), that failure is not only allowed, but is desirable under simulation conditions. Trainees and instructors need to know that training is a constant learning environment where past actions are improved through repetition and drill. If the student completes training scenarios perfectly, it is likely because the instructor failed to detect problem areas. As a result, the instructor loses a golden opportunity to correct any deficiency. The ability to succeed implies that each scenario should allow the student to repeat the training as many times as necessary until the correct behavior, articulated by the instructor, has been applied. Again, repetition is likely the only way in which trainees will develop confidence in newly learned skills. Instructors also should avoid presenting non-winnable scenarios, as they wrongly condition students into believing they are powerless to affect outcomes. We have all have seen examples of where this defeatist mindset has resulted in injury, and even death, for law enforcement officers.

- **The Role of the Observer**

The role of the Observer is to “observe.” The observer is the coordinator or the author of the training activity. He or she checks to see if the activity is working correctly. The observer works closely with the Safety Officer to ensure the role play remains safe throughout the scenario.

- **The Role of the Evaluator**

The role of the Evaluator is to “evaluate.” The evaluator watches the person or persons who are engaged in the activity to see if they are doing what the activity was designed to do. The evaluator then presents a written or verbal assessment (or reviews a video recording) to the person(s) being evaluated.

- **The Role of the Safety Officer**

The Role of the Safety Officer is to “protect.” When engaged in a role-playing or simulation activity, the players can get so involved that the adrenaline might kick in. A player may go overboard and hurt an actor. Safety Officers are there to say, “Time Out,” and to stop the activity if things get out of hand. Once the desired result is achieved, the Safety Officer should stop the activity. The Safety Officer watches to see that there is no “horse-play,” watching both the players and the actors (see the articles on law enforcement personnel who were killed while training.)

- **The Role of the Security Officer**

Different than a Safety Officer, a security officer is not attached to the scenario or role play training as a participant. The Security Officer is there to provide security for the training environment. The Security Officer is an armed, uniformed presence, in place to ensure no outside dangers from the public can cause injury or harm to the participants. For example, a role playing or RBT scenario is taking place where the public may be present. A common training would be Patrol Officers practicing Traffic Stops in a parking lot of a local grocery store. This can present an officer safety challenge, because all RBT participants will have either training weapons or may be unarmed for the training. The safety of the participants could be at risk if a member of the public (who realizes that this is a LE training environment) sees the opportunity to put the participants in a compromised position of safety. The Security Officer will be an armed presence for the protection of the training environment. The Security Officer will not participate or engage with the training scenario in any way unless the physical safety of the participants, instructors, observers, or others are in danger of being compromised.

Team Teaching

When you instruct a course for POST, for your agency, or for another organization, you may be called upon to teach with another instructor. This format is informally known as “Team Teaching,” and it is common in our profession. You see it when a new instructor is mentored or coached by an experienced instructor in the same subject. You see it in classes that require two instructors for the most efficient delivery. And you see it in courses that require two or more instructors per policy or guidelines.

Advantages of Team Teaching:

- Both instructors are actively engaged
- Students are introduced to complementary teaching styles
- Models a collaborative working relationship
- Provides flexibility to an instructor team
- Increases one-on-one time between an instructor and a student
- Provides visual representation of agency experts on the subject matter
- Allows for a wider range of teaching techniques.

Team Teaching Challenges:

- Lack of agreement on a teaching technique or subject
- Being paired with someone you do not know well (or at all)
- Coordinating the smooth delivery of information
- Being paired with someone with whom you have difficulty teaching
- Fair workload allocation.

Key roles in team teaching:

- Lead instructor
- Co-instructor(s)
- Lesson plan or test reviewer
- Technology expert.

Always be aware of the non-verbal messages all instructors send to students (not just the one instructor up front).

HANDOUTS

1. Techniques for Instructing the Basic Learning Styles within the Learning Hemispheres
2. Psychomotor Domain Taxonomy
3. Three Domains of Learning: Cognitive, Affective Psychomotor
4. Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning
5. Andragogy Theory – Malcolm Knowles
6. T-Bar Lesson Plan Template
7. T-Bar Sample Lesson Plan
8. Performance Objective Verbs
9. 20 Minute Lesson Plan & Presentation Checklist

Techniques for Instructing the Basic Learning Styles within the Learning Hemispheres

The Auditory Learner Learning Techniques: (Do exercise)

1. The aural (**auditory**) learner (AL) uses sound, rhyme, and music in learning. Focus is on using aural content in association and visualization.
    a. Use sound recordings to provide a background and help get the learner into visualizations. For example, use a recording of an aircraft engine running normally, playing loudly via a headset, to practice flight procedures. Use a recording of the sound of wind and water when visualizing sailing maneuvers. When creating mnemonics or acrostics, make the most of rhythm and rhyme, or set them to a jingle or part of a song.
2. Use the anchoring technique to recall various states that music invokes. If some particular music or song makes the learner want to 'take on the world,' play it back to anchor their emotions and state of mind. When the auditory learner needs a boost, they can get one without needing music (for example, using work sounds).

The Visual Learner Learning Techniques:

1. Visual learners (VL) learn best when they use images, pictures, color, and other visual media to help the learning. Incorporate as much imagery as possible into visualizations.
    a. The VL may find that visualization comes easily. This also means that the visual learner may have to make visualizations stand out more. This ensures new material is obvious among all the other visual images floating around.
    b. Use color, layout, and spatial organization in associations, and use many 'visual words' in your assertions. Examples include see, view, picture, perspective, visual, and map.
        i. Use mind maps. Use color and pictures in place of text, wherever possible. If you don't use the computer, make sure you have at least four markers of different colors.
        ii. Systems diagrams can help the visual learner visualize the links between parts of a system, for example, major engine parts or the principle of <u>sailing in equilibrium.</u> Replace words with pictures and use color to highlight major and minor links.
        iii. The visual journey or story technique helps the VL memorize content that isn't easy to 'see.' The visual story approach for memorizing procedures is a good example of this.

iv. Peg words and events come easily to the VL, however they need to spend time learning at least the first ten peg words. Afterwards, the ability to visualize helps them peg content quickly.

The Kinesthetic Learner: Learning Techniques:

1. The physical or kinesthetic style (KL) learner uses touch, action, movement, and hands-on work in learning activities.
    a. For visualization, focus on the sensations expected in each scenario. For example, if the learner is visualizing handcuffing, focus on physical sensations. Feel the firmness of the metal in your hand, the pressure against your hand as the snap of the handcuff close, and the sensation of moving the arrestee, under control, to a secure position.
    b. For assertions and scripting, describe the physical feelings of the actions. For example, a pilot might script as follows: 'I feel the friction as I push the throttle forward to start my takeoff run. The controls start to feel more responsive as I check the airspeed, oil pressure, and temperature. At takeoff speed, I pull back slightly, and I feel the vibrations of the wheels stop as the plane leaves the ground. After a few moments, I reach down and set the gear selector to up. I feel the satisfying bump as the gear stops fully up.
2. Use physical objects as much as possible. Allow KL to physically touch objects as they learn about what they do. Flashcards can help them memorize information because they can touch and move them around.
3. Keep in mind as well that writing and drawing diagrams are physical activities, so don't neglect these techniques. Consider using easel charts or other big sheets of paper and large color markers for diagrams. (The physical action is contained within the drawing exercise).
4. Encourage the use of controlled breathing and relaxation to focus their state of mind while students learn and perform. Have them focus on staying calm, centered, relaxed, and aware.
5. Use role-playing, either singularly or with someone else, to practice skills and behaviors. Find ways to act out or simulate what you are learning.
6. When learning a new skill or topic, allow the physical learner to 'jump in' and play with the physical parts as soon as possible. They would prefer to pull an engine apart and put it back together, rather than reading or looking at diagrams about how it works.
7. The thought of sitting in a lecture listening to someone else talk can seem repulsive to a KL. In those circumstances, this style of learner will fidget; they can't sit still for long. They will want to get up and move around.

The Verbal Learner Learning Techniques:

1. The verbal learner (VeL) learns best by using techniques that involve speaking and writing.
    a. Find ways to incorporate more speaking and writing in techniques. Allow them to talk themselves through procedures or try using recordings of content for repetition.
    b. Make the most of the word-based techniques such as assertions and scripting. Use rhyme and rhythm in assertions where possible and be sure to read important ones aloud.
    c. Setting some key points to a familiar song, jingle or theme becomes a useful tool.
    d. Mnemonics are a VeL's friend due to their ability to help recall lists of information. Acronym mnemonics use words, focusing on the first letter of the word to make up another word or memorable sequence. They will use made up phrases using the items to be memorized.
    e. Scripting is also powerful for this type of learner. Don't just write them down, but feel free to record the scripts using a digital audio recorder and use it later for reviews.
    f. When this type of learner reads, encourage them to read content aloud, make it dramatic and varied. Instead of using a monotone voice to go over a procedure, turn it into a lively and energetic speech worthy of the theatre. Not only does this help recall, but it will also allow practice for presence, or as some have called it, practicing as if it were real.
    g. The verbal learner learns well by working with others and using role-playing to reinforce verbal exchanges, such as citizen contacts or radio calls.

The Logical (Mathematical) Learner Learning Techniques:

1. The logical learner (LL) aims to understand the reasons behind the content and skills. They resist learning by rote. They are driven to understand the details behind the compulsory content. They will need to explore the links between various systems and note them.
    a. While studying, they will have a need to create and use lists by extracting key points from the presented material. They may also tend to use statistics and other analysis to help them identify areas they may need or want to concentrate on.
    b. You may need to remind the logical learner to pay attention to their physical state (such as their breathing and stress level). It's possible that they might isolate their own body from rational thought.
    c. Association often works well when something otherwise appears illogical and irrational.

d. In the use of scripting, highlight examples of their logical thoughts and behaviors. Highlighting enables them to pick up systems and procedures easily and detect when there is a need to change a set procedure.
e. Make use of 'systems thinking' to help understand the links between various parts of a system. An important point here is that systems thinking helps them understand the bigger picture.
f. The logical learner (LL) may find it challenging to change existing behaviors or habits. They may rationalize about why they should change a behavior, but they may find that the behavior persists.
g. The logical leaner may sometimes overanalyze certain parts of learning or training (resulting in analysis paralysis). The LL may be busy, but they are not moving towards the goal.
h. They may need to be directed to start – **now!**

Psychomotor Domain Taxonomy

This domain is characterized by progressive levels of behaviors from observation to mastery of a physical skill. Several different taxonomies exist.

Simpson (1972) built this taxonomy on the work of Bloom and others:

- Perception - Sensory cues guide motor activity.
- Set - Mental, physical, and emotional dispositions that make one respond in a certain way to a situation.
- Guided Response - First attempts at a physical skill. Trial and error coupled with practice lead to better performance.
- Mechanism - The intermediate stage in learning a physical skill. Responses are habitual with a medium level of assurance and proficiency.
- Complex Overt Response - Complex movements are possible with a minimum of wasted effort and a high level of assurance they will be successful.
- Adaptation - Movements can be modified for special situations.
- Origination - New movements can be created for special situations.

Simpson, E. (1972). *The classification of educational objectives in the psychomotor domain: The psychomotor domain.* Vol. 3. Washington, DC: Gryphon House.

Dave (1970) developed this taxonomy:

- Imitation - Observing and copying someone else.
- Manipulation - Guided via instruction to perform a skill.
- Precision - Accuracy, proportion and exactness exist in the skill performance without the presence of the original source.
- Articulation - Two or more skills combined, sequenced, and performed consistently.
- Naturalization - Two or more skills combined, sequenced, and performed consistently and with ease. The performance is automatic with little physical or mental exertion.

Based upon R. H. Dave, as reported in R. J. Armstrong et al., *Developing and Writing Behavioral Objectives* (Tucson, AZ: Educational Innovators Press, 1970).

Harrow (1972) developed this taxonomy. It is organized according to the degree of coordination including involuntary responses and learned capabilities:

- Reflex movements - Automatic reactions.
- Basic fundamental movement - Simple movements that can build to more complex sets of movements.
- Perceptual - Environmental cues that allow one to adjust movements.
- Physical activities - Things requiring endurance, strength, vigor, and agility.
- Skilled movements - Activities where a level of efficiency is achieved.
- Non-discursive communication - Body language.

Harrow, A.J. (1972). *A taxonomy of the psychomotor domain.* New York: David McKay Co.

The following list is a combination of the above taxonomies:

Psychomotor Domain		
Level	Definition	Example
1. Observing	Active mental attending of a physical event.	The learner watches a more experienced person. Other mental activity, such as reading may be a part of the observation process.
2. Imitating	Attempted copying of a physical behavior.	The first steps in learning a skill. The learner is observed and given direction and feedback on performance. Movement is not automatic or smooth.
3. Practicing	Trying a specific physical activity over and over.	The skill is repeated over and over. The entire sequence is performed repeatedly. Movement is moving towards becoming automatic and smooth.
4. Adapting	Fine tuning. Making minor adjustments in the physical activity in order to perfect it.	The skill is perfected. A mentor or a coach is often needed to provide an outside perspective on how to improve or adjust as needed for the situation.

Three Domains of Learning: Cognitive, Affective Psychomotor

Abstract and Figures

The domains of learning can be categorized as cognitive domain (knowledge), psychomotor domain (skills) and affective domain (attitudes). This categorization is best explained by the Taxonomy of Learning Domains formulated by a group of researchers led by Benjamin Bloom along with in 1956. The domains of learning were first developed and described between 1956-1972. Some references attribute all of the domains to Benjamin Bloom which is simply not true. While Bloom was involved in describing both the cognitive and the affective domains, he appeared as first author on the cognitive domain. As a result, this bore his name for years and was commonly known among educators as Bloom's Taxonomy even though his colleague David Krathwohl was a partner on the 1956 publication.

Affective Domain: This domain includes the manner in which we deal with things emotionally, such as feelings, values, appreciation, enthusiasms, motivations, and attitudes. This domain is categorized into 5 sub-domains, which include: (1). Receiving (2) Responding (3) Valuing (4) Organization (5) Characterization

Three Domains of Learning: Cognitive, Affective and Psychomotor

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Abstract:

The domains of learning can be categorized as cognitive domain (knowledge), psychomotor domain (skills) and affective domain (attitudes). This categorization is best explained by the Taxonomy of Learning Domains formulated by a group of researchers led by Benjamin Bloom along with in 1956. The domains of learning were first developed and described between 1956-1972. Some references attribute all the domains to Benjamin Bloom which is simply not true. While Bloom was involved in describing both the cognitive and the

affective domains, he appeared as first author on the cognitive domain. As a result, this bore his name for years and was commonly known among educators as Bloom's Taxonomy even though his colleague David Krathwohl was a partner on the 1956 publication.

Introduction:

Learning is everywhere. We can learn mental skills, develop our attitudes, and acquire new physical skills as we perform the activities of our daily living. Learning is not an event. It is a process. It is the continual growth and change in the brain's architecture that results from the many ways we take in information, process it, connect it, catalogue it, and use it (And sometimes get rid of it). Learning can generally be categorized into three domains: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor. Within each domain are multiple levels of learning that progress from more basic, surface-level learning to more complex, deeper-level learning.

It is interesting to note that while the cognitive taxonomy was described in 1956, and the affective in 1964, the psychomotor domain was not fully described until the 1970s. When publishing the description of the affective domain in 1964 Krathwohl was named as first author, but Bloom also worked on developing this work. Krathwohl's involvement in the development of the cognitive domain will become important when you look at the authors of the 2001 revisions to this taxonomy.

Cognitive Domain:

The cognitive domain contains learning skills predominantly related to mental (thinking) processes. Learning processes in the cognitive domain include a hierarchy of skills involving processing information, constructing understanding, applying knowledge, solving problems, and conducting research. There are six levels of cognitive complexity: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation. Bloom's taxonomy focused on describing levels of attainments rather than process skills and did not substantially address the way the learner proceeds from one level to the next. The cognitive domain includes skill clusters that organize a complete, concise, and complementary listing of the learning skills most critical for each process.

In the chart shown, the higher the level, the presumably more complex mental operation is required. Higher levels are not necessarily more desirable than lower levels, because one cannot achieve the higher levels without an ability to use the lower levels. As one moves up into higher levels, however, the more applicable the skills are to those needed in daily life. The cognitive domain contains learning skills predominantly related to mental (thinking) processes.

Cognitive Domain Brain Analysis – The cognitive domain involves the development of our mental skills and the acquisition of knowledge. The six categories under this domain are:

1. Knowledge: Knowledge is the ability to recall data and/or information.
   Example: A child recites the English alphabet.

2. Comprehension: Comprehension is the ability to understand the meaning of what is known.
   Example: A teacher explains a theory in his own words.

3. Application: Application is the ability to utilize an abstraction or to use knowledge in a new situation.
   Example: A nurse intern applies what she learned in her Psychology class when she talks to patients.

4. Analysis: the ability to differentiate facts and opinions.
   Example: A lawyer was able to win over a case after recognizing logical fallacies in the reasoning of the offender.

5. Synthesis: Synthesis the ability to integrate different elements or concepts in order to form a sound pattern or structure so a new meaning can be established.
   Examples: A therapist combines yoga, biofeedback, and support group therapy in creating a care plan for his patient.

6. Evaluation: Evaluation is the ability to come up with judgments about the importance of concepts.
   Examples: A businessman selects the most efficient way of selling products.

Furthermore, Arends (2013; Laksana, 2017; Muga, Oje & Laksana, 2018) argue that learning and instructions are the various instructional activities that involve teacher and students to achieve learning goals. The achievement of the learning objectives should still pay attention to the three domains of student ability, namely cognitive, affective, and psychomotor (Hoque, 2017). The cognitive domain focuses on the children's thinking and reasoning skills.

Whereas the affective domain focuses on children's attitudes. Lastly, the psychomotor domain focuses on children's hard skills (Hoque, 2017; Selmi, Gallagher, and Mora-Flores, 2014). One of the three abilities is the cognitive aspect.

One of the basic principles that must be considered and held in assessment is the whole principle. Assessment of learning achievement must include three aspects, namely cognitive (understanding of the materials), affective (attitude), and psychomotor

(skills) (Hoque, 2017). These three aspects are closely related and cannot be separated from the learning assessment activities.

Instructional objectives are generally grouped into three categories, namely:

1. Cognitive domain consists of memory, understanding, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

2. Affective domain consists of acceptance, response, assessment, organization, and characterization.

3. Psychomotor domain consists of imitation, manipulation, accuracy, articulation.

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Its main purpose is to ensure that learning changes to a higher level of thinking and not merely involves the process of remembering facts (Hyder & Bhamani, 2016). In learning objectives, the cognitive domain is used to define how well information and thinking skill is learned or mastered (Hoque, 2016). In addition, Bloom's Cognitive Taxonomy Theory (1956) indirectly assists curriculum developers in determining relevant learning and assessment objectives for the program (Masrom, Hashim, Hashim, & Behak, 2018).

A Comprehensive and Conceptual Framework of Graduates Meta-Competencies

Humans have 3 aspects of ability, namely: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor abilities [1]. Of the three aspects, psychomotor is an interesting aspect to study because psychomotor is related to the skill (ability) or the ability to act after someone receives certain stimuli or knowledge.

As the child progresses through school, writing changes from an academic target to a skill that the students are required to possess. Handwriting combines all the complexities of language along with psychomotor activity [6]; hence it is an advanced human ability. Our thoughts and emotions are converted to a physical form through writing.

The quality of education is increasingly being measured less by the knowledge gained during schooling and more by the level of competence possessed by students at doing a particular job after completing their education. Target and process-planned curricula are being replaced more and more by competence-oriented curricula, especially in science and technology education.

This study concerned with the testing speaking based on Bloom Taxonomies. Hence, the purpose of this study was to know the components of cognitive domain covered in testing speaking used by the English teachers, to know the components of affective domain covered in testing speaking used by the English teachers and to know the components of psychomotor domain covered in testing.

Bloom’s Taxonomy of Learning

By Charlotte Ruhl, published May 24, 2021

Take-home Messages

- Bloom’s Taxonomy is a hierarchical model that categorizes learning objectives into varying levels of complexity, from basic knowledge and comprehension to advanced evaluation and creation.
- Bloom’s Taxonomy was originally published in 1956, and the Taxonomy was modified each year for 16 years after it was first published.
- Bloom's Taxonomy comprises three learning domains: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor. Within each domain, learning can take place at a number of levels ranging from simple to complex.
- After the initial cognitive domain was created, which is primarily used in the classroom setting, psychologists have devised additional taxonomies to explain affective (emotional) and psychomotor (physical) learning.
- In 2001, Bloom’s initial taxonomy was revised to reflect how learning is an active process and not a passive one.
- Although Bloom’s Taxonomy is met with several valid criticisms, it is still widely used in the educational setting today.

Take a moment and think back to your 7th-grade humanities classroom. Or really any classroom from preschool to college.

As you enter the room, you glance up at the whiteboard to see the class objectives. “Students will be able to…” is written in a red expo marker.

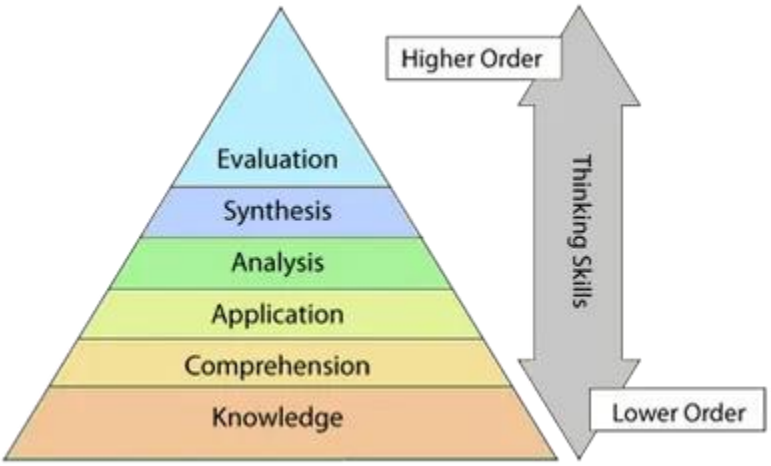
Or maybe something like “by the end of the class, you will be able to…”

These learning objectives we are exposed to every day are a product of Bloom’s Taxonomy.

What is Bloom's Taxonomy?

Bloom's Taxonomy is a system of hierarchical models (arranged in a rank, with some elements at the bottom and some at the top) used to categorize learning objectives into varying levels of complexity (Bloom, 1956).

You might have heard the word "taxonomy" in biology class before because it is most commonly used to denote the classification of living things from kingdom to species.
In the same way that this taxonomy classifies organisms, Bloom's Taxonomy classifies learning objectives for students, from recalling facts to producing new and original work.



Development of the Taxonomy:

Benjamin Bloom was an educational psychologist and the chair of the committee of educators at the University of Chicago.
In the mid-1950s, Bloom worked in collaboration with Max Englehart, Edward Furst, Walter Hill, and David Krathwohl to devise a system that classified levels of cognitive functioning and provided a sense of structure for the various mental processes we experience (Armstrong, 2010).
Through conducting a series of studies that focused on student achievement, the team was able to isolate certain factors both inside and outside the school environment that affect how children learn.
One such factor was the lack of variation in teaching. In other words, teachers were not meeting each individual student's needs and instead relied upon one universal curriculum.
To address this, Bloom and his colleagues postulated that if teachers were to provide individualized educational plans, students would learn significantly better.
This hypothesis inspired the development of Bloom's Mastery Learning procedure in which teachers would organize specific skills and concepts into week-long units.
The completion of each unit would be followed by an assessment through which the student would reflect upon what they learned. The assessment would identify areas in which the

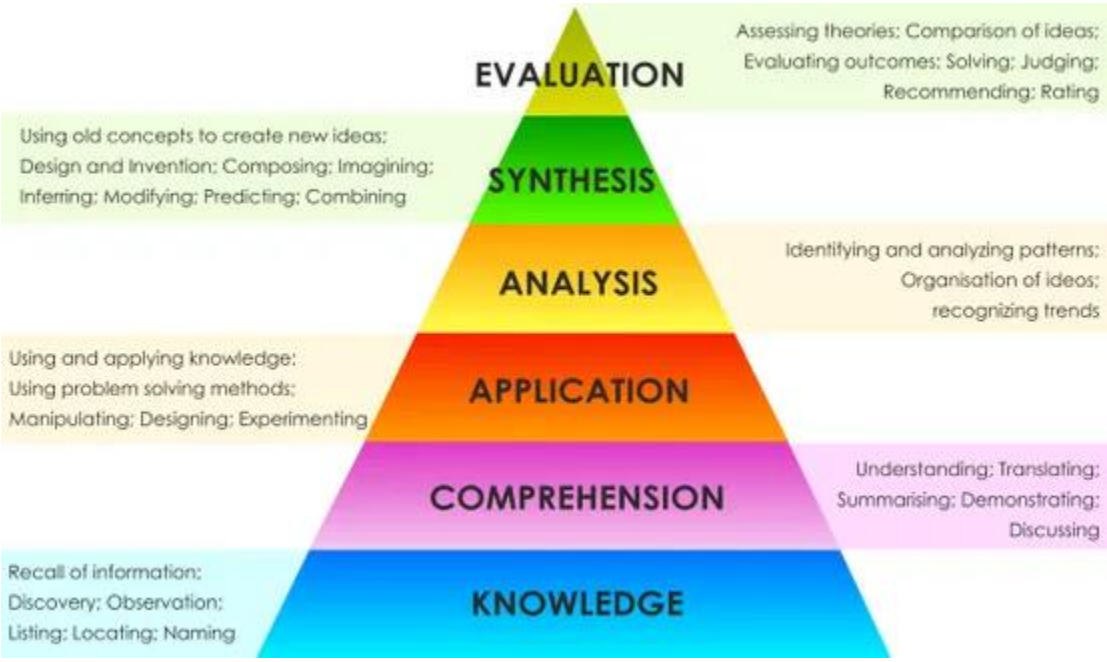
student needs additional support, and they would then be given corrective activities to further sharpen their mastery of the concept (Bloom, 1971).
This theory that students would be able to master subjects when teachers relied upon suitable learning conditions and clear learning objectives was guided by Bloom's Taxonomy.

The Original Taxonomy (1956)

Bloom's Taxonomy was originally published in 1956 in a paper titled *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (Bloom, 1956).
The taxonomy provides different levels of learning objectives, divided by complexity. Only after a student masters one level of learning goals, through formative assessments, corrective activities, and other enrichment exercises, can they move onto the next level (Guskey, 2005).

Cognitive Domain Concerned with thinking and intellect

The original version of the taxonomy, the cognitive domain, is the first and most common hierarchy of learning objectives (Bloom, 1956). It focuses on the acquisition and application of knowledge and is widely used in the educational setting.
This initial cognitive model relies on nouns, or more passive words, to illustrate the different educational benchmarks.



Because it is hierarchical, the higher levels of the pyramid are dependent on having achieved the skills of the lower levels.

The individual tiers of the cognitive model from bottom to top, with examples included, are as follows:

1. **Knowledge**: recalling information or knowledge is the foundation of the pyramid and a precondition for all future levels → Example: Name three common types of meat.
2. **Comprehension**: making sense out of information → Example: Summarize the defining characteristics of steak, pork, and chicken.
3. **Application**: using knowledge in a new but similar form → Example: Does eating meat help improve longevity?
4. **Analysis**: taking knowledge apart and exploring relationships → Example: Compare and contrast the different ways of serving meat and compare health benefits.
5. **Synthesis**: using information to create something new → Example: Convert an "unhealthy" recipe for meat into a "healthy" recipe by replacing certain ingredients. Argue for the health benefits of using the ingredients you chose as opposed to the original ones.
6. **Evaluation**: critically examining relevant and available information to make judgments → Example: Which kinds of meat are best for making a healthy meal and why?

Types of Knowledge

Although knowledge might be the most intuitive block of the cognitive model pyramid, this dimension is actually broken down into four different types of knowledge:

- Factual knowledge refers to knowledge of terminology and specific details.
- Conceptual knowledge describes knowledge of categories, principles, theories, and structures.
- Procedural knowledge encompasses all forms of knowledge related to specific skills, algorithms, techniques, and methods.
- Metacognitive knowledge defines knowledge related to thinking -- knowledge about cognitive tasks and self-knowledge (“Revised Bloom’s Taxonomy,” n.d.).

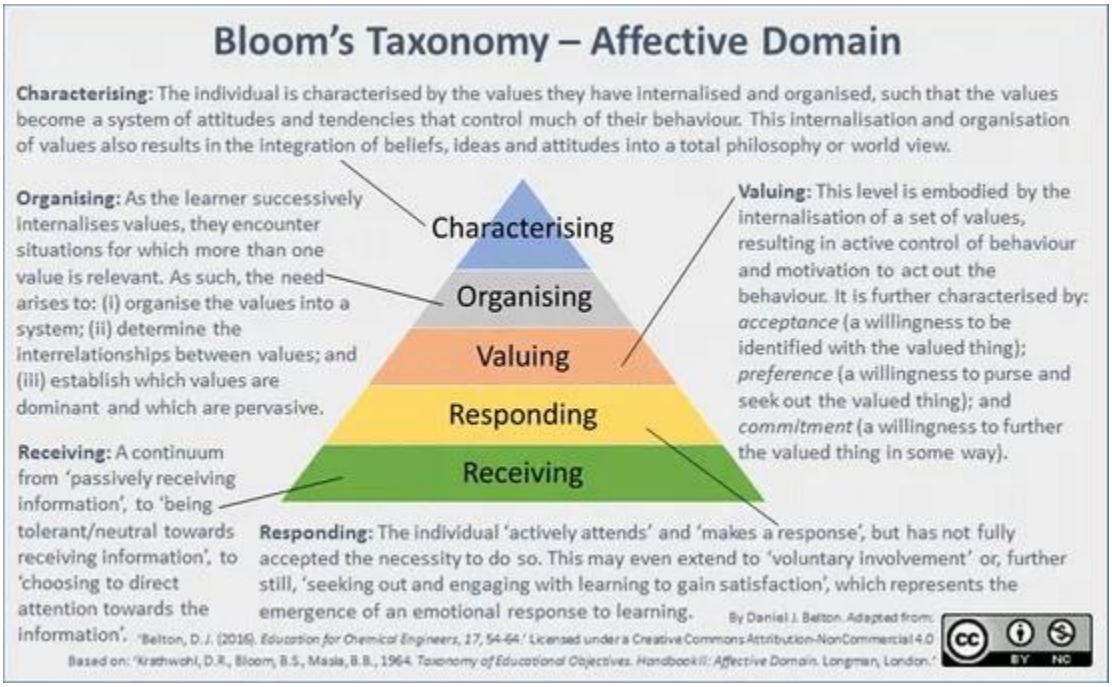
However, this is not to say that this order reflects how concrete or abstract these forms of knowledge are (e.g., procedural knowledge is not always more abstract than conceptual knowledge).

Nevertheless, it is important to outline these different forms of knowledge to show how it is more dynamic than one may think, and that there are multiple different types of knowledge that can be recalled before moving onto the comprehension phase.

And while the original 1956 taxonomy focused solely on a cognitive model of learning that can be applied in the classroom, an affective model of learning was published in 1964 and a psychomotor model in the 1970s.

The Affective Domain (1964) Concerned with feeling and emotion

The affective model came as a second handbook (with the first being the cognitive model) and an extension of Bloom's original work (Krathwol et al., 1964).

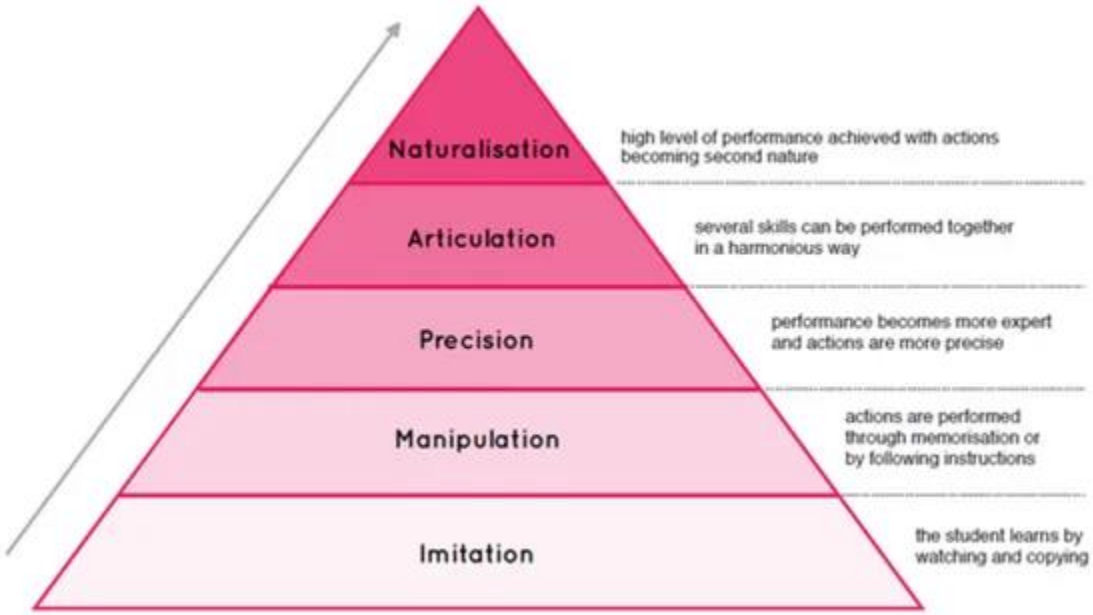


This domain focuses on the ways in which we handle all things related to emotions, such as feelings, values, appreciation, enthusiasms, motivations, and attitudes (Clark, 2015).
From lowest to highest, with examples included, the five levels are:

1. **Receiving**: basic awareness → Example: Listening and remembering the names of your classmates when you meet them on the first day of school.
2. **Responding**: active participation and reacting to stimuli, with a focus on responding → Example: Participating in a class discussion.
3. **Valuing**: the value that is associated with a particular object or piece of information, ranging from basic acceptance to complex commitment; values are somehow related to prior knowledge and experience → Example: Valuing diversity and being sensitive to other people's backgrounds and beliefs.
4. **Organizing**: sorting values into priorities and creating a unique value system with an emphasis on comparing and relating previously identified values → Example: Accepting professional ethical standards.
5. **Characterizing**: building abstract knowledge based on knowledge acquired from the four previous tiers; value system is now in full effect and controls the way you behave → Example: Displaying a professional commitment to ethical standards in the workplace.

The Psychomotor Domain (1972) Concerned with skilled behavior

The third and final domain of Bloom's Taxonomy is the psychomotor domain. The psychomotor model focuses on physical movement, coordination, and anything related to motor skills. Mastery of these specific skills is marked by speed, precision, and distance. These psychomotor skills range from simple tasks, such as washing a car, to more complex tasks, such as operating an intricate piece of technological equipment.
As with the cognitive domain, the psychomotor model does not come without its modifications. This model was first published by Robert Armstrong and colleagues in 1970 and included five levels: **1)** imitation; **2)** manipulation; **3)** precision; **4)** articulation; **5)** naturalization. These tiers represent different degrees of performing a skill from exposure to mastery.



Two years later, Anita Harrow (1972) proposed a revised version with six levels:

1. Reflex movement
2. Fundamental movements
3. Perceptual abilities
4. Physical abilities
5. Skill movement
6. Non-discursive communication

This model is concerned with the development of physical fitness, dexterity, agility, ad body control and focuses on varying degrees of coordination from reflexes to highly expressive movements.
That same year, Elizabeth Simpson (1972) created a taxonomy that progresses from observation to invention.

The seven tiers, along with examples, are listed below:

1. **Perception**: basic awareness → Example: Estimating where a ball will land after it's thrown and guiding your movements to be in a position to catch it.
2. **Set**: readiness to act; the mental, physical, and emotional mindsets that make you act the way you do → Example: Desire to learn how to throw a perfect strike, recognizing one's current inability to do so.
3. **Guided Response**: the beginning stage of mastering a physical skill. It requires trial and error → Example: Throwing a ball after observing a coach do so, while paying specific attention to the movements required.
4. **Mechanism**: the intermediate stage of mastering a skill. It involves converting learned responses into habitual reactions so that they can be performed with confidence and proficiency → Example: Successfully throwing a ball to the catcher.
5. **Complex Overt Response**: skillfully performing complex movements automatically and without hesitation → Example: Throwing a perfect strike to the catcher's glove.
6. **Adaptation**: skills are so developed that they can be modified depending on certain requirements → Example: Throwing a perfect strike to the catcher even if a batter is standing at the plate.
7. **Origination**: the ability to create new movements depending on the situation or problem. These movements are derived from an already developed skill set of physical movements → Example: Taking the skill set needed to throw the perfect fastball and learning how to throw a curveball.

The Revised Taxonomy (2001)

In 2001, the original cognitive model was modified by educational psychologists David Krathwol (with whom Bloom worked on the initial taxonomy) and Lorin Anderson (who was a previous student of Bloom's!) and published with the title *A Taxonomy for Teaching, Learning, and Assessment*.

This revised taxonomy emphasizes a more dynamic approach to education, as opposed to shoehorning educational objectives into fixed, unchanging spaces.
To reflect this active model of learning, the revised version utilizes verbs to describe the active process of learning and does away with the nouns used in the original version (Armstrong, 2001).
The figure below illustrates what words were changed as well as a slight adjustment to the hierarchy itself (evaluation and synthesis were swapped). Together, the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor models make up Bloom's Taxonomy.

How Bloom's can aid in course design

Thanks to Bloom's Taxonomy, teachers across the nation have a tool to guide the development of assignments, assessments, and overall curricula.
This model helps teachers identify the key learning objectives they want a student to achieve for each unit because it succinctly details the process of learning.
The taxonomy explains that 1) before you can understand a concept, you need to remember it; 2) to apply a concept, you need to first understand it; 3) to evaluate a process, you need to first analyze it; 4) to create something new, you need to have completed a thorough evaluation (Shabatura, 2013).
This hierarchy takes students through a process of synthesizing information that allows them to think critically. Students start with a piece of information and are motivated to ask questions and seek out answers.
Not only does Bloom's Taxonomy help teachers understand the process of learning, but it also provides more concrete guidance on how to create effective learning objectives.

Bloom's Level	Key Verbs (keywords)	Example Learning Objective
Create	design, formulate, build, invent, create, compose, generate, derive, modify, develop.	*By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to design an original homework problem dealing with the principle of conservation of energy.*
Evaluate	choose, support, relate, determine, defend, judge, grade, compare, contrast, argue, justify, support, convince, select, evaluate.	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to determine whether using conservation of energy or conservation of momentum would be more appropriate for solving a dynamics problem.
Analyze	classify, break down, categorize, analyze, diagram, illustrate, criticize, simplify, associate.	*By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to* differentiate between potential and kinetic energy.
Apply	calculate, predict, apply, solve, illustrate, use, demonstrate, determine, model, perform, present.	*By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to* calculate the kinetic energy of a projectile.

Bloom's Level	Key Verbs (keywords)	Example Learning Objective
Understand	describe, explain, paraphrase, restate, give original examples of, summarize, contrast, interpret, discuss.	*By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to* describe Newton's three laws of motion to in her/his own words
Remember	list, recite, outline, define, name, match, quote, recall, identify, label, recognize.	*By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to* recite Newton's three laws of motion.

The revised version reminds teachers that learning is an active process, stressing the importance of including measurable verbs in the objectives. And the clear structure of the taxonomy itself emphasizes the importance of keeping learning objectives clear and concise as opposed to vague and abstract (Shabatura, 2013).

Bloom's Taxonomy even applies at the broader course level. That is, in addition to being applied to specific classroom units, Bloom's Taxonomy can be applied to an entire course to determine what the learning goals of that course should be.

Specifically, lower-level introductory courses, that are typically geared towards freshmen, will target Bloom's lower order skills as students build foundational knowledge.

However, that is not to say that this is the only level that is incorporated, but you might only move a couple rungs up the ladder into the applying and analyzing stages.

On the other hand, upper-level classes don't place as much emphasis on remembering and understanding because students in these courses have already mastered this skill.

As a result, these courses focus instead on higher order learning objectives such as evaluating and creating (Shabatura, 2013). In this way, professors can reflect upon what type of course they are teaching and refer to Bloom's Taxonomy to determine what they want the overall learning objectives of the course to be.

Having these clear and organized objectives allows teachers to plan and deliver appropriate instruction, design valid tasks and assessments, and ensure that such instruction and assessment aligns with the outlined objectives (Armstrong, 2010).

Overall, Bloom's Taxonomy helps teachers teach and helps students learn!

Critical Evaluation

Bloom's Taxonomy accomplishes the seemingly daunting task of taking the important and complex topic of thinking and giving it a concrete structure.

The taxonomy continues to provide teachers and educators with a framework for guiding the way they set learning goals for students and how they design their curriculum.
And by having specific questions or general assignments that align with Bloom's principles, students are encouraged to engage in higher order thinking.
However, even though it is still used today, this taxonomy does not come without its flaws. As mentioned before, the initial 1956 taxonomy presented learning as a static concept. Although this was ultimately addressed by the 2001 revised version that included active verbs to emphasize the dynamic nature of learning, Bloom's updated structure is still met with multiple criticisms.
Many psychologists take issue with the pyramid nature of the taxonomy. The shape creates the false impression that these cognitive steps are discrete and must be performed independent of one another (Anderson & Krathwol, 2001).
However, the vast majority of tasks require several cognitive skills to work in tandem with each other. In other words, a task will not be only an analysis or only a comprehension task. Rather, they occur simultaneously as opposed to sequentially.
The structure also makes it seem like some of these skills are more difficult and more important than others. However, when people adopt this mindset, it causes less of an emphasis to be placed on knowledge and comprehension, which are as, if not more, important that the processes towards the top of the pyramid.
Additionally, author Doug Lemov (2017) argues that this contributes to a national trend that devalues the importance of knowledge. He goes even further to say that lower income students who have less exposure to sources of information suffer from a knowledge gap in schools.
A third problem with the taxonomy is that the sheer order of elements is inaccurate. When we learn, we don't always start with remembering and then move onto comprehension and through to creating something new. Instead, we mostly learn by applying and creating.
For example, you don't really know how to write an essay until you actually do it. And you might not know how to speak Spanish until you actually do it (Berger, 2020).
The act of doing is where the learning lies, as opposed to moving through a regimented, linear process. Despite these several valid criticisms of Bloom's Taxonomy, this model is still widely used today.

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Andragogy Theory – Malcolm Knowles

Last Updated July 11, 2020, By Dr. Serhat Kurt

Adult education, self-direction, and andragogy

Courses

Although the theory of Andragogy is a complex one, this article attempts to outline the main points of Malcolm Knowles. As educators are always looking for helpful ideas to implement in the classroom, some of his ideas and suggestions can be found below.
Similar to the term pedagogy, which addresses the method of teaching in children, andragogy examines the process by which adults learn. While Malcolm Knowles' theory initially focused on adults, the term andragogy has broadened to include any education practice with a student-driven approach.
Andragogy is a relatively new concept that was created less than 200 years ago. Many professionals, including educators and philosophers, have debated whether there is a difference between pedagogy and andragogy. The idea that adults require a unique approach to learning has existed for less than 100 years, which also leads to questions regarding the conclusions around its methods. There have been many critiques of the theory, including the individualistic approach. Focusing too much on the learner's experiences has called into the question the validity of the processes, and whether they exist at all.

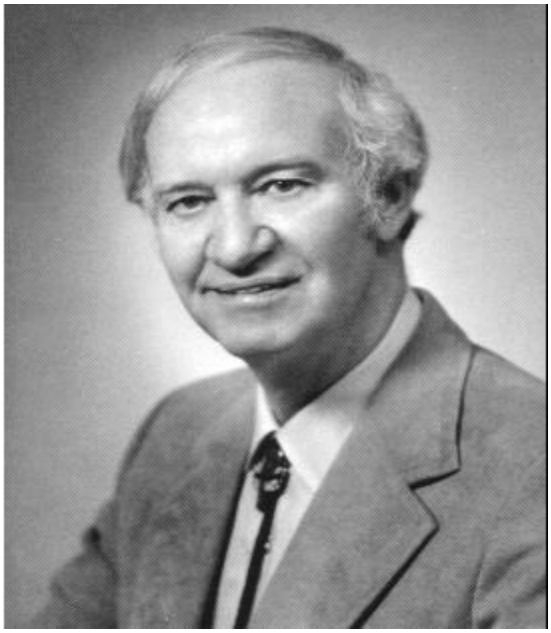
Background on the Concept and the Educator

Andragogy can be traced back to 1833, but little is known about the use of the concept at this time. Alexander Kapp, a German teacher, used the term andragogy to support his explanations of Plato's Theory of Education. The term disappeared somewhat from mainstream scientific terminology and did not surface again until almost 100 years later. Eduard Lindeman and Eugen Rosenstock-Huessy, educators from the United States, revived the term when they used it in reference to adult education. They used the concept of andragogy to describe their philosophy and teaching methods specific to adults.
However, it is Malcolm Knowles (1913-1997) who is credited for the popularity of the term andragogy as we know it. An educator in the central 20th century, he focused on the science behind adult education in the United States.

The Four Principles of Andragogy

Right around the time Knowles penned the fifth pillar of his adult learning theory, he also introduced four pillars that we can apply to adult learning:

1. Adults want to participate in both the planning and evaluation attached to their instruction.
2. Experiences, both good and bad, serve as the backdrop for all learning activities.
3. Adults first gravitate towards learning things that are directly relevant to their job or personal life.
4. Adult learning centers on problems, not subjects.
5.



Malcolm Shepherd Knowles (August 24, 1913 – November 27, 1997)

These Four Principals are best summed up using the acronym REAL:

1. **R:** All training must be **Relevant** to meeting the adult learner's declared need.
2. **E:** The students should be **Engaged** in their learning process.
3. **A:** All instruction should **Active** and as close to the actual activity that they are training to master.
4. **L:** Class instruction should be **Learner Center** and not be about what or how the instructor feels is best for their presentation style. Emphasis is placed on the student learning and not the instructor teaching.

In 1935, Knowles began to work under Lindeman, who had recently revitalized the idea of andragogy. Knowles further explored the term throughout his lifetime; delving into processes

and methods as he led programs for the YMCA, became executive director of the Adult Education Association, and worked for 20 years as a university faculty member. As he aged, Knowles focused increasingly on informal adult education, seeking a more comprehensive and thorough approach to adult learning. Knowles recognized the distinction between formal and informal educational settings and the benefits of learning in each. He felt that formal settings, which included educational programs and institutions, were best for learning new, intensive material. Informal settings, including community centers, workplaces, and houses of worship were best for the application of practical skills and development of interests.

Knowles' Assumptions about Adult Learners

As a teacher, it is expected that you make specific assumptions about adult learners. Knowles' Theory of Andragogy outlines the five assumptions below:

1. **Self-concept**: Adults move from being dependent on others to self-direction as they mature.
2. **Experience**: Adults gain experience as they grow that, in turn, becomes a valuable tool in learning.
3. **Readiness to learn**: The priorities of adults shift as they begin to increasingly value and are therefore more ready to learn about his or her role in society.
4. **Orientation to learning**: Adults change their perspectives on learning as they grow, moving from procrastination to immediate application and from subject interest to problem-solving.
5. **Motivation to learn**: Adults move from extrinsic towards intrinsic motivation as they grow and mature.

Educators are inherently responsible for putting these assumptions into practice in the classroom. Knowles had 6 suggestions on how to do so:

Promote a positive classroom climate centered around cooperative learning.

Research the interests and the needs of each adult learner.

1. Create learning goals based on the interests and needs outlined above.
2. Build on each subsequent activity to achieve the learning objectives.
3. Co-create strategies, resources, and methods for instruction.
4. Review each activity and make modifications where necessary, while continually evaluating the next steps for learning.
5. Adult learners retain information best when it is relevant and useful. Therefore, it is imperative for teachers to explain the reason for learning a specific skill. As they possess a mature mindset, adults are often better at creating solutions to real-life issues as opposed to simply memorizing information. Problem-solving, immediate application, and performance-based tasks are all pillars of effective instruction.

Desired Outcomes of Adult Learning

Our education system aims to create productive, contributing members of society. Knowles recognized that critical skills and abilities were ultimately formed in various educational settings, which, in turn, allowed for everyone to get along. These adults, also called “citizen-rulers,” are necessary for a democracy. Knowles had seven desired outcomes:

Self-knowledge. Knowing their “needs, motivations, interests, capacities, and goals” allows adults to better understand themselves, which leads to personal growth, self-knowledge, and self-respect.
Global citizenship. Ideally, adults should learn to differentiate between people and ideas and learn to respect others while allowing for mutual disagreement. Ultimately, the goal is to promote acceptance, show empathy, and help others in need.
Positive attitude. Being open and accepting changes develops resilience in adults, which allows them to see each moment as a learning opportunity.
Seeking truth. Often people react to the outcome, or symptom, of a situation. Mature adults seek to understand the root of the behavior and, therefore, find a solution that addresses the cause of the behavior.
Personality. Everyone has strengths and weaknesses, and adults should capitalize on their strengths by learning skills that support their role. Education can offer many avenues that support each individual to their fullest potential in society.
Essential values. Adults should not only respect the common values of the society in which they live but understand that they are binding. Shared ideas and traditions are a key component of “the heritage of knowledge” and are collectively valued by each community.
Social order. Not only is it important to understand the rules and values of the society in which we live, but adults must also contribute as productive citizens. Demonstrating intelligence and being able to mobilize social change show that you are an effective contributor to that society.

Self-Directed Learning

In the case of “self-directed learning,” adults are active participants in their own learning journey. Knowles defines “self-directed learning” as taking the initiative to assess one’s own needs, create goals, and seek out appropriate strategies on their own. This is unlike a “typical” classroom, where students engage much more passively with the instructor. In a “normal” classroom, students take notes while the educator delivers a lecture or explains the material in some way. Usually, the teacher is at the front while the learners try and absorb the content, literally hoping their brains soak up the information. In a “normal” classroom, the teacher would also choose the learning goals, success criteria, and evaluate the learning outcomes without student input.

Key Factors Found in Successful Adult Learning Programs

- A safe environment that supports individual needs while honoring the uniqueness of each person. This means that every skill level is respected, and the educator also acknowledges the life achievements of each individual.
- An environment that promotes creativity and experimentation while encouraging intellectual freedom.
- An environment in which each adult is honored, appreciated, and respected as an intelligent being. Educators listen to each student as they would their peers, which shows appreciation for their life experience and allows mutual learning to happen.
- An environment that promotes self-directed learning, as outline above. Educators co-create lessons with their students based on each individual's needs in order to help them reach their fullest potential for success in their field.
- An environment that challenges adults at their intellectual ability level. Finding the optimum pace at which each individual learns is crucial to success in the classroom. If they find it too easy, they will be bored, but if they find it too hard, they will give up.
- An environment that promotes active participation in learning. Synchronous activities, where the educator and the students interact equally in tasks and exercises, promote more growth than asynchronous tasks, such as when the instructor delivers a lecture.
- An environment that implements feedback from students. Educators who take the time to listen to feedback from their students and implement the changes create a classroom in which students are willing to learn.
- If these key factors are not implemented, adults tend not to thrive in the learning programs. Self-respect, confidence, and self-concept suffer if the students do not feel welcomed, accepted, or safe. In studies comparing adults in student-centered programs and faculty-centered programs, more personal growth is observed in programs revolving around students.

Conclusion

Ultimately, Knowles sought to understand the uniqueness of adult learners. Whether you examine his educational assumptions or his desired outcomes, you can see how they would be put into practice in the classroom. As you reflect on his theory, consider some of the questions asked and how you would implement his ideas yourself.

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T-Bar Lesson Plan Template

	Course: **Topic:**
Instructor Information	**Instructor:** **Originated by:** **Date Created:** **Revision Date:** **Revision Date:**
Instructional Time	
Goal	
Performance Objectives	
Equipment	

References	
Instructional Methods	
Instruction	
Understanding	
Closure	

T-Bar Lesson Plan Example

P O S T	**Course: Instructor Development** **Topic: Objectives, Concerns and Expectations**
In-Service Training Program	**Instructor:** **Lesson Plan** **Originated by: Ken Knoelk** **Date Prepared: 2007** **Revision Date: 12/16/2020 by Patricia B. Irving** **Revision Date:**
Instructional Time:	**This block of instruction will take approximately 45 minutes.**
Goal:	The goal of this block of instruction is to inform students of the objectives of the course, as well as give them the opportunity to voice their concerns and expectations regarding the course.
Performance Objectives:	**At the end of this block of instruction the student instructor will be able to:** **1. Articulate the objectives of the Instructor Development course, as explained by the instructors.** **2. Correctly identify a strategy for providing their students an opportunity to express their concerns and expectations.**

	3. Identify the listed benefits, as stated by the instructors, of hearing the concerns and objectives of participants in a course.
Equipment:	This block of instruction will require one 3x5 unlined index card per student, an easel chart, a thick marker, a computer with PowerPoint, a PowerPoint slide listing the course objectives for Instructor Development, the Concerns and Expectations handout from the Instructor Development manual, the list of Instructor Development course objectives from the Instructor Development manual and the prepared classroom space.
Input:	This class will be taught using facilitative discussion, brief PowerPoint presentation, class participation and student independent reading.
Instruction: PPT 1 – Objectives Title Slide PPT 2 – Objectives 1-4 PPT 3 – Objectives 5-8	**I. Objectives** a. For this section, we would like to discussion your concerns and expectations for this course, as well as go over the course objectives with you. b. Let's review the objectives together. i. Correctly explain what POST expects of an Idaho Instructor Development instructor as explained by POST for Certification Purposes. ii. Properly define Instructor Centered Instruction and Student-Centered Instruction and their proper application in the classroom. iii. Properly describe the impact that Bloom's Taxonomy and the Knowle's Hierarchy has on student thinking and learning. iv. Correctly demonstrate the application of Bloom's Taxonomy and Knowle's Hierarchy as they apply to the individual student's disciplines of instruction. v. Successfully demonstrate the creation and use of a learner-centered classroom environment to promote critical thinking, decision making, and problem-solving skills. vi. Properly demonstrate nonverbal teaching tools and their proper application.

PPT 4 – Objectives 9-13 Use minute fingers and MITS Write class responses easel chart.	vii. Effectively demonstrate student involvement activities as an instructional tool in a classroom setting. viii. Correctly design proper instructional goals, learning objectives, and test questions intended to encourage students to use higher order thinking skills. ix. Correctly demonstrate and explain why surfacing student's thinking and paraphrasing is critical to effective teaching. x. Correctly describe the learning styles and generational characteristics that impact learning in the classroom. xi. Properly explain the use and application of a safe and effective scenario-based training activity. xii. Properly deliver a 20-minute presentation to teach the application, analysis, synthesis or evaluation levels of Bloom's Taxonomy and Knowle's Hierarchy of Learning using all the applicable tools demonstrated during the course of learning. xiii. Student will be able to properly describe the liability considerations associated with instruction, as well as correctly identify instructor responsibilities to minimize liability. **II. Concerns and Expectations** a. Read the sections in your manual titled "Expectations and Concerns" and "What – Why – How". b. Now, let's identify your own concerns and expectations. At your tables, share your concerns and expectations with your peers. Take note of the concerns and expectations that you have in common. You will have 10 minutes to complete this activity. **III. Class Discussion – Concerns and Expectations** a. Let's go over your concerns and expectations as a class. b. I will write each of your concerns and expectations on this easel chart. We won't specifically address them at this time, but we will hang them on the wall and return to them at the end of the week to make sure that they have all been met or addressed throughout the week. c. Which table would like to volunteer first? **IV. Activity De-Brief**

Group discussion If the class does not identify these points themselves, contribute these points to the discussion. Concerns and Expectations easel pages will remain posted in classroom as visual aid. Refer to the two charts as you discuss them. Yellow Light	a. The activity we have just done is called "Concerns and Expectations." Why do you think that this activity could be important to do at the beginning of a course? i. This activity acknowledges one of the main characteristics of adult learners – they have experience. They have attended many trainings and courses, and they have practical knowledge of their job responsibilities and other topics. This history of experience creates certain concerns and expectations for the courses they attend. ii. Courses for adults should be learner centered. Acknowledging their concerns and expectations, and giving them the freedom to voice them, is a practice in being learner-centered, rather than instructor-centered. You will learn more about this topic later in the week. iii. This information can give you valuable insight into your class, and what each specific group needs and expects in order to have a productive and effective learning environment. b. Why do you think it is important to review the concerns and expectations at the end of the course? i. This discussion will help ensure that you have met the needs of your class, and that they have taken from the course what they require. It is another way to evaluate the efficacy of your course. You will learn more about evaluation techniques later in the week, as well. c. We also introduced the 3-2-1 activity. This is a valuable activity that can help students identify the most important points in a discussion or reading. It is also useful for helping students generate questions for discussion.
Understanding:	Check for understanding will be accomplished in the de-brief discussion.
Closure:	Thank you for participating.
Bibliography:	POST Instructor Development Student Manual 2021

Performance Objective Verbs

Cognitive

Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Analysis	Synthesis	Evaluation
Define List Memorize Name Recall Record Relate Repeat	Describe Discuss Explain Express Identify Locate Recognize Report Restate Review Tell	Apply Demonstrate Dramatize Employ Illustrate Interpret Operate Practice Schedule Sketch Translate Use	Analyze Appraise Calculate Compare Contrast Criticize Debate Diagram Differentiate Distinguish Examine Experiment Inspect Inventory Question Relate Solve Test	Arrange Assemble Collect Compose Construct Create Design Formulate Manage Organize Plan Prepare Propose Set Up	Appraise Assess Choose Compare Estimate Evaluate Inspect Judge Rate Revise Score Select Value

Psychomotor

Advance Anchor Assort Build Carry Climb Converse Convert Demonstrate Enlarge	Enter Equip Execute Fabricate Fill Finish Fix Furnish Gather Generate	Grind Heave Inscribe Intersect Juggle Make Manipulate Observe Operate Perform	Practice Proceed Rebuild Recast Remodel Straighten Transfer Transpose Work

Affective

Accept	Concern	Enlist	Induce
Admit	Concur	Enrich	Invigorate
Advocate	Confer	Excel	Kindle
Allow	Congratulate	Exhibit	Motivate
Appreciate	Convince	Express	Oblige
Aspire	Correspond	Flatter	Perceive
Assist	Dedicate	Fulfill	Ratify
Attain	Deserve	Impart	Reinforce
Belong	Engage	Impel	Stimulate
Commend	Enhance	Imply	Urge
Compliment	Enlighten	Incite	Value

Criteria Terminology

Properly Correctly Successfully	Completely Effectively Accurately	To the satisfaction of the instructor 75%, 80%, 100%, etc…

Verbs to Avoid

Acknowledge Appreciate Be aware of Be conscious of	Believe Comprehend Grasp Internalize	Realize Sense Understand Value

20 MINUTE LESSON PLAN & PRESENTATION CHECKLIST

Presenter: _____ Peer Coach: _____

Table Instructor/Coach: _____ Lesson Title: _____

PEER COACH REVIEW	TABLE COACH 1st check	TABLE COACH 2nd check	
			T-Bar format organized into sections with appropriate headings
			Lesson plan is written in complete sentences, can be read like a book and easily understood
			Minimum of **3 Performance Objectives**
			Must include at least one example of cognitive learning and one example of psychomotor learning
			Each objective must be noted in left-hand column in the appropriate location to indicate where it is being taught
			Written Test
			Include one blank test and one answer key
			Must have at least **3 questions**
			Must include one of each: multiple choice, fill in the blank, & true or false
			Each test question number must be noted in the left-hand column in the appropriate location to indicate where the associated information is being presented
			Minimum **3 different types of visual aids** (handouts, ppt, flip chart, props, etc.)
			All visual aids must be noted in the left-hand column to indicate where they are being used or referenced.
			Maximum length of video and/or audio clips = 3 minutes
			Maximum PPT slides allowed = 5 (including title slide)
			All visual aids must be legal, ethical, moral, and relevant to the topic
			Attach a copy of each handout, copy of slides, pictures, etc. to final lesson plan
			Lecture time (instruction without student activity or engagement) must be **less than 5 minutes**

Lesson plan is approved by Master/Lead Instructor.

- ✓ Make 3 copies: one for peer coach, table coach, and you. Include the test, answer sheet and a copy of all visual aids referenced in the lesson plan. The table coach will provide their copy to the Master/Lead instructor for final sign off.
- ✓ If applicable, create enough handouts for everyone in your table group.

Lesson Plan

Pass Fail

Table Coach	
	Delivered appropriate introduction of self, topic, and purpose of lesson
	Organized lesson logically and sequentially
	Involved students and facilitated
	Showed initiative and interest in teaching
	Communicated effectively with students
	Demonstrated control techniques for classroom behavior
	Provided proper closure of lesson; main points
	Assessed student comprehension

☐ Presentation is approved by Table Coach.

Presentation

_____Pass _____Fail

Notes:_____

_____

_____

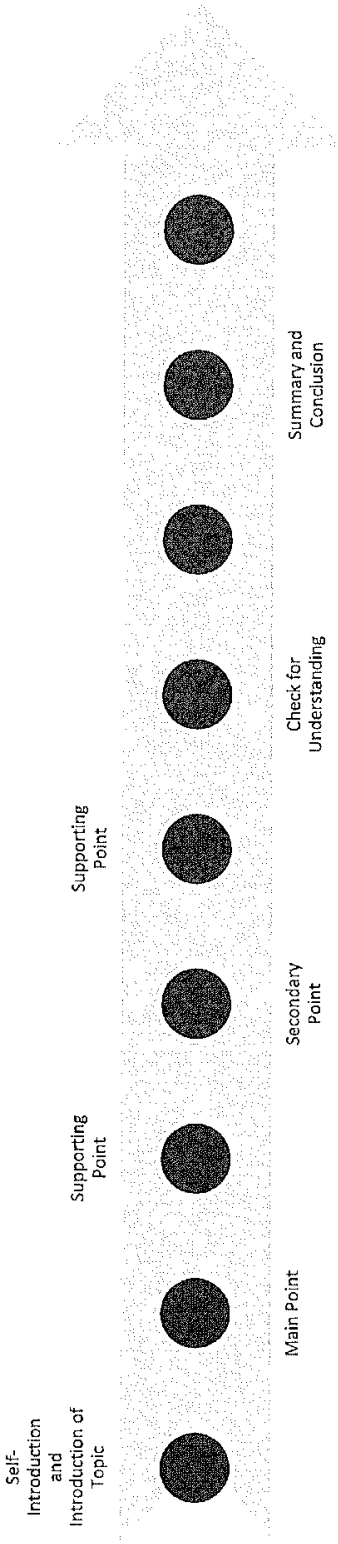
_____

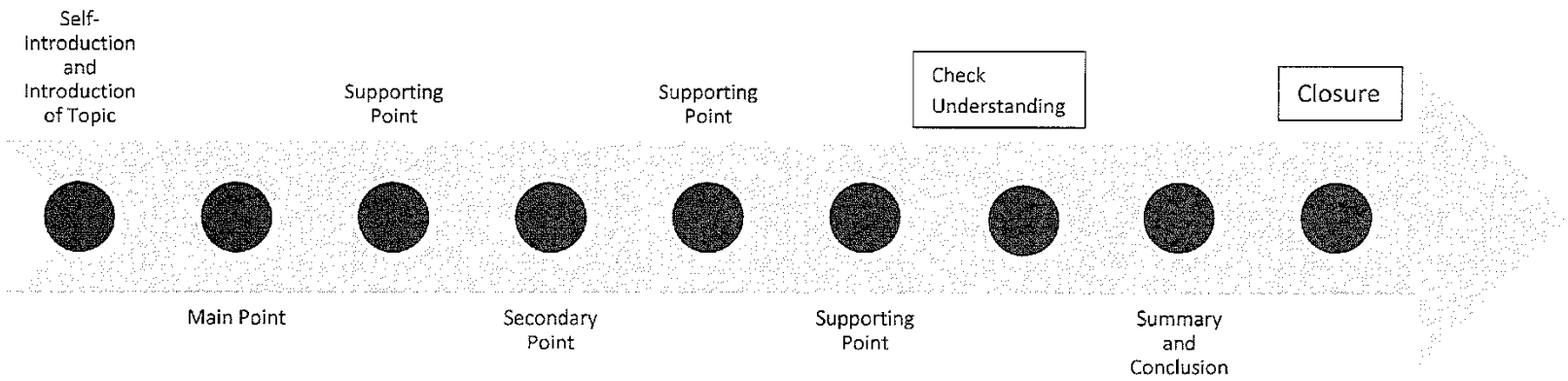
_____

_____

_____

One Way – Two Way Communication





1 sec. 30 sec. 60 sec. 90 sec. 120 sec.

Topic: _____

Goal: _____

Objective(s): _____

_____

_____