The Systematic Design of Instruction

Walter Dick, Florida State University Lou Carey, University of South Florida James O. Carey, University of South Florida

Contents

Preface xvii

To the Instructor xxi

Chapter 1 Introduction to Instructional Design 2

The Dick and Carey Systems Approach Model for Designing Instruction 2

Components of the Systems Approach Model 6

Assess Needs to Identify Goal(s) 6

Conduct Instructional Analysis 6

Analyze Learners and Contexts 7

Write Performance Objectives 7

Develop Assessment Instruments 7

Develop Instructional Strategy 7

Develop and Select Instructional Materials 7

Design and Conduct the Formative Evaluation of Instruction 8

Revise Instruction 8

Design and Conduct Summative Evaluation 8

Using the Systems Approach Model 9

What Are the Basic Components of Systematically Designed Instruction? 9
For Which Instructional Delivery System Is the Systems Approach Appropriate? 10
Does the Use of the Systems Approach Imply that All Instruction Will Be
Individualized 10

Why Use the Systems Approach? 11

Who Should Use the Systems Approach? 12

References and Recommended Readings 13

Chapter 2 Assessing Needs to Identify Instructional Goal(s) 16

Objectives 16

Background 17

Concepts 19

Performance Analysis 19 Clarifying Instructional Goals 22 Learners, Context, and Tools 22 Criteria for Establishing Instructional Goals 23

Examples 25

Leading Group Discussions 25
Needs Assessment 25
Clarifying the Instructional Goal 25
Criteria for Establishing Instructional Goals 26
Providing Customer Service 27

Summary 30

Practice 31

Feedback 32

References and Recommended Readings 34

Chapter 3 Conducting a Goal Analysis 36

Objectives 36

Background 37

Concepts 38

Verbal Information 39
Intellectual Skills 39
Psychomotor Skills 40
Attitudes 40
Goal Analysis Procedures 42
Analysis of Substeps 45
More suggestions for Identifying Steps within a Goal 46

Examples 47

Intellectual Skills Goals 48
Psychomotor Skills Goals 49
Attitudinal Goals 49
Verbal Information Goals 51
Typical First Approach to Goal Analysis 51

Summary 53

Practice 53

Feedback 54

References and Recommended Readings 56

Chapter 4 Identifying Subordinate Skills and Entry Behaviors 58

Objectives 58

Background 59

Concepts 60

Hierarchical Approach 60 Cluster Analysis 65

Subordinate Skills Analysis Techniques for Attitude Goals 66

Combining Instructional Analysis Techniques 67

Instructional Analysis Diagrams 68

Entry Behaviors 70

The Tentativeness of Entry Behaviors 73

Examples 74

Hierarchical Analysis of an Intellectual Skill 74

Topic 74

Instructional Goal 74

Cluster Analysis for Verbal Information Subordinate Skills 76

Topic 76

Subordinate Skills 76

Subordinate Skills Analysis of an Additional Goal That Requires Both Intellectual

Skills and Verbal Information 79

Topic 79

Instructional Goal 79

Analysis of a Psychomotor Skill 79

Topic 79

Instructional Goal 79

Subordinate Skills Analysis for an Attitudinal Goal 82

Topic 83

Instructional Goal 83

Identification of Entry Behaviors 84

Summary 86

Practice 87

Feedback 90

References and Recommended Readings 91

Chapter 5 Analyzing Learners and Contexts 94

Objectives 94

Background 95

Concepts 96

Learner Analysis 96

Entry Behaviors 97

Prior Knowledge of Topic Area 97

Attitudes Toward Content and Potential Delivery System 97

Academic Motivation (AR CS) 97

Educational and Ability Levels 98

General Learning Preferences 98

Attitudes Toward Training Organization 98

Group Characteristics 98

Collecting Data for Learner Analysis 99

Output 99

Context Analysis of Performance Setting 99

Managerial or Supervisor Support 99

Physical Aspects of the Site 99

Social Aspects of the Site 100

Relevance of Skills to Workplace 100

Collecting Data for Context Analysis in the Performance Setting 100 Output 100

Context Analysis of Learning Environment 100

Compatibility of Site with Instructional Requirements 101

Adaptability of Site to Simulate Workplace 101

Adaptability for Delivery Approaches 101

Learning-Site Constraints Affecting Design and Delivery 101

Collecting Data for Context Analysis in the Learning Environment 102 Output 102

Public School Contexts 102

Evaluation and Revision of the Instructional Analysis 103

Examples 104

Learner Analysis 104
Performance Context Analysis 106
Learning Context Analysis 108

Summary 111

Practice 113

Feedback 115

References and Recommended Readings 119

Chapter 6 Writing Performance Objectives 120

Objectives 120

Background 121

Concepts 123

Performance Objective 123
Components of an Objective 124
Derivation of Behaviors 125
Derivation of Conditions 126
Derivation of Criteria 128
Process for Writing Objectives 129
Evaluation of Objectives 130
The Function of Objectives 131

Examples 132

Verbal Information and Intellectual Skills 132
Verbal Information 134
Intellectual Skills 134
Psychomotor Skills 136

Summary 138

Practice 139

Feedback 142

References and Recommended Readings 142

Chapter 7 Developing Assessment Instruments 144

Objectives 144

Background 145

Concepts 146

Four Types of Criterion-Referenced Tests and Their Uses 146 Entry Behaviors Test 147 Pretest 147 Practice Tests 148 Posttests 148 Designing a Test 149 Determining Mastery Levels 150 Writing Test Items 151 Goal-Centered Criteria 151 Learner-Centered Criteria 152 Context-Centered Criteria 153 Assessment-Centered Criteria 153 Setting Mastery Criteria 153 Types of Items 154 Sequencing Items 155 Writing Directions 156 Evaluating Tests and Test Items 156 Developing Instruments to Measure Performances, Products, and Attitudes 157 Writing Directions 158 Developing the Instrument 158 Identify, Paraphrase, and Sequence Elements 158 Developing the Response Format 159 Checklist 159 Rating Scale 160 Frequency Count 161 Scoring Procedure 161 Using Portfolio Assessments 162 Evaluating Congruence in the Design Process 163

Examples 165

Test Items for Verbal Information and Intellectual Skills 165 A Checklist for Evaluating Motor Skills 168 Instrument for Evaluating Behaviors Related to Attitudes 170 Materials for Evaluating the Design 171

Summary 173

Practice 174

Feedback 178

References and Recommended Readings 180

Chapter 8 Developing an Instructional Strategy 182

Objectives 182

Background 183

Concepts 184

Selection of Delivery System 185

Instructional Strategies 186

Content Sequence and Clustering 187

Content Sequence 187

Clustering Instruction 188

Learning Components of Instructional Strategies 189

Preinstructional Activities 190

Motivating Learners 190

Informing the Learner of the Objectives 192

Informing the Learner of the Prerequisite Skills 192

Content Presentation and Examples 193

Learner Participation 193

Assessment 194

Follow-Through Activities 195

Memory Skills 195

Transfer of Learning 195

Detailed Outline of Learning Components 196

Learning Components for Learners of Different Maturity and Ability Levels 197

Learning Components for Various Learning Outcomes 198

Intellectual Skills 198

Verbal Information 201

Motor Skills 202

Attitudes 203

Student Groupings 205

Selection of Media and Delivery systems 205

Media selection for Domains of Learning 206

Media Selection for Certain Task Requirements Found in Objectives 207

Practical Considerations in Choosing Media and Delivery systems 207

Alternative Views About Developing an Instructional Strategy 209

Developing an Instructional strategy 209

Evaluating an Instructional strategy 212

Examples 214

Sequence and Cluster Objectives 214

Plan Preinstructional, Assessment, and Follow-Through Activities 215

Plan Content Presentation and Student Participation 216

Allocate Activities to Sessions 221

Summary 224

Practice 225

Feedback 226

References and Recommended Readings 238

Chapter 9 Developing Instructional Materials 240

Objectives 240

Background 241

Concepts 242

The Delivery System and Media Selections 242

Availability of Existing Instructional Materials 242

Production and Implementation Constraints 243

Amount of Instructor Facilitation 243

Components of an Instructional Package 245

Instructional Materials 245

Assessments 245

Course Management Information 245

Selecting Existing Instructional Materials 246

Goal-Centered Criteria for Evaluating Materials 246

Learner-Centered Criteria for Evaluating Materials 246

Context-Centered Criteria for Evaluating Materials 246

Learning-Centered Criteria for Evaluating Materials 247

The Designer's Role in Material Development and Instructional Delivery 247 When the Designer Is Also the Materials Developer and the Instructor 247

When the Designer Is Not the Instructor 250

Developing Instructional Materials for Formative Evaluation 251

Rough Draft Materials 251

Rapid Prototyping 252

Materials Development Tools and Resources 253

Beginning the Development Process 254

Steps in the Development of Instruction 254

Examples 255

Preinstructional Activities 257

Mediation of Preinstructional Activities 257

Motivation Materials and Session Objectives 257

Pretest 258

Mediation of Pretest 259

Content Presentation 260

Mediation of Instruction 260

Instruction 260

Learner Participation 260

Mediation of Learner Participation and Feedback 260

Learner Participation Script 265

Feedback 265

Summary 269

Practice 270

Feedback 271

References and Recommended Readings 281

Chapter 10 Designing and Conducting Formative Evaluations 282

Objectives 282

Background 283

Concepts 284

Role of Subject-Matter, Learning, and Learner Specialists in Formative Evaluation 285 One-to-One Evaluation with Learners 286

Criteria 286

Selecting Learners 286

Data Collection 287

Procedures 288

Assessments and Questionnaires 289

Learning Time 290

Data Interpretation 291

Outcomes 291

Small-Group Evaluation 291

Criteria and Data 291

Selecting Learners 292

Procedures 292

Assessments and Questionnaires 293

Data Summary and Analysis 293

Outcomes 293

Field Trial 294

Location of Evaluation 294

Criteria and Data 294

Selecting Learners 294

Procedure for Conducting Field Trial 295

Data Summary and Interpretation 295

Outcomes 295

Formative Evaluation in the Performance Context 295

Criteria and Data 296

Selecting Respondents 297

Procedure 297

Outcomes 297

Collecting Data on Reactions to Instruction 297

Formative Evaluation of Selected Materials 300

Formative Evaluation of Instructor-Led Instruction 301

Data Collection for Selected Materials and Instructor-Led Instruction 302

Concerns Influencing Formative Evaluation 302

Context Concerns 302

Concerns about Learners 303

Concerns about Formative Evaluation Outcomes 304

Concerns with Implementing Formative Evaluation 304 Problem Solving During Instructional Design 305

Examples 305

Formative Evaluation Activities 305 One-to-One Evaluation 305 Small-Group Evaluation 307 Field Trial 309

Formative Evaluation of Selected Materials and Instructor-Led Instruction 309 Instruments for Assessing Learners' Attitudes about Instruction 310

Summary 312

Practice 314

Feedback 315

References and Recommended Readings 321

Chapter 11 Revising Instructional Materials 322

Objectives 322

Background 323

Concepts 324

Analyzing Data from One-to-One Trials 324
Analyzing Data from Small-Group and Field Trials 325
Group's Item-by-Objective Performance 326
Learners' Item-by-Objective Performance 327
Learners' Performance Across Tests 327
Graphing Learners' Performances 329
Other Types of Data 330
Sequence for Examining Data 330
Entry Behaviors 330
Pretests and Posttests 330
Instructional Strategy 331
Learning Time 331
Instructional Procedures 331
Revision Process 332
Revising Selected Materials and Instructor-Led Instruction 332

Examples 333

Summarizing Item-by-Objective Data Across Tests 334 Summarizing and Analyzing Data Across Tests 336 Summarizing Attitudinal Data 337 Determining How to Revise Instruction 340

Summary 342

Practice 343

Feedback 344

References and Recommended Readings 346

Chapter 12 Designing and Conducting Summative Evaluations 348

Objectives 348

Background 349

Concepts 350

Expert Judgment Phase of Summative Evaluation 352

Congruence Analysis 352
Organization's Needs 352
Resources 353
Content Analysis 353
Design Analysis 354
Utility and Feasibility Analysis 354
Current User Analysis 354

Field-Trial Phase of Summative Evaluation 356

Outcomes Analysis 356
Planning 356
Preparing 358
Implementing/Collecting Data 358
Summarizing and Analyzing Data 359
Reporting Results 359

Comparison of Formative and Summative Evaluation 359

Examples 361

Data Summary Form for the Congruence Analysis 361
Checklist for Content Analysis:
Evaluating the Completeness and Accuracy of Materials 361
Checklists for Design Analysis:
Evaluating the Learning and Instructional Strategies in Materials 362
Motivation 364
Types of Learning 365
Instructional Strategies 367
Form for Utility and Feasibility Analysis: Expert Judgment 368
Form for Current Users' Analysis 368

Summary 369

Practice 371

Feedback 371

References and Recommended Readings 372

Glossary of Terms 373

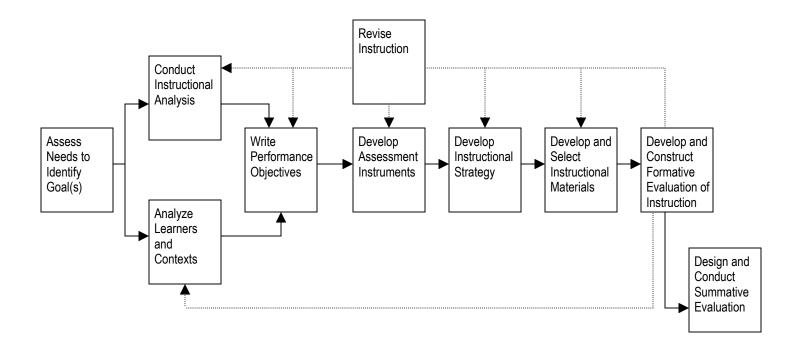
Appendixes 377

- A Description of Problem (Need), Purpose of Instruction, Target Group, and Delivery System 378
- B Goal Analysis of the Instructional Goal on Story Writing 380
- C Hierarchical Analysis of Declarative Sentence Portion of Story-Writing Goal with Entry Behavior Lines 381
- D Design Evaluation Chart Containing Sub skills, Performance Objectives, and Parallel Test Items 382
- E Instructional Strategy for Objective Sequence and Clusters, Preinstructional Activities, and Assessment Activities 385
- F Instructional Strategy for the Content Presentation and Student Participation Components and the Lesson Time Allocation Based on the Strategy 387
- G Session 1: Motivational Materials, Unit Objectives, and Assessment of Entry Behaviors 390
- **H** Session 2: Pretest Story and Rubric to Evaluate Stories 392
- I Session 3: Pretest and Instruction in Subordinate Skills 5.6 through 5.11 394
- J Group's and Individuals' Achievement of Objectives and Attitudes About Instruction 398
- **K Materials Revision Analysis Form 406**

Index 409

Chapter 1

Introduction to instructional design



The Dick and the Carey Systems Approach Model for Designing Instruction

The instructional process, or *teaching*, has traditionally involved instructors, learners, and textbooks. The content to be learned was contained in the text, and it was the instructor's responsibility to "teach" that content to the learners. Teaching could be interpreted as getting content from the text into the heads of learners in such a way that they could retrieve the information for a test. With this model, the way to improve instruction is to improve the instructor (i.e., to require the instructor to acquire more knowledge and to learn more methods for conveying it to learners).

A more contemporary view of instruction is that it is a systematic process in which every component (i.e., teacher, learners, materials, and learning environment) is crucial to successful learning. This perspective is usually referred to as the *systems point of view*, and advocates of this position typically use the systems approach to design instruction.

Let's consider what is meant by a system, and then consider the systems approach. The term *system* has become very popular as more and more of what we do is interrelated with what other people do. A system is technically a set of interrelated parts, all of which work together toward a defined goal. The parts of the system depend on each other for input and output, and the entire system uses feedback to determine if its desired goal has been reached. If it has not, then the system is modified until it does reach the goal. The most easily understood systems are those we create rather than those that occur naturally. For example, you probably have a heating or cooling system in your home that consists of various components that work together to produce warmth or coolness. The thermostat is the feedback mechanism through which the thermometer constantly checks the temperature and signals the system when more heat or cold is needed. When the desired temperature is reached, the system shuts itself off.

How is this related to instruction? First, the instructional process itself can be viewed as a system. The purpose of the system is to bring about learning. The components of the system are the learners, the instructor, the instructional materials, and the learning environment. These components interact in order to achieve the goal. For example, the instructor reviews sample problems in the textbook or manual with the learners in a quiet classroom. To determine whether learning is taking place, a test is administered. This is the instructional system thermostat. If learner performance is not satisfactory, then changes must be enacted to make the system more effective and to bring about the desired learning outcomes.

The result of using the systems view of instruction is to see the important role of all the components in the process. They must all interact effectively, just as the parts in a heating or cooling system must interact effectively in order to bring about the desired outcomes. There is not an overemphasis of any one component in the system, but a determination of the exact contribution of each one to the desired outcome. And it is clear that there must be both an assessment of the effectiveness of the system in bringing about learning and a mechanism to make changes if learning fails to occur.

Thus far, our discussion of the instructional process has focused on the interactive component of the process-namely, the time instructors and learners come together with the hope that learning will occur. But what about the preparation for the instructional process? How does the instructor decide what to do, and when? It is not surprising that someone with a systems view sees the preparation, implementation, evaluation, and revision of instruction as one integrated process. In the broadest systems sense, a variety of sources provide input to the preparation of the instruction. The output is some product or combination of products and procedures that are implemented. The results are used to determine whether the system should be changed, and, if so, how.

The purpose of this book is to describe a systems approach model for the design, development, implementation, and evaluation of instruction. This is not a physical system such as a furnace or air conditioner or heat pump (which will do both) but a procedural system. We will describe a series of steps, all of which will receive input from the preceding steps and will provide output for the next steps. All of the components work together in order for the user to produce effective instruction. The model includes an evaluation component that will help determine what, if anything, went wrong and how it can be improved.

While our model will be referred to as a systems approach model, we must emphasize that there is no single systems approach model for designing instruction. A number of models bear the label *systems approach*, and all of them share most of the same basic components. The systems approach model presented in this book is less complex than some but includes the major components included in other models. Collectively, these design models and the processes they represent are referred to as *Instructional Systems Development (ISD)*.

Typically the major phases of ISD are analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation. Our particular model does not emphasize the first phase, analysis. Before instruction is created, it is necessary to deter- mine the need for that instruction in terms of what problem within the organization will be solved through the use of new skills, or what opportunity can be seized because of new skills in the organization. This step *is* critically important to the success of the design process; however, there are excellent books that describe the performance analysis and needs

assessment processes (see Kaufman, 1991, and Rossett, 1999). We will give only a brief description in Chapter 2 of the analysis process in order to create a context for the remainder of the model.

Note that the term *instructional design* is used as an umbrella term that includes all the phases of the ISD process. The term *design* is included in the general name of the process and is also the name for one of the major sub- processes. When we use the term *instructional design*, we will be referring to the entire ISD process. We will not belabor the issue of terminology further at this point. It will all become clear as you begin to use the instructional design process.

Instructional design models are based, in part, on many years of research on the learning process. Each component of the model is based on theory and, in most instances, on research that demonstrates the effectiveness of that component. The model brings together in one coherent whole many of the concepts that you may have already encountered in a variety of educational situations. For example, you undoubtedly have heard of performance objectives and may have already developed some yourself. Such terms as *criterion-referenced testing* and *instructional strategy* may also be familiar. The model will show how these terms, and the processes associated with them, are interrelated and how these procedures can be used to produce effective instruction.

The instructional strategy component of our model describes how the designer uses the information from the analysis of what is to be taught to formulate a plan for presenting instruction to learners. Our original approach to this component of the model was heavily influenced by the work of Robert Gagné as found in his book *The Conditions of Learning*, first published in 1965. Gagné's early work in the 1940s and 1950s was based on assumptions from behavioral psychology, where instruction is the reinforcement of appropriate learner responses to stimulus situations set up by the teacher. If students have learned, then it is more likely that they will exhibit a desired behavior in a given situation. Gagné's first edition of *The Conditions of Learning*, however, incorporated cognitive information-processing views of learning. In this view most behavior is assumed to be very complex and controlled primarily by a person's internal mental processes rather than external stimuli and reinforcements. Instruction is seen as organizing and providing sets of information and activities that guide, support, and augment students' internal mental processes. Learning has occurred when students have incorporated new information into their memories that enables them to master new knowledge and skills. Gagné further develops cognitive views of learning and instruction in later editions of *The Conditions of Learning* (1970, 1977, 1984).

Constructivism is a relatively recent branch of cognitive psychology that has had a major impact on the thinking of many instructional designers. Constructivist thinking varies broadly on many issues, but the central point is that learning is always a unique product "constructed" as each individual learner combines new information with existing knowledge and experiences. Individuals have learned when they have constructed new interpretations of the social, cultural, physical, and intellectual environments in which they live. Because learning in the constructivist view is so entwined with one's experiences, a primary role of the teacher is creating appropriate learning environments, sometimes called problem scenarios, in which students' learning experiences are authentic representations of real practices in applied settings.

Throughout this text, readers will find elements of behaviorist, cognitivist, and constructivist views adopted and adapted as appropriate for the varieties of learners, learning outcomes, learning contexts, and performance contexts that are discussed. The Dick and Carey Model incorporates an eclectic set of tools drawn from each of these three major theoretical positions of the past fifty years.

One additional comment may help clarify distinctions regarding the learning theories that underlie this instructional design model. As you read through the following chapters you will find the term *behavior* frequently used in all of its forms in a variety of different contexts. On finding repeated uses of the term, one might infer that the predominant theoretical foundation of the text is behaviorism. This would be a wrong assumption that arises from a confusion between the learning theory called behaviorism and the tools used by behaviorist psychologists and all other psychologists to study learning. The behaviorist views learning as a change in the probability of a response, but can only determine that a change in probability (i.e., learning) has occurred by observing the behavior. The tool used by the behaviorist (observation of behavior) is shared by all psychologists who study learning. Thus, the term *behavior* will be used frequently in this text, but it should not be concluded

that we recommend either the classical conditioning models of early behaviorists or the operant conditioning models of later behaviorists as the primary theoretical foundations for designing and implementing instruction.

The model, as it is presented here, is based not only on theory and research but also on a considerable amount of practical experience in its application. We suggest that the novice instructional designer use the model principally in the sequence and manner presented in this chapter because students who have done so have been successful. On the other hand, we acknowledge that in particular circumstances and with increased design experience, you might need to change the model, or to perform the steps out of sequence. Also, we expect that more research and experience will help amplify the procedures associated with each component of the model.

In the section that follows, we will present the general systems approach model in much the same way as a cookbook recipe-you do this and then you do that. When you begin to use a recipe in your own kitchen, however, it takes on greater meaning, just as the model will when you begin to develop your own instruction: You select a topic for which instruction is needed, you develop your own instructional resources, you select your own set of learners, and 80 on. Your perspective on the model will probably change greatly. In essence, your use of your own kitchen, your own ingredients, and your own personal touch will result in a unique product.

The model that will be described in detail in succeeding chapters is presented on pages 2 and 3. The model includes ten interconnected boxes and a major line that shows feedback from the next-to-last box to the earlier boxes. The boxes refer to sets of procedures and techniques employed by the instructional designer to design, develop, evaluate, and revise instruction. The steps will be briefly described in sequence below and in much greater detail in subsequent chapters.

Components of the Systems Approach Model

ASSESS NEEDS TO IDENTIFY GOAL(S)

The first step in the model is to determine what it is that you want learners to be able to do when they have completed your instruction. The instructional goal may be derived from a list of goals, from a needs assessment, from practical experience with learning difficulties of students, from the analysis of people who are doing a job, or from some other requirement for new instruction.

CONDUCT INSTRUCTIONAL ANALYSIS

After you have identified the instructional goal, you will determine step-by- step what people are doing when they perform that goal. The final step in the instructional analysis process is to determine what skills, knowledge, and attitudes, known as *entry behaviors*, are required of learners to be able to begin the instruction. A diagram will be produced that depicts the relationships among all of the skills that have been identified.

ANALYZE LEARNERS AND CONTEXTS

In addition to analyzing the instructional goal, there is a parallel analysis of the learners, the context in which they will learn the skills, and the context in which they will use them. Learners' current skills, preferences, and attitudes are determined along with the characteristics of the instructional setting and the setting in which the skills will eventually be used. This crucial information shapes a number of the succeeding steps in the model, especially the instructional strategy.

WRITE PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES

Based on the instructional analysis and the statement of entry behaviors, you will write specific statements of what the learners will be able to do when they complete the instruction. These statements, which are derived from the skills identified in the instructional analysis, will identify the skills to be learned, the conditions under which the skills must be performed, and the criteria for successful performance.

DEVELOP ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS

Based on the objectives you have written, develop assessments that are parallel to and measure the learners' ability to perform what you described in the objectives. Major emphasis is placed on relating the kind of behavior described in the objectives to what the assessment requires.

DEVELOP INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY

Based on information from the five preceding steps, identify the strategy that you will use in your instruction to achieve the terminal objective. The strategy will include sections on pre-instructional activities, presentation of information, practice and feedback, testing, and follow-through activities. The strategy will be based on current theories of learning and results of learning research, the characteristics of the medium that will be used to deliver the instruction, content to be taught, and the characteristics of the learners who will receive the instruction. These features are used to develop or select materials or to develop a strategy for interactive classroom instruction.

DEVELOP AND SELECT INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

In this step you will use your instructional strategy to produce the instruction. This typically includes a learner's manual, instructional materials, and tests. (When we use the term *instructional materials* we are including all forms of instruction such as instructor's guides, student modules, overhead transparencies, videotapes, computer-based multimedia formats, and web pages for distance learning. We intend the term *materials* to have this broad connotation.) The decision to develop original materials will depend on the type of learning to be taught, the availability of existing relevant materials, and developmental resources available to you. Criteria for selecting from among existing materials are provided.

DESIGN AND CONDUCT TBE FORMATIVE EVALUATION OF INSTRUCTION

Following the completion of a draft of the instruction, a series of evaluations is conducted to collect data that are used to identify how to improve the instruction. The three types of formative evaluation are referred to as *one-to- one evaluation*, *small-group evaluation*, and *field evaluation*. Each type of evaluation provides the designer with a different type of information that can be used to improve the instruction. Similar techniques can be applied to the formative evaluation of existing materials or classroom instruction.

REVISE INSTRUCTION

The final step (and the first step in a repeat cycle) is revising the instruction. Data from the formative evaluation are summarized and interpreted to attempt to identify difficulties experienced by learners in achieving the objectives and relate these difficulties to specific deficiencies in the instruction. The line in the figure on pages 2 and 3 labeled "Revise Instruction" indicates that the data from a formative evaluation are not simply used to revise the instruction itself, but are used to reexamine the validity of the instructional analysis and the assumptions about the entry behaviors and characteristics of learners. It is necessary to reexamine statements of performance objectives and test items in light of collected data. The instructional strategy is reviewed and finally all this is incorporated into revisions of the instruction to make it a more effective instructional tool.

DESIGN AND CONDUCT SUMMATIVE EVALUATION

Although summative evaluation is the culminating evaluation of the effectiveness of instruction, it generally is not a part of the design process. It is an evaluation of the absolute and/ or relative value or worth of the instruction and occurs only after the instruction has been formatively evaluated and sufficiently revised to meet the standards of the designer. Since the summative evaluation usually does not involve the designer of the instruction but instead involves an independent evaluator, ibis component is not considered an integral part of the instructional design process per se.

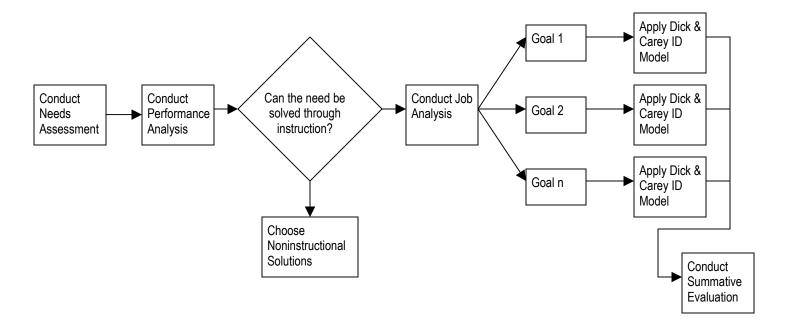


Figure 1.1 The Role of the Dick and Carey Model in the Broader Curriculum Development Process

The nine basic steps represent the procedures that one employs when the systems approach is used to design instruction. This set of procedures is referred to as a systems approach because it is made up of interacting components, each having its own input and output, which together produce predetermined products. Data are also collected about the system's effectiveness so that the final product can be modified until it reaches the desired quality level. When instructional materials are being developed, data are collected and the materials are revised in light of these data to make them as effective and efficient as possible.

Before concluding our discussion of the systems approach model, it should be made clear that, as it stands, this is not a curriculum design model. In order to design a curriculum many more steps would be required before identifying the instructional goals. Some of these techniques are known as needs assessment and job analysis. One should use the model in curriculum development projects after the instructional goals have been derived. Figure 1.1 illustrates how the Dick and Carey Model would fit into a broader curriculum development process.

Using the Systems Approach Model

Now that you have read about this model, you should consider several very important questions about its use. These are discussed in the sections that follow.

WHAT ARE THE BASIC COMPONENTS OF SYSTEMATICALLY DESIGNED INSTRUCTION?

When the systems approach is used, some form of instructional materials is almost always created. These materials were initially referred to as programmed instruction. As the format changed, they became learning activity packages (LAPs) and modules. We will simply refer to *instruction*. A module is usually a self-instructional printed unit of instruction that has an integrated theme, provides students with information needed to acquire and assess specified knowledge and skills, and serves as one component of a total curriculum. While printed modules are still quite popular as a format for

instruction, more and more designers are choosing to use computers, and specifically the Internet, as the mechanism for delivering selected modules, a complete unit of instruction, or a total curriculum.

Systematically designed instruction requires learners to interact actively with the instructional materials rather than simply allowing them to read the materials passively. The learners are asked to perform various types of learning tasks and receive feedback on that performance. Some type of testing strategy informs the learners whether they achieved mastery of the content and what they should do if they did not.

Based on the description of prior paragraphs, how would you recognize a module if you saw one? In its most simple form, a module might include a statement to students that says what it is they are about to learn and how they will be tested. It would provide printed instructional materials as well as some practice exercises. A self-test that might be used prior to taking a terminal test could also be included

A more complex module might contain all of the items listed above, but might also incorporate a number of alternative sets of materials from which the learner could choose the one most appropriate. Alternative media forms such as a web site or videotapes could also be included. In addition, the learner might go to a laboratory to conduct an experiment or go outside the learning environment to gather information.

Keep in mind two important points. First, it is not possible to examine instructional materials and decide whether they contain all the components of systematically designed instruction. Many factors enter into the design decisions that determine what is and is not included. Second, you cannot determine by inspection whether instruction has been systematically designed. The systems approach is a process that is followed by designers, but it is not necessarily apparent by reviewing instructional materials. For example, simply inserting a set of objectives at the beginning of each chapter in a textbook does not mean that the textbook has been systematically designed!

FOR WHICH INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY SYSTEM IS THE SYSTEMS APPROACH APPROPRIATE?

The systems approach to the design of instruction includes the planning, development, implementation, and evaluation of instruction. As a part of this process, the delivery method of the instruction must be chosen. In some instances, it is most appropriate to have an instructor deliver the instruction, while in other situations, a variety of media may be employed. Most recently it seems that every new instructional effort tends to include a computer. In every instance, the systems approach is an invaluable tool for identifying what is to be taught, determining how it win be taught, and evaluating the instruction to find out whether it is effective.

The procedure described in this text for developing an instructional strategy is a generic one. It is applicable to the development of print instruction that is still favored in many instances for portability and production cost. The procedure can be easily used, however, to fit the requirements of any selected medium of instruction. Materials developers in video or multimedia, for example, could use the instructional strategy statements to create storyboards, screen displays, or flow charts for hyper linking interactive sequences. The use of the systems approach prevents the designer from trying to create instruction for a medium prior to a complete analysis of what is to be taught and how. Most research suggests that it is the analysis process and the instructional strategies, rather than the delivery mode, that determine the success of the instruction. The systems approach is a generic planning process that ensures that instructional products developed for any delivery system are responsive to the needs of learners and effective in achieving the desired learning outcomes.

DOES THE USE OF THE SYSTEMS APPROACH IMPLY THAT ALL INSTRUCTION WILL BE INDIVIDUALIZED?

From our discussion of the development of printed modules and computer- based instruction, the reader might assume that systematically designed instruction is the same as individualized instruction; it is not. Let's assume, for the sake of discussion, that individualized instruction permits learners to progress at their own rate. (This is considered the minimal definition of individualized instruction!) A

well-designed print module or computer-based lesson could certainly be used in this manner. So the systems approach can be used to design individualized instruction. However, it can also be used to design group-based instruction if we may use this term in contrast with individualized instruction. The systems approach can be used, as already noted, to develop all types of instructor-led and interactive group activities. In fact, it is often the case that these are precisely the conditions that are most effective and efficient for bringing about the desired learning outcomes.

The reader should be careful to distinguish between the process of designing instruction and the delivery of that instruction. The systems approach is basically a design process, whereas instructors, modules, computers, and televisions are delivery mechanisms. These delivery mechanisms can be used with one or many learners at the same time. A major part of the design process is to determine how the instruction can be delivered most effectively.

The beneficiary of the application of the systems approach to the design of instruction is the individual learner. Careful attention is paid to determining what must be learned and what learners must already know in order to begin the instruction. The instruction is focused on the skills to be learned and is presented under the best conditions for learning. The learner is evaluated fairly with instruments that measure the skills and knowledge described in the objectives, and the results are used to revise the instruction so that it will be even more effective with succeeding learners. Following this process causes the designer to focus on the needs and skills of the learners and results in the creation of effective instruction.

WHY USE THE SYSTEMS APPROACH?

Few formal research studies address the question of the overall total effectiveness of the systems approach to designing instruction. Although much research has been done on various components of the model, rigorous studies that involve the total model are extremely rare because they are 80 difficult to conduct. The few studies that have been published tend to provide strong support for the approach. The primary support for the model, however, comes from designers who have used the process and have documented their success with learners.

It appears that there are a number of reasons that systematic approaches to instructional design are effective. The first is the focus, at the outset, on what learners are to know or be able to do when the instruction is concluded. Without this precise statement, subsequent planning and implementation steps can become unclear and ineffective.

A second reason for the success of the systems approach is the careful linkage between each component, especially the relationship between the instructional strategy and the desired learning outcomes. Instruction is specifically targeted on the skills and knowledge to be taught and supplies the appropriate conditions for the learning of these outcomes. Stated another way, instruction does not consist of a range of activities only some of which may be related to what is to be learned.

The third and perhaps most important reason for the success of the systems approach is that it is an empirical and replicable process. Instruction is designed not for one delivery, but for use on as many occasions as possible with as many learners as possible. Because it is reusable, it is worth the time and effort to evaluate and revise it. In the process of systematically designing instruction, data are collected to determine what part of the instruction is not working, and it is revised until it does work.

Because of these characteristics, the systems approach is valuable to instructors who are interested in successfully teaching basic and higher level competencies to learners. The competency-based approach has been widely adopted among educators; however, the most numerous applications of the systems approach may be found in industry and in military services. In these environments there is a premium on both efficiency of instruction and quality of student performance. The payoffs in both situations are quite obvious.

WHO SHOULD USE THE SYSTEMS APPROACH?

As you study the instructional design model and, we hope, use it to design some instruction, you will find that it takes both time and effort. You will probably find yourself saying, "I could never use this process to prepare all my instruction," and you would probably be correct. The individual instructor

who has day-to-day instructional responsibilities can use the process to develop only small amounts of written or mediated instruction at any given time. The process can also be used effectively and efficiently to select from among existing materials and to design instruction that is not materials based.

We have found that almost every instructor who has studied the process has come away with two reactions. The first is that they will certainly begin immediately to use some of the components in the model, if not all of them. The second reaction is that their approach to instruction will never be the same because of the insights they have gained from using the process. (The reader may be somewhat skeptical at this point; be sure to consider your own reactions *after* you have used this approach.)

A second group of users of the ISD approach is growing quite rapidly. They are typically referred to as *instructional designers*, since they are trained to use a systematic approach to designing new instructional systems or improving already existing systems. Their full-time job is to create replicable instructional programs that are effective with a particular learner population.

In contrast to the instructor who may be working alone, the instructional designer often works with a team of specialists to develop the instruction. The team would typically include a content specialist, a media production specialist, an evaluation specialist, and a manager. (When the instructor works alone, he or she usually must fill all of these roles.) The team approach draws on the expertise of specialists to produce a product that none could produce alone. In these settings there is a premium placed on interpersonal skills because seemingly everyone has ideas on how best to do what needs to be done.

This book has been written for both the instructor who would like to know more about the systems approach to instructional design and the beginning instructional designer who may pursue a career in this field. The book is also intended for the public school teacher, the university professor, the industrial trainer, and the military instructor. We are convinced that the model and procedures are equally applicable in both school and non school settings.

In our examples of various aspects of the application of the systematic design process, we have included instruction that is intended for all age groups, from young children to mature adults. We will use the terms *teacher*, *instructor*, and *designer* interchangeably throughout the book because we truly believe they are interchangeable.

As you read through the chapters that follow, you will find an instructional design example on training Neighborhood Crime Watch leaders. The example is carried through each step of the design model. You should also note that Appendices A through K contain an instructional design example for a school subject that is carried through each step of the model (using a variety of sentence types in writing paragraphs).

References and Recommended Readings

- At the end of each chapter, several carefully selected references are listed. The books and articles supplement the description in the chapter or focus in more detail on an important concept that has been presented.
- The references listed for this first chapter are somewhat different. These are books in the field of instructional design or ones that have direct implications for the practice of instructional design. Many of the topics in this book also appear in these references. The books vary in depth and breadth of coverage of topics, but they should all help to expand your knowledge and understanding of the instructional design field.
- Anglin, G. J. (Ed.). (1991). Instructional technology: Present, past, and future. Englewood, CO: Libraries Unlimited. Wide range of informative chapters on the entire field of instructional technology.
- **Banathy, Bela H.** (1968). *Instructional systems*. Palo Alto, CA: Fearon Publishers.
- **Banathy, Bela H.** (1992). Comprehensive systems design in education. *Educational Technology*, 32(1), 33-35.
- Briggs, L. J., Gustafson, K. L., & Tillman, M. H. (Eds.).

 (1991). Instructional design: Principles and applications. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications. An update of an older classic. Many of our chapters parallel chapters in this book.
- Dills, C. R., & Romiszowski, A. J. (1997). Instructional development paradigms. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications. Presents various models and approaches to instructional design.
- **Driscoll, Marcy P.** (1994). *Psychology of learning for instruction*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. Contemporary approaches to learning that focus on instruction.
- Duffy, T. M., & Jonassen, D. H. (Eds.). (1992).
 Constructivism and the technology of instruction.
 Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.
 Comprehensive review of varying perspectives on constructivism.
- Ertmer, P. A., & Newby, T. J. (1993). Behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism: Comparing critical features from an instructional design perspective. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, (6)4,50-72. Useful comparisons of three theoretical bases with guidelines for instructional designers.
- Ertmer, P. A., & Quinn, J. (1999). *The* ID *casebook: Case studies in instructional design*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall. Wide array of examples of the application of instructional design processes to real world problems.

- Fleming, Malcolm L., & Levie, W. Howard (1993). Instructional message design. (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.
- **Gagné, Robert M.** (1985). *The conditions of learning* (4th ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Gagné, Robert M. (Ed.). (1987). Instructional technology: Foundations. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gagné, Robert M., Briggs, Leslie J., & Wager, Walter W. (1992). Principles of instructional design (4th ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Gagné, Robert M., & Medsker, Karen L. (1996). *The conditions of learning: training applications*. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace College Publishers. Same model as Gagné's original text by this name, but with the addition of examples from business and industry.
- **Gredler, Margaret E.** (1997). *Learning and instruction: Theory into practice* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall. A survey of learning theories that includes behaviorist, cognitivist, and constructivist views with applications for instruction.
- Hannum, W., & Hansen, C. (1989). *Instructional systems development in large organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications. An examination of the instructional design process as it is used with large projects.
- Kaufman, R. (1991). Strategic planning plus: An organizational guide. Indianapolis, IN: Circle City Press.
- Kemp, J. E., Morrison, G. R., & Ross, S. M. (1998).
 Designing effective instruction (2nd ed.). New York:
 Merrill Publishing. A revision of an older book, this edition covers many current instructional design concepts.
- Knirk, Frederick G., & Gustafson, Kent L. (1986). *Instructional technology: A systematic approach to education.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- **Mager, Robert F.** (1988). Making instruction work. Belmont, CA: Lake Publishing Co.
- **Mager, Robert F.** (1992). What every manager should know about training. Belmont, CA: Lake Publishing Co.
- Merrill, M. D., Drake, L., Lacy, M. J., & Pratt, J. (1996). Reclaiming instructional design. *Educational Technology*, 36(5),5-7.
- **Reiser, R. A., & Dick, W.** (1996). *Instructional planning:* A guide for teachers (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon. A short book about the instructional design process for teachers and trainers.
- **Richey, R.** (1992). *Designing instruction for the adult learner*. London: Kogan Page Limited. A theory of instruction based on an extensive review of the literature and empirical data from training studies.

- Romiszowski, A. J. (1981). Designing instructional systems. London: Kogan Page.
- Romiszowski, A. J. (1984). *Producing instructional systems*. London: Kogan Page.
- **Rossett, A.** (1999). *First things fast.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Pfeiffer. Performance analysis is contrasted with training needs assessment.
- Rothwell, W. J., & Kazanas, H. C. (1997). Mastering the instructional design process: A systematic approach. (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers. A general text on the instructional design process.
- Saettler, Paul (1990). The evolution of American educational technology. Englewood, CO: Libraries Unlimited. Very complete historical description of the development of the audiovisual field and the growth of instructional design.
- Seels, Barbara, (Ed.). (1995). Instructional design fundamentals: A reconsideration. Englewood Cliffs, NJ:

- Educational Technology Publications. Perspectives on instructional design from theory, and implications for the design process.
- Seels, B., & Glasgow, z. (1990). Exercises in instructional design. Columbus, OH: Merrill. Fine set of practice activities for many of the skills taught in this text.
- Seels, B., & Richey, R. (1994). *Instructional technology: 111e definition and domains of the field.* Washington, DC: Association for Educational Communications and Technology. Current thinking about the distinctive features of instructional technology that includes instructional design.
- Smith, P. L., & Ragan, T. J. (1999). Instructional design (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley. Excellent chapters on instructional strategies for various learning outcomes.