

Thinking Inside the Box: The ShadowBox Method for Cognitive Skill Development

GARY KLEIN^a, NEIL HINTZE^b, and DAVID SAAB^b

^a*MacroCognition LLC*

^b*Battalion Chief, FDNY*

^b*MacroCognition LLC*

ABSTRACT

One way to help trainees develop expertise is to let them see the world through the eyes of experts. However, the tasks of gaining access to the expert's cognition and then of making experts available for training are daunting and impractical. Recently, however, Hintze (2008) developed a technique to allow trainees to shadow the thinking of experts. The trainees work through scenario-based materials, entering their information and decision priorities in a series of one-inch-square boxes. At the end of each scenario the trainees calibrate their interpretations with the conclusion of a panel of experts. Thus, the method does not require the presence of any facilitator. Hintze used this ShadowBox method to increase expertise of firefighters, and it is currently being applied to a DARPA project for developing social interaction skills.

KEYWORDS

Training; scenario-based training; expertise.

INTRODUCTION

One way to help trainees develop expertise is to let them see the world through the eyes of experts. This “expert view” would let trainees discover what experts think is important in a situation, how they focus their attention, and also what they ignore. It would help trainees broaden their viewpoints and appreciate how subtle events might have important implications.

Bloom and Broder (1950) provided this type of perspective in a project designed to help under-performing college students do better on multiple choice tests. Bloom and Broder collected think-aloud protocols from students who did very well on these tests. Then they had under-performing students also generate think-aloud protocols as they struggled with the same items. Next, Bloom and Broder showed each under-performing student his/her own transcript along with a transcript from a successful student, and asked, “What was the difference?” For example, some under-performing students noticed that when they didn’t know the answer they gave up, whereas the successful student shifted from a recall/recognition mode into a problem solving mode, trying to figure out what the answer might be, or at least trying to eliminate a few of the options. Others saw that the successful students keep going back to the problem statement and correcting misinterpretations they might have had about what the problem was calling for. Bloom and Broder did not offer any advice. They left it to the under-performing students to make their own discoveries about how they were falling short and what they needed to do on future tests. Their method generated significant improvements in performance. This study illustrates the impact of letting trainees see how experts view a task. The under-performing students defined deficiencies that were meaningful to them, which helped them translate training requirements into personal action.

Hintze (2008) provided a similar opportunity for firefighters. He developed scenario-based exercises coupled with cognitive task analysis materials to allow newly promoted officers to see the scenarios through the eyes of experienced officers. Hintze developed four challenging scenarios as well as a unique task. The scenarios were presented in a booklet and given to 14 experienced New York City Fire Department Officers who described how they would handle the decisions and presented the rationale for their decisions. These data were synthesized to generate materials that illustrated the “expert mindset” to the experimental group. These materials were presented to an experimental group of 14 recently promoted New York State Fire Department Officers. The matched control group consisted of 15 New York State Fire Department Officers.

The training materials exposed novices to situations they would not experience during routine operations and also provided just-in-time expert feedback. The training increased decision making performance by 18% ($p < .001$) for the experimental group over the control group. Hintze created a scoring key with 100 points as the maximum. The average score for the experimental group was 86.9, compared to 73.6 for the controls.

The Hintze study demonstrates a means of providing trainees with access to the thinking process of experts without having the experts present. It provides a means of enabling trainees to compare their responses to those of the expert panel and determine for themselves what the differences are, and to speculate about the limits of their decision making.

Subsequent to this study, this methodology has been used to train additional groups of firefighters, and it has evolved into the ShadowBox method described below.

PRACTICE INNOVATION

The ShadowBox method is scenario-based. The trainees receive a booklet or other means of studying a challenging scenario. They also have a second booklet for recording their answers at predetermined decision points. They record their answer to questions posed at each decision point in a separate small box, usually one-inch-square (but sometimes two-inches square). The trainees are essentially trying to shadow the expert panel by seeing the match between the responses they enter in the answer boxes to the answers provided by the expert panel.

Thus, for a given scenario, the initial page might describe the immediate situation including a map or photograph. At the bottom of the page is a prompt to enter any information they want to remember in the box for decision point #1, along with their rationale for what they included in the box. Once the trainees finish (they are given about 2.5 minutes for this task), they can never turn back in the booklet. All they will have to go on is what they wrote down.

The trainees turn the page in their scenario booklet and are told what the expert panel has agreed should go in the box for decision point #1, along with their rationale. Now the trainees have a few minutes to compare their responses to those of the panel, and to compare the rationale. They are asked to describe the differences in the contents of the two boxes.

The trainees continue through the scenario booklet, stopping at the end of each page to enter any information they want to retain, and at each decision point they get to compare their responses to the experts. This describes the first type of box, the Attention box.

At some of the decision points the trainees have a second type of box, an Action Priority box. The booklet lists a small set of potential actions, up to seven, and the trainees have to prioritize these in order of importance and enter the top three into this second box, the Action Priority box, along with their rationale in the margin of the page. Then they learn the priorities listed by the experts, along with the rationale. Again, they have an opportunity to compare their responses and rationale to those of the experts.

A third type of box is the Information box. For some of the decision points the trainees are instructed to enter one query into the Information box—one type of information they would like to have at this point in the scenario or a question they would like to pose to the expert panel, along with their rationale for asking this question. Then they learn what the experts wrote, and go through the same comparison.

Other types of boxes are possible. There can be an Anticipation box (what is likely to happen in the next 15 minutes), an Assessment box (asking about different possible explanations of what is happening, often in form of yes/no questions), a Monitoring box (which cues should be watched most carefully) and so forth.

One of the most labor-intensive activities for implementing the ShadowBox method is to obtain responses from an expert panel. In his Master's thesis, Hintze (2008) used 14 fire chiefs as experts. He interviewed all of them face-to-face. Because of scheduling limitations, Hintze interviewed some of the experts 1:1, and others in small groups of 5-8 experts. These small groups were more efficient to run, and also provided valuable dialog that helped to improve the responses. The disagreements prodded the small groups to define their rationale more clearly.

Based on these interviews with experts, an answer key is prepared. The answer key consists of the consensus response for what should go into each box, along with a summary of the rationale responses. Hintze found a strong consensus for many of the boxes, but never achieved 100% convergence. In some cases the experts did not reach a strong consensus, and Hintze let the trainees know about any strong minority position that had emerged. He made it clear that there was no ground truth for any of the answers.

PILOT TEST

We applied the ShadowBox method to the task of training social skills in police officers. This pilot was part of a DARPA program, "Strategic Social Interaction Modules (SSIM)." The purpose of the SSIM program was to understand why some police and military personnel are more skilled at interacting with civilians (and criminals) to gain voluntary compliance, and to turn the findings into training to build interpersonal skills in police and military. The nickname for the program is the "Good Strangers" program because the intent is to develop skills of positive interactions with civilians rather than relying on intimidation to gain compliance.

Three scenarios were developed, using incidents that had been probed using a Critical Decision method interview. The scenarios revolved around a domestic violence incident, an incident of managing a gang during the funeral of one of their members, and a case of persuading a suicidal man to drop his weapons. We prepared ShadowBox forms for each incident, using a mix of different types of queries. We collected calibration data using a panel of seven Subject Matter Experts interviewed separately by telephone. Then we conducted an initial pilot test with seven participants and used their reactions to modify the materials.

We collected pilot data on 16 experienced police officers working in the Spokane Washington area. Their experience level ranged from 7 to 29 years. We ran four groups of four officers. It took approximately four hours to run each group. Our original plan was to collect data in order to determine if the police officers

improved (i.e., got closer in their responses to the panel of experts) from the beginning to the end of the session. However, we found ourselves modifying our methodology with each group we ran. We had two facilitators (neither of them with any police experience) guiding the groups. As the week continued, we added a wrinkle of having the officers fill out the priorities from the perspective of a “Bad Stranger,” or from the perspective of a rookie. We broadened the Attention box to include inferences and questions, not just information to remember. We also explored different facilitation styles, either going around the group to get each officer’s responses during a discussion to having a general discussion that did not require each officer to give his answers (all the officers were male).

We collected evaluation data from 15 of the sixteen police officers. We asked them to provide ratings using a 5-point scale where 5 was high and 1 was low.

When asked if the scenarios were realistic, the police evaluated them as a 4.3. When asked if the scenarios were interesting and engaging, the rating was 4.4. The question “I learned a lot from this exercise” was rated 3.8. For the question of whether the training should be delivered by an experienced police officer, seven said yes and seven said no (there were two non-responders). When asked if they would do anything differently having gone through the scenarios, the responses ranged from 50% to 87.5% who said that they would do something different, for the three scenarios.

Our next step is to revise our methods and conduct a more formal tryout and evaluation using military personnel.

DISCUSSION

The method permits trainees to “shadow” experts by seeing how their own responses compared to the responses from the expert panel, and to speculate, using the rationale materials, about how the experts were thinking.

Hintze estimated that trainees needed 2 to 2.5 hours to complete the four scenarios, about 30-40 minutes per scenario. The trainees had about 2.5 minutes to fill in the box for each decision point. Hintze was the facilitator for the training sessions for his Master’s thesis. He read the scenario aloud as the trainees followed along with their booklets, pausing at each decision point to let the trainees fill in the boxes for the questions posed. This is much less time than we needed for our three scenarios.

The ShadowBox method is similar to techniques such as Tactical Decision Games (Schmitt, 1996) and Decision-Making Exercises (Klein, 2005) that present scenarios and invite trainees to respond. The ShadowBox method seems to have some advantages over these other approaches in that it provides an answer key generated by an expert panel (although, like the Tactical Decision Games and Decision-Making Exercises it does not claim that there is any “right” answer), it provides the rationale for the experts’ answers, and then it provides a convenient format for trainees to explicitly provide their responses. The contrast between trainee answers/rationale with those of the expert panel helps trainees appreciate the limits of their mental models and provides direction for them to develop their cognitive skills further.

The ShadowBox method is similar to the method known as “cultural assimilators.” This method has been validated in the field of intercultural communication. The method of cultural assimilators relies on a collection of real-life scenarios describing puzzling cross-cultural interactions and explanations for avoiding the emerging misunderstandings. This is one of the most researched and accepted methods of cross-cultural training ([Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000](#); [Landis & Bhagat, 1996](#), [Albert, 1983](#)).

The ShadowBox method differs from techniques such as the U.S Army’s “Think Like a Commander” program ([Lussier & Shadrick, 2002](#); [Ross & Lussier, 1999](#)) which tries to develop cognitive skills via tactical scenarios. The Think Like a Commander program has defined a core set of cognitive skills for the military officer, such as keeping a focus on the mission and the commander’s intent, modeling a thinking enemy, considering effects of terrain, using all assets available, considering timing, seeing the big picture, visualizing the battlefield, and remaining flexible. The training emphasizes these principles. In contrast, the ShadowBox method does not pre-define any principles. The training is all contextualized, and the trainee learns by peering into the minds of the experts—seeing their priorities and responses and the rationale they offer. In addition, the ShadowBox method can be used with non-kinetic missions such as counterinsurgency, which are different than the kinetic missions and core skills the Think Like a Commander program was designed for.

One of the important potential extensions of the ShadowBox method is to adapt the materials so that they do not require expert facilitation. In theory, the ShadowBox method could be in an on-line form without any facilitator. Participants could drag and drop items from the scenario into the answer box, speeding up the process and reducing a source of ambiguity.

Challenges for the ShadowBox method are to determine whether the scenarios used are representative of the domain to be handled, and to develop efficient means for knowledge capture with domain experts.

Other extensions would be to use video representations of scenarios rather than written/text representations, and to use systematic scoring methods for concurrence with the expert panel to enable computer-based scoring for immediate feedback.

The ShadowBox format is very flexible, and can even be adapted for knowledge capture for a cognitive task analysis effort.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by The Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (government contract/grant number 06-1825383). The views, opinions, and/or findings contained in this (article, poster, paper etc.) are those of the author and should not be interpreted as representing the official views or policies, either expressed or implied, of the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency or the Department of Defense.

REFERENCES

- Albert, R. D. (1983). The intercultural sensitizer or culture assimilator. A cognitive approach. In D. Landis & R. W. Brislin (Eds.), (Vol. 2, pp. 186-217). New York: Pergamon.
- Bhawuk, D. P. A., & Brislin, R. W. (2000). Cross-cultural training: A review. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 49(1), 162-191.
- Bloom, B. S., & Broder, L. J. (1950). *Problem-solving processes of college students: An exploratory investigation*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Hintze, N. R. (2008). *First responder problem solving and decision making in today's asymmetrical environment*. Unpublished Master's thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, CA.
- Klein, G. (2005). *The power of intuition*. New York: A Currency Book/Doubleday.
- Landis, D., & Bhagat, R. (Eds.) (1996). *Handbook of intercultural training*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lussier, J. W., & Shadrick, S. B. (2002). *Think Like A Commander: Captain's Edition - Prototype 1.0*: ARI Research Product 2003-01 available from U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences, 2423 Morande Street, Fort Knox, KY 40121.
- Ross, K. G., & Lussier, J. W. (1999). A training solution for adaptive battlefield performance *Proceedings of the 1999 Interservice/Industry Training, Simulation, and Education Conference*. Orlando, FL.
- Schmitt, J. F. (1996). Designing good TDGs. *Marine Corps Gazette*, 80(5), 96-97.