

NZCF 150

INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES MANUAL



**THIS INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES MANUAL IS NOT TO BE ALTERED
IN ANY WAY WITHOUT THE PRIOR CONSULTATION AND APPROVAL
FROM THE COMMANDANT NEW ZEALAND CADET FORCES.**

(Original Signed)

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Any proposals for amendment or additions to the text of this publication should be made through the Area Office.

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INTRODUCTION



Whether you are an NCO or an Officer, your instructional ability will have a powerful influence on your students. Nobody knows better than you that when students are treated objectively, with respect, and with true concern for their goals and accomplishments, they are liable to find their training experience a positive one and are likely to continue that experience.

It takes a lot to develop a good cadet; time, patience and effort but the end result is worth it. Not just for a proud cadet, or the New Zealand Cadet Forces, but as a credit to your ability as an instructor. Next time you stand in front of your cadets as an instructor, remember that they are not just in the New Zealand Cadet Forces; they are the New Zealand Cadet Forces.

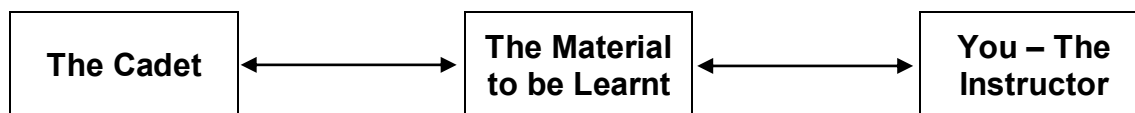
It may be discovered that this document contains more information than is required. The intention is to provide as much information as we can that is useful that may assist you in determining why things are done the way they are done.

This is a **living** document. There will be regular amendments to ensure that the training is both safe and as up-to-date as possible. It is the responsibility of all users to note and advise any errors or inconsistencies that may be detected, or any changes that maybe required to the provisions of the manual because of changes in procedures. Generally, any recommendation for change should be advised to the respective Area Co-ordinator who will pass it on to the Staff Officer Training and Development, HQ NZCF.

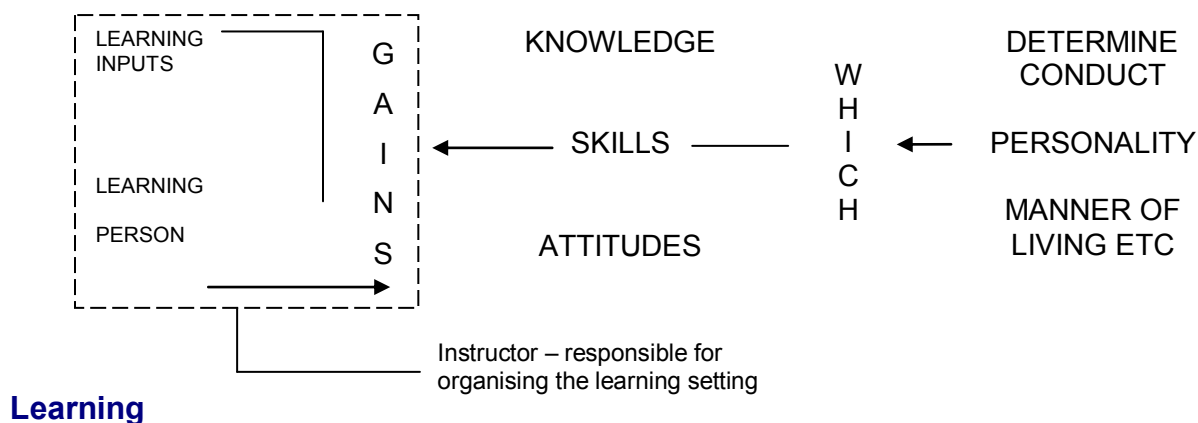
CHAPTER 1 - Learning

SECTION 1 - Characteristics of the Learning Process

1.1 Learning is a fundamental process of life. Every individual learns, and through learning they develop the behaviour patterns by which they live. Learning never stops - it is a continuous feature of life. The learning setting contains three basic variables:



1.2 The problem for you is to find the most effective manner of exposing the material to be learnt. Anyone who guides and directs the learning activities of others requires a fairly detailed understanding of the nature and processes of learning. How they teach depends largely on their understanding of the learning process and their ability to apply this understanding.



1.3 **A Purposeful Process.** The cadet brings into the setting their own purpose and goals, some of them unique, some of them shared with fellow course members. The cadets' needs determine what they learn, as much as the planned lesson. They learn from any activity which they perceive as advancing their purpose; therefore, the effective instructor seeks ways to relate new learning to the cadets' goals.

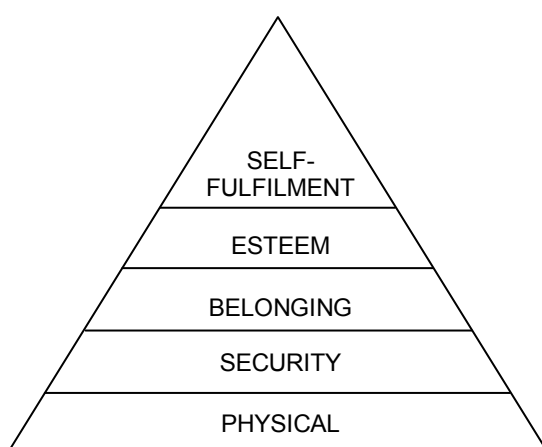
1.4 **Motivation.** Motivation is the force that impels a person towards a goal. This is the instructors' most effective tool in encouraging a cadet to learn. Motivation is based on the emotional substrata - a force which stems from any or all of the cadets' personal and social needs. MASLOW developed a hierarchy of human needs. When the first level of needs is satisfied a cadet looks to the next level. In general, cadets will be looking to fulfil the top two levels of the hierarchy, i.e. self-fulfilment and esteem. These needs can compel individuals to seek knowledge and understanding, acquire skills, set objectives and work for achievement.

1.5 **Needs.** Needs are the basic forces that motivate a person to do something. Needs are more basic than wants.

1.6 **Wants.** Wants are 'needs' that are learned during a person's life. When a need is not satisfied, it may lead to a drive. The need for liquid, for example, leads to a thirst drive.

1.7 **Drive.** Drive is a strong stimulus that encourages action to reduce a need. Drives are internal - they are the reasons behind certain behaviour patterns. The instructor must create the drive in their cadets to learn and in some cases remove obstacles that inhibit that drive.

1.8 The cadet must be provided with a reason to learn, their 'need' must be clear. In the learning setting, the instructor should establish clear and specific objectives for their cadets. Without objectives neither the cadet nor the instructor can measure progress or evaluate achievements.



In addition to Maslow's Basic Hierarchy of Needs, an add-on in the form of AESTHETICS' may be present with some individuals. That is, some things are done for their own sake alone, e.g. Art.

The teaching challenge is to shape personal motivations to serve the learning situation. The instructor's learning objectives must stimulate internal responses (drives) that create a desire in the cadet to achieve.

SECTION 2 - Factors which Influence Learning

1.9 **The “Laws” Of Learning.** All the following ‘laws’ of learning are not apparent in every learning situation. These laws manifest themselves singularly or in groups. If an instructor understands them, they can deal intelligently with the three major factors affecting learning MOTIVATION, PARTICIPATION, and INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES.

1.10 **The Law of Readiness.** A person learns best when they are ready to learn, and they will not learn much if they see no reason for learning or if they don’t have the sufficient prerequisite skills or knowledge, physical or mental maturity. Getting a student ready to learn or ensuring that they enter the correct programme of training is usually the instructors’ responsibility. If a student has a strong purpose, a clear objective, a well-fixed reason for learning something, they will make more progress than the student who lacks motivation. Readiness implies a degree of single mindedness and eagerness. When a student is ready to learn, they meet their instructor at least halfway, and this simplifies the instructors’ job.

1.11 **The Law of Repetition.** This law states that those things most often repeated are best remembered. It is the basis of practice and drill. The human memory is not infallible. The mind can rarely retain, evaluate and apply new concepts or practices after a single exposure. A student does not learn touch-typing at one sitting. They learn by applying what they have been told and every time they practice, their learning continues. The instructor must provide opportunities for students to practice or repeat. They must ensure that this process is directed towards a goal. Repetition can be of many types, including recall, review, restatement, manual drill and physical application.

1.12 **The Law of Recency.** Other things being equal, the things most recently learned are the best remembered. Conversely, the further a student is removed time-wise from a new fact or understanding the more difficulty they have remembering it. It is sometimes easy, for example, to recall a telephone number dialled a few minutes previously, but it is usually impossible to recall an unfamiliar number dialled a week earlier.

1.13 The instructor recognises the law of recency when they carefully plan a summary for a lesson or an effective conclusion for a lecture. They repeat, restate or re-emphasise important matters at the end of a lesson, to make sure that the students remember them, instead of inconsequential details. The law of recency can often be applied advantageously in determining the relative positions of lectures within a course of instruction, and it is followed in scheduling briefings immediately before missions.

1.14 **The Law of Primacy.** For any topic, the things taught first often create a strong, almost unshakeable, impression. For the teacher, this means that their learning must be right. “Un-teaching” is more difficult than teaching. Every student should be started right, their first experience should be positive and functional so that they can prepare and lay the foundations for all that is to follow.

1.15 **The Law of Effect.** This law is based on the emotional reaction of the learner. It states that learning is strengthened when accompanied by a pleasant or satisfying feeling, and that learning is weakened when associated with an unpleasant feeling. An experience that produces feelings of defeat, frustration, anger, confusion or futility in a student is unpleasant for them. Impressing students with the seeming impossibility of a problem can make the teaching task difficult. Usually it is better to show students that a problem is not

impossible at all, but is within their capability to understand and solve. Whatever the learning situation, it should contain elements that affect the student positively and give them a feeling of satisfaction. Every learning experience does not have to be entirely successful, nor does the student have to master each lesson completely. However a student's chance of success will be increased if the learning experience is pleasant.

1.16 The Law of Intensity. A vivid, dramatic or exciting learning experience teaches more than a routine or boring experience. A student can learn more about fire-fighting from watching someone fight a fire than from listening to a lecture on the subject. The law of intensity then implies that a student will learn more from the real thing than a substitute. Since the classroom imposes limitations on the amount of realism that can be brought into teaching, the instructor should use imagination in approaching reality as closely as possible. OHT's, mock-ups, coloured slides, movies, filmstrips, charts, posters, photographs and other audio-visual aids can add vividness to classroom instruction.

Impact on the Ability to Remember

- a. Minimise interference (other learning which overshadows/intervenes as it is similar material);
- b. Thoroughly prepare cadets for learning, thus decreasing their chance of forgetting;
- c. Disuse is a major factor in forgetting;
- d. Learning plateau's can occur because of bad instruction, poor motivation, poor health or personal worries;
- e. Learning plateau's can occur under 'normal' circumstances too! Expect them!;
- f. Saturation - the amount that can be absorbed and retained by the brain in a given time is limited;
- g. Fatigue - Prolonged exertion (either mental or physical) produces fatigue;
- h. Rule - Teach theory in the morning, practical in the afternoon; and
- i. First learned and last learned are best remembered.

SECTION 3 - The Learning Senses and the Environment

1.17 **Importance of the Senses.** All learning results from information received by the senses. The effective instructor understands the relative importance of the senses and plans their work accordingly. Below are the approximate figures for each of the senses:

- | | | |
|----|---------|-----|
| a. | Sight | 83% |
| b. | Hearing | 10% |
| c. | Smell | 4% |
| d. | Touch | 2% |
| e. | Taste | 1% |

1.18 Most of our new impressions come through the eyes. The printed pages, the picture on a screen, writing on a whiteboard or chart or diagram, a piece of equipment or a process are only a few of the many ways in which our eyes are used in learning.

1.19 Hearing is next in importance. The instructor's voice, the radio or sound track of a film, the question by a classmate and the hum of a machine, all play a significant part in the hearing process. As instructors we tend to rely heavily on verbal explanation and the cadets ability to hear. For this to be effective verbal explanation, where possible it should be accompanied with visualisation.

1.20 When it comes to learning new skills the sense of touch has special significance. We learn through our sense of touch more than we would credit. The filing of a smooth surface on a piece of metal, the changing of gears in a vehicle, and the vibration of a machine are typical applications of the sense of touch to learning.

1.21 Of less importance are the senses of smell and taste. They have a more limited application to learning in the classroom or workshop. However, the odour of liquids is important in learning to identify fuels and the cook would learn very little if deprived of the use of these two senses.

1.22 **Number of Senses Used.** If two or more impressions arrive at the brain at the same time we will receive a stronger impression and will learn more easily. A combination of impressions speeds up learning and makes it more lasting.

1.23 **Vividness of the Impressions.** If you examine some of the things you have learned you will probably find that those that made a strong impression at the time stick more clearly in your mind. For instance, colours are more vivid than black and white and make a stronger visual impression. Movement, unusual sounds, painful or very pleasant experiences all leave vivid impressions, which stick in our minds. The instructor must remember this fact and exploit it during instruction.

Learning and the Environment

1.24 **The Brain.** Attract the brain with movement, contrast and colour changes. Use visuals and change the instructional medium - videos, posters, mind maps, drawings,

symbols and if possible use 'the real thing'. A lot of talking may 'deliver content' but it is not very memorable.

1.25 **Noise.** Use variety in instructional environments. Add variety to the environments you create; over a span of 2 weeks provide silence (ear plugs optional), encourage co-learning as well as individual learning. Don't stress uniformity in the environment.

1.26 **The Seasons & Temperature.** Explore ways of improving lighting (natural if possible) in dingy classrooms. A passive approach to the surroundings by the instructor can actually detract from learning, making it less enriching if effort was made to enhance with visual and audio. Let your trainees control the temperature of the room - (suggested optimum is 19°C) - it's better to be cool rather than too warm.

1.27 **Colour.** Colour is part of the spectrum of electromagnetic radiation and each wavelength (colour) affects our body and brain differently.

<p>RED</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • emotive colour • DANGER • considered disturbing/exciting • causes release of adrenaline <p>ORANGE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • halfway between red and yellow <p>BLUE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • calming • feelings of well being <p>GRAY</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • neutral • personality and state of the moment <p>DARKER COLOURS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lower stress 	<p>YELLOW</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • first colour distinguished by the brain • stress, apprehension and caution <p>GREEN</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • calming • better immune system <p>BROWN</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • sense of security, relaxation • reduces fatigue <p>BRIGHTER COLOURS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • increase aggressive and nervous behaviour
<p>FOR OPTIMUM LEARNING</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Choose yellow, beige or off-white — they stimulate positive feelings. 	

1.28 **Peripherals.** Positively influence your learners – escape from traditional “chalk and talk”. A passive approach to the surroundings by the instructor can actually detract from learning, making it less enriching than if effort was made to enhance with visual and audios.

1.29 **Light.** Soft, natural lighting is best for learning; give trainees some choice in where they sit. Many trainees may under-perform because lighting is difficult on their eyes.

1.30 **Dehydration.** Remind trainees to drink water before class and allow them to bring water to class. Trainees who are bored, listless and drowsy may be dehydrated.

1.31 **Check the Venue.** Make sure you take time to inspect where you are going to instruct. Sometimes it won't even be a classroom. If you don't visit your venue before the course starts you might find yourself struggling with difficulties that could have been easily avoided. When you are looking at the room ask yourself:

- a. Can I be seen by everyone?
- b. Can I be heard by everyone?
- c. Are there any distractions?
- d. Is the room comfortable and well ventilated?

1.32 You need to think about the types of instructional activities you intend to do and how the physical set up of the room will affect what you want to do.

1.33 Then you can make any changes that are necessary (before the course begin) to make certain that everything runs smoothly. This includes thinking about the room layouts that will be used for different sessions.

1.34 There are many other ways you can arrange the furniture and equipment. The important thing is to make this type of planning an integral part of your preparation. It will help you to make sure that you have everything ready well before the course is due to begin.

CHAPTER 2 - Young Adults in Training

SECTION 1 - Young Adults in Training

2.1 Cadets are people who have needs, drive and desires that must be satisfied. If the cadet is frustrated, the learning process is interfered with.

2.2 The instructor's responsibility is to minimise cadet frustration. They can do this in a number of ways:

- a. By knowing the basic background of the cadets when they join a unit or start a course (if possible);
- b. By the presentation of material:
 - (1) Sequentially arranged, so as to not 'leave anyone in the dark'.
 - (2) Interestingly presented, to arouse motivation and feelings of relevance.
 - (3) Employing a variety of teaching methods.
 - (4) Lecture/discussion groups/instruction sheets etc.
- c. By their personal manner:
 - (1) Being approachable, so that cadets know they can present you with their learning problems.
 - (2) Being knowledgeable in your subject area, so that the cadet feels confident in the worth of your training.
 - (3) Knowing the cadets by name, as individuals.
 - (4) Giving positive recognition where it is due for tasks well done, and not just mentioning negative tasks.
 - (5) Admitting personal mistakes - no one can be right all of the time.
 - (6) Taking cadets into your confidence - at least to the extent of letting them know what is expected of them, and keeping them informed of their progress.
- d. By their arrangement of the learning environment:
 - (1) Heating/lighting levels.
 - (2) Classroom layout.
 - (3) Ventilation.
 - (4) Decrease outside noise levels.

SECTION 2 - Characteristics of a Learner

2.3 Whether you accept it easily or not, the reality is that the cadets you are going to be dealing with are young adults. As such there are certain characteristics that you should consider when planning your lessons.

Characteristics of an Adult Learner	How This May Help Your Planning
People will come from different backgrounds.	People will have their own values and ways of working that can add to the interest and depth of the course.
Different language experiences.	Vary your presentation to avoid overload of formal talk or reading and give opportunities for course members to question and explore ideas.
The learners are volunteers.	Your course members are keen to co-operate.
People have a variety of outside pressures.	Some are fully committed to your course, but some may not be able to give so much time.
Some people may have lost a lot of personal confidence and feel quite apprehensive, while others find participating much easier.	Be relaxed yourself and establish a friendly atmosphere, so that people feel free to ask questions and become involved.
People vary in their physical abilities, especially hearing, sight and concentration.	Speak clearly, write plainly, bring people close to each other for discussion, and frequently check that you are being understood.
Remember: The training must be seen by the cadet as important, challenging and necessary.	

2.4 **The “Six Discipline” Philosophy.** The Six Discipline Philosophies are:

- Disruptions are Normal.** Disruptions will happen, it is easier for you to adapt to them than to try to change the world;
- The classroom is a ‘learning environment’.** Better learning occurs in a classroom in which occasional discipline takes place, not a well-disciplined class (learn or else!). The worst environment for learning is high stress, high fear. The optimal learning state is low stress high challenge;
- Cadets are basically good.** No one wakes up in the morning with the sole intent of ‘getting you’. Cadets have normal needs of expression, control, and attention. Some of the ways they express their needs are inappropriate for the classroom. Try to provide productive outlets for the frustration, and need for attention. Couple this with the message ‘you are a good person, but that behaviour has to go’;

- d. **The best discipline is the kind nobody notices.** The more outraged you become about discipline problems; the more they occur. If you're upset who's in control? Where the attention goes the energy flows - keep attention on learning. When problems arise respond to where the cadet is at rather than giving a lecture and a discussion of the rules (use this as a last resort);
- e. **It's not your class - it's the group's group.** The class has its own culture and they behave according to their culture, not yours. If you over exert your power as a leader without the group's permission they sabotage your lesson. Position gives you power not permission. Their power comes from wasting your time and withholding key information, what group rules will encourage them to create; and
- f. **Prevention is better than cure.** Keep cadets involved, avoid unplanned downtime and do behind the scenes work with cadets who need it. Create the optimal conditions for learning and you'll avoid 95% of the problems.

Remember

- Limit the amount of focused time by switching activities. (Age of cadets = minutes of focus time).
- Create more WIIFM. (What's in it for me) The more learning meets their goals the more engaged they'll get.
- Make rules fair, clear and enforceable... the fewer the better. Make sure they know the reasons behind the rules. Display the rules.
- Put trainees in co-operative groups. Use groups as a source of fun and positive peer pressure.
- Make positive eye contact with trainee within the first minutes of class.
- Make the training room more interesting to be in and change it often.
- Anticipate, read and respond to the trainee states. Frustration usually leads to apathy, anger, or revenge. Aim to prevent problems.
- Keep the physical body moving many times per hour or the brain will switch off. (Use brain gym exercises).
- Keep your own stress levels low - 'download work each day.
- Encourage trainee evaluations - their input will help improve the instruction and reduce the likelihood of problems.

2.5 **Learning Styles.** All learners tend towards one of three different learning styles although all learners incorporate all three styles to some degree. These styles are summarised by the letters VAK:

- a. **Visual** - Learn best by seeing things either in reality or 'in their minds';

- b. **Auditory** - learn best through hearing about something or relating ideas to meaningful sounds; and
- c. **Kinetic** - Learn best by touching things, manipulating objects or part of a puzzle.

2.6 A good instructor recognises this and caters for all three styles in their lesson planning. Guides to understanding how people learn are in Annex A and B of this chapter.

2.7 **Visual Learners.** Visual learners learn through seeing. They tend to:

- a. Prefer to see what they are learning; they see things in their mind;
- b. Prefer to see the instructors body-language and facial expression to fully understand the content of the lesson;
- c. Prefer sitting at the front of the classroom to avoid visual obstructions (e.g. peoples heads);
- d. Think in pictures and learn best from visual displays including diagrams, illustrated texts books, overhead transparencies, videos, flipcharts and handouts; and
- e. Prefer to take detailed notes during a lecture or classroom discussion to absorb the information.

2.8 For visual learners you should:

- a. Use visual materials such as pictures, charts, maps, graphs, etc;
- b. Provide a clear view for your students when you are speaking so they can see your body language and facial expressions;
- c. Use colour to highlight important points in prescribed text;
- d. Request student take notes or provide handouts;
- e. Illustrate ideas as a picture or get students to use a brainstorming bubble before writing them down;
- f. Use multi-media (e.g. computers, videos and filmstrips); and
- g. Provide breakout areas that are in a quiet place away from verbal disturbances.

2.9 **Auditory Learners.** Auditory learners learn through listening. They tend to:

- a. Receive information by listening;
- b. Express their understanding by talking;
- c. Learn best through verbal lectures, discussions, talking things through and listening to what others have to say;

- d. Interpret the underlying meanings of speech through listening to tone of voice, pitch, speed and other nuances.

2.10 Written information may have little meaning until it is heard. These learners often benefit from reading text aloud and using a voice recorder.

2.11 For auditory learners you should:

- a. Use class discussions/debates;
- b. Use speeches and presentations;
- c. Allow the use of tape recorder during lectures instead of taking notes;
- d. Create mnemonics to aid memorisation; and
- e. Use verbal analogies, and storytelling to demonstrate your point.

2.12 **Kinaesthetic Learners.** Kinaesthetic learners learn through moving, doing and touching:

- a. Kinaesthetic learners tend to want to see how things move, work or operate; and
- b. Tactile/Kinaesthetic persons learn best through a hands-on approach, actively exploring the physical world around them. They may find it hard to sit still for long periods and may become distracted by their need for activity and exploration.

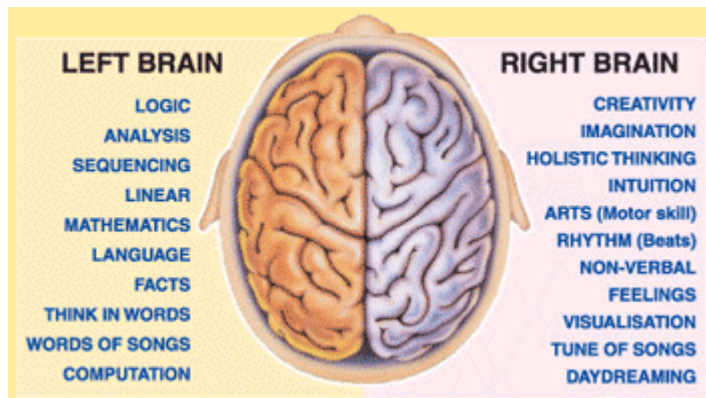
2.13 For Tactile/Kinaesthetic learners you should:

- a. Provide frequent breaks;
- b. Move the students around to learn new things (e.g. move them to a demonstration table, then move them to the whiteboard for an explanation);
- c. Provide working models for training aids;
- d. Use posters and graphics; and
- e. Use music during lessons.

ANNEX A – Left Brain vs Right Brain

Here's a quick overview of how the brain processes information.

Basic Characteristics of Left and Right brain:



In general, the left and right hemispheres of our brain process information in different ways. While we have a natural tendency towards one way of thinking, the two sides of our brain work together in our everyday lives. The right brain of the brain focuses on the visual, and processes information in an intuitive and simultaneous way, looking first at the whole picture then the details. The focus of the left brain is verbal, processing information in an analytical and sequential way, looking first at the pieces then putting them together to get the whole.

Left brain thinking is verbal and analytical. Right brain is non-verbal and intuitive, using pictures rather than words. The best illustration of this is to listen to people give directions. The left brain person will say something like "From here, go west three blocks and turn north on Queen Street. Go three or four miles and then turn east onto Broad Street." The right brain person will sound something like this: "Turn right (pointing right), by the church over there (pointing again). Then you will pass a McDonalds and a Warehouse. At the next light, turn right toward the Caltex station."

Though right-brain or non-verbal thinking is often regarded as more 'creative', there is no right or wrong here; it is merely two different ways of thinking. One is not better than the other, just as being right-handed is not 'superior' to being left-handed. What is important is to be aware that there are different ways of thinking, and by knowing what your natural preference is, you can pay attention to your less dominant side to improve the same.

By consciously using the right side of our brain, we can be more creative. More so, because left brain strategies are the ones used most often in the classroom, right brain students sometimes feel neglected.

By activating the power of both hemispheres, a student will be able to retain knowledge better and become proficient in any subject, especially math.

Workings of Our Brain

The human brain is made up of two halves. These halves are commonly called the right brain and left brain, but should more correctly be termed 'hemispheres'. For some reason, our right and left hemispheres control the 'opposite' side of our bodies, so the right hemisphere controls our left side and processes what we see in our left eye while the left hemisphere controls the right side and processes what our right eye sees.

The concept of right brain and left brain thinking developed from the research in the late 1960s of an American psychobiologist Roger W Sperry. He discovered that the human brain has two very different ways of thinking. One (the right brain) is visual and processes information in an intuitive and simultaneous way, looking first at the whole picture then the details. The other (the left brain) is verbal and processes information in an analytical and sequential way, looking first at the pieces then putting them together to get the whole. Sperry was awarded a Nobel Prize in 1981.

So as you know, the human brain consists of the right brain and the left brain. The shapes of these two parts are similar, but differences have been gradually found in their functions. The left brain is also referred to as the digital brain. It controls reading and writing, calculation, and logical thinking. The right brain is referred to as the analog brain. It controls three-dimensional sense, creativity, and artistic senses. These two work together, to allow us to function as humans.

Right and Left Brain Dominance Test

Do this test quickly, choosing the first answer that comes to mind, or the one that occurs most often.

<p>1. I tend to be more often...</p> <p>a) tense and worried</p> <p>b) relaxed and easy going</p>	<p>11. I remember people by their...</p> <p>a) faces</p> <p>b) names</p>
<p>2. When listening to music I notice the...</p> <p>a) beat</p> <p>b) melody</p>	<p>12. Science...</p> <p>a) will never explain many things</p> <p>b) should eventually explain everything</p>
<p>3. I learn best by...</p> <p>a) listening to lectures and taking notes</p> <p>b) reading and following hunches</p>	<p>13. I like people who...</p> <p>a) keep weighing up the pros and cons</p> <p>b) are sure of their conclusions</p>
<p>4. I prefer to play...</p> <p>a) scrabble</p> <p>b) draughts or chess</p>	<p>14. Other people see me as...</p> <p>a) Imaginative</p> <p>b) reliable</p>
<p>5. When shopping I...</p> <p>a) buy deliberately</p> <p>b) buy on impulse</p>	<p>15. Much of what is Important in life...</p> <p>a) can't be expressed in words</p> <p>b) can be communicated in words</p>
<p>6. When I learn something new I...</p> <p>a) understand it by piecing it together</p> <p>b) suddenly understand it all at once</p>	<p>16. I am more</p> <p>a) co-operative than competitive</p> <p>b) competitive than co-operative</p>
<p>7. I have hunches...</p> <p>a) rarely</p> <p>b) often</p>	<p>17. I enjoy...</p> <p>a) being alone with my thoughts</p> <p>b) being with people</p>
<p>8. I have trouble putting feelings and opinions into words...</p> <p>a) rarely</p> <p>b) often</p>	<p>18. I prefer to...</p> <p>a) be spontaneous</p> <p>b) make plans and schedules</p>
<p>9. When taking a trip I prefer to...</p> <p>a) write down directions</p> <p>b) use a map</p>	<p>19. My house and workplace are...</p> <p>a) comfortable and messy</p> <p>b) tidy and well organised</p>
<p>10. When I choose clothes I like...</p> <p>a) relatively understated colour and style</p> <p>b) flair and bright colours</p>	<p>20. I make judgments...</p> <p>a) on first impressions</p> <p>b) after careful analysis and deliberation</p>
<p>TOTAL: L= R=</p>	

ANNEX B - V.A.K. Dominance Test

Do this test quickly, choosing the first answer that comes to mind, or the one that occurs most often.

1. When relaxing I prefer to...	11. In class I prefer...
a) read or watch television	a) lectures and discussions
b) listen to radio or music	b) experiments and activities
c) play sport	c) diagrams and pictures
2. When trying to remember people I...	12. I choose videos which are...
a) remember names but forget faces	a) action and adventure
b) remember what I did with them	b) drama and comedy
c) remember faces but forget names	c) music
3. When concentrating I get distracted by...	13. I can tell what sort of mood a person is in by...
a) people or things moving around	a) looking at their face
b) untidiness	b) listening to their voice
c) noise	c) their gestures
4. I learned most about the traffic rules from...	14. I prefer the humour of...
a) the road code book	a) comedians who talk
b) the driving instructor	b) slapstick action
c) the driving experience	c) comics and cartoons
5. I solve problems most easily by...	15. At a party I spend most of my time...
a) talking through possible solutions	a) circulating around or dancing
b) hands on experience	b) watching what is happening
c) writing or drawing out possible solutions	c) talking and listening with others
6. If I had to wait an hour for the bus I would...	16. Explain something to me by...
a) fidget and walk around	a) diagrams, pictures, maps or graphs
b) watch people or the scenery	b) talking
c) talk to myself or others	c) demonstrating
7. To show sympathy I would...	17. I like classes wherein which I can learn by...
a) write a card	a) listening to the teacher
b) telephone	b) moving around doing things
c) visit	c) writing or doing worksheets
8. I try to spell a new or difficult word by...	18. I learn skills best in sports when the coach...
a) sounding it out	a) demonstrates
b) writing it to see how it feels	b) explains with the whiteboard
c) writing it to see how it looks	c) talks about the skill

20 01/17 Supercedes all previous versions

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ANNEX C – Interpreting the Answers

Right and Left Brain Dominance Test

Questions 1 – 10	Answer	a) indicates left brain dominant b) indicates right brain dominant
Questions 11-20	Answer	a) indicates right brain dominant b) indicates left brain dominant
12+ of either	indicates a dominance	

V.A.K. Dominance Test

Questions 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16, 19	a)	represents V
	b)	represents A
	c)	represents K
Questions 2,5, 8, 11, 14, 17,20	a)	represents A
	b)	represents K
	c)	represents V
Questions 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18	a)	represents K
	b)	represents V
	c)	represents A

Results show to what extent each dominates an individuals learning style

CHAPTER 3 - The Instructor

SECTION 1 - The Qualities of an Instructor

3.1 The aim of this Chapter is to examine the instructor - cadet relationship from the point of view of the personality and attitude of the instructor themselves.

Instructor Qualities

Introduction.

3.2 Many instructors instruct not because they want to, but because by virtue of their rank, they find themselves in charge of some aspect of training other personnel. Some, no doubt, envy the natural ability of others to instruct without appreciating that these qualities can be acquired.

3.3 The following section describes the qualities of a good instructor; they include:

- a. Confidence;
- b. Manner;
- c. Attitude;
- d. Diligence;
- e. Enthusiasm; and
- f. Mana.

Confidence.

3.4 This is going to stem from a thorough knowledge of subject matter. Instructors must know their stuff and their standard must be well above that of the class. In addition, they must be totally conscientious and painstaking in planning and preparing their instruction.

3.5 Happy in their knowledge and secure in their planning, instructors should be confident; success is going to breed more confidence. When you have limited or no experience to draw from, it is still important to convey confidence in front of your cadets. Always portraying a confident front is extremely important, as cadets will believe in you, even in complex adverse situations.

Manner.

3.6 By the word 'manner' we mean the instructor's appearance and way of speaking and moving during instruction:

Speaking.

3.7 The instructor must be clear and distinct, using proper emphasis and avoiding a monotonous drone. Varying the Rhythm, Speed, Volume and Pitch (RSVP) of their voice

will help hold the class's attention. Tip: Instructors who have qualms about the quality of their voice can check by recording it;

Movement.

3.8 An instructor's movement should be natural and easy, neither forced nor frozen. Appropriate use of body movement and gestures on the part of the instructor adds a touch of variety to the presentation;

Appearance.

3.9 An instructor's appearance should be well turned out; all items of dress should be appropriate. Scruffiness is distracting and should be avoided. A neatly turned out instructor is likely to produce neat and systematic instruction; and

Avoid.

3.10 An instructor should avoid annoying mannerisms like repeating the same word or a constant body movement.

Attitude.

3.11 This is largely a matter of person-management and can be best summarised in three words:

- a. **Fair.** Instructors must be fair, avoiding favouritism and sarcasm, or picking on the slower member of the class to gain a cheap laugh. They must avoid bluff and where necessary, admit their mistakes;
- b. **Firm.** You must be firm, without being brutal or brittle; and
- c. **Friendly.** Instructors must be on friendly terms with their students. This does not mean backslapping or using first names: it means establishing a sensible relationship based on mutual respect. Encourage class initiative and activity, acknowledge student achievement, and make the class really feel that their success matters to you, the instructor.

Remember what it was like as a student and try to be the instructor you wish you had had. Don't forget where you have come from and treat your students as you would like to be treated.

Diligence.

3.12 Instructors must be diligent, steady and earnest in their application to the task. They must also be painstaking and persistent in their attention to detail, and never allow themselves to cut corners at the expense of good instruction. Never be satisfied with second-rate standards; the instructor must always work hard to improve.

Enthusiasm.

3.13 Enthusiasm could be defined as 'intense interest' or 'passionate zeal'. Enthusiasm is an essential quality in every instructor. It is easy to appear enthusiastic about an

interesting subject, but the good instructor is enthusiastic about every subject. The instructor's drive and vigour can so gain the class's interest that they carry the students along with them.

3.14 The instructor imparts this enthusiasm by both a conviction of the importance of the subject, and a belief in the importance of the class's mastering it. Where possible, relate instruction to the student's job and back it up with sound training.

Mana.

3.15 Remember, you are training people to be leaders. It does not provide you with a licence to physically strike a student or take unfair advantage of your position of authority over them. Remember, mana is earned through positive deeds, but can be lost indefinitely through one inappropriate action.

In Summary

3.16 Providing a person has **Confidence** in themselves, the right **Manner**, the correct **Attitude** to their students, is **Diligent** and can show their **Enthusiasm**; they can be **made** into a good instructor.

SECTION 2 - Training Principles

3.17 Providing the needs of both the student and the organisation is a constant challenge to training units. In addition to the command, leadership and training skills you bring with you to the training environment, you should apply the following principles:

- a. Relevance;
- b. Sensibleness;
- c. Challenge;
- d. Competition;
- e. Humour;
- f. Accountability;
- g. Equity;
- h. Respect; and
- i. Discipline.

Relevant Training

3.18 You must provide training which can be seen to be relevant. Training objectives must be clearly defined, regularly reviewed, and strictly adhered to so that precious resources are not wasted. Sticking to the lesson plan is an essential discipline, providing valuable guidance.

Sensible Training

3.19 Training must be progressive, safe and sensibly achievable. Safe training does not mean being over-cautious, unadventurous and therefore boring. You must not push your students faster than they can learn and you must allow them time to profit from their mistakes.

Challenging Training

3.20 Induction training by its very nature presents a considerable challenge, but care should be taken to ensure that subsequent and advanced training also challenges the student mentally, physically and intellectually.

Competition in Training

3.21 An instructor must always strive to encourage healthy competition. Success should be rewarded and poor performance exposed. Competition between individuals or teams involving mental or physical endeavour is an excellent device for developing spirit and the will to win.

Humour in Training

3.22 Humour is a powerful ally in the provision of effective training. You must always aim to make training fun. The student will find it memorable and will be looking for more; however be careful not to portray training as a joke.

Accountability in Training

3.23 You must be accountable for the training and well-being of all your students, recognising their individual strengths and weaknesses. This task demands total commitment and a sense of responsibility. You must be prepared to spend extra time coaching or providing informal tuition to assist those of your students who are in difficulty.

Equity in Training

3.24 The NZCF is drawn from many different culture and social backgrounds. All students, regardless of rank, gender, religion or ethnic origin are to be accorded fair and equitable treatment. Discrimination, harassment, intimidation or humiliation of any kind will not be tolerated anywhere in the New Zealand Cadet Forces.

Respect in Training

3.25 It is important that a relationship based on mutual respect exists between instructor and student. This will come naturally to the good instructors who will continually seek to develop the students' self-respect with constructive criticism and forceful encouragement. Nothing is achieved by physical humiliation or the use of violent, filthy or abusive language; apart from losing the respect of your students.

Discipline in Training

3.26 As an instructor you must clearly understand your disciplinary powers as published in the NZCF Policy and Administration Manual, Chapter 10. All disciplinary action must be clearly recorded and open for inspection.

SECTION 3 - Cultural Influences on Learning

What is Culture?

Culture is what holds a community together, giving a common framework of meaning. It includes how people communicate with each other, how we make decisions, how we structure our families and who we think is important. It expresses our values towards land and time and our attitudes towards work and play, good and evil, reward and punishment. Culture is preserved in language, symbols and customs and celebrated in art, music, drama, literature, religion and social gatherings. It constitutes the collective memory of the people and the collective heritage which will be passed down to generations still to come. Culture is expressed in the structures a society sets up to regulate its own members, in commerce, justice, education and politics.

(Yensen H., Hague K. and McCreanor T., 1989, Honouring the Treaty.)

Culture is defined as the world view and behaviours of individual learners and groups of learners which affect the way they interact and learn. Culture may include beliefs, values, customary lore, language and idiom, verbal and non-verbal communication, protocol, music, ritual and beliefs in the origin and nature of knowledge, ethnicity, age, disability and gender.

(NZQA Unit Standard 7091, v2, 2006, Special Notes definition)

Factors.

3.27 Culture is a product of many factors, including:

- a. **Location:** Where do I live, where do I come from, where do I view as home?
- b. **Ethnicity:** Who am I and to which group do I belong?
- c. **Family and Background:** Who and what is important to me?
- d. **Beliefs:** What do I believe in?
- e. **Values:** What are the moral rules that govern my behaviour?

Our Culture Affects our Point of View

Captain Cook discovered New Zealand.

(NZ History text)

Abel Tasman or Captain Cook did not find us. We were never aware that we were lost.

(Chief Judge Eddie Durie, 1990, Treaty of Waitangi Booklet)

Understanding Culture in the New Zealand Cadet Forces

3.28 It is important to emphasise that every person is a member of a variety of micro-cultural groups. Many people have lived in more than one dominant culture. Cultural identifications are multiple; eclectic, mixed and heterogeneous, not just ethnicity or race.

3.29 A person who enters a new dominant culture exhibits one or more of the following responses:

- a. Assimilation – assuming the behaviours of the dominant culture;
- b. Maintenance – maintaining their own cultural identity; and
- c. Biculturalism – behaving differently according to the situation in which they find themselves.

3.30 Cadets are drawn from a broad range of cultural groups and backgrounds. All people who enter our organisation undergo a form of initial training where they learn the values, protocols and language that we use. During that training they are immersed in the New Zealand Cadet Forces and its culture; this is where they experience for the first time the elements of tradition – (Corps), rank and language – that make us unique.

3.31 As you adopt these traits into your own identity you will complete the assimilation response, but it is important that you retain your own identity within the wider organisational culture. As you progress through your time in the NZCF the breadth and depth of that knowledge increases with the experience you gain.

Respecting Culture

3.32 **Cultural Respect in a Learning Context.** We respect individual cultures by recognising and appreciating differences. Our way of working: individual learners, learning groups, and learning organisations, all develop their own culture and this affects the way in which we interact and learn.

3.33 **Correct use of Names.** How do you feel, when someone incorrectly pronounces or spells your name, your rank or both?

3.34 Everyone's name is immensely important to them. Names may be associated with family lines or have historical or special meaning. Using the correct name, the correct pronunciation, and the correct spelling makes a person feel valued and respected.

3.35 The same sentiment applies to military rank or appointment; we have all joined the NZCF but within the wider 'family', we have specific Corps affiliations. Our Corps have unique culture, values and traditions.

Things You Can Do

3.36 **Make an Effort.** Ask the person to help you: Ask them to pronounce their family name and ask for the name they wish to be addressed by.

3.37 Never abbreviate names or ranks, unless the recipient has given you that permission. If you do not have an opportunity to discuss with the recipient, try and break their name down into syllables, and emphasise each vowel.

3.38 **Tools.** The following are a few tools that can be used:

- a. Having accurate student nominal rolls;

- b. Checking and/or repeating pronunciations during introductions;
- c. Conducting group introductions, so that students can introduce themselves and get to know each other's names;
- d. Using name cards;
- e. Does your name have a specific meaning or history? and
- f. What do you do to ensure the correct use of names (including your own) in your training?

When learners are introducing themselves to me, I will make a point of repeating their name to them to seek agreement (a nod or a smile, or other acknowledgement) that I have pronounced their name correctly. I will silently rehearse the name to myself as well, and in some cases write it down in a way that helps me to remember the correct pronunciation...

3.39 An important way to show your students respect is to learn their names and pronounce them correctly:

- a. Acknowledge what you don't know and that you're trying. Let students know that you would welcome help from them; and
- b. Put yourself in their place. How would you feel if your name was continually mispronounced?

3.40 Names have different significance in different cultural groups. For instance, in some cultures, it is acceptable to be known by more than one name.

Instructing a New Group

3.41 Set an objective to conduct an 'icebreaker' within the first lesson you take with your new group. Explain to the group the goal of your icebreaker; ensure you provide context and actively participate yourself.

3.42 Using an 'icebreaker' for introductions gives both you and the students an opportunity to pronounce their name correctly., provide options on how they would be referred to during the lessons and the option to share some personal information.

3.43 By going first you provide the students with an example of the information you would like to share; inviting them to participate shows you are accepting that as students; they have a valuable role to play in the success of the learning.

Respecting Culture Through Language

3.44 Careful use of language recognises the differing levels of understanding in your classroom.

3.45 Avoid the following:

- a. Using jargon that is not familiar to the entire group:

- b. Using expressions familiar to your own culture; they can create barriers to learning for others;
- c. Using long or complicated words; and
- d. The use of abusive, sexist or racist language; it is unacceptable.

3.46 Do use the following:

- a. Use plain and simple language;
- b. Check for understanding – finding out your students' level and work at the level;
- c. Model good practice by using inclusive language, avoiding any cultural put-downs, and speak out when others do so;
- d. Introduce more complicated terms along with clear explanations; and
- e. Raise the level of understanding by introducing new terms and concepts. Always check the student has understood. As an instructor you must challenge the student, but be patient.

Protocol

3.47 Protocol is not limited to an organisation or unit; all instructors will have protocols that they like followed within the lessons they take. Common Protocols are:

- a. Introductions in the first lesson using icebreakers to make connections; or
- b. Setting ground rules as a group and getting group commitment to them (these stay on the wall); sometimes called a 'learning contract'.
 - (1) For example: Setting clear 'my' rules as the instructor – **DON'T BL8**
 - (a) **D** – Don't talk over others
 - (b) **O** – observe all fire, safety and security procedures
 - (c) **N** – No use of IT during lessons (cell phones, e-mails)
 - (d) **T** – There is no such thing as a silly question
 - (e) **B** – Be courteous to others
 - (f) **L** – Listen and respect others' views
 - (g) **8** – 8 o'clock is when I start, be on time

3.48 Other forms of protocol you may employ is the 'course managers' brief:

- a. Aim of the training;

- b. Key personnel;
- c. Location of resources and facilities (house and grounds); and
- d. Training programme explanation; lesson plan sequence.

Gender

3.49 In all cultures, male and female differences play a part. Historically, the male gender has taken the predominant roles in most cultures, and although this stereotype has changed in the western world and especially within New Zealand, it still remains the case in many countries – males retain speaking rights, primary duties or responsibilities, decision-making and leadership roles.

How Does Culture Relate To Learning

3.50 The learner-centred approach is a key element of adult education, where the learner's background, experience, aspirations, and preferences are critical to shaping the direction of learning. This is about ensuring that the learner's needs are at the centre of any delivery. For some learners, this will mean more self-directed learning or one-to-one tutoring. For other learners, it may mean more group-based activities or more instructor-led methods of delivery.

3.51 Understanding Your Learners:

- a. Learning contexts;
- b. Learning styles; and
- c. The learning environment.

Learning Contexts.

3.52 This is how you go about presenting the learning; this includes group discussions, role-plays, lectures, simulations, individual or group presentations.

3.53 As an instructor, you may recognise the importance, or the necessity, of using a particular method to assess competency or understanding – you need to ensure that the group understands this. Do:

- a. Vary your approach to your delivery so that you will be more likely to meet the diverse cultural needs of your students;
- b. Share with your group how the learning is going to happen (and why), and invite questions or comments from the group; and
- c. Share with your group how the assessment has to happen, explain why, and confirm understanding.

Learning Styles.

3.54 Learners learn differently. This makes catering for all learning styles core challenging with larger groups. Most learners (including instructors) have a preferred or dominant learning style.

3.55 **Do.** Vary your delivery methods and learning contexts by mixing the use of visual prompts/posters, group discussion and learning-by-doing tasks, activities and practice. Ensure there is a mix of ideas, discussion and activity and opportunities for the group to lead as well as listen.

Generalised Cultural Learning Styles

3.56 By having an understanding of cultural learning styles an instructor can better prepare the learning environment.

Aspects of Cultural Learning Styles.

3.57 The following generalisations have been provided to indicate some examples of cultural learning styles. The examples have been prepared on aspects of Maori culture in education and are readily adaptable to the wider Polynesian community. The contrasting approach could be considered a European approach.

Aspects of Maori Learning Styles.

3.58 Aspects of Maori learning styles are:

- a. Maori culture tends towards a holistic approach to education. Subjects are taken together rather than separately;
- b. Learning in groups is favoured over individuals working on their own;
- c. Knowledge belongs to the group, and used by the group rather than for individual ambition;
- d. Individual achievement is less important than learning to be an acceptable group member, working in groups and learning the skills of interpersonal relations and cooperation;
- e. Much important learning takes place in peer groups. Knowledge is pooled and things worked out in group discussion;
- f. There is emphasis on the learner looking, listening and imitating, with a minimum of instruction or discussion;
- g. Learners are encouraged to learn by doing, and by doing tasks in their proper setting;
- h. Maori tutors tend to avoid singling out individuals for praise or blame;
- i. Memorisation and rote learning have an important place in transmitting parts of the culture and values;

- j. Storytelling is an important medium, including imagery and repetition;
- k. The relationship between the teacher and learner is central to effective learning, and the emotional tone is vitally important; and
- l. Education involves the heart as well as the head.

The Learning Environment

3.59 Where formality is essential, the learning environment will be clearly designed to reflect those requirements. Alternatively, in other learning environments, the degree of formal learning may be kept to a minimum.

Physical Surroundings.

3.60 Some learners, for example, prefer the non-institutional appearance of community-based learning centres. They like the informality and whanau atmosphere reinforced by the décor and the presence of the same ethnicity.

3.61 Other learners prefer the large and formal institutions where participation in learning is familiar in terms of formal education. These learners like the anonymity made possible by being part of the larger settings.

Clean and tidy physical surroundings help to promote a positive learning environment. Involving learners in creating those physical surroundings encourages a sense of pride and ownership.

(Sharing for Success, 2000)

3.62 The way you position yourself and your students in the lecture room, training shelter or workplace indicates the level of interaction you expect from them. For example when you place students in rows, you are indicating that all information they will receive will be directly from you the instructor, not any of their peers.

CHAPTER 4 - Lesson Planning

SECTION 1 - Preparation of Instruction

Introduction

4.1 Most projects are only as good as the planning that goes into them, and this applies with particular force to instruction. A good instructor devotes a good deal of time and thought to their lesson before they enter the classroom. This chapter describes the steps that apply to the preparation of all methods of instruction; practical, theoretical or otherwise. These help ensure that instruction is based on the sequence that will best promote learning and it will be delivered in the most effective and efficient manner.

Development of Instruction

4.2 There are eight major steps in planning a lesson: **(ORBIT RAR)**

- a. Establish the **O**bjectives of the lesson;
- b. Conduct **R**esearch on the subject;
- c. Establish the **B**est learning sequence;
- d. Choose the **I**nstructional method;
- e. Develop the **T**raining aids and Student Activities.
- f. **R**un the lesson;
- g. **A**ssess the lesson; and
- h. **R**evise the plan.

Step 1: Establishing the Objectives of the Lesson

4.3 It is absolutely essential that the lesson has a clearly defined objective. Without it the lesson would be literally aimless. Remember that the objective states what the cadet has to be able to do at the end of the lesson, NOT what the instructor will do during it.

4.4 The objective for a particular lesson can be obtained from the course syllabus. All syllabus items in NZCF are on the website and for the most part directly relate to the relevant NZQA unit standards. Objectives can also be found on the Instructor Guides, which are issued by the training office to the instructor. This standardisation of objectives ensures a standardisation of training throughout NZCF units.

Step 2: Conduct Research on the Subject.

4.5 If you are developing a lesson plan for the first time it will be necessary for you to conduct a detailed research into the subject. During this research you will refresh your own understanding of the subject and gather together information that may be included in your lesson. Some of the material will be useful, but not all. Suggested sources of information;

- a. Candidate and Assessor Guides
- b. References listed on the Instructor Guides – Usually the relevant NZCF Manual
- c. Prior lesson plans – ensure that if you are using other lesson plans to help gain an understanding of the topic, that you do not just copy or rely solely on this, as this will set you up for failure.

Step 3: Establish the Best Learning Sequence.

4.6 Now that you have all this material it must be put into a correct sequence. A simple yet effective method of sequencing a topic is as follows:

- a. Look at the objective first and ask, “What does the cadet need to be able to know/do before they can perform this task?”
- b. The list that you end up with will most likely cover the objective, but it will not necessarily be arranged in the best sequence. This sequencing is best done by considering the principles of:

OPERATING ORDER

SIMPLE

to

KNOWN

to

THEORY

to

CONCRETE

to

FRONT

to

TOP

to

INSIDE

to

CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER

COMPLEX

UNKNOWN

INVOLVEMENT

ABSTRACT

BACK

BOTTOM

OUTSIDE

4.7 It follows that for any topic, one factor should be taught first, and then other factors built upon it. Subsequent revisions in planning (through experience) can improve the original sequence.

4.8 The factual material will arrange itself into various ‘teaching points’ of the lesson. These represent a breakdown of enabling objectives, just as the enabling objectives represent a breakdown of the lesson objective.

Step 4: Choose the Instructional Method.

4.9 Once the material has been arranged the method of instruction is decided upon. Does this topic need to follow the theory or practical lesson structures? Does it have elements of both?

Step 5: Develop the Training Aid and Student Activities.

4.10 Once you have completed the above steps reflect on the material you are teaching and consider what aids may help your students understand your teaching points, and what

activities could you include to ensure all class members are involved and understanding the material at hand. The aids should be selected bearing in mind the following:

- a. What preparation time is available?
- b. What resources are available?
- c. What is the ability of the class?
- d. What environment will they be used in?
- e. Do they help the cadet reach the objective?
- f. Do they cater for all learning styles?
- g. What are the pro's and con's of using this aid?

Step 6: Run the Lesson.

4.11 The lesson can now be presented. Ensure that you take the time to set up your teaching space in a way that suits you, your plan and your students. Ensure to have all your resources at hand, and have a copy of your lesson plan with you.

Step 7: Assess the Lesson.

4.12 After the lesson is over ask yourself the following questions:

- a. Was my instruction successful, partly successful or not? Why?
- b. Was the sequencing logical or could it be improved?
- c. Were there some things that the class did not follow or struggled with?
- d. Did the questions I ask encourage reflection? What other questions could I ask?
- e. Was my student activity appropriate and effective? How could I change it? Did I need more or less?
- f. Was the subject made interesting? Could it be made more interesting?
- g. Were the aids suitable? Did I have all I wanted? Was the timing of them good?
- h. Were the class kept busy and active? (Mentally at least).
- i. Did I run out of time? Did I have too much? Did I have time to deal with their questions?

Step 8: Revise the Plan.

4.13 Once you have self-assessed your lesson (and ideally received peer assessment/critique on your lesson), return to your lesson plan and revise it to reflect how

you would do it next time. That way if you teach this lesson again you will have a starting point that may assist you in being able to more quickly prepare your lesson. By doing this it also enables you to help others who may be assigned to teach this lesson subsequently.

SECTION 2 – The Lesson Plan

4.14 The lesson plan is part of lesson planning and ties together steps 3, 4 and 5 into a written plan for the instructor to follow. The major advantages of having a written plan are:

- a. It ensures that the lesson is properly planned,
- b. Can be used for instructor reference throughout the lesson, and
- c. Another instructor can pick it up and use it in an emergency. Note this is to be done in emergencies only. Under normal situations each instructor should develop their own lesson plan, though may use existing plans as a reference.

4.15 There are three phases to any lesson. They are the:

- a. Introduction
- b. Body
- c. Conclusion

The Introduction.

4.16 In the NZCF we use INTROSH as our introduction format. It is important that all parts are covered. It makes sense to let your cadets know exactly what they will be learning to help ready them for the body of the lesson (see the law of readiness). [INTROSH is the pneumonic used for remembering the process – the list below reflects the operating order.]

- a. **Interest.** You must gain the interest of the cadets within the first 90 seconds of the lesson; otherwise you will have lost them. Various techniques can be used: training aids, humour, questioning, and an interesting story; It is important that your interest relates to your lesson subject, even if this link is some what tenuous.
- b. **Title.** Give the lesson a title to focus the cadet's interest. State it and display it throughout the lesson. This should not be the same as your objective without the verbs. It should reflect your own instructional style and relate to the overall subject of the lesson.
- c. **Objective.** Clearly state the objectives and have them displayed throughout the lesson. This important as the cadets need to know exactly what the objective is, that is exactly what they will have to do by the end of the lesson.
- d. **Need.** Offer a reason for why the cadets need to know what is being taught.
- e. **Scope (also known as Range).** List (display) what will be covered during the lesson. This should not be a repeat of the objective but the key points of the lesson. The 'road-map' of how the lesson will be conducted.

- f. **Handout/References.** List (display) the main references - where the cadet can go for further information. Clearly state what the cadet will take away from the lesson in the form of notes or if they are required to take their own.
- g. **Revision.** It is not always possible or necessary to do revision but if you can/do, have the cadets recall their previous knowledge so it can be built on during the lesson.

The Body.

4.17 The body of the lesson plan contains the key teaching points. These are laid out in the sequence determined in the Steps of Planning and will be conveyed to the cadet by the chosen method of instruction. Ensure you include questions, training aids as well as when they are used. Over-plan - just in case things go really well! Always have a couple of topic-related activities up your sleeve. Make little notes to yourself - it is your own individual lesson plan after all!

Practical Body Sequence.

4.18 When teaching Practical Skills Instruction or parts of a lesson with practical skills, we use the **D E E R** Sequence, which is as follows: Some Practical lessons will require a theory phase. Conduct this after the Introduction and before the Demonstration phases.

- a. **Demonstration (body of the lesson):**
 - (1) Ensure cadet visibility (possibly demonstrate from cadet viewpoint).
 - (2) Demonstrate the entire skill at normal pace, without explanation (no talking by instructor or students).
- b. **Explanation (body of the lesson):**
 - (1) Break task into key stages and repeat task slowly, with explanation of key points.
 - (2) Cadets watch only.
 - (3) Use appropriate terminology, analogies, hints and tricks to aid recall.
- c. **Execution (body of the lesson):**
 - (1) Distribute materials at this stage.
 - (2) Perform the task slowly, while cadets imitate.
 - (3) Explain or use questioning for each step as you progress.
 - (4) Check the progress of individuals.
 - (5) Keep cadets together - do not let any race ahead of you.
 - (6) Avoid individual tuition.
 - (7) If the majority of the cadets are struggling, go back and repeat earlier stages.
- d. **Repetition (body of the lesson):**
 - (1) Cadets practice individually.
 - (2) Give individual tuition if required.
 - (3) If necessary, intervene positively by questioning.

- (4) Restate objective and remind of the standard required.
- (5) Build confidence level of cadets before the test.
- (6) Monitor closely and maintain control.

Theory Lesson – Body.

4.19 The body of a theory lesson is broken down into stages, that is teaching points. Each teaching point should involve student interaction, and should involve questioning to check understanding. As you progress through teaching points you should progressively summarise the teaching points already made as you go. A progressive summary is a short summary of the important teaching points is given after each enabling objective.

- a. Key Teaching Point 1 – including student activity
 - (1) Questioning
- b. Key Teaching Point 2 – including student activity
 - (1) Questioning
 - (2) Progressive summary
- c. Key Teaching Point 3 – including student activity
 - (1) Questioning
 - (2) Progressive summary

The Conclusion.

4.20 In the NZCF we use TENSION as our conclusion format. It is important that all parts are covered. TENSION ensures all cadets know where they are at in terms of achievement, and what they will be doing next. [TENSION is the mnemonic used for remembering the process – the list below reflects the operating order.]

- a. **Title.** Restate the title of the lesson
- b. **Objective.** Restate the objective and make a statement with regards to student achievement.
- c. **Need.** Restate the reason why the cadets needed to learn the information taught.
- d. **Scope.** Briefly recap the main teaching points.
- e. **Extra Help.** Restate references and any other places that cadets can go for extra help.
- f. **Next lesson.** Quick statement of what is up next for those in the session.
- g. **Interest (Reflection).** Provide a thinking point for reflection and/or a point for application for the material taught.

Objective Statements.

4.21 Although most objectives are given in the NZCF Syllabus, there is a need for officers to develop objectives for lessons outside this scope, as well as programme objectives for camps and other activity. A performance verb is always the first word in an objective. Its purpose is to describe the practical, affective or cognitive skill which the cadet is required to use to achieve the objective. When writing objectives always consider that the performance verbs used must be “Observable” and “Measurable”. Learning objectives can be categorized into three domains; cognitive (thinking), affective (emotion and value based) and psychomotor (doing).

Cognitive (knowledge) domain.

4.22 Cognitive learning is demonstrated by recall and other intellectual skills. The lower levels of this domain require a student to recall comprehend, or apply knowledge. The higher levels of this domain require a student to analyse, synthesize or evaluate.

Cognitive domain and NZCF.

4.23 Our Year 1 cadets work at knowledge level, as we introduce them to the subjects we teach. They start to consider comprehension, as we develop a basic understanding of the concept. With our Year 2 cadets we work on fully comprehending those concepts and we consider how to apply them. With our Year 3 cadets we look at application fully, and start to analyse those concept at a basic level. At Under Officer level (maybe WO's too) we analyse concepts and begin to consider the related synthesis (synthesis is like creating – i.e developing a new...) At Unit Officer level we work with synthesis and ensure that the below levels work well within the unit. At CUCDR level, and as an Officer group we look further into synthesis, and begin to evaluate eg officer meetings/forums, feedback sessions, unit visions/goals/aims.

Level	Type of Learning	Definition	Example verbs
6	Evaluation	Making judgments about the value of ideas, works, solutions, methods, materials etc. – Make and defend judgements based on internal evidence or external criteria	Argue, Decide, Compare, Consider, Contrast
5	Synthesis	Putting together elements and parts to form a new whole.- Compile component ideas into a new whole or propose alternate solutions	Write, Produce, plan, design, derive, combine
4	Analysis	Breaking down material or ideas into their parts and detecting the relationship of the parts and how they are arranged. - Break down objects or ideas into simpler parts and find evidence to support generalisations	Distinguish, Detect, Employ, Restructure, Classify
3	Application	Knowing an abstraction well enough to be able to apply it without being	Generalize, Develop, Employ, Transfer

		prompted or without having been shown how to use it. - apply knowledge to actual situations	
2	Comprehension	Understanding the literal message. - demonstrate an understanding of the facts	Paraphrase, interpret, reorder, infer, conclude
1	Knowledge	Remembering an idea or material in a form very close to that in which it was originally encountered. - Collect information and facts	Recall, Recognize, Acquire, Identify

Affective (attitudes) domain.

4.24 Objectives written in this domain are intended to change student attitudes and behaviours.

Affective domain and NZCF.

4.25 In teaching we 'present' information to a class who receives the information, initially we focus on the uptake of information. For example we tell them what the NZCF values are. And as the class moves forward and begins to understand they respond to the information. For example they show the values. Once we have responded to the information and established it within our mind, we can figure out what value it has. For example they believe in the values. Once we know what value it has we can figure out where it sits in relation to other concepts (pieces of information). For example they can relate the values to their everyday lives. Once we can relate it to other concepts, we can characterize (prioritize) the information. For example we can promote the values.

Level	Type of Learning	Definition	Example verbs
5	Characterization by Value or Value set	Acts consistently in accordance with the values he/she has internalized. - Adopt belief system and philosophy	Revise, Require, Avoid, Resist, Manage, Resolve
4	Organization	Relates the value to those already help and brings it into a harmonious and internally consist philosophy. - Reconcile internal conflicts; develop value system	Discuss, Theorize, Formulate, Balance, Examine
3	Valuing	Willing to be perceived by others as valuing certain ideas. - Attach values and express personal opinions	Support, Debate, Subsidize
2	Responding	Committed in some small measure to the ideas and is actively responding to them. - React & participate actively	Comply with, follow, volunteer, acclaim
1	Receiving	Being aware of or sensitive to the existence of certain ideas and being willing to tolerate them. - Open to experience, willing to hear	Differentiate, Accept, Listen, Respond

Psychomotor (skills) domain.

4.26 The psychomotor domain includes physical movements and coordination. This is the domain under which most military objectives fall. The psychomotor domain has the greatest variation amongst the levels, that is the biggest difference between the lowest and highest levels.

Psychomotor domain and NZCF.

4.27 In practical lessons for example drill, we first show the movement, we then get the students to repeat it – imitate it. Once they can imitate the movement, we work on manipulating the movement to correct it (fault check). The students then go away and practice the movement in order to develop precision, through coaching. Once the movement is familiar, we can use the movement in relation to other movements. For example we can be march on and fully participate in parade – Articulation. Now that the movements are completely normal, they are naturalized. {At a more senior level (F/S and WO's) we can create new movements from our highly developed skills for example in the drill competition teams often have their own special move – they can do this because they have a high level of skill within drill.}

Level	Type of Learning	Definition	Example verbs
5	Naturalisation	Instinctive, effortless, unconscious mastery of activity and related skills at strategic level	Create, Design, Compose, Construct
4	Articulation	Adapt and integrate expertise to satisfy a new concept or task	Adapt, Modify, Revise, Alter
3	Precision	Execute skill reliably independent from help	Perform, Execute
2	Manipulation	Reproduce activity from instruction	Attempt, Try, Display
1	Imitation	Copy action of another, observe and replicate	Copy, Identify, Select

4.28 A selection of training objective verbs is defined below. These tend to be the more common ones used by Cadet Forces Instructors. These may be helpful when developing objectives and programme aims.

Training Objective Verbs	Meaning
Categorise	To place in a class or division.
Convert	To change into others of a different kind.
Define	To state the exact meaning; to give the limits.
Describe	To give a description; to state the characteristics.
Detail	To deal with things item by item.
Distinguish	To make the difference recognisable.
Estimate	To fix the value or quantity of.
Explain	To make known in detail.

Identify	To establish the individuality of an item.
List	To record a number of connected items.
Match	To join two or more things so they correspond.
Name	To use the word by which an item is known.
Outline	To draw or describe the essential parts only.
Read	To interpret mentally.
Recall	To recollect previously learned material.
Reproduce	To produce again; to produce copies or representations.
Simplify	To make easier to do or understand.
State	To express in words or number.
Trace	To follow the course, development or history.

Section 3 - Lesson Introduction

4.29 The lesson introduction is one of the most important parts of the lesson. It is in the introduction that you will make or break the lesson. The purpose of the introduction is to:

- a. Focus the classes' attention,
- b. Arouse the cadets' interest,
- c. Advise the cadet of the lesson objective and how it is going to be achieved, and
- d. Motivate the cadets.

4.30 The lesson introduction will usually up to 10% of your lesson. (No more than 4 minutes of a 40 minute lesson).

Teaching Notes

4.31 Powerful trainers start powerfully. You must gain your cadets attention and interest immediately. Unless you really have their attention, you may as well be talking Rugby to the All Blacks. As a trainer, you're an unknown quantity for the first 30 seconds. That's about how long you have to make your first impression and establish your leadership, credibility and control. After that, everything you say and do will be coloured by that impression. So it's important right from the start that you grab their attention and engage their interest. Then they might start to understand what your lesson is all about.

4.32 **Tip 1: Be Creative from the Start.** When cadets attend a class they may be nervous about having to learn something new. It's your job to set up an atmosphere that is both 'user-friendly' and simulating. Openings are a crucial part of your instructional technique. They must not only gain the attention of your cadets, but they also contain subtle messages for them. They set the tone for the training, establish expectations and standards. The following ten strategies all make for powerful openings.

4.33 **Tip 2: Getting Attention.** How you get it is not nearly as important as making sure you do get it. Before you begin your lesson your class may be daydreaming, chatting, reading the handout material you have cleverly displayed in advance of your instruction. The following are attention gaining techniques used by instructors:

- a. **Anecdote.** An anecdote is a short story used to illustrate a point. They are sometimes humorous;
- b. **Humour.** Humour is a great way to break the ice. But beware! Humour must be linked to either the topic or the lesson. Never just tell jokes for the sake of it. There's more to humour than telling jokes. Make sure that your humour is not sexist, racist, against religion and above all ensure you are not vulgar. Nothing is more embarrassing than an inappropriate joke that falls flat;
- c. **Involving Question.** There are two ways you can do this. Either you can ask an open ended question or you can ask for a show of hands to answer;

- d. **Rhetorical Question.** A rhetorical question is a question with an obvious answer, e.g. “How many people believe they are underpaid?”;
- e. **Shocking Statement.** A statement such as: “Due to the current retention rate in the New Zealand Cadet Forces, it is predicted that it will be a combined force (ie: No individual corps - one Cadet Force) by the year 2020”, will capture their attention. To be successful it must be related to your lesson and contain an element of truth; and
- f. **Video.** A short video clip is a great way to grab their attention and generate interest (as long as it is topic/lesson related). But ensure you follow it up when it has finished - maybe questions or discussion groups.

4.34 **Tip 3: Build Realistic Expectations.** Start off as you mean to go on. Don't try to tell jokes and then go into a list of facts and figures. Your cadets will see you as inconsistent and they'll feel let down.

4.35 **Tip 4: Reveal Yourself.** Let the cadets in on something about you personally. You'll gain their support by showing that you are human and fallible - and that you weren't always the expert you are today. Let them know how you've benefited from training. Ensure this is relevant to the audience.

4.36 **Tip 5: Let Them Know you're Glad to be There.** There's nothing worse than a boring instructor who is unenthusiastic about their subject. You don't have to be absolutely gushing, but you do have to behave like you're glad to be there and are genuinely interested in your subject.

INTROSH

4.37 **INTROSH** is the format that is used for the Introduction Phase of the lesson. The order in which you do the parts of **INTROSH** will vary depending on the lesson and what you have planned for each part - there is no set order. But it is important that all parts are covered. Set out below is the recommended order - a logical one. It makes good sense to let your cadets know exactly what they will be learning before you tell them why they are learning it!

- a. **Interest.** You must gain the interest of the cadets within the first 90 seconds of the lesson; otherwise you will have lost them. Various techniques can be used: training aids, humour, questioning, and an interesting story;
- b. **Title.** Give the lesson a title to focus the cadet's interest. State it and display it in a central area throughout the lesson. Do not expose it too early;
- c. **Objective.** Clearly state the objectives and have them displayed throughout the lesson.
- d. **Need.** Either explain or ask the cadets why they need to know this. Make the lesson mean something to them personally. It must come from the heart - you the instructor **MUST** know without relying on your Lesson Plan why the cadets are there.

- e. **Scope (also known as Range).** List (display) what will be covered during the lesson. This should not be a repeat of the objective but the key points of the lesson. The 'road-map', 'big-picture' of how the lesson will be conducted.
- f. **Handout/References.** List (display) the main references - where the cadet can go for further information and clearly state what the cadet will take away from the lesson in the form of notes or if they are required to take their own.
- g. **Revision.** It is not always possible or necessary to do revision but if you can/do, have the cadets recall their previous knowledge so it can be built on during the lesson.

Body of the Lesson - Practical Skills Instruction (PSI)

4.38 When teaching Practical Skills Instruction or parts of a lesson with practical skills, we use the **IDEERC** Sequence, which is as follows:

a. **Introduction:**

- (1) Normal INTROSH rules apply;

b. **Demonstration (body of the lesson):**

- (1) Ensure cadet visibility (possibly demonstrate from cadet viewpoint).
- (2) Demonstrate the entire skill at normal pace, without explanation (no talking by instructor or students).

c. **Explanation (body of the lesson):**

- (1) Break task into key stages and repeat task slowly, with explanation of key points.
- (2) Cadets watch only.
- (3) Use appropriate terminology, analogies, hints and tricks to aid recall.

d. **Execution (body of the lesson):**

- (1) Distribute materials at this stage.
- (2) Perform the task slowly, while cadets imitate.
- (3) Explain or use questioning for each step as you progress.
- (4) Check the progress of individuals.
- (5) Keep cadets together - do not let any race ahead of you.
- (6) Avoid individual tuition.
- (7) If the majority of the cadets are struggling, go back and repeat earlier stages.

e. **Repetition (body of the lesson):**

- (1) Cadets practice individually.
- (2) Give individual tuition if required.
- (3) If necessary, intervene positively by questioning.
- (4) Restate objective and remind of the standard required.
- (5) Build confidence level of cadets before the test.

(6) Monitor closely and maintain control.

f. **Conclusion:**

(1) Give clear instructions of test conditions.

(2) Adhere to standards and conditions of test.

(3) Give general feedback on performance.

(4) Normal TENSION rules apply.

(5) Follow up as necessary with unsuccessful cadets.

4.39 Some PSI lessons will require a theory phase. Conduct this after the Introduction and before the Demonstration phases.

Body of the Lesson - Theory Instruction

4.40 Theory lessons in the NZCF have three parts:

- a. Introduction;
- b. Development (The body of the lesson); and
- c. Conclusion.

Introduction

4.41 The introduction for the Theory lesson follows the **INTROSH** format, which is found in article 4.17 of this handbook.

Development

4.42 The Development is broken down into stages – EOs. These are further broken down into IOs and key teaching points.

- i.e. 1st EO - Key Teaching Point 1
- Key Teaching Point 2
 - Key Teaching Point 3

4.43 Instruction is given on each teaching point using relevant training aids. Then:

- a. **Questions:** questions are asked after each stage to check important points and been remembered; and
- b. **Progressive summary:** a short summary of the important teaching points is given after each enabling objective.

4.44 The same sequence is use for each of the other enabling objectives.

Enabling Objectives (EOs)

4.45 Enabling Objectives are the stepping-stones that enable us to reach our lesson objective. We split our lesson up into easily absorbed chunks (EOs). This makes the material to be learnt easier to digest. Each enabling objective can be thought of as a mini lesson on its own. The best number of enabling objectives to have is 2-5.

4.46 When sorting out your enabling objectives ask your self what does the cadet need to be able to do before he/she can perform this task (Building Blocks).

IOs / Key Teaching Points

4.47 After you have researched the lesson and decided on your enabling objectives you will know which material will be left out. Summarise all the information you are going to teach into simple important points. These are called Key Teaching Points, sometimes referred to Instructional objectives. (IO's) The teaching points will be written on your lesson

plan and give you a cue as to what to teach. By doing this your lesson plan will be easy to follow. Organise the teaching points into a logical order.

Conclusion

4.48 The purpose of the lesson Conclusion is to consolidate the lesson, tie together all of the enabling objectives and leave the cadet wanting more. The order in which you do the parts of **TENSION** will vary depending on the lesson and what you have planned for each part - there is no set order. But it is important that all parts are covered. Set out below is the recommended order - a logical one. The Conclusion will usually be about 10% of your lesson.

a. **Title:**

- (1) Restate the Title of the Lesson.

b. **Objectives:**

- (1) Restate the Objectives and tell the cadets whether or not they have achieved it.

c. **Need:**

- (1) Restate the need of the lesson to refresh their memory as to why they had the lesson.

d. **Summary:**

- (1) Summarise the main points in the lesson and tie together all the enabling objectives.

e. **Extra Help:**

- (1) Inform the cadets where they can receive extra help (References, Instructors or Internet etc.)

f. **Next Lesson:**

- (1) Advise what the next lesson in the series is and explain how it follows on from this lesson.

g. **Interest:**

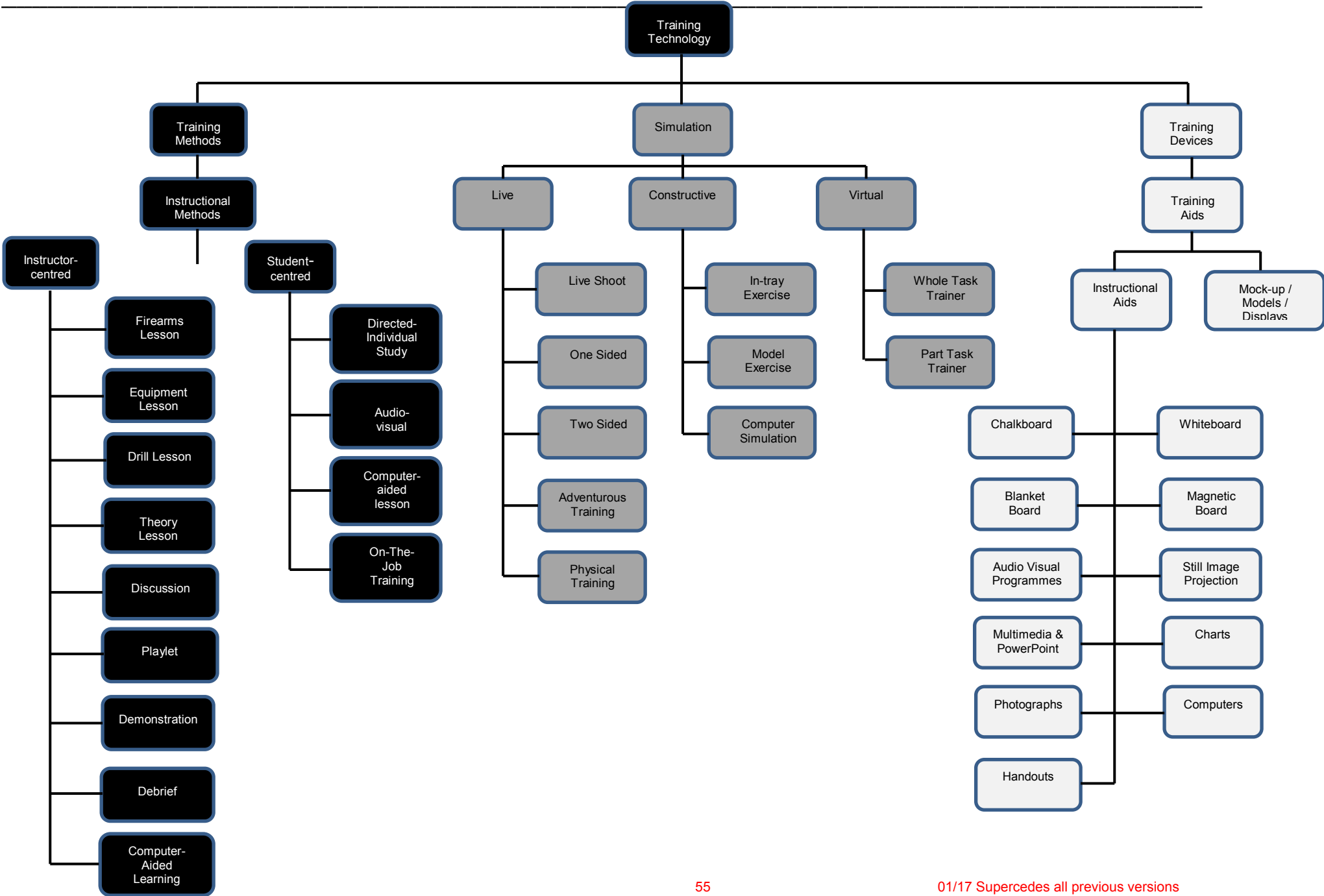
- (1) End the lesson the way you began – powerfully! Keep them thinking about the lesson that they have just had and link to the next lesson.

SECTION 3 - Training Methods

Definition	Characteristics	Applications
Theory Lesson. The passage of information by an instructor using a combination of explanation and student practice.	Instructor-centred. Learning Category. Knowledge. Student active. Content orientated.	Conditions. Students have little or no subject knowledge. Purpose. Used when the requisite knowledge has a direct practical application. Two examples are interpreting the conventional signs on a map and scaling an aerial photograph. Resources. Will depend on the subject.
Discussion. The sharing of information and solving of problems by group members.	Instructor-centred. Instructor as a resource or facilitator. Learning Category. Knowledge and Attitudes. Student active. Process orientated.	Conditions. Students have good subject knowledge and experience. Purpose. Used to facilitate decision making and problem-solving involving issues that have many correct answers. Resources. Low.
Directed Individual Study. A self-paced delivery method where students are given a structured program and relevant resources.	Student-centred. Instructor as designer. Learning Category. Knowledge. Student active. Initially content oriented but often develops to process oriented.	Conditions. Students are able to meet with the instructor. Purpose. Presentation of information in a formal manner without direct instructor/student contact. Used mainly for pre-course preparation. Resources. Low although it requires a lot of instructor preparation.
Playlet. A dramatized situation in which the students are asked to play parts or other people.	Student-centred. Instructor as resource. Learning Category. Knowledge. Students can either participate and be active or watch and be passive. Process orientated.	Conditions. Students need a working knowledge of the subject. Purpose. Good for teaching complex proceedings that are governed by set rules. An example is teaching Orderly Room proceedings. Resources. Low although time must be allowed for rehearsal.
In-Tray Exercises. Generally, a timed exercise in which individuals are asked to	Student-centred. Instructor as designer. Learning Category.	Conditions. Students require a working knowledge of the subject or the references if an

Definition	Characteristics	Applications
solve realistic written and verbal administrative problems.	Knowledge. Students active. Process orientated with some content design elements.	open book problem. Purpose. Good for combining the teaching of subject matter with the organisation of time and the establishment of priorities. Resources. Low although a lot of preparation is required to set up the exercise.
Lecture. The verbal and visual presentation of information by an instructor using explanation only.	Instructor-centred. Learning Category. Knowledge. Students passive. Contact orientated.	Conditions. Students generally have no prior subject knowledge. Purpose. Useful for teaching-instructor using broad concepts or if a large amount of specific information needs to be passed to the students in a short amount of time. Resources. Low; although to be successful, lecturers must prepare thoroughly and rehearse beforehand.
Demonstration. A dramatized presentation of information.	Instructor-centred. Instructor as designer. Learning Category. Knowledge. Students passive. Content orientated.	Conditions. Students generally have no prior knowledge of the subject. Purpose. Useful for teaching team drills, for example the actions of a cenotaph guard. Resources. Can be labour intensive. Requires considerable rehearsal.
Practical Instruction. (includes firearms, drill and equipment lessons) The verbal and visual teaching of skills by instructor explanation and demonstration followed by student practice.	Instructor-centred. Learning Category. Primarily Skill, some Knowledge. Students active. Content orientated with process elements.	Conditions. Limited or no prior skill. Purpose. To teach fine and gross motor skills. Resources. Varies according to the subject.
Simulators. Simulators are often devices or processes designed to provide training which will relate closely to the actual equipment or situation.	Instructor-centred. Instructor as a resource. Learning Category. Primarily Skill, some Knowledge. Students active.	Conditions. Suitable for use on introductory lessons to advanced continuation training depending on the skill and the level of simulation. Purpose. To teach complex

Definition	Characteristics	Applications
	Content orientated with process elements. Both qualitative and quantitative direct evaluation.	fine-motor skills and or team drills without incurring high operating costs and placing personnel and equipment at unnecessary risk. Resources. Varies depending on the equipment. Generally requires high capital outlay but small operating costs.
Video Analysis. Analysis of student actions during video replay.	Instructor-centred. Instructor as a resource. Learning Category. Skill. Students passive but actively involved in the analysis. Process orientated.	Conditions. Students require intermediate to advanced skills. Purpose. To refine gross motor skills that requires a high level of coordination. Resources. Video and cameraman.
Adventurous Training. Non-specific, activity-based programs with physical hardships involving real or perceived risks.	Instructor-centred. Instructor as facilitator. Learning Category. Attitudes, requires well developed skills. Students active. Process orientated.	Conditions. Instructor requires high skill levels for the specific activity. For advanced training, all participants need to be competent in the specific activity. Purpose. To develop leadership and group skills. Resources. Varies. However, characterised by low operating costs.
Physical Training. Individual and team sports requiring any combination of physical strength, power, speed, endurance and coordination.	Instructor-centred. Instructor role varies depending on the activity and level of training of the students. Learning Category. Skills with some attitudinal objectives. Students active. Depending on the activity can be either content or process orientated.	Conditions. Can be conducted under a wide variety of conditions. Purpose. To develop physical skills to enable individuals to meet the physical demands of their job and promote teamwork. Resources. Varies, generally has low operating costs.



CHAPTER 5 - Technical Skills of Instruction

SECTION 1 - Technical Skills of Instruction

5.1 A detailed examination of the instructional process reveals that instruction can be broken down into a number of isolated skills. This chapter will briefly examine some of these more important skills. The skills that will be discussed are:

- a. Establishing Set and Closure;
- b. Variation of Stimulus;
- c. Questioning; and
- d. Voice.

Establishing Set and Closure

5.2 A SET is defined as 'A predisposition to respond'. In plainer terms, it may be described as a mental bias or prejudice. Thus a cadet, when presented with a portion of new information, will tend to view it in the light of some previously established mental bias or SET. It is important, therefore, that the instructor prepares their cadets for learning by establishing the appropriate SET. In most cases this will be their initial instructional move. Focusing the cadets' attention on some familiar object, event, condition or idea most conveniently does it.

5.3 The mind, when exposed to a new piece of information, attempts to fit this information into an overall picture, i.e. it tends to place facts together in 'Jigsaw' fashion to make a complete 'whole'. This process, called CLOSURE, is attained when the topic of a lesson or part of a lesson has been learnt so that the cadet can relate the new knowledge to past knowledge. Just as SET induction is not limited to the start of a lesson, closure is not limited to the conclusion of a lesson. It is also needed at points within the lesson so that the cadets know what has been covered and what is to follow.

Variation of Stimulus

5.4 In the classroom situation the cadets are receiving a variety of competing stimuli. Thus the stimuli constructed by the instructor must be strong enough to overcome irrelevant stimuli that might distract the cadets.

5.5 The instructor has a variety of attention-producing behaviours, which they can incorporate into their instructional pattern. A number of these are mentioned below.

5.6 **Gestures.** Hand, head and body movements are important supplements to oral communication. The oral message by itself does not convey meaning as effectively as it does when combined with gestural cues.

5.7 **Focusing.** Focusing controls the direction of cadets' attention. The instructor can focus the cadets' attention by using verbal statements, specific gestures, or a combination of both.

5.8 **Pauses.** Pauses can be deliberately inserted into a presentation as an attention producing behaviour. Many instructors do not use pauses as often as they could but tend to keep up a verbal barrage. The use of pauses can also:

- a. Break up the lesson into more easily absorbed units,
- b. Prepare cadets for the next statement by the instructor, and
- c. Increase the involvement of the cadets, as during a pause the cadets tend to strain for cues.

5.9 **Movement.** Movement by the instructor requires adjustments on the part of the cadet. Most theories of attending behaviour claim that a high frequency of adjustments helps keep attention at a high level; thus the instructor should move around to various parts of the room. They should be seen sometimes on the left side, sometimes on the right, sometimes in front and sometimes in the back.

Note: This sort of movement is not the same as restless pacing or tap dancing around the scene. This type of movement certainly is attention producing but results in distraction away from the content of the lesson.

5.10 **Interaction Styles.** An instructor can normally use different interaction styles during the one lesson.

5.11 **Instructor-Group.** The instructor teaches or demonstrates to all the cadets and asks questions of the group at large.

5.12 **Instructor-Cadet.** The instructor speaks directly to one cadet or asks a question of one cadet.

5.13 **Cadet-Cadet.** The instructor re-directs a cadet's response to another cadet for comment or clarification, or the instructor may ask one cadet to explain something to another cadet.

5.14 Deliberate variation in the pattern of use of these interaction styles varies the method in which the material is presented, thereby increasing and maintaining attention.

Questioning Techniques

5.15 **Introduction.** Questioning is one of the basic techniques of instruction where the instructor stimulates cadet thinking and activity. Cadet and instructor both gain from questioning. By asking questions and appraising cadet answers, the instructor gains an insight into how the cadet thinks and cadet progress. Cadets will best remember those things that they have worked out for themselves. By asking questions, the instructor generates cadet thought to establish new facts and to recall information. Thus questioning is one of the most powerful techniques of instruction available to the instructor.

5.16 **Basic Techniques of Questioning.** All questions share the common element that if a response (answer) is to be elicited, then the question must be clearly understood by the respondent. Three components are involved in the presentation of a question:

5.17 **The Clear Phrasing of the Question.** This is controlled by:

- a. The grammatical structure.
- b. The number of concepts contained within the question; questions are often difficult to follow because they are turned into statements. When this happens, often more than one concept is asked about.
- c. Voice production and control. The stopping and restructuring of a question during presentation should be avoided. This can be minimised if you plan in your mind the structure of the question before it is actually asked. Key questions can be planned for on the lesson plan.

5.18 Indicating the Form of Response Required. Contained within the question should be a clue as to the form of response that is considered acceptable by the questioner. For example:

- a. “Did you solve the problem?” may receive the response “Yes”. In relation to the question the answer is acceptable, however the questioner really meant to ask, “Explain how you solved the problem”.

5.19 Identify the Respondent (Person to Answer). In most situations who responds to the question must be indicated by the instructor, otherwise balanced cadet participation cannot take place and meaningful feedback to the instructor on the level of knowledge of all cadets will not be available. The techniques for indicating who is to answer have been classified into two groups:

- a. **Verbal** - The use of names or pronouns (you).
- b. **Non-verbal** - The use of gestures or facial movements such as smiling and nodding, eye contact, proximity ranges.

5.20 Maximum effect is achieved when a combination of these elements is used.

5.21 After the lesson, evaluate your questions. Did they succeed? If not, then rephrase for the next series.

5.22 A Good Question. A good question must have the following:

- a. Clarity and simplicity. A successful question asks something definite, in clear and simple straightforward English, which every cadet in the class can understand. Be sure that the vocabulary you use is understood by the cadets;
- b. Has a definite point consistent with an objective of the lesson;
- c. Is challenging, thought-provoking; and
- d. Is entirely relevant to the subject being taught.

5.23 Putting the Question. The manner you use can contribute immensely towards the tone of a classroom, and consequently their morale. You are not an inquisitor, and you should not ask the question with the sole aim of seeing how much a cadet knows. Your questions should rather attempt to stimulate cadets towards the solving of the problem.

You should ask questions in a pleasant, easy manner, not too hurriedly, and not in a manner likely to create a nervous tension in the cadet and block their thinking. You can:

- a. Make the question general - address it to the entire class (this keeps them all on the alert).
- b. Individualise - e.g. "What countries are the signatories of the CER Agreement?" pause, and look around the cadets "Smith?"

5.24 Try to scatter your questions as much as possible. Prod along those who are not taking part. Resist the temptation to ask only those who proffer an answer even though by doing so you can get on with the lesson.

5.25 Once a question has been asked, do not be in haste to withdraw it either to rephrase it or ask a further question. Modifications are always confusing to someone who has begun to think of an answer to your original question. If a question is badly constructed, cancel it by saying "Well, let me put it in another way", before a second version is attempted.

5.26 Do not expect the correct answer immediately. Remember, Pose, Pause, Pounce, Praise/Redirect.

- a. **Pose** – Give the context of your approach to the class; Provide a question or a series of questions, ensuring that they are unambiguous;
- b. **Pause** – wait for the question to sink in and allow the thought process to start working;
- c. **Pounce** – select someone to answer the question; and
- d. **Praise/Redirect** – decipher any answers given, rephrasing it if necessary to ensure everyone understands the answer. Highlight areas of the answer that were correct and get other students to add to the answer if necessary.

5.27 **Receiving the Answer.** Do show the respondent that you appreciate their effort, by reinforcing with a statement such as "good point". Even if their answer was wrong, don't damn them. They must think that their answer has some merit. Wrong answers are often a good indication that a point has not been understood. Use a wrong answer to explain again the point you have made.

5.28 **Spontaneous Questions.** These questions from the instructor show inadequate preparation. From the cadet they should always be encouraged. They show that you have stimulated thought on their part. They could also show that your original lesson plan was too hard in what it asked.

5.29 **Purposes of Questioning.** In lesson structure, the three major components of the lesson are the introduction, the development and the conclusion. The instructor can use questioning in all three components for the following purposes:

- a. Introduction:
 - (1) Stimulate interest
 - (2) Revise/link to previous knowledge

- (3) Establish need
- b. Development:
 - (1) Maintain interest
 - (2) Establish key points
 - (3) Check application of key points
 - (4) Check progress
 - (5) Focus attention
- c. Conclusion:
 - (1) Evaluate cadet mastery of objectives by checking recall and application of key points.

Types of Questions

5.30 Questions can be classified in accordance with the thought process that the cadet must perform in order to obtain the answer. The two major classifications for questions are:

- a. Testing, and
- b. Teaching.

5.31 **Testing Questions.** Testing questions can be defined as: 'those questions which recall from memory past and present knowledge'. For example, 'What is the capital city of New Zealand?' required no reasoning, working out or calculation.

5.32 **Teaching Questions.** Teaching questions can be defined as a number of questions designed to establish new facts, concepts and principles. The teaching question is, in essence, a problem solving question, which should appeal to the cadets' inquisitive nature and common sense. It is the instructor's most powerful technique in guiding cadets thought towards discovery learning.

How to Use Questions

5.33 Whilst the virtues of questioning have been emphasised, poor use of questions will fail to gain the desired answers, resulting in the waste of valuable lesson time. Instructors, who seldom use questioning in their lessons, justify this omission by saying that they do not have the time to ask questions to get through the syllabus. To overcome such argument and so justify the use of questioning, the instructor must ensure that the correct questioning techniques are used to avoid common faults and so enhance lesson effectiveness.

5.34 **Faults to Avoid.** Questions that the instructor must avoid are those that are:

- a. Too easy and too difficult,

- b. Ambiguous,
- c. Guess, trick and word chase,
- d. Yes/no and 50/50,
- e. Open to the whole group,
- f. Leading,
- g. Too long,
- h. Asked with delayed or missing interrogatives, and
- i. Pre-nominated by:
 - (1) Name.
 - (2) Area.
 - (3) Sequence.
 - (4) Visual cues.

Dealing with Incorrect Answers

5.35 If the instructor could depend on getting the correct answer to every question, instruction would be very easy. However, many questions asked by the instructor will often draw either the wrong response or no response from cadet. When this happens, the instructor must use careful judgement in deciding what to do next. The two major reasons for a cadet giving an incorrect response are either:

- a. The cadet does not know the correct answer; or
- b. The cadet did not understand the question posed by the instructor.

5.36 In dealing with incorrect responses the instructor must consider the following factors on which to base judgement:

- a. Will perseverance with the question affect lesson timing?
- b. Does the cadet answer indicate there is no chance of the cadet getting the correct answer?
- c. Did question wording confuse the cadet?
- d. Did the cadet give a partially correct answer?
- e. Is the cadet lazy and attempting to avoid the effort to correctly answer the question?
- f. How will your subsequent actions affect cadet confidence?

- g. What are the cadet's abilities?

Voice

5.37 You might have noticed that a clock can be ticking in a room without you being aware of it. The clock suddenly stops and you then realise that it has been ticking. A monotonous speaker has the same effect. They drone on, but you don't hear their voice because it does not hold your attention.

5.38 The main point for instructor voice production that can be drawn from the clock analogy is:

- a. The speaker must vary the speed, pitch and volume of their voice, if they are to use it as an effective teaching tool.

5.39 The instructor's voice is one of their most important tools of their trade, but is often overlooked or not used to full effect. An instructor, as part of their job has to be a good speaker.

5.40 A good speaker:

- a. Motivates and challenges their audience. They compels their attention.
- b. Talks directly to them.
- c. Adapts their speech to suit them. For example, different when addressing a junior course, as compared to a senior course.
- d. Uses simple language that all can understand.
- e. Uses repetition.
- f. Makes good use of gesticulation, but consciously avoids distracting mannerisms.
- g. Modulates their voice to suit the environment and the size of their audience.
- h. Speaks clearly and distinctly, without being recitative.

Aids to Good Speech.

5.41 The following are aids to speech:

- a. **Posture.** Upright, natural, relaxed - to enable freedom of expansion of the chest.
- b. **Breathing.** Breathe through the nose - air is then filtered, heated and moistened. Breathing through the mouth produces a dry throat and mouth, and is a cause of the pharyngitis that affects many instructors.
- c. **Hints.** As in music, there are four main elements of speech:
 - (1) Pitch;

- (2) Speed;
- (3) Volume; and
- (4) Tone.

5.42 **Pitch.** It is very hard to listen to a voice that is out of the normal pitch range. An instructor should therefore try to keep as far as possible within their normal range. However, pitch is affected by nervousness, which causes the vocal chords to tighten, raising the pitch. The remedy is to try to relax as much as possible. A useful hint here is to breathe by expanding and contracting the stomach, rather than the chest. This has the effect of relaxing the entire body, including the vocal chords.

5.43 **Speed.** It is hard to listen to a voice that is too fast or too slow. Also, most pronunciation faults can be attributed to speaking too fast. An instructor must speak clearly and speak to the class, not to the board or out of the window. The voice follows the eyes.

5.44 **Volume.** It is hard to listen to a voice that is too soft or too loud. The volume should be such that all members of the class can hear in comfort. Therefore speak just so loudly that the members in the back corners can hear you without difficulty.

5.45 **Tone.** The best tone for instructional purposes is slightly more formal than conversational. A preaching, paternalistic, pedantic or sarcastic tone is best avoided.

5.46 **Variation.** It can be seen that there are many factors to be considered all at once in good speech. However, no one expects the instructor to try to sound like Orson Wells or Sir Lawrence Olivier. The key point is that if their voice enables the class to hear without difficulty or strain, and if they vary the pitch, speed and volume for emphasis, then the instructor's voice is serving them well.

Tips for Dealing with Anxiety

5.47 **Organise.** Lack of organisation is one of the major causes of anxiety. Knowing that your lesson is well organised will give you more confidence, which will allow you to focus energy into your lesson.

5.48 **Visualise.** Imagine walking into a room, looking at your trainees, delivering your lesson with enthusiasm, answering questions with confidence and leaving the room knowing you did a great job. Mentally rehearse this sequence with all the details particular to the presentation you will give. It will help you focus on what you need to do to be successful.

5.49 **Practice.** Many instructors rehearse their lessons mentally or just with their lips. Instead you should practice standing up, as if the class were in front of you, and use your visual aids. If possible, have somebody critique you and or have it videotaped. Watch the playback, listen to the critique and incorporate any changes you feel are required. There is no better preparation than this.

5.50 **Breathe.** When your muscles tighten and you feel nervous, you may not be breathing deeply enough. The first thing to do is to sit up, straight but relaxed, inhale deeply and repeat a couple of times.

5.51 **Focus on relaxing.** Instead of thinking about the tension focus on relaxing. As you breathe, tell yourself on the inhale, “I am” and on the exhale “relaxed”. Then on the inhale “this will be” and on the exhale “a success”. Try to clear your mind of everything except “I am - relaxed” and ‘This will be - a success’. Continue this breathing exercise for several minutes.

5.52 **Release tension.** As tension increases and your muscles tighten up nervous energy can get locked into the limbs. This unreleased energy may cause your hands to shake and your knees to knock. Before giving a lesson it is a good idea to try to release this tension by exercising your muscles. - Starting with your toes and calf muscles, tighten your muscles up through your body finally making a fist (i.e. Toes, calves, thighs, stomach, chest, Shoulders arms and fingers). Immediately realise all of the tension and take a deep breathe Repeat this exercise until you feel all the tension start to drain away. This exercise is so quiet no one knows you’re relaxing.

5.53 **Move.** Speakers who stand in one spot and never gesture experience tension. In order to relax, you need to release tension by allowing your muscles to flex. If you find you are locking your arms in one position to speak, then practice releasing them so that they do the same thing as if you were in an exciting two-way conversation. You can’t gesture too much if it is natural.

5.54 Moving your feet can serve to release tension as well. You should take a few steps, either side-to-side or toward the trainees. When using lectern make sure you get out from behind it. This will help release tension and draw the trainees into the presentation.

5.55 **Eye contact with the audience.** Relate with your trainees as individuals. Look in peoples’ eyes as you speak. Connect with them. Make it personal. The eye contact should help you relax because you become less isolated from the trainees and learn to react to their interest in you.

CHAPTER 6 - Training Aids

SECTION 1 - Developing and Using Training Aids

Introduction

6.1 Training aids are developed or procured with the primary intent of assisting training and the process of learning. They appeal to the senses, add interest, develop better understanding and save time and cost.

6.2 Aids can be as simple as a pointer used to direct student attention to a part of a rifle, or as complex as a computer system used to enhance learning.

6.3 An example of a training aid to simplify the presentation of group instruction such as a lecture is a multimedia projector. This is a training aid for group instruction.

6.4 A stand-alone training aid, such as a video, CD-ROM or DVD program, can be used for either group instruction or individual study.

6.5 This chapter explains how to prepare and use common types of aids. The aids covered are:

- a. Handouts;
- b. Chalkboards and whiteboards;
- c. Magnetic and blanket boards;
- d. Charts;
- e. Multimedia including PowerPoint;
- f. Over head projectors (OHP); and
- g. Video programs.

Selection of Training Aids

6.6 The three factors to be considered when selecting training aids are:

- a. Type of learning;
- b. Background and ability of students; and
- c. Visual content.

Types of Learning

6.7 Different ways of learning are known to achieve different levels of retention. The types of learning are often referred to as VAK:

- a. Visual – seeing;

- b. Auditory – hearing; and
- c. Kinaesthetic – doing.

6.8 In general, we learn best from actually doing a job, next best from what we see, then from what we read and hear. Based on this a 'lecture' is an ineffective method of instruction unless it is supported with visual aids, demonstrations, class participation and handouts.

6.9 Practical Instruction. Practical instruction involving physical skills requires rifles and equipment, or models of these items, as training aids. The same applies to instruction which combines physical and mental skills. For example, rifle handling skills should not be taught without having the student operate the rifle.

6.10 Theory Instruction. Theory instruction involving knowledge and mental skills can be supported by any type of training aid which is relevant to the subject area. For example, a map-reading theory lesson can be supported by over head projectors, charts, models, films, or a combination of these. The most effective training aids involve the student in active practice.

Background and Ability of Students

6.11 Training aids should simplify instruction, add interest, and save time in explanation. The instructor should use training aids oriented to the background and ability of the students. For example, the use of aids such as charts, films, models and actual rifles should assist new cadets to learn the use and maintenance of the rifle, whereas trained cadets may need only the actual rifle for continuation training.

6.12 Visual Content. Of the five senses: sight, hearing, smell, touch and taste; sight is the most powerful sense for learning. The visual content should be simple, easy to see and relevant.

6.13 Visual aids are any training aids that supplement or enhance the lesson by encouraging multiple-sense learning – VAK.

6.14 Use of Colour. The use of colour in visual aids needs to be carefully managed, overuse dilutes the impact. Colour should only be used to emphasise key information. Certain colours are more legible than others; colours used depend on two areas:

- a. Colour of the writing surface; and
- b. Colour of the writing or drawing materials.

6.15 Research has proven that:

- a. Adults read dark blue letters on a pale yellow surface 15% faster than white letters on a black surface;
- b. People copy down material written on a yellow surface in 10% less time; and
- c. Material written on a light-coloured surface can be read at a greater distance than material written on dark-coloured surfaces.

6.16 Often the instructor has no choice on the background available, so they must choose the most appropriate colour for writing.

6.17 When an instructor is constructing multimedia presentations they must apply particular attention to the principles of colour described. The next table describes the best colour combinations for use with visual media.

6.18 Colour Combinations. The following colours in descending order are the preferred colours when writing on a dark or a light background:

Background Type	Colours	Medium
Dark Background	Yellow	Good
	White	
	Pink	
	Red	Medium
	Green	
	Light Blue	
	Brown	Poor
	Purple	
	Bark Blue	

Background Type	Colours	Medium
Light Background	Bark Blue	Good
	Purple	
	Brown	
	Light Blue	Medium
	Green	
	Red	
	Pink	Poor
	White	
	Yellow	

Types of Training Aids

6.19 The following are the types of training aids that can be used by the instructor:

- Handouts;
- Chalkboards and Whiteboards;
- Magnetic and Blanket Boards;

- d. Charts;
- e. Multimedia;
- f. Over Head projector; and
- g. Audio-Visual programs.

6.20 **Handouts.** Handouts are sheets of information containing the teaching points of a period of instruction. They may be issued before or after a period of instruction. Further information on the description, preparation and use of handouts is contained in Section 2.

6.21 **Chalkboards and Whiteboards.** Chalkboards and whiteboards are either fixed to a wall or supported by an easel and are used by instructors to write or draw instruction.

6.22 Information on the description, preparation and use of chalkboards and whiteboards is contained in Section 3.

6.23 **Magnetic and Blanket Boards.** Magnetic and blanket boards are similar to chalkboards and whiteboards, except that they have surfaces to which objects may adhere. Magnetic and blanket boards are used for showing movement and changes of layout in schematic form. Information on their description, preparation and use is in Section 4.

6.24 **Charts.** Charts are sheets of paper or cardboard that illustrates text or diagrams. They can be fixed to a wall or supported by an easel. Information on the description, preparation and use of charts is in Section 5.

6.25 **Multimedia.** Multimedia is the system of projecting computer generated images and video using an electronic Over Head Projector onto a large screen or whiteboard. Information on the description and use of multimedia is in Section 6.

6.26 **Over Head Projector.** Over Head Projectors (OHP) enlarge and display text, art work and illustrations onto flat viewing surfaces. Information on the description, preparation and use of over head projectors is in Section 7.

6.27 **Audio-Visual Programs.** Video/DVD/Blu-ray aids can be displayed through a television monitor or projected onto a screen. Video/DVD/Blu-ray programs can be used as stand-alone training aids. Information on the description, preparation and use of audio-visual programs is in Section 8.

SECTION 2 - Handouts

6.28 **Description.** Handouts are sheets of information containing a summary of the main teaching points of a period of instruction. They are used to support most methods of instruction, especially lectures, where students receive them to supplement their own notes.

6.29 Specific characteristics of handouts are as follows:

- a. They are useful aids for the confirmation of learning;
- b. They can be used as a ready reference for students to learn from and retain information; and
- c. They can be issued before or after instruction.

6.30 **Preparation.** Handouts should be brief, simple, logical and useful. Information for a handout comes directly from the lesson plan. The elements from the lesson plan which should be contained in a handout include:

- a. Subject title;
- b. Training objective of the period of instruction;
- c. Reason for learning;
- d. Teaching points (including examples);
- e. Learning guidance; and
- f. Summary.

6.31 Ideally, handouts should be typed and should include any illustrations and diagrams which were key visual aids during the lesson. If using Microsoft PowerPoint, handouts can be produced using the handout printing feature.

6.32 **Layout.** Handouts should be laid out in a manner which leaves students room to make notes and comments. If they are to be used during the preliminaries of the lesson, then provision for note taking should be made. For example, text can be typed on the left half of the page, leaving room on the right half for notes. This encourages students to use their own words to understand and remember teaching points.

6.33 **Use.** Handouts can be issued before or after instruction. Issuing the handouts before has the following advantages:

- a. It allows students to follow the period of instruction and make notes on the handout;
- b. It helps to organise student thinking on the subject and give them instructional cues to look for (for example key words and headings are highlighted in the handout); and

- c. Some distraction can occur if the instructor does not allow time for note taking and reference to the handout.

6.34 The following advantages relate to issuing handouts after instruction:

- a. No distraction occurs during the instruction;
- b. Students can match the handout to their own notes; and
- c. It is a good way to provide a permanent summary after a verbal summary has been given by the instructor.

SECTION 3 - Whiteboards

6.35 **Description.** Chalkboards, paperboards and whiteboards are grouped together under the description of Whiteboards. They are either fixed to a wall or supported by an easel. They are used by instructors to write or draw information. In the case of aluminium whiteboards they can also be used in the same manner as magnetic boards (See Section 4). Whiteboards can be used during most methods of instruction.

6.36 **Characteristics.** Specific characteristics of chalkboards and whiteboards are as follows:

- a. They are useful aids for illustrating an aspect of a teaching point or for showing an example which arises spontaneously during instruction;
- b. They are easy to use and prepare; and
- c. They are not good for showing movement.

6.37 **Preparation.** In preparation, the first step is to carry out a position rehearsal. This involves positioning the board in the instructional location. If the instructional location is unavailable, then the positioning of the board should be simulated in another location. In some facilities, the boards are fixed to the wall and the seating should be arranged accordingly.

6.38 The reason for a position rehearsal is to allow the instructor time to decide on the size and layout of text and diagrams. A number of student positions should be adopted to conform that the board and its content can be seen. The size of letters, words and diagrams should be increased until this is achieved.

6.39 In many cases, two boards are better than one. One board can contain prepared text and diagrams. The other board can be used during the lesson for quick calculation and the recording of points. Two boards also provide more space and allow the use of larger lettering and diagrams.

6.40 **Board Plan.** Plan how you are going to utilise the 'board' – don't treat it as a scribble pad. The content on the board should grow in a logical manner that parallels the lesson.

6.41 Having confirmed your board position, you can decide how you are going to divide up the board. A common approach is four parts: title line, with three even areas underneath. This allows for our natural inclination to read from left to right.



6.42 The board plan is the blueprint for what you will write on the board, you must consider:

- a. Readability vs quality of information; and
- b. Variety of colour.

6.43 **Readability.** The more information you display the smaller you must make the lettering and vice versa. A rule of thumb is lettering should be 1cm high for each metre from the viewer. For example if the whiteboard is 6m from the students then the lettering should be 6cm high.

6.44 **Colour.** Colour breaks up the visual monotony, use it to differentiate between items and to emphasise. Beware of using too many colours or random use of colours; students will automatically look for patterns and make the wrong assumption on a teaching point based on its colour relative to other teaching points. Tip: If you struggle with writing uniformly on a whiteboard, you can add guidelines directly on the whiteboard with yellow marker dots. They will not be visible to the students under fluorescent light conditions.

6.45 The next step is to carry out board preparation. Usually, the only preparation required is to clean the board. Sometimes, the instructor will need to prepare the board by writing on it the teaching points and diagrams. These teaching points and diagrams should be covered at the start of the period of instruction and displayed progressively. When covering teaching points and diagrams, adhesive tape should not be used. These items lift the coating on the board and damage its surface.

6.46 The following points are a few suggestions for copying diagrams:

- a. Trace images which have been projected onto the board using an over head projector:
- b. For whiteboards, diagrams can be traced using yellow coloured marker if progressive development is required. Students should not be able to see the outline.
- c. For chalkboards, diagrams can be traced using dark coloured chalk if progressive development is required. Students should not be able to see the outline.
- d. For Chalkboards, trace out a diagram by pinpricking its outline which has been drawn on paper or a chart. An outline can be produced by holding the

chart on the board and tapping a chalked buster over the pinpricks. A faint image will appear.

6.47 Use. The following points should be observed when using chalkboards and whiteboards:

- a. Do not talk and write at the same time. You will lose contact with the students;
- b. Stand aside when writing or drawing is completed so students can see;
- c. Erase what is not required; and
- d. Use a pointer to draw attention to features on a board.

SECTION 4 - Magnetic and Blanket Boards

6.48 **Description.** Magnetic and blanket boards are similar to chalkboards and whiteboards except that they have surfaces to which objects may be adhered. In case of the magnetic board, the surface is metal.

6.49 For the blanket board, a Sandpaper or Velcro backing is used to fix display objects to the surface.

6.50 **Characteristics.** Special characteristics of magnetic and blanket boards are as follows:

- a. They can display teaching points in a progressive and neat manner;
- b. They can represent the movement of working parts and objects; and
- c. They are easy to use and prepare.

6.51 **Position Rehearsal.** A position rehearsal should take place to decide on the size and layout of lettering, diagrams, models and symbols. A number of student positions should be adopted to confirm that the boards and their contents can be seen. The size of letters and diagrams should be increased until this is achieved.

6.52 **Display Plan.** Magnetic and blanket boards permit versatile displays and manipulation of text, symbols and models. Instructors should prepare their aids and rehearse their use. Rehearsals should be based on a display plan. This plan need only take the form of a few notes on the order of the display and manipulation related to the lesson plan. Cards and symbols should be numbered.

6.53 The following points should be observed when using a magnetic or blanket board:

- a. Display one point or part of a diagram or model at a time;
- b. Use these points to confirm and give feedback on student answers to questions;
- c. Take words, diagrams or models off the board when they are no longer required; and
- d. Be careful to put up words, diagrams and models in a neat symmetrical manner. Badly aligned words, diagrams and models are a distraction.

SECTION 5 - Charts

6.54 **Description.** Charts are sheets of paper or cardboard that illustrates text or diagrams for display during instruction. They can be fixed to a wall or supported by an easel. They are used to support most types of instruction.



6.55 **Characteristics.** Specific characteristics are as follows:

- a. They permit the quick and efficient display of text, diagrams and illustrations;
- b. They can illustrate relationships among objects or events, or parts thereof;
- c. They can emphasise distinctive visual features; and
- d. They can show small components enlarged for ease of learning.

6.56 **Preparation.** The first step for preparing charts is to select chart material which is appropriate to the period of instruction. The instructor should not use a chart that does not illustrate the teaching points of the instruction being taught.

6.57 Charts can be made up easily if there are no appropriate ones available. One method is to trace the image projected by an opaque projector. Another is to join sheets of butcher's paper and use a felt pen to write or draw the required text or diagrams.

6.58 The following points should be observed when making charts:

- a. Text and diagrams should be large and simple enough to be seen and understood easily. This may mean a progressive build-up of material; and
- b. Text and diagrams should be laid out neatly and symmetrically over the entire chart page. Untidy and poorly laid out text and diagrams are a distraction.

6.59 **Use.** The following points should be followed when using charts during instruction:

- a. Confirm the order of display during rehearsal;
- b. Use a pointer to draw attention to text, parts of a diagram and illustrations; and
- c. Use clips to secure and stretch charts flat when flipping or mounting individual charts.

SECTION 6 - Multimedia

6.60 **Description.** The multimedia allows instructors to conduct classroom style instruction with the minimum use of consumables, such as 35mm slides and overhead transparencies. Each multimedia consists of the following:

- a. Multimedia projector; and
- b. Computer.

6.61 Additional equipment can include:

- a. SMART Board;
- b. Video Cassette Recorder;
- c. DVD player;
- d. Stereo speakers; and
- e. Ancillary equipment, including remote controls and portable projection screens.

6.62 Each multimedia is capable of:

- a. Reproducing any image from the host computer screen, through programs like Microsoft PowerPoint;
- b. Projecting presentations directly through the projector, as a stand-alone, using portable memory devices; and
- c. Projecting a media sequence through the projector from a VCR or DVD player unit.

6.63 **Preparation.** All projectors should be positioned and focused and their operation rehearsed before the instruction is conducted. Preferably, this should occur in the instructional location, but if that is unavailable, a similar location should be used.

6.64 Operators should ensure they are familiar with the specific controls before operation, including how to change input format including:

- a. USB;
- b. RGB; and
- c. AV.

Note: The multimedia projector must be switched off using the manufacturer instructions. Switching the projector off incorrectly will damage the bulb.

6.65 **Using of the Projector.** Modern projection equipment can display an array of media, the advances in technology has allowed the instructor to display a complete audi-visual learning experience for the student. The common projectors in service can display

presentation software, embedded video and have the function to support external media players such as DVD.

6.66 **Using the Computer.** All computers within the NZDF contain powerful presentation software; the current presentation program is Microsoft PowerPoint.

6.67 The tools provided with PowerPoint enable instructors to produce graphic presentations. For the more advanced, Windows Movie Maker now provides the ability to capture and manipulate still images and digital video, which can be incorporated into the presentation.

6.68 **Principles of Projection.** It should be noted that many of the principles of projection outlined below apply to both multimedia and over head projectors.

6.69 **Positions.** The positioning of projectors, screens, instructors and students is important, and the following points should be observed:

- a. Instructors' positions; and
- b. Students' positions.

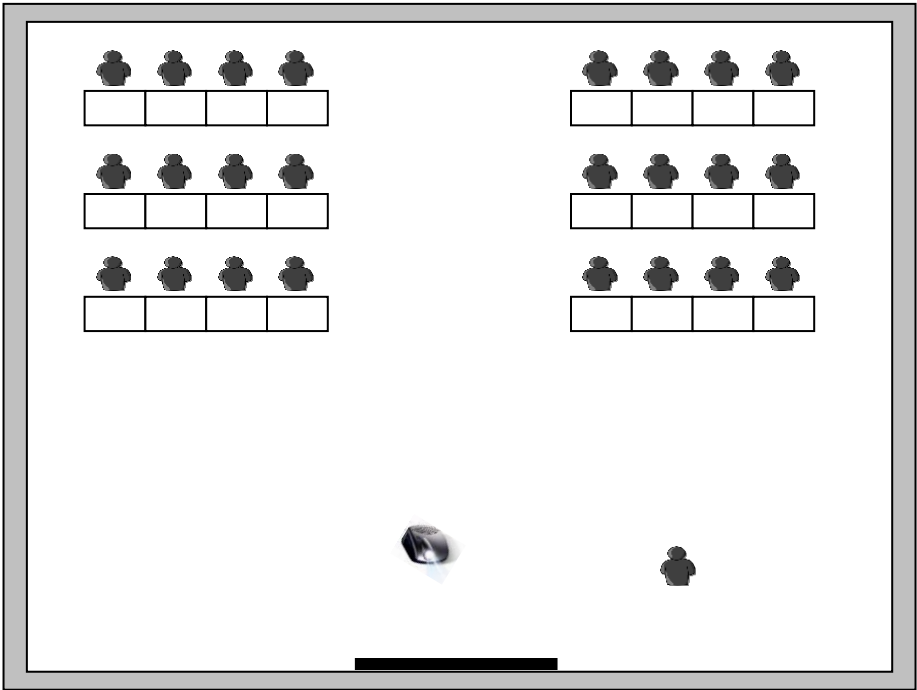
6.70 **Instructor Positions.** Instructors should position themselves away from screens when referring to images projected there. Their proximity to the screen can be a distraction to the students who are concentrating on the image.

6.71 Instructors should not walk through the area between the projector and the projected image. **Tip:** Place a strip of duct tape or similar on the floor as a barrier for you not to cross, this can also apply to not blocking the view of the screen for your students.

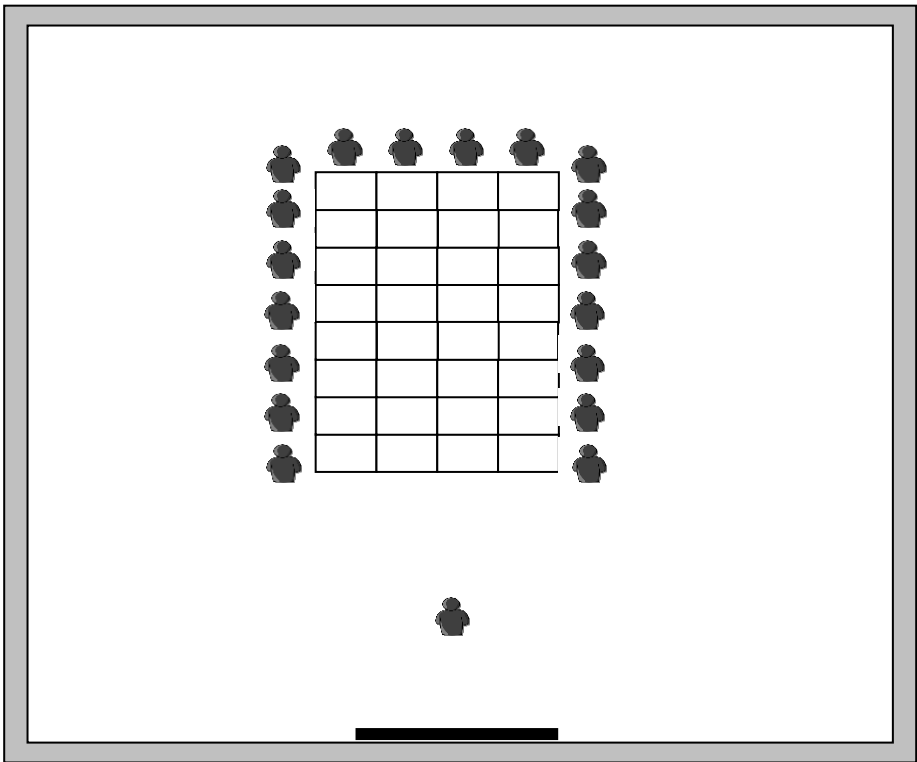
6.72 **Classroom Layout.** The following common classroom layouts can be utilised for the delivery of instruction:

- a. 'Standard';
- b. 'Centre table';
- c. 'Hollow square';
- d. 'U' Shaped;
- e. 'V' Shaped; and
- f. Café.

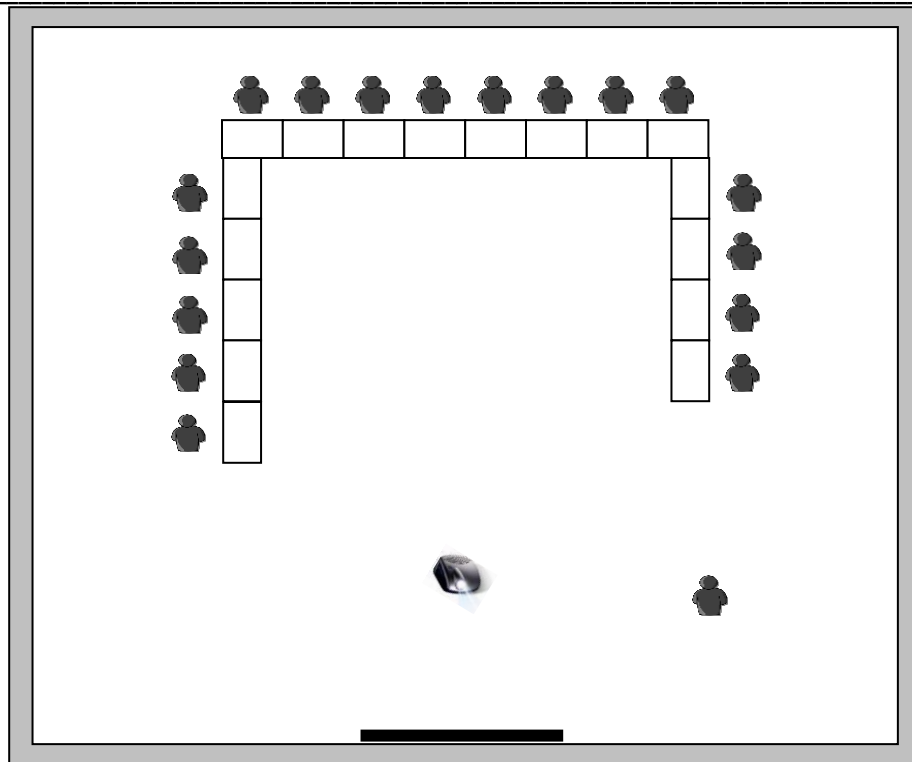
6.73 All examples have been prepared using the same dimensions for lecture room and student desks, with a fixed projector/screen location. Some layouts have an impact on student number.



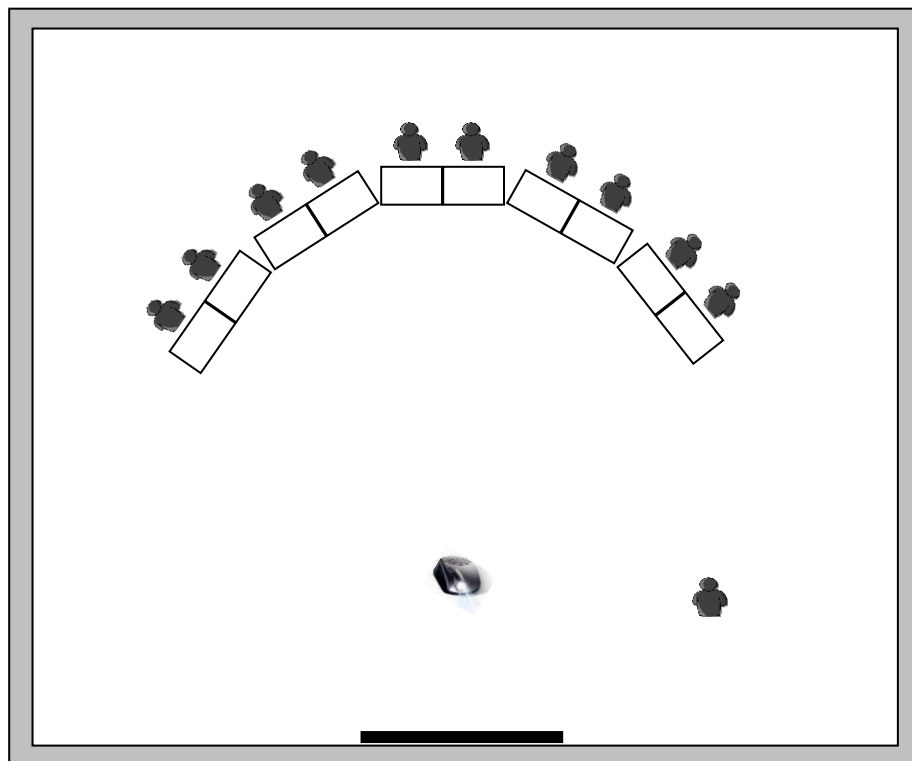
'Standard' Layout



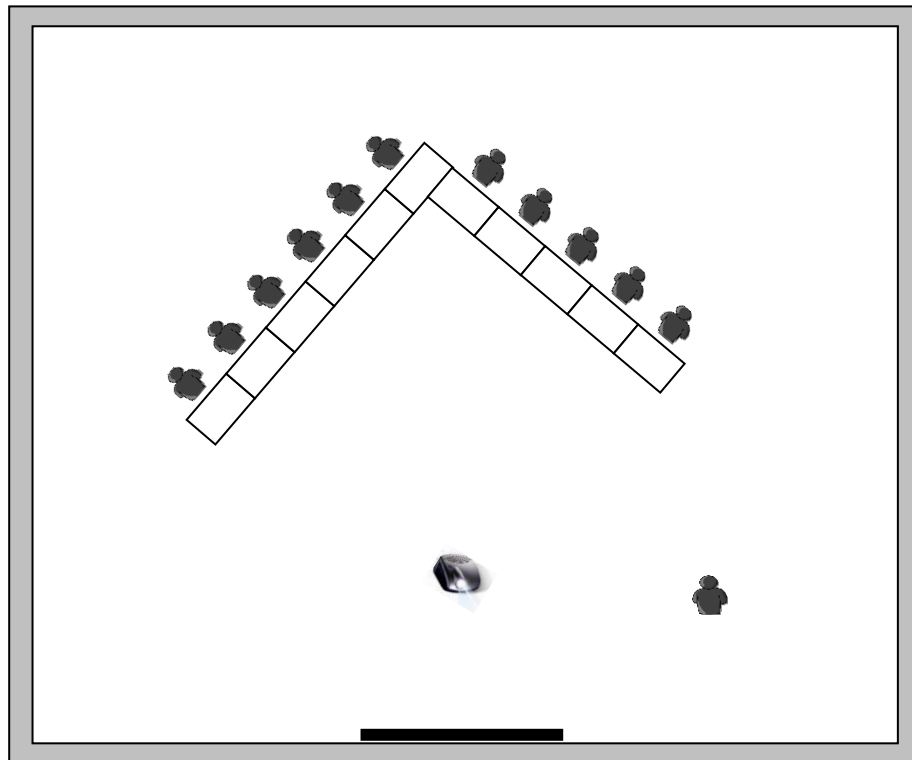
"Centre Table" Layout



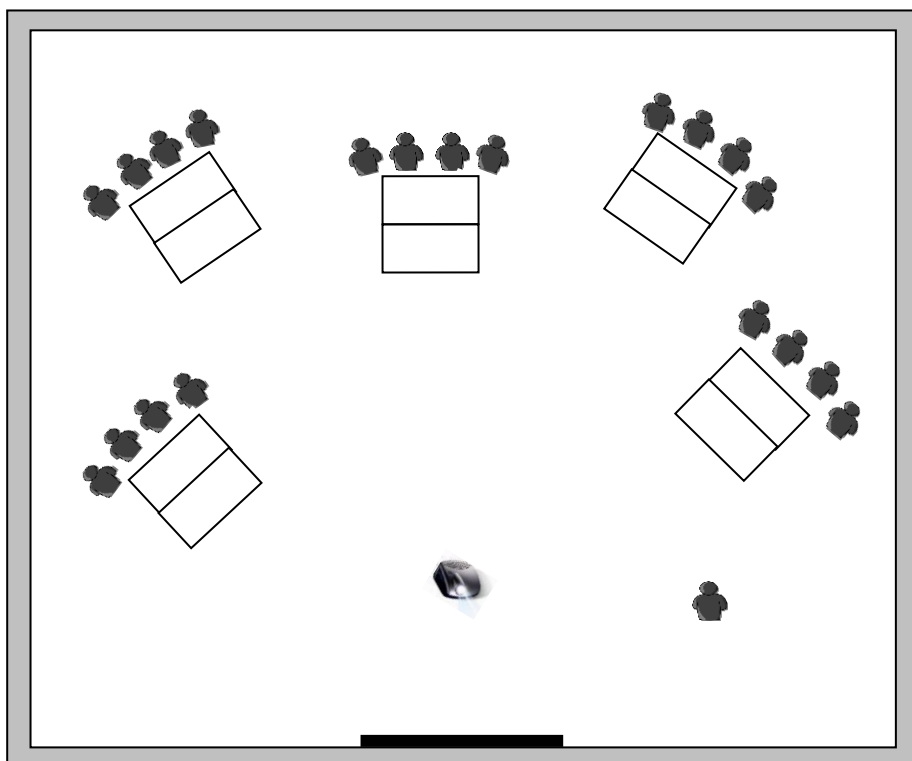
Hollow Square Layout



Theory 'U' Table Layout



Theory 'V' Table Layout



'Café' Layout

6.74 Students can take up positions around the table once the instructor has completed the explanation/demonstration. So which layout would work best for you?

6.75 The physical surroundings of a class can encourage or inhibit the kind of interaction, and hence learning, which you want. Making distinct efforts to arrange the furniture of a classroom to promote a particular kind of interaction also sends strong messages to participants who are used to conventional layouts that this class is something different. It may be a hassle to set up but it is worth it.

6.76 The ability to make eye-contact is (at least in Western culture) the key to establishing communication in a group and is particularly important for the person teaching.

6.77 The traditional classroom layout, in rows, allows the teacher/instructor to make eye-contact with all the students and make everyone feel included. It facilitates traditional teacher-student delivery and questioning or “teacher-centred” teaching.

6.78 The students can see a screen or board at the front of the classroom but in order to talk to each other, they need to turn in their seats or address the back of a fellow students neck.

6.79 For whole group discussion, the U shape, centre table and hollow square options are more effective. The students can make eye-contact with each other but they may have to twist to see whatever the teacher is presenting.

6.80 If the group is small, it is useful to arrange tables in the café layout to fit three to five students. This promotes the easy formation of small groups but communications between the groups can be awkward.

6.81 It may even be better to remove desks altogether and if you are doing a practical lesson, move outside to conduct training.

6.82 The moral of the story is that there is no single solution; it all depends on what you want to do. Don't be afraid to try something different.

6.83 **Screen Positions.** During the adjustment of the position of a projector and screen, there may be occasions when the image will not be square. This distortion is known as the ‘keystone effect’. This effect is caused by the position of the projector lens in relation to the screen. Most projectors have a function to adjust the image to counter the ‘keystone effect’ in the menu settings (you should check the manufacture’s instructions). To minimise this effect always ensure the projector is ‘square’ to the screen.

6.84 Some portable screens have an attachment at the top of the screen which helps eliminate this effect; the keystone eliminator, the distances and positions of the projector, and the screen, will need to be adjusted to obtain a square image.

SECTION 7 - Over Head Projector (OHP)

6.85 **Description.** Over head projection involves the use of an over head projector, over head transparencies and a screen. The instructor makes up or has prepared a series of overhead transparencies which are placed on the projector during the instruction. When the lamp of the projector is turned on, the image on the transparency is magnified through the projection head on to a screen. The instructor repeats this process for each transparency.

6.86 **Characteristics.** Over head projection has the following characteristics:

- a. The equipment requires an electrical power source;
- b. The equipment can be operated without lowering lighting;
- c. Instructors can face the class and progressively display material by hand or have an assistant do so; and
- d. Large images can be projected over a short distance.

6.87 **Preparation.** All projectors should be positioned and focused and their operation rehearsed before the instruction is conducted. Preferably, this should occur in the instructional location, but if that is available, a similar location should be used.

6.88 **Using the Over Head Projector.** The following points should be noted when using overhead projectors:

- a. Have a display plan;
- b. Use a progressive display;
- c. Use questions to pace the display; and
- d. Summarise.

6.89 **Display Plan.** Transparencies should be sequenced to support the teaching points of instruction. To ensure this, the instructor should organise material in accordance with a display plan.

6.90 The plan may take the form as notes but is represented better by clearly numbering transparencies. Also, transparencies may be covered with flips or overlays. Flips should be marked to show the instructor what will appear once the flip is lifted.

6.91 **Progressive Display.** Images should be displayed progressively. This means that each transparency develops a teaching point. Each slide should contain one idea or one step. Sometimes, flips and overlays are used to develop several teaching points on one transparency.

6.92 **Pace with Questions.** A useful display technique is to question students and show correct response by revealing the response as a visual display. Flips can be used for this procedure.

6.93 **Summarise.** Visual displays are good for summarising each teaching stage and for the final summary. This summary should be brief and simple.

6.94 **Keystone Effect.** The 'Keystone Effect' as described for Multimedia, is more critical for the operator as the OHP have limited adjustment to counter the effect. You must ensure the distance and position relative to the screen is correct. If present on the screen use a 'Keystone Eliminator'.

SECTION 8 - Audio-Visual Media

6.95 **Description.** Video/DVD programs represent the most common form of audio-visual (AV) media. AV can be used for some or all of the teaching stages of the body of a period of instruction, but the introduction, practice stages and conclusion of the instruction should be conducted by the instructor. Instructors should be aware that a poorly produced, amateurish AV program can be a distraction to students and not assist learning.

6.96 **Types.** Audio-Visual encompasses the following media applications:

- a. Slides. 35mm slides displayed using a slide projector;
- b. Audiotape. Standard cassette played through tape recorder;
- c. Slide-tape. When combining slides and audiotape;
- d. Filmstrip. 9mm projector and tape, doesn't have in-built sound. Can be inflexible and difficult to handle;
- e. Motion Picture. 16mm with optical sound. Professional standard therefore equipment is expensive. Good for large audiences; and
- f. Video. VHS, DVD or Blu-Ray formats are the most prevalent, and easiest to produce and manage. NZDF computers have effective software options available for operating with this format; Windows Movie Maker.

6.97 **Tips.** When using 'video' ensure you have chosen the appropriate format for the country you are operating in. the following are considered the standard setting for New Zealand:

- a. Television – PAL;
- b. VHS – S-VHS PAL; and
- c. DVD/Blu-Ray – Region 4 PAL.

6.98 **Characteristics.** Specific characteristics of AV programs are as follows:

- a. The equipment requires an electrical power source;
- b. Video programs displayed through television monitors do not require the lights to be lowered for viewing;
- c. Video programs projected onto large screens do require the lights to be lowered;
- d. Video programs can be shown by unqualified personnel and stopped, started and reviewed during operation;
- e. Video programs are effective in showing individuals, groups, firearms and equipment operating in real life situations; and

- f. Video programs provide effective visual elaboration, of teaching points.

Preparation

6.99 **Selection.** The instructor must be satisfied that the AV is relevant to the achievement of training objectives. AV should not be used to satisfy vague needs for instructional entertainment.

6.100 **Preview.** Although the AV catalogue has a summary of the contents of each aid, this is only a guide to what is available so that the instructor can confirm their relevance and suitability. The instructor should look for teaching stages and any points which will need to be brought to the notice of students. A useful method is to time each teaching stage to the second, so that the AV program can be stopped at the end of each stage. This permits questions to be asked and learning confirmed. Points for the introduction and conclusion should also be noted.

6.101 **Rehearsal.** Rehearsal enables instructors to deliver the instruction better and also coordinate their delivery with the film and video program sequences. This is important if a projectionist or assistant instructor is operating the AV equipment. Rehearsal in the instructional location also confirms that the equipment is operating correctly and is focused. Instructor, student and screen positions can be confirmed as being suitable.

6.102 **Use.** The use of an AV program in instruction is simple. The introduction and conclusion are presented by the instructor. Some or all of the teaching stages of the body can be made up of AV footage. However, the instructor should link each stage and confirm the learning of each stage.

6.103 Three useful techniques are as follows:

- a. Inform the students of the points before each stage of the AV. This cues the students to watch for teaching points;
- b. Point out unfamiliar aspects of the AV which could confuse students. This especially applies to foreign films which may show unfamiliar equipment, dress etc; and
- c. Confirm each stage by questions, for example:
 - (1) "Who noticed.....?"
 - (2) "What should the trampers have done.....?"
 - (3) "What was the important point.....?"

CHAPTER 7 - Assessment

SECTION 1 - Assessment

Introduction

7.1 Assessment is the process of collecting evidence and making judgements on whether competency has been achieved. The process is used to confirm that the individual can perform to the standard expected in the workplace as expressed in the competency standards and learning outcomes.

Principles of Assessment

7.2 Assessors must be confident that assessment decisions are based on quality evidence. Assessment should comply with the following principles:

- a. Validity;
- b. Reliability;
- c. Flexibility; and
- d. Fairness.

7.3 These principles must be addressed whether it is in the conduct of an assessment, the development of assessment tools, or in the design, establishment and management of the assessment system.

7.4 **Validity.** Assessments are valid when 'they assess what they claim to assess'. Validity is achieved when:

- a. Assessors are fully aware of what is to be assessed, as indicated by the training program learning outcomes and clearly defined assessment specifications;
- b. Assessments cover the range of skills and knowledge sufficient to demonstrate competency;
- c. Evidence demonstrates that the assessment criteria has been met;
- d. Assessment of competency is a process which integrates knowledge and skills with their practical application; and
- e. During assessment, judgements to determine a learner's competency are, wherever practical, made of evidence gathered on a number of occasions and in a variety of contexts or situations.

7.5 **Reliability.** Reliable assessment uses methods and procedures which engender confidence that the learning outcomes are interpreted and applied constantly from learner to learner, context to context and assessor to assessor. Reliability of assessment is increased when:

- a. There are clear, unambiguous, well-documented assessment procedures;
- b. There are clear, unambiguous, assessment tools;
- c. Assessors are well trained and are constantly briefed for their task;
- d. Multiple assessors or panels are used (where feasible);
- e. Multiple parallel forms of evidence (i.e. evidence from different assessment activities) are used to measure the same learning outcomes, where this is possible and cost effective; and
- f. Assessment practices should be monitored and reviewed to ensure that there is consistency in the collection and interpretation of evidence.

7.6 **Flexibility.** Assessment practices are flexible if they can accommodate:

- a. The scope of knowledge and skills encompassed by the assessment specification;
- b. The variations in contexts in which assessment may be conducted;
- c. Both the on-the-job and off-the-job components of training; and
- d. The recognition of competencies no matter how, where or when they have been acquired.

7.7 As far as possible within the resources available and cost constraints, sufficient choice should be available to candidates to enable them to be provided with the form of assessment that matches their particular personal situation. For example, it may be necessary to design the assessment so that it can be conducted in units or during formal courses.

7.8 **Fairness.** Assessment is fair if it does not disadvantage particular persons. In the process of assessing the achievement of learning, precautions should be taken to ensure that persons are not disadvantaged for any reason, to achieve this:

- a. Assessment processes and specifications are transparent to all persons being assessed;
- b. Assessment practices and methods must be equitable to all groups of learners;
- c. Assessment criteria for judging performance must be made clear to all learners; and
- d. Opportunities must be provided to learners for reassessment.

Evidence

7.9 Evidence is information gathered which, when matched against the unit of competency/learning outcome, provides proof of competency.

7.10 Evidence may include products such as reports, models and items that have been made, fixed or repaired. It might also be processes that can be observed, such as following the correct sequence, providing the required service or maintaining records correctly.

7.11 Answers to questions are another form of evidence. These may include questions about topics such as work procedures, typical faults and remedies, workplace hazards and underpinning knowledge.

7.12 Learners could be asked questions or the questions could be presented as a written test.

Rules of Evidence

7.13 Evidence of competency must be:

- a. Valid;
- b. Sufficient;
- c. Current; and
- d. Authentic.

7.14 **Valid.** To be valid, the evidence must demonstrate what it is supposed to demonstrate. In other words if you are assessing someone's ability to perform an action, such as ride a bicycle, it would not be a valid assessment to ask them to answer multiple choice questions on how to ride a bicycle. A valid assessment in this case would be to observe the learner riding a bicycle or the equivalent.

7.15 **Sufficient.** There needs to be an appropriate quantity of evidence presented at an acceptable level or quality before competence can be established. The evidence must cover the full scope of the learning outcome. It is very rare that one piece of evidence will ever be sufficient to establish competency.

7.16 **Current.** When collecting evidence it is imperative that the assessor looks at the currency of evidence to ascertain the relevance to the assessment. For example, if a person has received a qualification in computing and had not used a computer for several years, it would be permissible to give that piece of evidence little weight in determining competence.

7.17 **Authentic.** This term is used when trying to decide if the evidence provided by the assessed person was actually created by that person. This factor will be of great importance when the applicant for assessment is asked to prepare a portfolio of evidence.

7.18 You must be certain that the work belongs to the person being assessed and is not the product of someone else. It is also important to know if the evidence is the product of a team or group. In this case how can you ascertain how much of the evidence was produced by the assessed individual?

7.19 If you are unsure of the authenticity, validation of evidence by a third party may be necessary.

SECTION 2 - Concepts of Assessment

Purposes of Assessment

7.20 Assessment is used for a wide range of purposes within a competency-based training and assessment system. It therefore generally requires a variety of methods in order to effectively achieve its stated purposes. Purposes of assessment may include:

- a. Formative assessment during training;
- b. Summative assessment of performance at the completion of training;
- c. Personal feedback on performance; and
- d. Formal performance appraisals for promotion.

7.21 **Formative Assessment.** Formative assessment provides information to learners on their progress towards the achievement of the required performance.

7.22 It is called 'formative' assessment since it assists learners to form the knowledge, skills and attitudes that will eventually be needed to demonstrate the required standard of performance in a Learning Outcome.

7.23 The feedback provided by formative assessment is used by trainers and learners to correct any problems that may be occurring in the learning of the required competencies within Training Objectives.

7.24 **Summative Assessment.** Assessment is summative when it is conducted and recorded at the end of a program of training, a course or a module. Summative assessment can be used in institutional settings, in the workplace and often in combinations of both. Its purpose is to check that learners have fulfilled all of the learning outcome requirements for the course or module.

7.25 Summative assessment requires the collection of sufficient, suitable evidence which may include:

- a. Samples of work;
- b. Observation of performance on specific tasks in a real or simulated work situation; or
- c. Results of practical or written tests.
- d. The evidence, as a whole, is compared with the prescribed performance criteria found within the learning outcome and a judgement made as to whether the performance requirement has been met.

Terms Associated with Evidence and Assessment

Evidence

7.26 In a competency-based assessment system, evidence is something that supports the person's claim of having achieved competency. Evidence of competency can take many forms. The forms of evidence required will depend on the purpose of assessment:

7.27 **Direct Evidence.** Is obtained when an assessor observes the actual performance in a workplace or training organisation. The assessor makes a judgement about whether the person has competently performed the task or series of tasks. For example, the assessor may:

- a. Observe the person performing a range of skills at work.
- b. View a video of the person's performance.
- c. Examine a product made in the workplace by the person.

7.28 **Indirect Evidence.** Is used when it is not possible or desirable for someone to be assessed on their actual performance of tasks in a workplace; it may be too costly, inappropriate or involve risks. Assessment methods used to collect indirect evidence include projects, simulations and examination of workplace documents. For example, the assessor may examine a portfolio of work that has been generated by the learner as part of their daily work.

7.29 **Primary Evidence.** Is that used as the most direct method to determine competence for example, the assessor directly observes the learner performing the required actions.

7.30 **Secondary Evidence.** Is that used to confirm or counter the evidence gathered using the primary methods, for example, verbal reports from one Directing Staff (DS) about the learners performance in the field compared with an assessment tool completed by another. Generally, direct evidence provides the primary evidence for competence, whilst indirect evidence provides the secondary evidence.

7.31 **Supplementary Evidence.** Allows the assessor to infer competency. This evidence is often obtained through written work, oral questioning or third party sources. Supplementary evidence needs to be gathered and used very carefully, paying special attention to authenticity and confidentiality. It is a good method for determining underpinning knowledge of skill.

Assessment

7.32 **Integrated Assessment.** If it is possible to assess a person's attributes such as knowledge, skills and attitudes at the same time then it should be done. In most scenarios in the real world, we use these attributes in combination to achieve a successful outcome: hence assessment of performance should endeavour to assess them simultaneously.

7.33 **Cost Effectiveness.** Collecting evidence is costly both in terms of time and money, from the point of view of the assessor and the individual being assessed. It is thus

very important, when deciding what type of evidence is needed to establish competency, to look at cost factors.

7.34 Some forms of evidence (such as long-term observation in the workplace) are very expensive and must be considered very carefully before deciding whether they are suitable. Other forms such as written tests are very inexpensive, but are very low on validity and reliability.

7.35 Would you trust a brain surgeon to operate on you on the basis of evidence from a written test?

SECTION 3 - Assessment Methods and Tools

Forms of Assessment and Assessment Tools

7.36 There are no hard and fast rules about how much evidence is required to make an effective assessment of learning outcomes or what assessment methods should be used to gather that evidence.

7.37 In practice, a balance needs to be reached to enable sufficient evidence to be collected to enable a decision to be made about the learner's competence.

7.38 The following table provides some information on the types of assessments that may be used. Some of the most common of the assessment forms are described in the table below. You need to be aware that the list is by means exhaustive and other forms of assessment may be appropriate in your particular work or learning environment.

Assessment Form	Methods	Tool	Testing Process
Observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Product and/or processes on the job 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Checklists Rating scales Log books Skills books Work experience Peer assessments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Checking Categorising Rating
Skills Tests	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Work sample Skill sample Practical project 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Checklists Rating scales Research tasks Assignments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Checking Categorising Rating
Simulations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Observation of product and/or process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Case studies Simulators Computer-adaptive tests Fault-finding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Checking Categorising Rating
Questioning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oral Written 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Short answer Essay Select answer Oral exam Self ratings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Checking Categorising Rating Scoring

Methods of Assessing Skills

7.39 **Observations.** While many of the other forms of assessment are useful in obtaining evidence of competence, the most commonly used method because of its high reliability is observation. This method however, has been subject to much controversy

because of its subjective nature and needs to be backed up with carefully devised strategies by the assessor.

7.40 Not all competencies are suitable for assessment by observation as there are simpler, more objective and reliable methods. However, in areas such as assessing performance skills or formal and informal non-paper based procedures, then observation is highly recommended.

7.41 **Checklists.** Are some of the most common tools used in the assessment of skills using either observation or skills testing. The information provided with a checklist should clearly explain to an assessor how a decision is made about overall competence. For example:

- a. Does the person have to perform every step of the procedure or are some steps essential and others desirable?
- b. Does a product need to meet all checklist requirements?

7.42 The checklist should link directly to the learning criteria or performance criteria on which it is based. When using a checklist you need to ask yourself the following questions, and be able to answer each in the affirmative. Does the checklist:

- a. Clearly include all critical aspects of the competent performance?
- b. Give the assessor instructions for its completion, including number of observations required?
- c. Provide the assessor with spaces for comment and feedback?
- d. Include items which are grammatically and structurally consistent?
- e. Allow the assessor to obtain clear evidence of competency?

7.43 **Example.** Checklist for Evaluating Individual's Ability to Work in a Group:

Observation	Yes	No
Helps others meet needs and solve problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Willingly shares ideas and resources	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Accepts suggestions and help	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Makes constructive suggestions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7.44 **Projects and Assignments.** Projects and assignments can also be used to assess skills and knowledge. When using projects and assignments as assessment tools increased care should be given to authenticity, as the scope for cheating is much greater.

7.45 A project is essentially a situation where the individual is required to do a series of tasks of definite length and outcome. Generally only the output of the project is examined, but in some cases it may be necessary for the learner to document all the steps they took to get to the final outcome. Examples of projects and assignments:

- a. Produce a training module;
- b. Design and produce a scale model of a building; and
- c. Create a menu to certain specifications.

7.46 Some guidelines are:

- a. Give specific directions and instructions on exactly what you expect from the individual;
- b. Put your directions in writing;
- c. Make the project realistic and achievable (this takes time and effort);
- d. Give examples of similar work if they are available;
- e. Make it clear how much help you will give them if they have problems;
- f. Put into place authenticity checks;
- g. Give explicit criteria against which they will be assessed in the form of a checklist;
- h. Ensure they have access to sufficient resources (including time) to complete the project;
- i. Ensure that the candidate knows if the process, as well as the product, will be assessed; and
- j. Ensure if it is a group project, that individuals can be assessed on their contribution (try not to use group projects).

7.47 Test of Technical Skills. Tests of technical skills or practical tests have been used for a long time in the area of vocational education but are fairly new to the average workplace. As the name suggests they are best suited to assess areas of technical competence. Many of the principles involved are the same as for projects and assignments but the difference is that tests of technical skills are usually timed and carried out in the workplace or training environment.

7.48 The guidelines used for assessing technical skills are similar to those used for Projects and Assignments, with some modifications.

7.49 Guidelines for administering and assessing tests of technical skills:

- a. Give specific directions and instructions on exactly what you expect from the individual;
- b. Put your directions in writing;
- c. Make the test realistic and achievable;
- d. Trial the test before you use it;

- e. Make it clear how much help you will give them if they have problems;
- f. Give explicit criteria on what they will be assessed against in the form of a checklist;
- g. Ensure that the candidate has access to sufficient resources (including time) to complete the test;
- h. Ensure that the candidate knows if the process, as well as the product, will be assessed.

Methods of Assessing Knowledge

7.50 The following table illustrates methods for assessing knowledge and provides examples of knowledge assessment methods.

Assessment Methods	Description	Examples
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Written test Short answer, matching, multiple choice, essay, case study 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Questions set by independent assessor (learner may be required to attend exam room or complete a take-home test) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recall of factual knowledge Discussion or exploration of specific issues Development of argument required
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oral Oral presentation (may be presented to assessor, audience or panel) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learner is given a topic and time to research and rehearse 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Report to a committee or board (on policy, safety)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interview 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learner discusses issues in an interview in a structured way 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Where learner's responses may need to be clarified or explored e.g. diagnostic or management skills
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Documents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assessment based on evidence or prior achievements. Own work or indirect evidence from others who are qualified to comment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reports Newspaper articles Certificates Letters from employees Course outline of previously studied courses, seminars
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Portfolio 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A collection of materials as above compiled by the learner 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contains a description of achievement of major learning outcomes and evidence of that learning (for RPL / RCC)

Written Tests

7.51 Written tests (or 'paper and pencil' tests) are often used to assess the mastery of complex or critical concepts or facts underlying competencies. The results of written tests are used to infer that the candidate does in fact possess the knowledge that underpins competency. However, written tests are generally not sufficient by themselves to assess competence.

7.52 As with performance tests, a written test should match the performance and be directed at the appropriate level e.g. basic knowledge, comprehension, application or evaluation.

7.53 If the purpose of the written test is to assess comprehension then the written test must include items that require the candidate to do that.

7.54 There are two kinds of written test items:

- a. Recall items; and
- b. Recognition items.

7.55 **Recall Items.** Recall items require the candidate to recall from memory the correct answer to the question. Recall items such as:

- a. Short answer;
- b. Completion; and
- c. Essay.

7.56 **Recognition Items.** Recognition items call for the candidate to recognise the correct answer from a list of alternatives provided. Recognition items such as:

- a. Multiple choice;
- b. Multiple response;
- c. True/False; and
- d. Matching.

7.57 The following table lists the Advantages and Disadvantages of Recall and Recognition Test Items.

Type	Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recall Items: Short answer Completion Essay 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can be constructed quickly Can test broad areas of knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Many possible answers to most questions Grading is open to subjectivity Grading is quite time consuming

Type	Advantages	Disadvantages
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage memorisation of fact • Time consuming to undertake
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognition Items: • Multiple choice • Multiple response • True / False • Matching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Candidate can respond quickly • Only one correct answer • Can be graded very quickly • Grading is very objective • Items can test ability to make judgements and evaluate alternatives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good items are sometimes difficult to construct • If items not worded properly, guessing may become a problem

7.58 The following will cover Recognition Items.

7.59 **Multiple Choice.** Multiple choice items are used in written tests in which the learner selects a correct answer to a question or problem from several given choices. A 'multiple choice' item has the following parts:

- a. The Stem:
 - (1) Presents the problem.
 - (2) May be a question or an incomplete statement.
- b. Alternatives which contain:
 - (1) The key (the correct answer or solution).
 - (2) The distracters (several plausible incorrect answers or solution).

- 7.60 **Example.** A Tariff is a tax on: (Stem)
- c. Gifts of money (Distracter)
 - d. Goods brought into the country (Key)
 - e. Income of migrants (Distracter)
 - f. Real estate (Distracter)

7.61 **Multiple Response.** A multiple response item is a variation of a multiple choice item in which the respondent can select more than one correct response.

7.62 **Example.** During which of the following circumstances should an instructor use the flipchart? Tick all circumstances that apply.

- ☐ During brainstorming sessions

- ☐ To give out a large amount of information
- ☐ To highlight important issues
- ☐ When recording responses from learners
- ☐ When presenting complex tables and graphs

7.63 **Advantages.** Multiple response items have a number of advantages:

- a. They provide fewer clues because the respondent does not know how many responses are correct;
- b. They are easier to construct than multiple choice items; and
- c. They cover more aspects of learning on a topic.

7.64 **True/False.** True/False items present a question to which the candidate responds by choosing between two alternatives, of which only one is correct.

7.65 The alternative answers are usually 'true' and 'false', but other forms which may be used are: 'yes-no', 'right-wrong' and 'correct-incorrect'.

7.66 These have few applications in the summative assessment of competence.

7.67 **Example.** Circle the correct answers:

- a. Air is a mixture of gasses T F
- b. Hydrogen Sulphide is insoluble in water T F

7.68 **Matching Pairs.** Matching Pairs items usually consists of two lists in which the information is related. The candidate is told how the matching is to be done.

7.69 **Example.** Match all the fish dishes in List 1 with the appropriate sauce in List 2 by writing the number of the sauce in the box alongside the name of the fish.

List 1 – Dishes		List 2 – Sauces	
	Sole Colbert	1	Beurre noisette
	Sole goujon frit	2	Tomato sauce
	Plaice a l'Orly	3	Beurre maitre d'hotel
	Grilled herring	4	Tartare sauce
		5	Mustard sauce

7.70 The content of matching exercises can be related to such things as techniques or processes and their uses, parts and functions, rules and examples, terms and definitions, cause and effect and theoretical statements and experimental bases.

7.71 When writing matching-pair items be sure that you:

- a. Put the questions column on the left and the responses (answer) column on the right;
- b. Give clear and precise direction e.g. 'Candidates need to be aware that they must match all the items in the left hand column, not just one pair';
- c. Keep the two lists of equal size. This prevents learners obtaining a correct answer by the process of elimination;
- d. Keep the number of items to be matched between 4 and 10. more than 10; it becomes a reading exercise; and
- e. Ensure the elements in each list can be related in some way.

7.72 Short Answer Questions. Short answer questions are simple and direct questions which can be answered by a number, a word, a phrase, or at most, a sentence or two.

7.73 Cloze Items. The term 'cloze' comes from the idea of closure in psychology. Closure refers to the human tendency to fill in or complete something that appears to be incomplete. For example

By eliminating every fifth _____ in a sentence and _____ the learners to write _____ the missing word, we _____ get an accurate idea how well the passage _____ been understood.

7.74 Recall to Recognition. It is often common practice to supply a list of words for each gap and then ask the candidate to select the most appropriate word. In this case the item goes from being a recall item to a recognition item.

Example. Using the words provided, complete the following statement:

Can	Getting	Word	Has	Down
By eliminating every fifth _____ in a sentence and _____ the learners to write _____ the missing word, we _____ get an accurate idea how well the passage _____ been understood.				

7.75 Other Types of Short Answer Questions. Short answer questions are simple direct questions which can be answered by a number, a word, a phrase, or at most – a sentence or two.

7.76 Example. Name three basic operations performed on a lathe:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

7.77 When writing short answer questions:

- a. Ensure that there is a definite correct answer;
- b. Be precise e.g. 'Who was John F. Kennedy?' Is too vague;
- c. When some precision or degree of accuracy is required as in science or maths calculations, specify this; and
- d. When using the cloze techniques do not leave so many gaps that the sentence becomes a puzzle.

Example. Welding is a _____ which involves _____ with _____.

7.78 Open-ended or Unstructured Essay. Open-ended or unstructured essays are essays where there is no explicit structure expected from the assessor. The candidate is expected to analyse an issue or present an argument or both. The problem with this type of essay is that they are very unreliable unless the assessor has given out a set of criteria for marking.

7.79 Structured Essay. Structured essays are essays where the assessor is explicit about the content of the essay. Consider the following example:

Example:

- a. The introduction of competency-based training and assessment (CBTA) into the Army vocational education system has been a source of controversy for many of the parties involved. The arguments have been polarised by a division between those who accept the notion of CBTA and those who oppose it for a variety of philosophical and educational reasons.
- b. Write an essay (minimum 300 words) on the arguments presented by both sides on the introduction of CBTA. In your essay you should present the following points:
 - (1) The underlying philosophies of both sides of the debate;
 - (2) The educational arguments put forward by both sides;
 - (3) The perceived advantages/successes of CBTA;
 - (4) The disadvantages/failures of CBTA; and
 - (5) Where the CBTA seems headed almost a decade after its introduction and what you perceive as the long term future of CBTA.
- c. Marks will be awarded for the following:
 - (1) Evidence of wider reading;
 - (2) Depth and breadth of the arguments put forward on both sides;
 - (3) Understanding of the philosophies underlying both sides of the debate;

- (4) Citation of actual cases;
- (5) Clarity of writing and use of facts and figures to support the arguments; and
- (6) Overall understanding of the concept of CBTA.

Other Methods of Assessment

7.80 Oral Presentations. In this mode of assessment the candidate is given a topic and asked to make a presentation to an assessor or group. This mode of assessment is quite stressful for the candidate but a useful methodology to assess not only content, but presentation and interaction skills.

7.81 If using this method you should adhere to the following guidelines:

- a. Give the candidate sufficient notice of the assessment and the topic they are required to make the presentation on as well as the expected length of the presentation;
- b. Ensure that the environment where the presentation is being made is conducive to such an activity; and
- c. Give the candidate the criteria on which you will be judging the interview beforehand e.g. Content, presentation skills, interaction with audience.

7.82 Interviews. This is a common tool for assessing competence. It is important that assessors adhere to the following guidelines when conducting interviews:

- a. Give the candidate ample notice of the interview and an overall outline of what topics you will be addressing in the interview;
- b. Ensure that the candidate knows the length of the interview;
- c. On some occasions it may be possible to give the candidate the questions beforehand;
- d. Ensure that all candidates get the same set of structured questions;
- e. Only ask additional non-structured questions for reasons of clarity, authenticity, to gain a complete answer, or to allow the candidate to put forward anything not mentioned in the interview;
- f. Endeavour to ask open questions rather than closed or fixed answer questions e.g. Why would you do this? Give an example from your own practice of how you have done this. What would you do if? and
- g. Keep the interview relaxed and friendly.

7.83 Adaptive Questioning. In this method of questioning the learner is asked a series of questions, but the sequence and number of questions depends on the responses to the previous questions. Hence if after the first couple of questions the candidate has

demonstrated competence then no further questions are asked. If the initial questions are answered unsatisfactorily then the learner is asked further questions until the assessor has enough evidence to make either a positive or negative judgment.

7.84 Case Studies and Scenarios. Case studies and scenarios are basically descriptions of events that have occurred or may occur in the environment of the candidate's workplace. Usually the case study or scenario is presented as a narrative and then the candidate is asked a series of questions about what they would do under the circumstances of the case study.

7.85 Example of a Simple Case Study. A doctor telephones for a result on a urine sample sent for culture. The work slip shows a significant growth of a *Klebsiella Pneumonia* with the following sensitivity pattern:

- a. Sensitive to:
 - (1) Ampicillin
 - (2) Cotrimoxazole
 - (3) Gentamicin
 - (4) Ceftriaxone
- b. Resistant to:
 - (1) Cephalothin
 - (2) What would you tell the Doctor?
 - (3) What action would you take to verify the result?
- c. Cues:
 - (1) Recognition of an unusual sensitivity result;
 - (2) Method of informing the doctor that the result requires further verification; and
 - (3) Consider checking the identification and the sensitivity result.
- d. There is a pattern to all case studies:
 - (1) Scenarios;
 - (2) Questions; and
 - (3) Cues.

7.86 Scenarios and Questions. First the scenario is presented (can be simple or complex) and then the questions.

7.87 **Scenario.** The cues are given to assessors and are an essential part of the case study as they enable assessors to conduct reliable assessment. It is possible to ask questions for the initial part of the case and then present more of the case followed by further questions.

7.88 Case studies can also be presented by video and audio tape as long as the candidate can review the tapes as required.

7.89 Guidelines for case studies/scenarios are:

- a. Keep the case as brief as you can (appropriate to the level of candidate);
- b. Present the case/scenario in writing as it is not a test of memory;
- c. Ensure that the case relates to the competency being assessed;
- d. Provide the candidate with a list of criteria against which you are assessing;
and
- e. If there are different assessors then use cues to ensure reliability.

Forms of Assessment: Advantages and Disadvantages

DIRECT OBSERVATION	
Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High level of reliability • Focuses on products and/or processes • Can provide high level of integrated assessment • Allows assessment of interpersonal skills • Allows assessment of practical and technical skills • Offers realistic assessment of competence • Allows supervisor evaluation of problem solving • Focuses on relevant performance criteria • Gives direct evidence of knowledge/understanding • Permits complex assessments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Circumstances of observation may be too specific • May require lengthy and costly assessments for reliability • Observation always interferes with the job to some degree • Not all aspects of a performance will be visible during a period of observation

SKILLS TEST	
Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moderate level of reliability • Focuses on products and/or processes • Can provide moderate level of integrated assessment • Provides opportunity to observe specific elements of competence • Assesses interpersonal and problem-solving skills • High correlation with written exams • Allows assessment of practical and technical skills • Provides realistic evidence of knowledge/understanding • Provides realistic simulations of activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific skill may not permit inference of overall competence • Skills may not permit generalisation to varies circumstances • May require lengthy and costly assessments for adequate reliability

SIMULATION TECHNIQUES	
Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moderate to high level of reliability • Can provide high level of integrated assessment • Assess data gathering, hypothesis gathering and problem solving • Allows assessment of practical and technical skills • Permits complex assessments • Gives opportunity to observe specific elements of competence • Provides realistic simulation of activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tasks may not offer realistic evidence of competence • May not generate sufficient evidence to prove competence • Inferences may not generalise to other circumstances

QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES	
Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High level of reliability for cognitive skills • Focuses on knowledge, comprehension, problem solving • Assesses performance across a range of circumstances • Provides evidence to demonstrate transferability • Elicits extra evidence to demonstrate understanding • Supplements other assessment methods 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides low levels of integrated assessments • Few workplace performances are amenable to assessment by written examination • Difficult to assess values and attitudes • Cannot assess interpersonal performance • Cannot assess technical performance directly • Does not fully measure problem-solving skill

SECTION 4 - Designing or Developing Assessment Tools

Existing Assessments

7.90 Assessment material may be available from within the TMP. Units will often have assessment plans and tools from other similar training. Assessment materials may also be available from other sources.

7.91 Preference should always be given to using existing assessment materials whenever available and appropriate as the development of quality assessments is rigorous and time consuming.

7.92 If existing assessment tools are inappropriate for the purpose of the assessment and/or do not meet the needs of the competency standard/s, the learning outcomes, the training package, or the organisation then new assessment tools will need to be developed.

Designing the Assessment

7.93 **Guidelines.** The development of quality assessments is both rigorous and time consuming. Fortunately, there are a number of steps which, when followed, will reduce both the time and the long-term cost of the tool development. These steps are simply:

- a. Planning:
 - (1) Visualise competence.
 - (2) Establish the evidence requirements.
 - (3) Select appropriate evidence gathering techniques.
- b. Developing:
 - (1) Design the evidence gathering tools and document the evidence gathering techniques.
- c. Evaluating:
 - (1) Evaluate the development tools through piloting or other appropriate method.

Assessment Instructions

7.94 It is vital that adequate instructions are written to accompany the assessment tools. The best designed assessment will not succeed unless the learners, assessors and course managers have clear directions as to how the assessment is to be conducted, what resources are required, how decisions about competence will be determined, etc.

7.95 Assessment documentation should address the following:

- a. Assessment title (Learning Outcome/s Title and Number);

- b. Assessment conduct and procedure;
- c. Equipment, etc. to be used;
- d. Manuals, etc. to be used;
- e. Assistance to be provided;
- f. Supervision/prompts to be given;
- g. Coordination and administration;
- h. Assessment system including retest policy;
- i. Criteria for decision making of Competent (C) or Not Yet Competent (NYC);
- j. Allowable adjustments to the methods and tools;
- k. Result reporting formats and procedures; and
- l. Checklists/marking guides/templates.

7.96 This information may be presented as Instructions to Learners and Instructions to Assessors or as a combined instruction. Attached to the instruction would be checklists, scenarios, suggested solutions, assessment records etc.

Training and Moderation of Assessors

7.97 **Training.** The introduction of new assessment methods and tools will need to be accompanied by the training of assessors in their use.

7.98 Assessors involved in the piloting of tools will need to be trained to ensure that they are administered in a consistent manner. Any changes in assessment processes or tools will need to be communicated to all assessors.

7.99 If the assessment contributes to a NZQA unit standard then national policy requires that Training Organisations conduct assessor development on a regular basis.

7.100 **Moderation.** Moderation is the process whereby instructors/assessors discuss and reach agreement about assessments in a particular assessment system. In doing so, a shared understanding develops between instructors/assessors about what is being assessed as well as why, and how different assessment performances should be identified and described.

7.101 **Why Moderate?** This process of shared understanding facilitates more effective teaching and learning as assessment practice is regularly reviewed in relation to curriculum objectives. Staff professionalism is enhanced when assessors become more familiar with assessment theory and practice and are able to make more consistent assessment judgements.

7.102 When there is validity of task design and reliability of assessments, learner equity is facilitated and reporting practices are more effective. Therefore, moderation also ensures the consistency and validity of course qualifications.

7.103 **Process of Moderation.** Moderation processes involve:

- a. Discussion of practices necessary to develop consistency in benchmarking, sampling, recording, interpreting standards, and designing assessments across all assessments of competence; and
- b. Moderation for verification purposes which ratifies assessments carried out for qualification purposes across all levels.

SECTION 5 - Evaluating the Assessment

Evaluating Newly Developed Assessment Methods and Tools

7.104 The final step in the development of assessment tools is that of evaluating the tool. Essentially the evaluation process is concerned with confirming that the tool meets the requirements of:

- a. Validity;
- b. Reliability;
- c. Fairness;
- d. Cost effectiveness; and
- e. Administrative ease.

7.105 Ideally the best way to confirm that the tool meets these requirements is to test it over time with actual learners, assessors and supervisors.

7.106 Unfortunately, if the tool does not meet the requirements, this testing or 'piloting' process has the potential to disadvantage the learner. Therefore, in many cases, tools are tested by conducting trials with a simulated learner group with the same, or similar characteristics to the actual learners, and with actual assessors. This process may have to be repeated a number of times to refine the tool to the required standard.

7.107 The trials should cover the full scope of the assessment tools, the range of possible situations where they will be used and the variations in users (both learners and assessors). The extent of the trialling should be based on the risks associated with the failure of the assessment tool.

7.108 Priority should also be given to situations where assessment is disturbed and covers a large number of assessors and learners with differing experience levels.

7.109 Another way of checking that the tool meets the required standard is to submit it for examination or comment by a number of subject matter experts, assessors and/or supervisors. This will be achieved, in part, if the tool is developed by a writing team.

7.110 The assessment tool, and the associated instructions, will be modified in accordance with the results of the piloting and overall evaluation. The new tools are then ready for incorporation into the mainstream assessment system.

7.111 Subsequent refinement of the tools will occur, if required, through the ongoing evaluation and validation of training (in the Conduct and Validate Phases of the ATS).

Evaluating Existing Assessment Methods and Tools

7.112 Existing assessment methods and tools must also be evaluated to ensure that they will satisfy the requirements of the purpose of the assessment; including the learning outcomes, the competency standard/s and the training package from which the

competency unit/s have been drawn, as well as the needs of the organisation. Existing assessment methods should be evaluated for:

- a. Type and amount of evidence required;
- b. Validity;
- c. Reliability;
- d. Fairness;
- e. Cost effectiveness;
- f. Administrative fees; and
- g. Characteristics of the target group.

7.113 Existing assessment tools should be evaluated for:

- a. Characteristics of persons being assessed;
- b. Assessment contexts; and
- c. Assessors.

7.114 The existing methods and tools should be trialed on the same basis as occurs for newly developed tools. The assessment methods and tools are then modified (as required) before being adopted.

Evaluating the Assessment Process

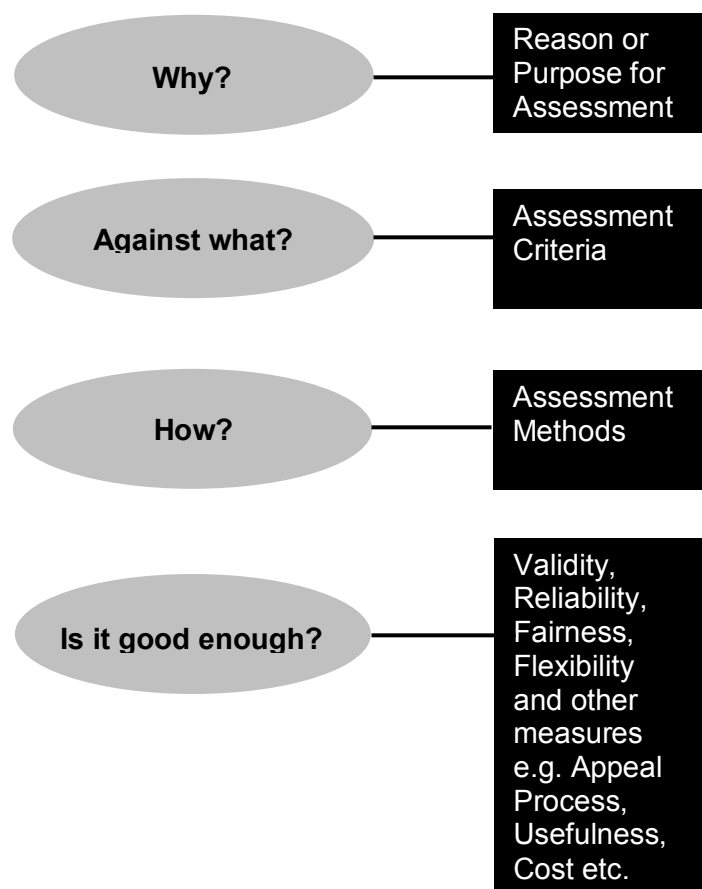
7.115 Assessment processes should be regularly evaluated/reviewed. The evaluation/review of the assessment process is often most easily and cost effectively conducted when the trialling itself is evaluated.

7.116 The assessment package is a critical component of the TMP. It provides the plan for the assessment as well as the documentation.

7.117 There are a number of critical questions that need to be asked about the assessment and the process of assessment which can be completed by the instructor.

7.118 The diagram below summarises those questions that are critical to the evaluation of the assessment process.

Critical Questions in the Review of Assessment Processes



7.119 **First Step.** The important first step in any review of the assessment process is to establish why assessment is being conducted. The answer to this question will provide you with the benchmark criteria that will impact on many of the other checks that will be carried out in the review.

7.120 **Second Step.** The second step is to establish what criteria are being used in the assessment. In most cases the ultimate criteria will be endorsed competency standards. However, these will have been interpreted into the curriculum and specific contexts will have been prescribed within which the assessment is to be conducted.

7.121 Hence to accurately review the assessment process it may be necessary to:

- a. Establish the relevant competency standards;
- b. Confirm the assessment requirements (in the learning outcomes) that have been derived from the competency standards; and
- c. Consider the process used to develop the assessment standards.

7.122 **Third Step.** The third step is to examine how the evidence for the assessment is being gathered. This will include the procedures being used, the assessment tools being used and the way the evidence is documented.

7.123 **Fourth Step.** The fourth step in the review process is to judge the sufficiency and efficacy of the assessment. This is most easily achieved by asking; “Are the assessment processes good enough?”

7.124 This requires evaluation of the assessment process against the required criteria. The main checks in this final step in the evaluation/review process will be for:

- a. Validity;
- b. Reliability; and
- c. Flexibility.

SECTION 6 - Assessment Examples

7.125 The following are examples of Written Assessments and Practical Assessments containing an example of each knowledge question (Written Assessment) style and an example of each skill question (Practical Assessment) style.

WRITTEN ASSESSMENT Instructions to the Assessor

Assessor Preparation

1. Read the entire assessment thoroughly to ensure you are aware of what is required of you for this assessment.
2. The assessment room is to be up with all desks separated.
3. You are to minimise the distractions in or out of the assessment room.
4. You are to ensure that every student has:
 - a. A complete assessment paper; and
 - b. Blue/Black pen.
5. You are to read the Assessment Brief to the students, ensure they are conversant with the instructions and have named the assessment paper appropriately.
6. Students may ask questions on 'How' to answer a question, but not question content.

Timings

7. The students have [number] minutes to read through the theory assessment paper, and then a further [number] minutes to complete the assessment.
8. You are to indicate 'Time Remaining' on the board.

Marking

9. Students are to be tested without assistance or reference material.
10. The assessment is to be marked in accordance with the marking guide.
11. Marks awarded to the student for each question are to be placed in the circle on the right of the question.
12. Each student is graded Competent / Not Yet Competent according to the marking guide.
13. Students' results are to be recorded to the assessment record page.

Instructions to the Students

Assessment Brief

1. Read the entire assessment thoroughly to ensure you are aware of what is required of you for this assessment.
2. You are not to write or take notes during the reading time.
3. You are required to complete all [number of questions] questions. Write your answers in the spaces provided.
4. You are to complete the assessment without access to reference material or assistance.
5. You are to use blue or black pen. If you make a mistake, place a single line through the original answer and re-answer the question.
6. If you require more space write your answer on the back of the page; ensure you number the answer appropriately.
7. Do not start the assessment until you are instructed to do so.
8. Ensure you have completed your personal details on the front cover of this assessment booklet before handing the completed assessment to the instructor/assessor.

Timings

9. You have [number] minutes to read through the theory assessment paper, and then a further [number] minutes to complete the assessment.

Completion Criteria

10. The overall pass mark for this assessment is [number] %.
11. Section A requires [number], Section B requires [number], and Section C [number] to pass.
12. In addition some questions are **critical** and **must** be answered correctly. These are marked with an asterisk *.
13. The marks allocated to each question are noted in the box beside the question number.
14. Allocate your time accordingly!
15. Write your details in the space provided now!

Assessment Record

Learning Outcome Number: _____

Learning Outcome Title: _____

Student Details:

Corps: _____

Rank: _____

Surname / Initials: _____

Date: _____

Assessment Summary:

Section			Marks	Pass Mark	Pass/Fail
Section A – 80% required to pass			20		
Section B – 80% required to pass			20		
Section C – 80% required to pass			20		
Section D – 80% required to pass			20		
Section E – 80% required to pass			20		
Section F – 80% required to pass			20		
Section G – 80% required to pass			20		
Section H – 80% required to pass			20		
Section I – 80% required to pass			20		
Overall Result			180		
Percentage			%		
< 79 = NYC	80 - 85 = Competent	Grade			
86 - 95 = Merit	96 - 100 = excellent				

Assessor Details:

Corps: _____

Rank: _____

Surname / Initials: _____

Appointment: _____

Section A: Simple Recall

Example Question 5 marks



List 5 adverse road surface conditions

1. Loose metal
2. Wet tar seal
3. Ice
4. Sand
5. Foreign metals

Question 1 5 marks



List 5 reasons for [stem]

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Section B: Open Completion

Example Question 3 marks



Describe dynamics that effect motor vehicle handling

Description includes effects of _____ road surface _____ on motor vehicle _____.

Description includes effects of **adverse** road surface **conditions** on motor vehicle **handling**.

Question 1 5 marks



[Question text]

[Open completion sentence]

Circle the correct answer

The tachometer indicates road speed?

True

False



Question 1 **1 mark**

1. [Question]
2. [Question]
3. [Question]

True

False

True

False

True

False

Section D: Multi-Choice Questions

Example Question 1 mark



The weight of the Marlin-XT .22 rifle is:

Tick the appropriate box.

- ☐ A. 2.0 kilograms
- ☐ B. 2.2 kilograms
- ☒ C. 2.7 kilograms
- ☐ D. 2.4 kilograms

Question 1 1 mark



The weight of the Marlin-XT .22 rifle is:

Tick the appropriate box.

- ☐ A. [First Option Text]
- ☐ B. [Second Option Text]
- ☐ C. [Third Option Text]
- ☐ D. [Fourth Option Text]

Section E: Multi-Response Questions

Example Question 3 marks



During which of the following circumstances should a facilitator in a training programme use the flipchart?

Tick all answers that apply.

- ☒ During brainstorming sessions
- ☐ To give out a large amount of information
- ☒ To highlight important issues
- ☒ When recording responses from learners
- ☐ When presenting complex tables and graphs

Question 1 4 marks



[Text of question].

Tick all answers that apply.

- ☐ A. [First Option Text]
- ☐ B. [Second Option Text]
- ☐ C. [Third Option Text]
- ☐ D. [Fourth Option Text]

Section F: Rearrangement

Example Question 6 marks



List the verbal orders in the correct sequence **or** List the numbers in correct sequence.

1	Situation	Ground	6
2	Mission	Situation	1
3	Admin and Logistics	Mission	2
4	Execution	Execution	4
5	Command and Signals	Admin and Logistics	3
6	Ground	Command and Signals	5

Question 1 5 marks



[Text of Question]

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

Section G: Matching Pairs

Example Question 4 marks



Match all the fish dishes in List 1 with the appropriate sauce in List 2 by writing the number of the sauce in the box alongside the name of the fish.

List 1 – Dishes

1	Sole Colbert
2	Sole goujon frit
3	Plaise a l'Orly
4	Grilled herring

List 2 – Sauces

1	Beurre noisette
2	Tomato sauce
3	Beurre maitred'hotel
4	Tartare sauce
5	Mustard sauce

Question 1 4 marks



Match the items in List 1 with the appropriate option in List 2 by writing the number of the option in the box alongside the name of the item.

List 1 – Dishes

List 2 – Sauces

1
2
3
4
5

Section H: Short Answer Questions

Example Question **2 marks**



In your own words explain each of the following terms.

[Term 1]

[Term 2]

[Term 3]

[Term 4]

[Term 5]

[Term 6]

[Term 7]

Question 1 **10 marks**



[Text of question or scenario]

[illegible]

20 marks

[Text of question or scenario]

[illegible]

PRACTICAL ASSESSMENT

Instructions to the Assessor

Assessor Preparation

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2. The assessment room is to be up with all desks separated.
3. You are to minimise the distractions in or out of the assessment room.
4. You are to ensure that every student has:
 - a. A complete assessment paper; and
 - b. Blue/Black pen.
5. You are to read the Assessment Brief to the students, ensure they are conversant with the instructions and have named the assessment paper appropriately.
6. Students may ask questions on 'How' to answer a question, but not question content.

Timings

7. The students have [number] minutes to read through the theory assessment paper, and then a further [number] minutes to complete the assessment.
8. You are to indicate 'Time Remaining' on the board.

Marking

9. Students are to be tested without assistance or reference material.
10. The assessment is to be marked in accordance with the marking guide.
11. Marks awarded to the student for each question are to be placed in the circle on the right of the question.
12. Each student is graded Competent / Not Yet Competent according to the marking guide.
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Instructions to the Students

Assessment Brief

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2. You are not to write or take notes during the reading time.
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4. You are to complete the assessment without access to reference material or assistance.
5. You are to use blue or black pen. If you make a mistake, place a single line through the original answer and re-answer the question.
6. If you require more space write your answer on the back of the page; ensure you number the answer appropriately.
7. Do not start the assessment until you are instructed to do so.
8. Ensure you have completed your personal details on the front cover of this assessment booklet before handing the completed assessment to the instructor/assessor.

Timings

9. You have [number] minutes to read through the theory assessment paper, and then a further [number] minutes to complete the assessment.

Assessment Criteria

10. The overall pass mark for this assessment is [number] %.
11. Section A requires [number], Section B requires [number], and Section C [number] to pass.
12. In addition some questions are **critical** and **must** be answered correctly. These are marked with an asterisk *.
13. The marks allocated to each question are noted in the box beside the question number.
14. Allocate your time accordingly!
15. Write your details in the space provided now!

Assessment Record

Learning Outcome Number: _____ Learning Outcome Title: _____

Student Details:

Corps: _____ Rank: _____

Surname / Initials: _____ Date: _____

Assessment Summary:

Section			Marks	Pass Mark	Pass/Fail
Section A			30		
Section B			30		
Section C			30		
Section D			30		
Overall Result			120		
Percentage			%		
< 79 = NYC	80 - 100 = Competent	Grade			

Assessor Details:

Corps: _____ Rank: _____

Surname / Initials: _____ Appointment: _____

Section A: Checklist

Example Question



Leadership		
Displays the integrity of a Junior Non-Commissioned Officer	Yes	No
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Question 1



Topic		
[Affirmative Statement]	Yes	No
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section B: Numerical Rating

Example Question



- 5 Outstanding
- 4 Above average
- 3 Average
- 2 Below average
- 1 Unsatisfactory

Statement

Score

Displays the integrity of a Junior Non-Commission Officer

Question 1



[Affirmative Statement].

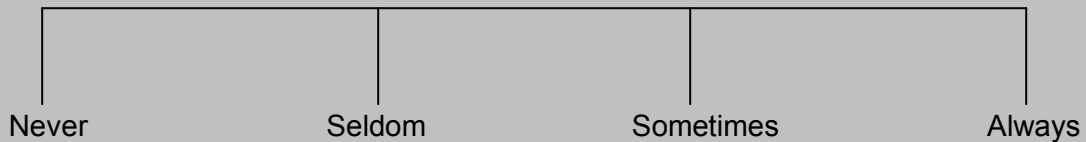
Score

Section C: Graphical Rating

Example Question



Displays the integrity of a Junior Non-Commissioned Officer



Comments:

Question 1



[Affirmative Statement]



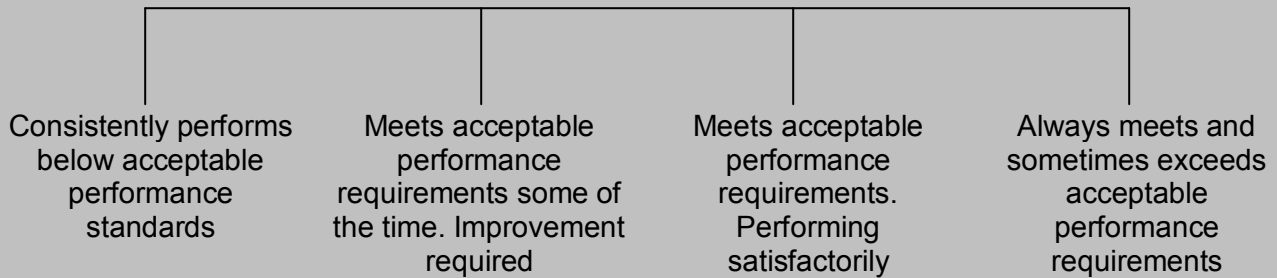
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Section D: Descriptive Graphical Rating

Example Question



Displays the integrity of a Junior Non-Commissioned Officer

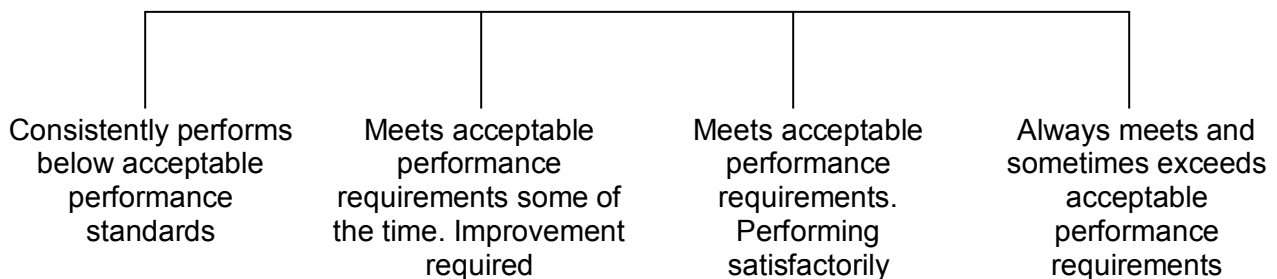


Comments:

Question 1



[Affirmative Statement]



Comments:

CHAPTER 8 – Training Objectives

SECTION 1 – Training Objectives

Introduction

8.1 If you are instructing on an established course, these should have been set previously so you do not need to start from scratch. This chapter will provide guidance if you are looking to conduct a course at your unit and no prior course documentation exists. It also explains how the current Training Objectives for the existing courses were developed.

8.2 Training Objectives (TOs) are statements of what students are expected to be able to do after a period of training. TOs are learning oriented. The TO includes the variables under which the performance is to be conducted, the assessment criteria that will be used to determine the level of achievement and the teaching points that must be covered during the training. TOs become the basis for the development of lesson plans and learning materials by instructors. They also provide essential information for the preparation of the daily program, the block and detailed syllabus and the training support requirement.

8.3 Training objectives must:

- a. Translate learning outcomes into smaller, manageable chunks of learning;
- b. Provide a specific training output and assessment criteria needed to confirm attainment;
- c. Assist trainers in the development, delivery and evaluation of training;
- d. Provide guidelines for both trainers and students as to what the training activities are aiming to achieve;
- e. Identify the variables under which they will be able to apply the Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes (KSA);
- f. State what specific training performance outputs are required; and
- g. Describe what students should be required to do, not what trainers are required to do.

Deriving Training Objectives

8.4 Learning Outcomes (LOs) describe the intended results of learning. They include the KSAs that must be acquired. Los do not describe how the students will learn. Describing how the students will learn is the role of the TOs.

8.5 TOs are derived from LOs; there are five steps involved in deriving TOs.

8.6 **Step 1.** Gather all the LOs within the course or module. Also collect any competency analysis or learning analysis data. This may be a useful reference for deriving TOs (and the later process of writing the objectives).

8.7 **Step 2.** Assign an appropriate learning category to each of the teaching points within the first LO.

8.8 **Step 3.** Work through all the remaining Los assigning a category to every teaching point. The process becomes easier as you progress through the learning outcomes as there will be a repetition of KSAs.

8.9 **Step 4.** Derive TOs on the basis of grouping teaching points that have:

- a. The same learning category; and
- b. A logical relationship through a common theme or subject matter.

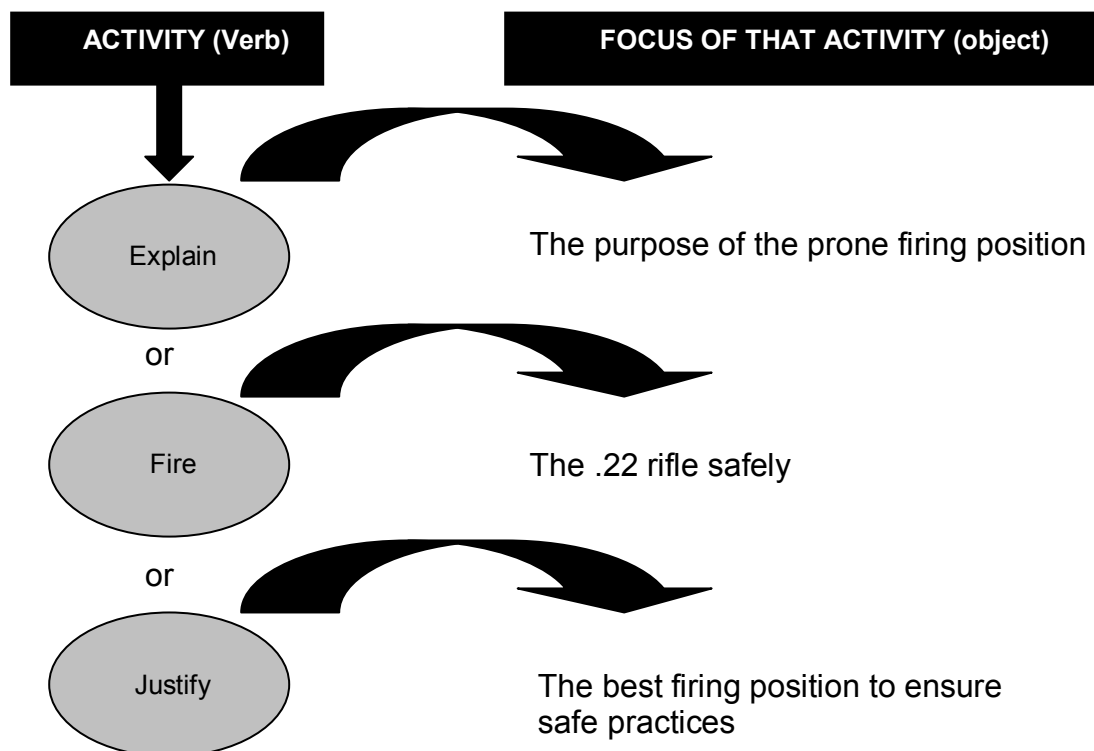
8.10 **Step 5.** Transcribe the first batch of grouped teaching points onto the TO template. Repeat for all the remaining batches of grouped teaching points.

Note: The length of time required to achieve the TO, whether 15 minutes or 5 hours, is not a consideration when the TO is derived. This information will be captured at a later stage when the training variable component of the TO is written.

SECTION 2 – Writing Training Objectives

Performance Statements

8.11 A performance statement is made up of a verb and an object. A verb is usually a 'doing' word. Action verbs are used in performance statements.



8.12 By specifying the performance statement in terms of what students should be able to do you are telling both the trainer and the student what is to be learned and the result of that learning.

8.13 The most critical part of the performance statement is the verb which describes what students should be able to do. The verb will be influenced by the category of learning (knowledge, skill or attitude) into which the content mainly falls.

8.14 The following table provides a listing of the common action verbs you might choose when writing performance statements.

Training Objective Verbs

8.15 The standard list of training objective verbs, including those used throughout this training manual are defined below.

Knowledge Knowing verbs	Meaning
Define	To state the exact meaning; to give the limits.
Describe	To give a description; to state the characteristics.
Estimate	To fix the value or quantity of.
Identify	To establish the individuality of an item.
Interpret	To translate; to determine the meaning of.
Justify	To prove or see to be just or valid.
Label	To tag with information.
List	To record a number of connected items.
Match	To join two or more things so they correspond.
Name	To use the word by which an item is known.
Outline	To draw or describe the essential parts only.
Reproduce	To produce again; to produce copies or representations.
Select	To choose the most suitable.
State	To express in words or number.
Translate	To change from one condition to another.

Mental Skill thinking verbs	Meaning
Analyse	To ascertain the elements.
Apply	To put into operation.
Appraise	To estimate the value.
Breakdown	To analyse or be subjected to analysis.
Categorise	To place in a class or division.
Change	To make or become different.
Combine	To join together.
Compare	To observe and draw distinction between.
Compile	To collect the parts.
Compose	To put together or make up.
Compute	To ascertain an outcome by calculation (number, amount, quantity).
Conclude	To come or cause to come to an end. To decide by reasoning.
Construct	To assemble the components.
Contrast	To distinguish or be distinguished by comparison.
Create	To bring into existence or cause.
Criticise	To judge (something) with disapproval; censure. To evaluate or analyse.
Demonstrate	To illustrate or show by performance.
Describe	To give an account or representation of in words. To pronounce or label.
Design	To work out the structure or form of (something) as by making sketch.
Devise	To work out or plan (something) in one's mind.
Differentiate	To establish the difference.

Mental Skill thinking verbs	Meaning
Discover	To reveal or make known.
Discriminate	To detect and draw distinction between.
Distinguish	To make the difference recognisable.
Evaluate	To judge the merit of in relation to an established criterion.
Explain	To make known in detail.
Formulate	To express clearly and precisely.
Generate	To produce or bring into being; create.
Identify	To locate and describe.
Illustrate	To make clear by example or drawing.
Infer	To conclude (a state of affairs, supposition, etc) by reasoning of evidence
Integrate	To make or be made into a whole; incorporate or be incorporated.
Judge	To determine the result of.
Justify	To prove or see to be just or valid.
Organise	To give an orderly structure to.
Outline	To give the main features or general ideas of.
Plan	To prepare for; to devise subsequent action.
Predict	To state or make a declaration about in advance; foretell.
Prepare	To make ready.
Produce	To present for consideration, inspection or use.
Propose	To put forward (a plan), etc) for consideration.
Recognise	To perceive (person or thing) to be the same as or belong to same class.
Relate	To show the relationship between constituent parts.
Revise	To change or amend.
Select	To choose (someone or something) in preference to another or others.
Separate	To divide or be divided into component parts.
Show	To make, be, or become visible or noticeable.
Solve	To find the answer to a problem.
Summarise	To make or be a summary of; express concisely.
Use	To bring into service.
Write	To draw or mark on a surface.

Physical Skill doing verbs	Meaning
Adapt	To adjust (someone or something) to different conditions.
Adjust	To put in the correct order or position.
Assemble	To gather together.
Build	To make, construct, or form by joining parts.
Calibrate	To correlate readings with a standard.
Change	To make or become different; alter. To replace with or exchange.
Clean	To remove in making clean.
Connect	To link or be linked.

Physical Skill doing verbs	Meaning
Construct	To put together; build; assemble.
Control	To exercise restraint or direction.
Correct	To make free from errors.
Create	To cause to come into existence.
Demonstrate	To display and explain the workings of (a machine, product, etc).
Design	To work out the structure or form of (something) as by making a sketch.
Dismantle	To take apart. To demolish or raze. To strip of covering.
Drill	Training in procedures or movements, as for parades or use of weapons.
Fasten	To make or become fast or secure. To make or become attached.
Fire	To discharge a firearm (i.e. to fire a rifle).
Fix	To make or become firm, stable, or secure.
Identify	To establish the individuality of an item.
Locate	To establish in its proper place.
Make	To construct; to create.
Maintain	To keep up to date or in good order.
Manipulate	To handle or use. To control or influence.
Mend	To repair something broken or unserviceable.
Mix	To combine or blend.
Navigate	To direct or plot the path or direction.
Operate	To manage, work or control.
Perform	To carry into effect.
Repair	To restore damaged items to a serviceable condition.
Set	To put or place into position or into a specified state.
Site	To locate or install.
Sketch	To draw freehand giving a general outline.
Start	To begin or cause to begin (something or to do something).
Use	To put into service or action; employ for a given purpose.
Weigh	To measure the weight of.

Attitude Feeling/acting verbs	Meaning
Accept	To receive as adequate or valid.
Act	To do something.
Adhere	To stick or hold fast. To follow exactly.
Answer	To reply correctly to; solve; to respond or react.
Arrange	To put into a proper systematic order.
Ask	To put a question (to); request an answer (from).
Assist	To aid or help.
Attend	To be present at.
Choose	To select from a number of alternatives.
Command	To order or compel. To have or be in control or authority over.

Attitude Feeling/acting verbs	Meaning
Compare	To regard as similar; liken.
Comply	To act in accordance with direction given.
Complete	To finish; to make whole, perfect.
Conform	To comply in actions, behaviour, etc, with accepted standards.
Demonstrate	To display and explain the workings of (a machine, product, etc).
Describe	To give an account or representation of in words.
Explain	To make comprehensible, by giving a clear and detailed account.
Follow	To accept the ideas. To understand.
Form	To change the shape of an item.
Identify	To prove or recognise as being a certain person or thing.
Initiate	To originate or put into motion.
Justify	To prove or see to be just or valid.
Locate	To establish in its proper place.
Maintain	To keep up to date or in good order.
Modify	To change the physical properties of an item.
Order	To place a written direction to supply.
Organise	To form (parts or elements of something) into a structured whole.
Participate	To share in the activity being undertaken.
Perform	To carry out (an action). To fulfil.
Practice	To perform habitually; to repeat an activity to develop a skill.
Prepare	To make ready or suitable in advance for some use.
Present	To make available; to offer, introduce or exhibit.

8.16 The follow are a selection of more verbs that can be used.

Verb	Meaning
Access	To gain entry to computer software or file.
Action	To apply a process.
Administer	To attend to the application or running.
Advise	To give or offer advice.
Allocate	To assign.
Assess	To form an estimate of size, quantity or value.
Authorize	To give authority; to give delegated power.
Balance	To calculate the difference between credits and debits in an account.
Bay Service	To service in a specialist bay which provides the required support.
Calculate	To ascertain by mathematics.
Carry out	To put into practice.
Categorise	To place in a category.
Certify	To declare by certificate.
Check	To verify the condition.
Clear	To free from obstruction.

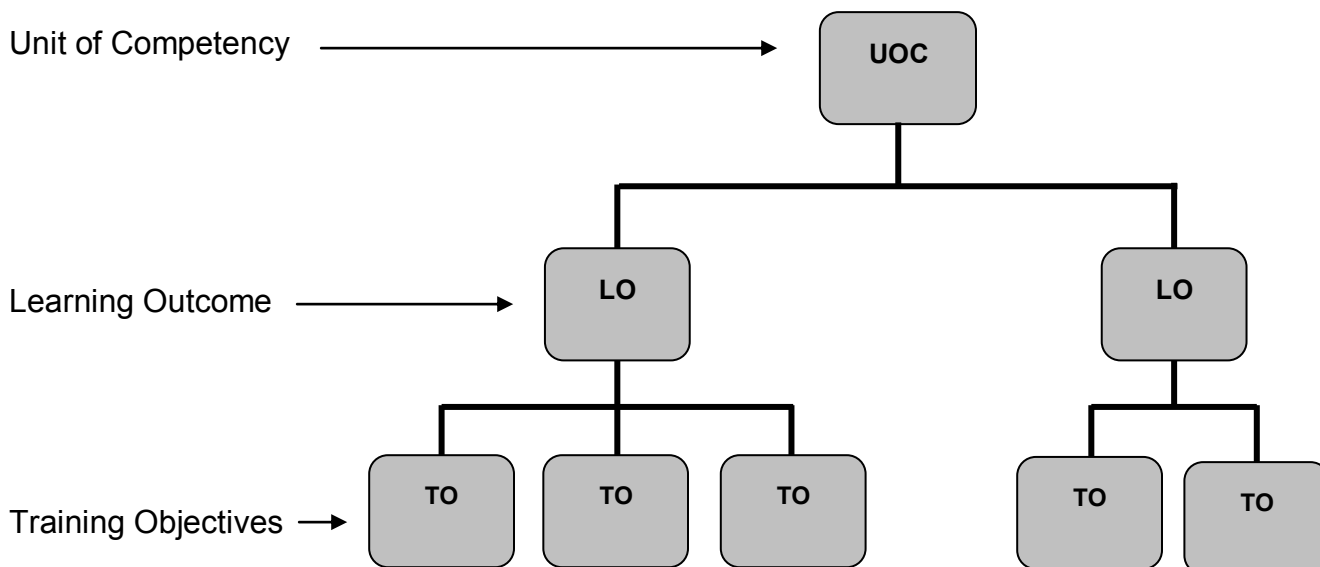
Verb	Meaning
Communicate	To impart information, ideas, feelings or experiences.
Conduct	To carry out, direct or manage.
Cost	To calculate the price paid or to be paid.
Decide	To come to a resolution as a result.
Despatch	To send away to a destination.
Determine	To establish precisely.
Develop	To systematically improve.
Diagnose	To identify the cause of a fault from the symptoms.
Document	To record activities in a document.
Draft	To prepare a document or message.
Draw	To produce by tracing lines and marks.
Enforce	To compel the observance.
Establish	To set up; to place beyond dispute.
Examine	To look closely at the condition.
Execute	To carry out to a conclusion.
Exit	To quit or log off from computer software.
Express	To put symbols or numbers in terms of another.
Facilitate	To make easy; to sponsor/promote.
Fabricate	To construct an item from ideas or drawings.
Handle	To manage in a particular or correct way.
Hasten	To cause to occur; to be ready or to be done sooner.
Implement	To put into effect.
Interpolate	To insert between or into by calculation.
Interview	To counsel; to conduct an oral investigation.
Investigate	To inquire into.
Issue	To give out or supply.
Liaise	To meet together or act as go between.
Lodge	To place with.
Manufacture	To design and make; to produce.
Manage	To maintain control over.
Monitor	To maintain regular surveillance.
Negotiate	To confer with view to agreement.
Observe	To adhere to.
Obtain	To gain possession or control.
Overhaul	To return an item to the standard specified.
Oversee	To supervise or superintend.
Pack	To stow within a container or wrapping for carriage and or protection.
Pass	To achieve a pre-determined standard.
Prevent	To stop from happening.
Process	To carry out a series of actions.
Procure	To obtain.

Verb	Meaning
Provide	To supply; to furnish.
Raise	To elevate; to create or start (e.g. raise a form).
Receipt	To receive and bring on charge.
Recondition	To return an item to an as new condition (starts a new life).
Register	To record for reference.
Replace	To substitute one item for another.
Report	To make a formal statement in writing.
Requisition	To place a formal written order for the supply or repair of goods.
Research	To systematically investigate to establish facts.
Return	To come back or go back.
Reverse	To revoke; to annul.
Review	To reconsider subject; to survey previously learned material.
Scrutinise	To examine for validity.
Secure	To fasten; to confine to prevent loss.
Segregate	To put apart from the rest.
Sell	To dispose of in exchange for remuneration.
Service	To make available for use.
Set up	To place in position ready for use.
Shape	To give an item a specific shape or form.
Sort	To arrange systematically.
Store	To keep available for use.
Submit	To present for consideration or decision.
Substitute	To act in place of another; to replace one with another.
Supervise	To oversee the actions or work of
Supply	To provide; to deliver.
Take	To undertake; to execute.
Test	To check the quality.
Transpose	To change the position.
Treat	To apply a process.
Undertake	To make oneself responsible for.
Unpack	To open and remove the contents.
Update	To make current.
Verify	To establish the truth or correctness.
Vet	To make careful examination.

Numbering Training Objectives

8.17 TOs are numbered from the LO from which they were derived. They are numbered sequentially as soon as they are derived. Los are numbered from their parent Unit of Competency (UOC) – this ensures that every TO can be tracked to its parent UOC.

8.18 The numbering relationship between TOs, Los and UOC is shown in the following logic diagram.



Writing Training Variables

8.19 Once the relevant performance statement has been drafted, the next step is to consider the context in which the TO is likely to be used. The training variables are an expansion and refocus of the learning variables in the learning outcome but with a greater emphasis placed on the training environment. **Tip:** Include maximum detail as this section outlines what the trainer requires. Input from an SME is critical during the development of your training variables. The training variables must be achievable and are especially important when developing a new course.

8.20 **Context.** Consideration of the context may require classification of the likely:

- a. Method of training;
- b. Setting where the training is to take place (e.g. classroom or outdoors);
- c. Range of resources and equipment involved;
- d. Range of procedures/activities involved;
- e. Relevant policies, manuals, standard operating procedures (SOPs) or statutory requirements;
- f. Duration of instruction;
- g. Student/trainer ratio (consider the effect on the ratio; may require a visiting lecturer); and
- h. Pre-requisite and co-requisite TOs.

Unit of Competency:	1.0	Fire the NZCF .22 Rifle	Date Revised:	28 February 2014
Learning Outcome:	1.1	Handling the Marlin XT .22.		
Training Objective(s)	Range of Variables		Assessment Criteria	Remarks
1.1.1 – Conduct the Rifle Handling Drills: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Load • Action • Instant • Unload 	1. Training Method: a. Practical Lesson 2. Training Setting: a. Training Area 3. Duration: a. 2 x 40 min periods 4. Trainer/Trainee Ratio: a. Optimum: 1:6 b. Maximum: 1:10 5. Equipment / Training Aids: a. Marlin XTs b. Magazines c. Groundsheets 6. Assistance/Access to: a. Nil 7. Environmental Conditions: a. By day or night 8. Special Physical Demands: a. Nil 9. Range of Methods: a. Nil		Attainment of this training objective is confirmed if the students can in a Practical assessment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct the Marlin XT Rifle Handling Drills without breach of safety, damage to equipment and in the correct sequence perform the following rifle handling drills: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Load ○ Action ○ Instant ○ Unload 	Reason Why: It is essential that a cadet is capable of handling the rifle safely in the presence of other cadets whilst on the range during a live range shoot. 1. Training Level: a. NZCF Level Three 2. Reference(s): a. NZCF 151, Firearms Training Manual, Chap 2, Lesson 3 and Section 5. 3. Staff Support: a. Nil 4. Training Notes: a. Consider taking lesson in a closed training area. 5. Considerations for Assessments: a. Test one cadet at a time. 6. Revision: a. Nil 7. Pre-requisite Training Objectives: a. 1.1.1 Carry out safety precautions for Marlin XT. b. 1.1.2 Strip, assemble and clean the Marlin XT.

SECTION 3 - Training Objective Examples

8.21 The following training objective examples are provided:

- a. Knowledge-based training objective;
- b. Skills-based training objective; and
- c. Attitude-based training objective.

Knowledge: 6.1.1 Explain the AFDA and Common Military Offences

Skill: 1.1.3 Perform the Marlin XT Rifle Handling Drills

Attitude: 5.1.12 Develop Military Self Awareness

Unit of Competency:	6.0 Advise on Military Law	Date Revised:	06 March 2014
Learning Outcome:	6.1 Advise on Military Law		
Training Objective(s)	Range of Variables	Assessment Criteria	Remarks
6.1.1 – Explain the AFDA and Common Military Offences: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpretation • Jurisdiction • Common offences 	2. Training Method: b. Theory lesson 3. Training Setting: b. Classroom 4. Duration: b. 1 x 40 min period 5. Trainer/Trainee Ratio: c. Optimum: 1:20 d. Maximum: 1:24 6. Equipment / Training Aids: d. DM 69 e. Pen and paper 7. Assistance/Access to: b. DM 69 8. Environmental Conditions: b. By day or night 9. Special Physical Demands: b. Nil 10. Range of Methods: b. Nil	Attainment of this training objective is confirmed if the students can in a Written assessment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the AFDA and Common Military offences: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Structure of the AFDA ○ Origins of Military Law ○ List a minimum of Five Military Common Offences 	Reason Why: To identify common Military Offences in order to deal with any potential disciplinary incidents. 2. Training Level: b. Level Two 3. Reference(s): b. AFDA 1971 3. Staff Support: a. Nil 8. Training Notes: b. Consider utilising LSO 9. Considerations for Assessments: a. Nil 10. Revision: a. Conventions of Service Writing 11. Pre-requisite Training Objectives: a. Nil 12. Co-requisite Training Objectives: a. 6.1.9 – Explain Unit Standing Orders

Unit of Competency:	6.0	Fire the NZCF .22 Rifle	Date Revised:	06 March 2014
Learning Outcome:	6.1	Fire the Marlin XT .22 Rifle		
Training Objective(s)	Range of Variables		Assessment Criteria	Remarks
6.1.1 – Perform the Marlin XT Rifle Handling Drills: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Load • Action • Instant • Unload 	1. Training Method: a. Practical lesson 2. Training Setting: a. Training Area 3. Duration: a. 2 x 40 min periods 4. Trainer/Trainee Ratio: a. Optimum: 1:6 b. Maximum: 1:10 5. Equipment / Training Aids: a. Marlin XTs b. Magazines c. Groundsheets d. 5A Facings 6. Assistance/Access to: a. NZCF 151 7. Environmental Conditions: a. By day or night 8. Special Physical Demands: a. Nil 9. Range of Methods: a. Nil		Attainment of this training objective is confirmed if the students can in a Practical assessment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Without breach of safety, damage to equipment and in the correct sequence, perform the Marlin XT Rifle Handling Drills: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Load ○ Action ○ Instant ○ Unload 	Reason Why: It is essential that a cadet is capable of handling the rifle safely in the presence of other cadets whilst on the range during a live range shoot. 1. Training Level: a. NZCF Level Three 2. Reference(s): a. NZCF 151, Firearms Training Manual, Chapter 2, Lesson 3 and Section 5. 3. Staff Support: a. Nil 4. Training Notes: a. Consider taking lesson in a closed training area. 5. Considerations for Assessments: a. Test one cadet at a time. 6. Revision: a. Nil 7. Pre-requisite Training Objectives: a. 1.1.1 Carry out safety precautions for the Marlin XT. b. 1.1.2 Strip, assemble and clean the Marlin XT.
Unit of Competency:	5.0	Display Military Ethos and Values	Date	06 March 2014

		Revised:	
Learning Outcome:	5.3	Display Professional Standards	
Training Objective(s)	Range of Variables	Assessment Criteria	Remarks
5.3.1 – Develop Military and Self Awareness of Ethos and Values: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Courage • Commitment • Camaraderie • Integrity 	1. Training Method: a. Theory lesson 2. Training Setting: a. Classroom 3. Duration: a. 3 x 40 min periods 4. Trainer/Trainee Ratio: a. Optimum: 1:12 b. Maximum: 1:24 5. Equipment / Training Aids: a. Pen and paper 6. Assistance/Access to: a. Nil 7. Environmental Conditions: a. By day 8. Special Physical Demands: a. Nil 9. Range of Methods: a. Nil	Attainment of this training objective is confirmed if the students can: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop Military Self Awareness, the students must display a sense of self identity, beliefs, principles and values. <p><i>Note: This TO is Army Training Level One, therefore, no formal assessment is necessary; however students should be made aware that they will be continually assessed by observation and formally reported on throughout their Army careers on their personal and Army ethos and values.</i></p>	Reason Why: To develop in all soldiers, a sense of worth in self and the military. 1. Training Level: a. Level One 2. Reference(s): a. The Fundamentals of Land Warfare b. Army's Ethos and Values handbook 3. Staff Support: a. Padre 4. Training Notes: a. Relaxing environment removed from normal pressures of training. 5. Considerations for Assessment: a. This session is conducted so as to develop: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A will to participate • A listening attitude • A non threatening atmosphere • Trust within the group 6. Revision: a. Nil 7. Pre-requisite Training Objectives: a. Nil

CHAPTER 9 - Interviewing and Critiquing

SECTION 1 – Interviewing and Critiquing

9.1 In the training environment an instructor can often be in a position where they have to interview a cadet. There are a many reasons why we may interview a cadet, therefore it is important that instructors can conduct interviews in an effective manner.

- a. Entry/Exit Interviews
- b. Course Reports
- c. Performance Appraisal
- d. Training Needs Analysis

9.2 An effective interview can only take place if the instructor has the skills to do so. These skills can easily be described, but like all other skills they must be developed with practice. When a cadet has a problem it is tempting either to ignore it or to take a prescriptive approach, i.e. to impose solutions rather than to find the real cause of the problem and help the cadet find their way to resolve it. An instructor, who can spot a cadet's difficulties and help them before they become too serious, can prevent unsatisfactory work and an unnecessary loss of good people. Skilful interviewing will increase motivation and add to the human face of the training environment.

Stages of an Interview.

9.3 There are four vital stages of an interview:

- a. Setting up the interview, ensure you have an agenda;
- b. Encouraging people to talk, following the agenda;
- c. Helping them to think it through; and
- d. Letting them find the solution, discuss possible outcomes and what comes next.

9.4 Within each of these stages there are many things to consider and many skills to develop.

Setting up the Interview.

9.5 In setting up the interview it is necessary to:

- a. Identify the need (to interview);
- b. Create the opportunity; and
- c. Make it private, unhurried and confidential.

9.6 Create the opportunity to set up the interview. Shouting across the room that you want to see a certain cadet in your office now, will not set the mood very well. Set a time when you know both you and the cadet are going to be free and not under pressure to be elsewhere. Arrange quietly and privately with the cadet the time that you want to meet.

9.7 To make the interview private use an area where you know you will not be disturbed. An office is an obvious setting but will the telephone ring? If it is likely to, have the calls transferred or take the phone off the hook. Also ensure no one will walk into the office; a sign on the door will stop that happening.

9.8 Making the interview unhurried requires both parties to be free of other appointments for the duration of the interview. The interviewer must be aware of how long the interview can last and plan accordingly. If insufficient time is available then a different time should be made to have the interview. Also to assist in creating an unhurried atmosphere have all the facts and information needed close at hand, research the situation before the interview, and have a clear aim for the interview.

9.9 Often during an interview a cadet will confide in the instructor a lot of personal information. It is vital that the instructor does not break this confidence unless in not doing so some regulation / law would be broken (health and safety of them or others) . If this is the case then advise the cadet of the action to be taken. For example: "I cannot promise that all information discussed will remain confidential."

Encouraging People to Talk.

There is always the danger that the instructor does most of the talking during the interview. An instructor skilled in interview techniques will encourage the cadet to do most of the talking. This can be done by:

- a. Reassuring the cadets, make them feel at ease;
- b. Ask open questions; and
- c. Give feedback.

9.10 Reassurance can generally be conveyed by what you say and how you say it. The instructor should not give the appearance of an interrogator but empathetic and attentive confidant. Compliments could be used but not overdone, as they may sound over—enthusiastic and artificial.

9.11 Asking open questions avoids one-word answers from the cadet. Use What, Where, When, How, and Who at the beginning of question. Direct the questions towards the focus of the interview. Use the questions to help the cadet to identify their problem. Recognition of the problem by the cadet is the first step to self—development. [For further information on questioning please see that chapter in this manual]

9.12 Feedback can be given in the number of ways; by voice, by expression or by movement of the body. However in order to provide feedback it is necessary to have listened to what the cadet had to say. There is a clear distinction between hearing what the cadet is saying and listening to what they are saying. One can hear the radio playing but does one listen to it?

Listening.

9.13 Listening is a skill to develop and combines all of the elements of feedback mentioned before. Listening can be summarised by:

- a. Looking interested;
- b. Inquiring with questions;
- c. **Staying on target;**
- d. Testing understanding;
- e. Evaluating the message; and
- f. **Neutralising your feelings.**

9.14 Looking interested in what the cadet has to say will help to concentrate one's attention on the interview. Leaning forward, the occasional half smile at the right time and raising of the eyebrows all contribute to conveying the message that the instructor is interested. This is known as the Attending Listening Style.

9.15 It has already been mentioned that open type questions are the best to use in an interview. These can fall into one of three question forms:

- a. General – to explore broad background information; e.g. “Tell me about what you do in your spare time”.
- b. Opinion Seeking – to explore attitudes, opinions and feeling; e.g. “What do you think about... ?” or “How do you feel about...?”

Staying on target can be difficult.

9.16 Decide on the purpose of the interview and what its outcome should be. Once that is decided stick to that all the way through and do not get sidetracked and bogged down with details.

Check understanding.

9.17 Use quick, clear questions to test understanding of the cadets viewpoint and their understanding of your view point.

Reflective Listening.

9.18 This style can be used to test understanding. This style requires the giving of feedback to the cadet, which is both helpful and an indication of how fully you are listening. To do this summarise briefly on the main points of the content and repeat them to the cadet. During this feedback use the same wording that the cadet has used in order to allow the rapport to develop easier. It is necessary to neutralise feelings so that they do not get in the way and cloud the issue. It is extremely difficult to control feelings when listening to someone else speaking about a subject on which strong views are held. It is very easy to lose patience with the cadet and adopt a “Yes but” approach. Avoid this.

Helping them to think it Through.

9.19 Beware of jumping in with an opinion or advice. Giving advice and making assumptions limit the opportunity for discussion. Friendliness and neutrality will help the

cadet solve their own issues/identify their needs. The instructor should ask questions that will help the cadet think the problem through. Identify the gap that exists between the cadet performance and the required standard. Suggest alternatives, give facts that may influence the cadets decision and explore the implication of possible solutions.

Letting Them Find the Solution.

9.20 If the cadet has been guided correctly throughout the interview the solution they find should be agreeable to both the instructor and the cadet. If on the other hand the cadet's solution is not considered to be the best by the instructor then a problem exists. The instructor may be tempted to impose their own solution. This situation can best be handled by allowing the cadet to follow their course of action but setting a review date earlier than would have been set had the solution been agreeable to both the cadet and the instructor. This will allow for corrective action to be taken if the cadet is not improving.

9.21 **Note.** Though many of the examples above relate to a problem with a cadet as oppose to a positive performance, please be aware that many interviews will be done for positive reasons.

Section 2 –Feedback

Definition of Feedback.

9.22 Feedback provides information and observations about a specific performance or behaviour. It assists in developing a pathway for improvement, development and/or correction.

Purpose of Feedback.

9.23 Feedback is designed to encourage self-reflection, develop strengths and combat weaknesses. Feedback is not designed to find fault, nor to destroy a persons confidence in their existing ability. Feedback is a tool that lets the performer know how the delivery came across to you the observer.

DO NOT CONFUSE COACHING AND FEEDBACK

Methodology.

9.24 In the NZCF we use the following method for delivering feedback;

- a. The performer reflects on their own overall performance; “How do you think that went?”
- b. The observer gives their judgement; “I have judged you competent based on the leadership task you have completed”
- c. The performer gives their self-identified points for improvement; “What do you think you could have done better?”, “What would you change if you were doing this again?”
- d. The observer gives their points for improvement; “I noticed....”, “I observed”, “When you...”
- e. The performer then gives their self-identified strengths; “What do you feel went particularly well?”
- f. The observer then gives the strengths they identified; “I noticed... which was....”, “When you... this....”
- g. The observer sums up the session; “From here I will give you a copy of my assessment form”, “What will happen now is...”, “The process from here....”

Using Negative and Positive Feedback Techniques.

9.25 It requires great skill, sensitivity, honesty and concentration on behalf of the person observing the performance and must reflect how the performance was received by the observer — it is not an opportunity for the observer to dictate to the performer how he or she should perform or how the observer would have done it.

9.26 Feedback occurs following an assessment. Coaching, as in the next section, occurs during the teaching phase. This said, further coaching may be necessary as a result of the feedback session, this will be arranged AFTER the feedback session to ensure the two do not overlap.

Quality feedback

9.27 This relies on three essential elements:

- a. It must be SPECIFIC not GENERAL; “When you...”
- b. NEGATIVES must be given first and end on the POSITIVES.
- c. Neither the performer or the observer interjects. This is not a time for discussion it is an exchange of points observed.
- d. You are not there to tell them how YOU would have done it.
- e. If the performer is struggling to self-identify points for improvement or strengths do not bully them; try to rephrase the question once, and then move on to your own observations.

9.28 Specific feedback describes the behaviour and the consequences of that behaviour. This allows the receiver to capitalise on the good points and work on eliminating or modifying the bad points.

Timing the Feedback.

9.29 The feedback session should take place as soon after the performance as possible, it should not be stored up and used later. It is most effective when given immediately after the event, when things are fresh in the mind and there is a greater chance of factual recall. It must be done in private, on a one to one situation. Remember, at best it is only how YOU observed the performance, other people may have seen it differently.

Balance.

9.30 Most feedback given is unasked for and is invariable NEGATIVE. There are always POSITIVES in any performance however the balance of Negatives and Positives must reflect how YOU saw the performance. Take a moment or two to highlight your Negatives and Positives, are they a true reflection of the performance if not redress the balance by leaving out some of the less important positives or negatives.

Be a member of the audience

9.31 Become engrossed in the topic. Look at and listen to the delivery, if some thing strikes you as being GOOD – make a note of it. If some thing makes you feel uncomfortable or you did not understand it note that as well. Don't forget to watch the rest of the audience, see how they are reacting to the instructor. Above all be aware of your own body language. The instructor will be under enough strain knowing that you are there without you increasing that strain by STARING and FROWNING and FRANTICALLY SCRIBBLING on your pad.

Preparing for the Feedback Session.

9.32 When preparing for the feedback session:

- a. Give the performer time to unwind; let them pack up and have a few minutes for self-reflections. That said, ensure the feedback happens as soon as practically possible.

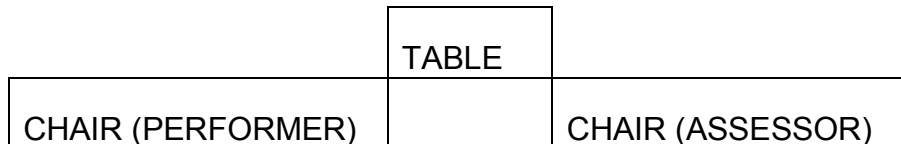
- b. Collect your thoughts, and collate your notes. Balance of points for improvements and strengths, if necessary leave out some of the least important N's or P's.
- c. Once you begin the feedback session, do not change your notes.

9.33 If during the SELF ASSESSMENT section the individual has covered all the Negatives that you have noted then just tell them so. DO NOT go over them again. However feel free to elaborate on the Positives. Positive reinforcement is the best way to improve performance.

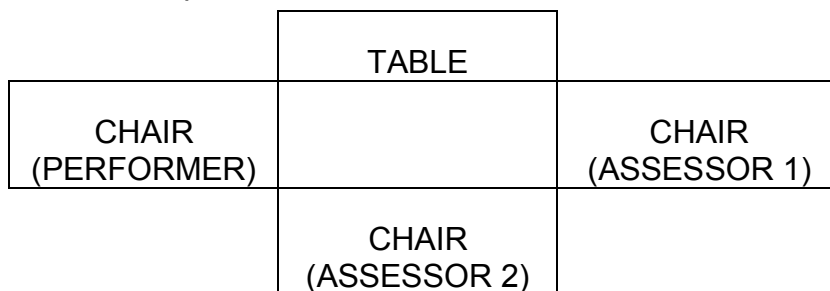
Feedback set-up.

9.34 Set up your feedback session as below; this is to ensure that there are no barriers to open communication. Note: Assessors should try and have relaxed body language; that is don't cross legs (cross ankles if needed), don't cross arms etc. Always ensure the performer is next to the table this way they can place any notes on the table and don't feel threatened, particularly if there has been more than one assessor present.

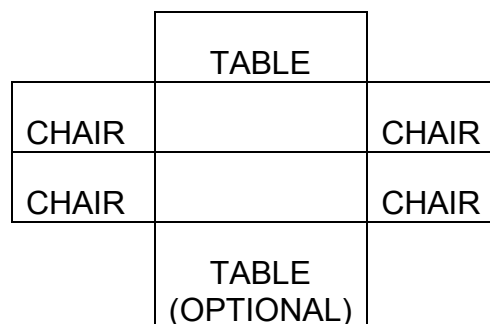
- a. With two persons



- b. With three persons:



- c. With four persons; (more than four persons continue to add chairs in a semi circular manner).



Section 3 - Coaching

DO NOT CONFUSE FEEDBACK AND COACHING

Definition of Coaching.

9.35 Coaching is a method of directing, instructing and training a person or group, with the aim of achieving a goal or developing a specific skill. Coaching is a system whereby a person gives advice and tutoring on how to perform a task in accordance with known standards and techniques.

Purpose of Coaching.

9.36 Coaching is designed to assist students to incorporate new skills and develop as best able. It is also an aid for ensuring students are able to meet standards, and can develop as those standards increase.

When to Coach.

9.37 Coaching occurs during the training phase. Coaching is quite simply personalised teaching. Instructors often coach when they give students pointers. Coaching can occur as a result of feedback. Feedback may have identified areas for development, this development then occurs through the use of coaching.

How to Coach.

9.38 There is no specific method to use when coaching. It is important to note that coaching is not about making students do things your way, it is about exploring techniques and methods that may assist them to develop their skillset and gain comfort using that skillset, as well as assisting them develop their own style that meets all standards whilst keeping them comfortable. "You could try...", "When I do that task I...", "I have seen others do this by..."

Mentoring.

9.39 Mentoring is a supportive learning relationship between an individual who shares knowledge, experience and wisdom with another individual who is ready and willing to benefit from the this exchange, it enriches their professional journey. The Mentor should identify their protégée's needs and together they should get goals and plan how to achieve these in a reasonable timeframe. This is similar to a long term coaching process.

ANNEX A – Providing Feedback

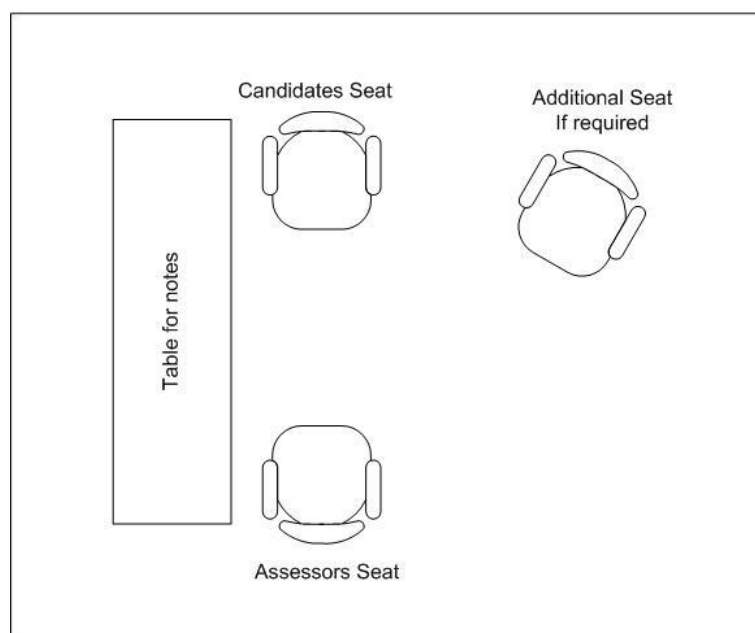
This is a list of things to consider when giving feedback:

Questions	Action if No
Do I have somewhere appropriate to deliver a feedback session?	Create one
Has the examination phase completed?	wait
Has the person being evaluated had time to think about what has just occurred?	Wait a few minutes but not an excessive amount of time
Do you have a judgement ready?	Decide Pass or Fail
Do you have any negatives to highlight?	Decide on 3-4 if appropriate
Do you have any positives to highlight?	Decide on 3-4 if appropriate

When delivering feedback the following process should be used:

1. Give the judgement (this eliminate stress and helps the candidate focus on what else you have to say)
2. Ask the candidate what they think they can improve on
3. Offer the candidate your own points for improvement on their performance (do not restate things they have already identified) (3-4 points max)
4. Ask the candidate what they think they did well
5. Inform the candidate what you think they did well (can restate points they have mentioned) (3-4 points max)
6. Conclusion (next steps - could be reassessment, could be sending in assessment docs)

Suggested layout for delivering feedback



CHAPTER 10 - Oral Presentation Techniques

SECTION 1 – Content and Structure

Content.

10.1 It is likely that you already have a topic and you know what you want to say about it. This is the content of your presentation. You may already have the content of your presentation in written form; for example in a written report. Whether your content is already written down or you are beginning from scratch, you may need to cut it down for your presentation. Why?

10.2 You will need to fit your content within the time limit. Think carefully about how much information you can reasonably present in the time allowed and select the most important point;

10.3 You will need to hold the interest and attention of your audience. Many people lose interest towards the end of presentations that contain too much information. Think carefully about the key points that you want to get across and build your presentation around them;

10.4 Some kinds of information, such as technical explanations and tables and figures, are difficult for listeners to absorb during a presentation. Think about summarising this kind of information or referring the listeners to a document they can read after the presentation;

10.5 You will need to leave time for examples and illustrations or your points. Think carefully about how you will support and explain your key points; and

10.6 You will need to leave time for an introduction, conclusion and questions or comments. During this time you are likely to be repeating points made in the main body of your talk.

10.7 Three points to think about when preparing the content of a presentation are:

- a. What are your key points? Most good presentations have no more than 5 key points;
- b. How will you support your key points with examples and illustrations? and
- c. How will you make it easy for your audience to follow your key points?

Structure.

Most presentations will consist of an introduction; the body of the talk and the conclusion reminds them of your key points. Good presentations raise questions in the listeners' mind. Good speakers encourage questions both during and after the presentation and are prepared to answer them.

Introduction.

The Introduction of the presentation should take up approximately 10-20% of the presentation. A good introduction does four things:

- a. Attracts and focuses the attention of the audience;
- b. Puts the speaker and audience at ease;
- c. Explains the purpose of the talk and what the speaker would like to achieve; and
- d. Gives an overview of the key points of the talk.

10.8 It is often a good idea to begin a talk with a question, a short story, an interesting fact about your topic or an unusual visual aid. Many speakers follow this with an overhead transparency that shows the title, aim and outline of the talk.

Body.

The Body of the presentation should take up approximately 65-80% of the presentation. The body of a presentation must be presented in a logical order that is easier for the audience to follow and natural to your topic. Divide your content into sections and make sure that the audience knows where they are at any time during your talk. It is often a good idea to pause between main sections of your talk. You can ask for questions, sum up the point or explain what the next point will be. If you have an OHT with an outline of your talk on it, you can put this on the projector briefly and point to the next section.

10.9 Examples, details and visual aids add interest to a presentation and help you get your message through. Here are some questions you can ask yourself about the examples you include:

- a. Are they relevant to the experience of the audience?
- b. Are they concrete?
- c. Will the audience find them interesting?
- d. Are they valid? and
- e. Are they memorable?

Conclusion.

10.10 The Conclusion of the presentation should take up approximately 10-15% of the presentation. A good conclusion does two things:

- a. Reminds the audience of your key points; and
- b. Reinforces your message.

10.11 Your conclusion should end the presentation on a positive note and make the audience feel that they have used their time well listening to you.

Questions.

10.12 Many speakers worry about questions from the audience. However, questions show that the audience is interested in what you have to say and can make the talk more lively and interactive. You should be more worried if there are no questions at all! One way of handling questions is to point to questions you would like to discuss as you are talking. You can control questions better if you leave pauses during your talk and ask for questions. It is important not to let question and answer sessions during the talk go on too long, however. Answer briefly or say you will deal with the question at the end. Make sure you are ready to go on with your talk when questions have finished.

Delivery

10.13 **Voice Quality.** Your voice is your main channel of communication to the audience, so make sure you use it to its best effect.

10.14 **Volume.** Is your voice loud enough or too loud? Adjust your volume to the size of the room and make sure the people at the back can hear. In a big room take deep breaths and try to project your voice rather than shout.

10.15 **Speed and Fluency.** Speak at a rate so your audience can understand your points. Do not speed up because you have too much material to fit into the time available. Try not to leave long pauses while you are looking at your notes or use fillers such as 'um', 'er', 'ah', 'like', 'n stuff' or other interpreters that make your delivery awkward. A good tip is to practice in front of someone else and ask that person to listen for these "words". Use pauses to allow the audience to digest an important point. Repeat or rephrase difficult or important points to make sure the audience understands.

10.16 **Clarity.** Speak clearly. Face the audience and hold your head up. Your speech will be clearer if you look directly at the members of the audience while you speak. Keep your hands and notes away from your mouth and keep your eyes on the audience when you are talking about overhead transparencies. If you have to look at the whiteboard or the overhead projector, stop talking until you are ready to face the audience again.

10.17 **Pronunciation.** You may not be able to improve your general pronunciation much before an important presentation. However, you can make sure you know how to pronounce names and difficult words. Do not use exaggerated intonation or pronunciation of individual words. Your natural speaking style will be good enough as long as you speak clearly.

10.18 **Engaging the Audience.** One of the secrets of a good presentation is to involve the audience.

10.19 **Maintain Eye Contact.** Look your audience in the eyes. Spread your eye contact around the audience including those at the back and sides of the room. Avoid looking at someone too long because this can be intimidating. You should look at your audience 80-90% of the time.

10.20 **Ask for Feedback.** You can involve the audience by asking occasional questions. Try to ask genuine questions to which you do not already know the answer and show interest in any replies. Leave time for the audience to think and try to avoid answering your questions yourself or telling members of the audience that their answers are wrong.

Questions to the audience work well when you manage to make those who answer them feel that they have contributed to your presentation.

10.21 You can also pause occasionally to ask if someone has any questions for you. If a question disrupts the flow of your talk too much, you can say that you will answer it later (but don't forget to do it!). Before you ask for questions, make sure you are ready to pick up your presentation again when the Q & A session has finished.

10.22 **Look Confident.** It is natural to look nervous in front of an audience. Experienced speakers avoid looking nervous by breathing deeply, speaking slowly and avoiding unnecessary gestures or movements. Smiling and focussing attention on members of the audience who show interest can also help you feel more confident as your talk progresses.

10.23 **Nerves.** Everybody feels nervous at some point when asked to give an oral presentation. If you're feeling particularly nervous, take a few deep breaths and focus on speaking slowly. Also try to focus clearly on your message. Acting horribly nervous just makes you feel worse - it's a difficult cycle to escape. The best antidote to nerves is to act as though you feel fantastically confident – you'll be amazed at how much more confident it ends up making you actually feel!

Using Notes

10.24 One of the decisions you have to make before you give a presentation is how to remember what you are going to say. Experienced presenters use a variety of methods. On this page we outline the advantages and disadvantages of each. It is up to you to decide which is best for you.

Speaking Without Notes

10.25 Some presenters do not use notes at all. They just remember the outline of what they are going to say and talk.

10.26 **Advantages:** If you do it well, you will seem natural, knowledgeable and confident of your topic. You will also find it easier to establish rapport with the audience because you can give them your full attention.

10.27 **Disadvantages:** it is easier to lose your thread, miss out whole sections of your talk or to go over the time limit. People who speak without notes often fail to convey a clear idea of the structure of their ideas to the audience. This is a high-risk strategy. Few people can present effectively without notes. If you are one of them, good luck!

Reading from a Script

10.28 Some experienced presenters write down every word they intend to say. They may read the whole script aloud or they may just use it as a back up.

10.29 **Advantages:** You will find it easier to keep within the time limit. You are less nervous and make fewer mistakes.

10.30 **Disadvantages:** It is difficult to establish rapport with the audience. You may sound like you are reading aloud rather than speaking to the audience. Listeners often lose interest in a presentation that is read aloud.

10.31 This is low risk strategy employed by many experienced non-native speaker presenters. If you use it, you will need to develop the skill of reading aloud while still sounding natural. Few people can do this effectively.

Note Cards

10.32 Many presenters write down headings and key points on cards of paper. They use them as reminders of what they are going to say.

10.33 **Advantages:** You will find it easier to establish rapport with the audience. Your presentation will be structured but you will sound natural.

10.34 **Disadvantages:** You may find it difficult to keep within the time limit. If your notes are too brief, you may forget what you intended to say.

10.35 This is a medium-risk strategy used by many experienced presenters and the one most often recommended. The disadvantages of note cards can be overcome if you practice your presentation before you give it.

Overhead Transparencies

10.36 Some presenters use their OHTs as notes. They use them like note cards as reminders of what they are going to say. Handouts and PowerPoint presentations can be used in the same way.

10.37 **Advantages:** It is easy to establish rapport with the audience because you are sharing your notes with them. You will sound natural and your presentation will seem well organised.

10.38 **Disadvantages:** You may find it difficult to keep within the time limit. Your presentation may be dominated by your OHTs. Unless you are careful, you may find that you are talking to the overhead projector rather than the audience.

10.39 This is a medium-to-high-risk strategy. Used well, it can be very effective, especially by presenters who are used to speaking without notes.

Overhead Transparencies (OHTs) and PowerPoint Presentations (PPTs)

10.40 The aim of using OHTs and PPTs is to support the points you want to make in your speech. The audience will be able to follow better if they can see your key points and examples as well as hearing them. OHTs and PPTs can:

- a. Reinforce a point you have made;
- b. Show what something looks like;
- c. Illustrate relationships;
- d. Show information patterns;
- e. Present figures or graphs;

- f. Summarise key points; and
- g. Help the audience follow passages or quotations you read aloud.

10.41 OHTs and PPTs are not the only form of visual aid available to you. For example, if you want to show what something looks like, it may be better to show the audience the thing itself rather than a picture of it.

Design

10.42 To be effective, OHTs and PPTs must be attractive and easy to read. Some basic rules are:

- a. Use large fonts and images;
- b. Present one key point or example per OHT/PPT slide;
- c. Use headings and bullet points in reference to lines of text;
- d. Use strong colours and don't use too many;
- e. Use simple graphs in reference to tables of figures; and
- f. Pay attention to layout. Use the centre of the OHT/PPT rather than the edges.

Using Overhead Projectors

10.43 Overhead projectors are designed to allow the speaker to project an image while facing the audience. The image may be a picture or graphic, notes indicating the points you are making or longer texts that you want to read aloud. Whenever you use an OHT, the attention of the audience will be divided between you and the image, so there are few basic rules to follow:

- a. Make sure that the image can be seen. If possible go to the room in advance and check that everything on your OHTs can be read easily from the back of the room;
- b. If possible, make sure the projector is in a convenient position. Decide where you want to stand when speaking and then position the projector where you can get to it easily. This will usually be on the side of your body that you normally use for writing (i.e. your left if you are left handed);
- c. Keep your slides in order in a pile next to the projector and put them back in order in another pile as you take them off the projector;
- d. If possible, control the lighting in the room yourself so that there is always a light shining on you. If your OHTs are easy to read, you will not need to turn off the lights;
- e. When you are presenting, avoid looking at the projected image and the transparency on the projector. It is a good idea to print out your slides on

paper to keep with your notes so you can refer to them while you are speaking;

- f. If you want to draw attention to a point on an OHT, put a pen on top of it and leave it pointing at the point you want to draw attention to. Don't point with your finger because you will have to look at the projector while you do so;
- g. If you want the audience to read longer texts on the OHTs (e.g. quotations or tables of figures) give them time to do so. There is no point in putting an OHT on the projector if the audience does not have time to read it; and
- h. Make sure you explain the content and purpose of each OHT.

10.44 The main rule is to use OHTs to support your talk. Don't let them dominate it.

OHTs and Handouts

10.45 Some speakers give handouts for the audience to read while they are talking. The advantage of OHTs over handouts is that they focus attention on you and your talk. If you want to give a handout, it is often a good idea to wait until the end of the presentation before distributing it. Often members of the audience want to note down points from your OHTs. This can distract them from following the presentation, so it is a good idea to distribute information that the audience will want to note down on a handout. As soon as someone starts taking notes, tell the audience that they do not need to do so because they will get the information on the handout.

PowerPoint

10.46 The most common way to incorporate visuals or slides nowadays is through the use of PowerPoint. If you have the option (that is, you have PowerPoint on your computer and access to a data projector in the room), you should choose PowerPoint instead of an overhead projector (OHP) and transparencies. It is much easier to manage and more professional when used appropriately. Having said that, there are some very important tips of what to do and not what to do when using PowerPoint:

Do:

- Ensure in advance that the room has a data projector
- Do a number of practice runs through the presentation before the real thing
- Be prepared for all technology to fail and either have backup transparencies for images or a full set of notes in order to give the presentation without any slides
- Limit how many slides you include – you usually need far less than you think you do. Again, practice will help you gain confidence to know how many are sufficient
- Only use key words and simple phrases
- Use a large enough, easy-to-read font (and NO Comic-Sans!)
- Label any graphs, charts, figures and diagrams (again in a readable font size)
- Include images for visual interest occasionally if relevant

Don't:

- Rely too heavily on the PowerPoint presentation, which may experience technical difficulties on the day
- Include slabs of text – not only is it distracting, you are tempted to read it verbatim
- Simply read from your slides – let them be reminders and key points
- Use amusing fonts – stick to the basics such as Times New Roman or Arial
- Use unnecessary slide or text transitions – it's distracting and slow to watch letters appear one at a time
- Use PowerPoint sounds or any other sounds unless it's part of the presentation
- Choose a template that's busy and doesn't relate to the presentation

CHAPTER 11 – Managing Unit Training in an NZQA Environment

SECTION 1 - Managing Unit Training in an NZQA Environment

Introduction.

11.1 When designing a training programme for your Unit it is wise to keep in mind the aims and functions of the New Zealand Cadet Forces. These provide the reasons for the existence of this organisation and are, therefore, the fundamental tenants of any training programme.

- a. In summary, the three aims of NZ Cadet Forces training are:
 - (1) To foster a spirit of adventure and teamwork and the develop those qualities of mind and body essential for good citizenship
 - (2) Provide challenging and disciplined training activities which will be useful in service or civilian life
 - (3) Promote an awareness of the Armed Forces and the role they play in the community
- b. The functions of the NZ Cadet Forces training which derive from these aims are:
 - (1) To conduct training courses or training programmes similar to those undertaken by the Armed Forces
 - (2) The promotion of an appreciation among members of NZ Cadet Forces of the functions and operations of the Armed Forces
 - (3) The development of good citizenship among members of the NZ Cadet Forces

Cadet Officer Training Responsibilities.

11.2 All officers of a Cadet Unit have a role to play in the training programme. Because training cadets is the essence of any Cadet Unit an officer's training role should take precedence over other roles that they may be assigned.

11.3 For example, the Cadet Unit Commander is responsible for the authorisation of activities within acceptable risk management parameters and delegating responsibilities for such activities. They have overall responsibility for the accurate and timely delivery of the programme and the verification of cadet learning reported for NZQA credits. They are also responsible for ensuring their cadets are nominated for authorised activities and prioritising these nominations.

11.4 Training Officer may be responsible for the planning and preparation of the annual training programme, sourcing suitable training aids, sourcing external instructors, delegating lessons and briefing other unit staff involved in training. Depending on a Cadet Unit's organisation they may also be responsible for the preparation and maintenance of cadet training records although sometimes this is handled by the Unit Adjutant.

11.5 All other officers in the Unit have the responsibility to support the training programme by delivering assigned lessons, observing and guiding cadet instructors, ensuring assessments used meet the required standard and supporting the Unit's adventure training programme and other non-parade night activities.

Corps Generic and Corps Specific Subjects.

11.6 With the introduction of a training programme partially based on NZQA Unit Standards HQNZCF were required to define which parts of all three Corps training programmes fitted into the above classifications.

11.7 Generic subjects are those subjects which could be delivered by any Corps although some generic subjects have Corps specific parts within them. For example, NZQA Unit Standard 24096 – Demonstrate knowledge of the NZ Defence Force has common content but some specific parent service subject matter depending on the Corps delivering that unit standard. NZQA Unit Standard 24097 – Demonstrate knowledge of the NZ Cadet Forces is similarly a generic subject with Corps specific content embedded within it.

11.8 Unit Standards 24098 – Demonstrate and apply knowledge of basic foot drill in the NZCF and 24099 – Demonstrate advanced rifle and Ceremonial foot drill in the NZCF are both generic subjects. However, how the drill is performed is dictated by the requirements of the parent service drill manuals. This will remain the case until such time as a Cadet Forces tri-service drill manual is developed. At that time these unit standards will become truly generic.

11.9 The following unit standards are all totally generic in that they have no Corps specific content within them.

- a. Unit Standards 24100 – Demonstrate and apply knowledge of the basic principles of leadership for an NZCF cadet.
- b. Unit Standard 24101 – Demonstrate basic knowledge of risk management for NZCF activities.
- c. Unit Standard 24102 – Demonstrate basic firearms use and safety for NZCF activities.
- d. Unit Standard 24103 – Demonstrate and apply basic knowledge of a radio telephone net for NZCF activities.

11.10 Corps specific subjects are those subjects most likely to be delivered by a Corps with specific interest in the content matter of that subject. This does not prevent other Corps offering these subjects if their cadets have an interest in them and the officers have the content knowledge to deliver them.

11.11 For example, Unit Standard 24104 – Demonstrate basic knowledge of the principles of flight for NZDF aircraft is aimed at the ATC as is Unit Standard Unit Standard 24112 – Demonstrate basic knowledge of air navigation techniques used in the NZCF.

11.12 Unit Standard 24109 – Demonstrate basic knowledge of small outboard engines used in NZCF activities and Unit Standard 24111 – Demonstrate basic knowledge of sea navigation techniques used in the NZCF are aimed at the SCC.

11.13 The NZCC has only one Unit Standard that is purely Corps specific, Unit Standard 24110 – Describe selected Corps within the NZ Army. However, when the elements of Unit Standard 12304 – Demonstrate knowledge of stowage and handling ropes, and the use of knots and lashings on a vessel, are examined they constitute what is effectively Field Engineering. This could easily be incorporated into an NZCC Unit's training programme.

The relationship between the “old” and the “new”.

11.14 Most cadet unit officers will be familiar with the layout of an Instructor Guide, the document which outlines what is required from an instructor when delivering a specific series of lessons. NZQA unit standards contain similar information but titled differently.

11.15 For example, the task or terminal objective equates with the purpose statement located on the front page of a NZQA unit standard. The enabling objective corresponds to a unit standard's element. The instructional objectives tie in with a unit standard's performance criteria and expanded teaching points can be found in a range statement printed beneath each performance criteria (if required). The NZQA unit standard registration number loosely equates to the IG serial number.

11.16 It will not be possible to have the entire training programme totally based on NZQA Unit Standards. This is because probably 25-30% of a programme will be based on delivering information that is not covered by a unit standard.

11.17 For example, other generic subjects that are not NZQA unit standards based are our First Aid subjects covering contents of first aid kits, treating hypo and hyperthermia, soft tissue injuries, treating stings and bites etc. All lessons on administrative matters, terms of address, uniform wear and maintenance, citizenship training, adventure training, sports and recreation days etc fall into this category. Corps specific examples would be the additional General Service Knowledge and Cadet Forces Knowledge lessons offered.

Who is qualified to be evidence verifiers for various NZQA unit standards?

11.18 Through the act of successfully completing the NZCF Commissioning Course and the ITTM course you are qualified to deliver and evaluate those unit standards that have been designed by NZCF and owned by Skills Active (SA). These are NZQA unit standards 24096-24104 and 24109-24112.

11.19 If you meet the minimum evidence verifier requirements specified in Annex C of the NZCF Officers' guide to Recording and Reporting NZQA Unit Standards you are also qualified to act as evidence verifiers for other NZQA unit standards owned by Skills Active, Aviation Travel and Tourism Training Organisation (ATTTO) and the two units owned by COMPETENZ and reported through Skills Active.

11.20 By gaining NZQA Unit Standard 4098 – Use standards to assess candidate performance, you add credibility to your evidence verifier process. Note however, that the only people in the NZCF organisation that can sign off as assessors and report to Skills Active are the SO (Education) and members of the HQ Training and Development Cell

That is why you are required to submit the SA Unit Standard Reporting Form through HQNZCF and not directly to them.

11.21 The “rule of thumb” is that the instructor and/or evidence verifiers should be at least one level above the level of the NZQA unit standard being offered.

11.22 A NZQA unit standard also includes information handy to assist you to judge where to place one in your training programme and how long you might like to take to deliver it. For example, the level indicates what year of your programme it might best fit and the credit value suggests the time it may take. These are indicators only.

Factors to consider when designing annual training programmes.

11.23 There are a multiple of factors that a cadet unit Training Officer needs to juggle when putting together an annual training programme. These include but are not limited to:

- a. The knowledge and skill level of the particular cadets. This often varies depending on what the cadet brings with them to the unit and it is usual to instruct basic skills before advanced skills. This is often referred to as logical subject progression.
- b. The learners’ capabilities. This influences the degree of detail, thus time and type of delivery you might employ. For example, the inclusion of a greater degree of “hands on” material rather than academic theory probably would require more time.
- c. Time of the year. This can influence when you programme activities. For example, activities which risk the cadets getting wet or cold are better timetabled for the first or last school terms. Activities best carried out in daylight would be programmed during day-light saving periods of the year.
- d. Instructor strengths. Do you have the ability to match your instructors with a particular cadet level, culture or language? Can you match your instructors to utilise areas they are strong in?
- e. Requirements of community events. If your cadet unit parades for ANZAC Day or Battle of Britain Day what drills do they need to demonstrate prior to the occasion?
- f. Available instructional periods. These influence how much time can be allocated to any one learning module. For example it could be very easy to get carried away with an interesting topic to the detriment of other modules.
- g. Existing NZCF dates. What knowledge/skills need to be gained before cadets attend Leadership courses or Skills competitions?
- h. Availability of outside instructors. Are these people available all year or for only specific times within the year?

- i. The requirements of other organisations that impinge on your cadets. For example, school and national level exams,
- j. Internal cadet unit events. For example, you would want your cadets TOET qualified before shooting on a range or capable of cooking a simple meal before their first field exercise.

Administration.

11.24 The effectiveness of any training programme is only as good as the underlying administration that keeps it moving forward. Documents and items that can assist you include but are not limited to:

- a. **Training Board** – increasingly computer generated the grid design allows a whole year or term by term sheets to be developed and onto which are plotted the lessons with relevant information.
- b. **Instructor notification forms** – these give, in writing, information to the instructors of where, when and with whom they will be working with.
- c. **Pre-course training forms** – These identify training requirements that cadets need to complete before they attend leadership and other courses
- d. **Critique forms** – These standardise feedback to instructors and can be used to identify ways of improving.
- e. **Training manuals** – these detail the content and, in the case of NZCF 150, the techniques that can be used to deliver learning.
- f. **NZ Cadet Forces Outcomes** - This chart identifies the compulsory and elective NZQA unit standards that make up the National Certificate in Cadet Forces (Foundation skills)
- g. **Draft Three Year Training programme** – This provides a suggested way of laying out a full three year programme.
- h. **Existing lesson plans** – these are often held in cadet unit files and/or on the Admin website and allow instructors to plan and modify their delivery without having to “re-invent” the process.
- i. **Cadet progress charts** – these assist instructors to identify what learning has already occurred before they deliver their sessions.

Training Records systems.

11.25 Cadet Units have a variety of record keeping systems ranging from simple files using A4 envelopes to sophisticated computer generated data bases. What ever is used the system must be:

- a. Secure.
- b. Capable of allowing Unit Commanders to easily transfer information onto ITO unit standard reporting forms.

- c. Keep the cadets evidence of learning in a way that it can be given to them when they leave the unit.

11.26 Some of the challenges that exist are:

- a. How do units that are short of officers complete the filing and recording? Perhaps bringing in a parent for this purpose may assist.
- b. How do you maintain interest in keeping the system running smoothly? It is acknowledged that paper work is not the most exciting activity in the world but it is an essential activity for this project.
- c. What happens when who ever sets up a computer recording system leaves? This is where simple paper based systems which everyone understands and can operate has an advantage. Perhaps every officer needs to be trained in the use of a cadet unit's computer recording system rather than leaving it to one or two "experts".
- d. How do you transfer information when a cadet transfers? The cadet takes their evidence of learning folder and presents it to their new Unit Commander. It is their responsibility, not the responsibility of NZCF to ensure data is transferred.
- e. How do you handle traditional inertia? "We have always done it this way so why do we need to change?" Cadet units that face this challenge could possibly consider getting their officers onto the Instructional Techniques and Training Management courses or perhaps petitioning their Area Co-ordinators to include Unit Standard training in their regional up-date training weekends.

11.27 What is a Unit Standard?

The Title

- Identifies the overall learning outcome.
- States what the student should know, do, or understand.

The Credit Value

- Awarded when student meets all performance criteria for each element.
- Number of credits reflects times for an 'average student' to achieve the standard.

Purpose Statement

- Expands on the title
- Establishes how it relates to other standards

Entry Information

- Describes the knowledge and other standards

Special Notes

- Allow for further expansion and clarification
- May include definitions and range statements

4258
1 of 2

SELF-MANAGEMENT

Describe ways of managing and coping with change

level:	2
credit:	2
final date for comment:	April 1999
expiry date:	December 2000
sub-field:	Core Generic
purpose:	People credited with this unit standard will be able to understand how people respond to change; will be aware of factors which assist and inhibit healthy responses to change; and be able to relate these factors to their own situations, and generate strategy for dealing with change in their own lives.
entry information:	Open.
accreditation option:	Evaluation of documentation by NZQA.
moderation option:	A centrally established and directed external moderation system has been set up by NZQA on behalf of the Core Skills National Standards Body.
special notes:	It is recommended that element 2 include reference to Maori culture. The term 'healthy responses to change', as used in this unit standard, refers to responses that promote personal well-being. 'Unhealthy responses to change' refers to responses that adversely affect personal well-being.

Elements

- Describe specific outcomes

Performance Criteria

- Criteria against which assessment judgements are made
- Can suggest the most appropriate method for collecting evidence

SELF-MANAGEMENT

Describe ways of managing and coping with change

Elements and Performance Criteria

element 1

Describe responses to change.

performance criteria

- 1.1 Events that trigger change responses for people are identified, and the role of individual subjective experience in determining the significance of such events is described.
Range: death, separation, loss of employment, goal achievement.
- 1.2 Responses to change are described in terms of the change cycle and effects on self-esteem, emotions, and stress.
Range: denial, resistance, exploration, acceptance; pattern of responses common to all human beings, variation (within overall pattern) for individuals.
- 1.3 Differences between healthy and unhealthy responses to change are described in terms of rate of progress, continuity, and resolution.

element 2

Describe factors that influence how change is experienced and managed by the individual.

Range: internal (personal), external; including reference to own culture and a culture other than own.

performance criteria

- 2.1 Factors that assist individuals to experience and manage healthy responses to change are described.
- 2.2 Factors that inhibit individuals from experiencing and managing healthy responses to change are described.

element 3

Describe strategy for managing own responses to change.

performance criteria

- 3.1 Factors that assist and inhibit experiencing and managing own healthy responses to change are described.
Range: internal (personal), external.
- 3.2 Strategy to manage own responses at times of change is described.
Range: maximises factors that assist (see 3.1), minimises factors that inhibit (see 3.1), makes reference to support structures.

Assessor Guides.

11.28 Are designed to support the standards.

- a. the assessment conditions, such as what the trainee should be provided with, timeframes for performance
- b. what to look for in an apprentice's performance including:
 - (1) practical skills
 - (2) knowledge
 - (3) compliance with regulations and safe practice
 - (4) adequacy of evidence required to meet the standard (sufficiency)
 - (5) any conditions/requirements of the special notes.

Principles of Good Assessment.

- c. Assessment methods will be:
 - (1) Appropriate
 - (2) Suited to the performance being assessed
 - (3) Fair and not likely to inhibit or interfere with performance
 - (4) Integrated with work or learning
 - (5) Manageable in terms of available resources
- d. Evidence will be:
 - (1) Valid and fit for purpose
 - (2) Collected from activities that are similar as possible to the conditions of actual performance
 - (3) Authentic, so that the work being assessed can be attributed to the person being assessed
 - (4) Sufficient to establish with confidence that all performance criteria have been met and that performance to the required standard could be repeated with consistency
- e. Assessment will be:
 - (1) Systematic, with planning and recording of all assessments
 - (2) Open, so trainees can understand the assessment process and have confidence in the results
 - (3) Consistent, so that judgements will be similar to judgements that other assessors would make.

Matching Training Modules with Selected NZQA Unit Standards

Modules	Unit Standards
Basic Drill	24098 - Demonstrate and apply knowledge of basic foot drill
Advanced Drill	24099 - Demonstrate advanced rifle and Ceremonial foot drill
Administration	3483 - Fill in a form
	3490 - Complete an incident report
	3492 - Write a short report
Firearms safety	24102 - Demonstrate basic firearms use and safety
Personal presentation	496 - Manage personal wellness
	1307 - Speak to a specified audience
RATEL	21834 - Aviation Core Introductory aviation terminology (first part which covers 24 hour clock and phonetic alphabet
	4573 - Communicate in the outdoors using 2-way radio
	24103 - Demonstrate and apply basic knowledge of a RATEL net
First Aid	6400-6402 - Should be offered by St Johns
Leadership	24100 - Demonstrate basic principles of leadership
Risk Management	24101 - Demonstrate basic knowledge of risk management
GSK	24096 - Demonstrate knowledge of the NZDF
CFK	24097 - Demonstrate knowledge of the NZCF
Aviation studies	24104 - Demonstrate basic knowledge of the principles of flight
	24112 - Demonstrate knowledge of air navigation techniques
	19585 - Describe the development of aviation from pre-WW1
	21834 - All of aviation terminology
Maritime studies	24109 - Basic knowledge of small out-board engines
	24112 - Basic knowledge of sea navigation techniques
	26542 - Sea safety (Basis of the Day Skipper's course)
	12306 - Parts of a ship
	21929 - Safe preparations for sailing a dinghy
	21931 - Demonstrate basic principles of sailing
	21932 - Rig, launch and sail a dinghy
Knowledge of the NZ Army	24110 - Selected Corps of the NZA
Field Engineering	12304 - Demonstrate knowledge of stowage and handling ropes, knots, lashings.
Tramping	425 - Experience day tramps
Camping	426 - Experience camping
Weather	20159 - Access and compare weather information
Maps	431 - Navigate in good visibility on land
Biking	20137 - Mountain biking on easy terrain

CHAPTER 12 – Delivering Instruction

SECTION 1 – Instructor Skills

The Skill of Variability

Introduction.

12.1 Variety is the product of change in an instructional situation. The changes an instructor can make in such a situation are called variations. The deliberate introduction of variations in the instructors' manner and style, variations in the aids and materials used, and varying the involvement pattern between instructor and student is called the skill of variability.

Objectives of the Skill

12.2 The objectives of the skill of variability are concerned with attention, motivation and learning. An instructor may use the skill to achieve any of the following objectives:

- a. To arouse and maintain motivation and interest in a training situation;
- b. To involve students in the learning event as much as possible;
- c. To cater for individual learning preferences, by the use of a variety of instructional materials; and
- d. To develop positive attitudes to the training and training unit by the use of an enthusiastic instructional style.

Components of the Skill

12.3 **Manner and Style.** The personal variations in manner and style that are available to the instructor are limitless. It has been shown that when personal variations are introduced, student attention is held longer, and these variations allow the instructor to demonstrate enthusiasm for the task at hand.

Voice Variations

12.4 Variations in volume, pitch and speed can be used to make communication more effective. Changes in volume, pitch and speed are used to produce a pleasant rhythm in the voice that makes it easier to listen to.

12.5 **Volume.** Changes in volume can be used to add emphasis to important points. This can be done by either raising the volume or lowering it. Both will command attention. Care should be taken that the delivery volume is neither too soft nor too loud, as both will cause the student to lose interest.

12.6 **Pitch.** Changes in pitch or tone add interest and help convey meaning. The instructor should concentrate on developing and using changes in pitch to prevent the student losing interest in a monotonous delivery style.

12.7 Speed. Changes in the speed of delivery will allow the instructor to focus student attention on important issues by slowing down; or create interest and excitement by speeding up when appropriate.

12.8 Rhythm. The combination of volume, pitch and speed give rhythm to the voice. Generally, a pleasant conversational tone is the most appropriate style to use. It avoids giving the student the impression the instructor is talking down to them or demanding that learning must take place. It also helps get away the jerky and artificial 'In this period I am going to teach you' style of delivery popular some years ago. There are occasions when the instructor may need to raise their voice or adopt an authoritarian method of addressing trainees. When appropriate, this should be done, however it should be noted, this is not the best general technique.

12.9 Pronunciation. Poor pronunciation spoils a lot of voice communication. It detracts from the quality of the presentation, and can cause the instructor to lose credibility with students. The correct method of pronouncing a word is in a dictionary. All instructor should be encouraged to check the pronunciation of new words before using them with students.

12.10 Articulation. The clarity and crispness of speech is the result of good articulation. Instructor need to practice verbal presentations with a view to improving articulation. It is a skill that comes with practice, and is often only a matter of getting individuals to open their mouths a little more, rather than mumbling.

12.11 Grammar. Poor grammar will destroy an instructor's credibility faster than almost any other fault. Instructors should be encouraged to use correct English, avoid slang terms and bad language at all times. The use of verbal punctuation marks such as 'ers' and 'ums' can be overcome. The instructor can develop confidence in their ability to communicate through practice, as well as increasing their subject knowledge.

12.12 Pausing. The use of pauses and silence during periods of instructor-talk or activity has a number of benefits. Pauses purposefully inserted can be used to allow students time to think about the learning task, to write notes or to look at visual materials.

12.13 Instructor over-talk during any of these student activities is distracting and does not allow full concentration. Pauses may also be used to gain attention, or to highlight important information. Whatever their purpose, pauses should be used deliberately. Instructors should not feel uncomfortable with brief periods of silence or inactivity during instruction.

12.14 Verbal communication skills are probably the skills used most by instructors. It is therefore essential they be developed if the trainee is to receive the most effective and efficient instruction from instructors.

Gesture Variations

12.15 Gestures are a way a speaker conducts their communication. Just as a conductor helps an orchestra give meaning to a piece of music by gesturing, an individual helps give meaning to their message by gesturing. These gestures can give emphasis to important points. They can indicate pleasure and acceptance, or conversely, displeasure and rejection. They can be used aggressively to punch a point home, or used to cool participants off during an animated discussion. The important thing to remember about gestures is that variations in facial expressions, head and body movement, are a very important part of communicating, and, as such, should be used effectively by the instructor.

12.16 Facial Gestures. The instructor can add meaning to communication by using different facial expressions. The instructor can display interest, concern, approval and surprise using facial expressions. They can also be used to control undesirable student behaviour, but more importantly, facial expressions can be used as reinforcement.

12.17 Baton Gestures. Baton gestures are used to give emphasis to verbal communication. They are the arm and head movements used by instructors to add meaning, set moods, gain acceptance of ideas and, in some cases, subtly control an instructional situation. In everyday conversation, two people talking use a wide range of gestures quite naturally. The instructor should continue this process, and develop gestures to add meaning to their communication. Typical baton gestures are:

- a. Pointing;
- b. Hand chopping;
- c. Palm gesture;
- d. Fist clenching; and
- e. Extended hand.

12.18 Pointing. This gesture adds emphasis and focuses attention on specific issues or pieces of equipment. Pointing at individuals should be avoided in most cases as it is an aggressive, demanding gesture that can unsettle people very quickly.



Pointing Gesture

12.19 Hand Chopping. This gesture in which the hand is used in a chopping manner is very effective when a speaker is interested in putting their view across in a definite manner. It gives the impression of decisiveness if an air of uncertainty exists.



Hand Chopping Gesture

12.20 Palm Gestures. Gestures in which the speaker holds the palms of their hands uppermost are most useful for persuading an audience to accept a particular point of view. The same gesture is also useful when asking for participation. By turning the palms towards themselves, a speaker gives the impression of sincerity and this again is useful for persuasion. By reversing these palm positions, a speaker can indicate very clearly to the audience, restraint or rejection.



Figure 17 Submissive palm position

Palm Gesture

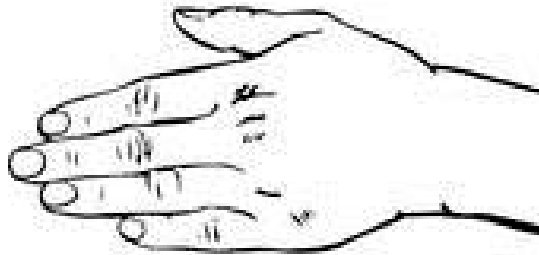
12.21 Fist Clenching. This is a very decisive gesture and indicate very clearly to an audience that the points being made are important and in most cases not to be argued with.



Fist-Clench Gesture

12.22 Extended Hand. Extending hands towards an audience with fingers separated is a particularly useful gesture. It gives the impression of sincerity and a genuine desire to reach out and touch the audience. It is useful for persuasion and negotiation. A variation of this is when the fingers are held together in a hand shake position. This is the appropriate gesture to

use when requesting members of an audience to participate, for example, in answering questions. In both cases the palm of the hand should be held side on for maximum effect.



Extended-Hand Gesture

12.23 Body Gestures. A lot of information is given to an audience by a speaker's body position. If a speaker is erect, giving an impression of alertness and enthusiasm, the audience will be attentive. A lethargic manner causes a lack of interest. This is not meant to imply the speaker should be bolt upright in their manner all the time. This rigid and over formal body position is unnatural and distracts from most delivery styles. Some body gestures are very aggressive and should be avoided. One such gesture is a feet apart stance with the hands resting on the speaker's hips. This position is one that does not entertain any questions or comment by the audience. The speaker is demanding acceptance of the ideas given and there is an implied threat in this very aggressive position.

Movement Variations

12.24 An instructor's movement within the instructional area is important. Excessive and distracting movement should be discouraged; however, if movement is employed with a purpose, it can have a positive effect on student learning. For example, by moving about the instructor can focus student attention on specific areas.

12.25 By moving throughout the area the instructor can guide individual students during practice sessions, show interest in particular students and use movement as reinforcement. Movement should appear natural and an integral part of the instructional process.

12.26 formal presentations, instructors should avoid remaining behind lecterns, desks or benches wherever possible as these create physical barriers between the instructor and the student. In some cases, this is not possible, for example, when using some public address systems. But in normal classroom or field instruction, movement should be employed.

Eye Contact

12.27 When the instructor is talking to students or moving about, they should aim at establishing eye-to-eye contact with them. This is important as it shows the instructor is interested in the individuals they are working with. Eye contact helps keep students alert, and looking at all students on a frequent and regular basis, the instructor is able to receive feedback on how the session is proceeding. For example, the expressions on the faces of the students is often a signal their degree of understanding and interest, or their lack of it. For this reason, the practice of instructors reading from scripts and not looking at students should be

discouraged. Reading scripted material normally means the instructor will remain fixed behind some object such as a desk or lectern. Not only does this prevent eye-to-eye contact, but it does not allow the instructor to fully receive the benefits to be gained from movement and gesture variations.

Humour

12.28 Used correctly, humour can be a great instructional asset. Humour can be used to highlight issues, introduce materials, relieve tension, or, as an ice-breaker with new students. The main consideration is that the humour used should be relevant to the topic or the immediate issue. There are a number of dangers involved in the use of humour. The main one is that the students may not think the subject is funny. This could be because the joke is known to everyone, or the joke offended the group or individuals in it. For this reason, humour should be kind. It should not seek to ridicule or belittle people or their beliefs in any way, shape or form.

12.29 The personal variations in manner and style employed by instructors are important in that they make instruction animated and interesting. Enthusiasm for the subject can be demonstrated by the instructor, but no matter how well the instructor varies their personal style, good instruction is much more than the use of this skill.

Aids and Material

12.30 The use of aids and materials is an important factor in maintaining student attention. Variations in materials are also important to prevent boredom.

12.31 Aids and materials are usually classified accordingly to their primary means of communication. Aids communicating through the senses of sight are called visual aids; those using the senses of hearing are called aural aids, and those using touch are called tactile aids. These are the senses used most in instruction, although the senses of smell and taste used in some special areas.

12.32 Instructors should use a variety of materials within each classification during instruction. Variations in the use of materials add interest and help promote understanding. Whilst variety is desirable, the instructor should be aware that their instruction must not develop into a bewildering display of gimmickry. The aids and materials used should be adequate to allow the student to achieve the training objective.

Interaction

12.33 The final component of the skill of variability concerns variations in the pattern of interaction between the instructor and the student.

12.34 Interaction patterns can vary from instructor dominance to students practicing individually. Variations in the interaction pattern add interest and are often required in one training session when subject matter changes. For example, a lesson may consist of a small lecturing session followed by group discussion on the information given. This may then be followed by a questioning session.

12.35 The use of buzz groups, discussion-trigger items, or varying the complexity of questions, is representative of interaction variations.

12.36 Subject matter will also dictate to a degree the interaction pattern for the instruction.

12.37 In consciously changing the interaction pattern with their students, the instructor will provide a rich and appropriate learning environment for the student.

Principles of Employment

12.38 **Purposeful Employment.** Variations introduced into a training session must be purposeful. It is possible to use too much variety, in which case it becomes a distraction and is counter-productive to the main task of having the student achieve the objectives.

12.39 **Smoothness and Continuity.** It is important that any variations introduced be done with smoothness and continuity. This will ensure the logical flow of the training session is not interrupted and learning is not impeded.

12.40 **Flexibility and Spontaneity.** Whilst it is essential some variations be planned, it is also vital the instructor employ the skill flexibility and spontaneously as the instructional situation requires. Situations requiring variation in style, aids or interaction patterns are largely concerned with student learning rates and their interest and attention. Appropriate use of variability will enable a good instructor to adjust to these situations with ease.

12.41 The skill of variability is probably one of the broadest skills required by an instructor. It has wide application and is limited only by the imagination of the user.

12.42 As with any skill, it requires practice, and care should be taken to encourage individual instructors to use their personality to their fullest potential. Variations should be purposeful, smooth and employed flexibly and spontaneously to be of maximum effect.

SECTION 2 - Reinforcement

General

12.43 In many daily activities, individuals are rewarded for their efforts. These rewards may range from praise for a job well done, or thanks for a helping hand to promotion for sustained effort. These rewards and incentives play an important part in motivating individuals toward a particular course of action.

12.44 Reinforcement theories began in the early part of the twentieth century with the work of Ivan Pavlov in the field of conditioning. The major exponent of modern reinforcement theories is B.F. Skinner.

12.45 Skinner began with the early reinforcement law – ‘the law of effect’. Briefly, this law points out that a response that is rewarded is likely to happen again, while unrewarded responses tend not to be repeated.

12.46 The law of effect has enormous implications for the instructor. It means that by the use of rewards and incentives, instructors can shape student behaviour and encourage more effective learning.

12.47 Many instructors know that they can increase student involvement in their lessons by using encouragement. Frequently, however, instructors fail to develop their potential in this area and encourage only those students who are already doing well.

12.48 Other instructors fall into the pattern of responding to all student answers with a bland ‘correct’ or ‘good’, regardless of whether the answer was brilliant or only fair. Other instructors reward only the exact answers they are looking for. By limiting their use of encouragement in this way, these instructors are not gaining maximum benefit from this important instructional skill – the skill of reinforcement.

12.49 The term ‘reinforcement’ when used in instruction is defined as:

‘The use of incentive to reward desirable behaviours’

12.50 This is a positive approach to reinforcement and is preferred to the negative approach of using punishment and criticism for undesirable behaviour. When criticism is used, students tend to perform only to the level required to avoid criticism. On the other hand, if positive reinforcement is used, students will tend to improve their performance in order to achieve the highest standards possible.

12.51 Reinforcement is not a new idea. It has been a feature of good instruction for centuries, but little has been written on it until recently. This section describes reinforcement, the component of the skill and how to use it.

Objectives of the Skill

12.52 Reinforcement is an easily applied instructional skill that can be used to achieve one or all of the following objectives:

- a. To increase student attention;

- b. To generate and maintain motivation;
- c. To control or modify behaviour and encourage student participation; and
- d. To develop initiative and divergent thinking in students.

12.53 Reinforcement can be applied in most areas of instruction. It can be used to reward:

- a. Student attention to the instructor, peers and objects under discussion;
- b. Student work-output and quality;
- c. Improvement in student work;
- d. Independent student work (development of self-directed and managed work activity);
- e. Answers to questions; and
- f. Student participation in class activities.

Components of the Skill

12.54 **General.** There are a number of distinct components that make up the total skill of reinforcement. Each component can be classified as forming a separate type of reinforcement.

12.55 **Verbal Reinforcement.** Verbal reinforcement is comments of praise and encouragement used to reward student behaviour. These can be of a personal and supportive nature, as well as comments on performance. Verbal reinforcement is either:

- a. Words; or
- b. Sentences.

12.56 Examples of verbal reinforcement words are:

- a. 'Yes';
- b. 'OK';
- c. 'That's right';
- d. 'Fine';
- e. 'Good';
- f. 'Well done';

- g. 'Great'; and
- h. 'Excellent'.

12.57 Examples of verbal reinforcement sentences are:

- a. 'Yes I like that explanation';
- b. 'You should be pleased with that';
- c. 'You're on the right track'; and
- d. 'Let's come back to the point made by CDT Brooks'.

12.58 **Gesture Reinforcement.** Smiles, nods and other actions to reward student behaviour are reinforcement gestures. Quite often instructors will develop personal gestures that become identified by students as rewards. These reinforcement gestures may lead to improved instructor/student interaction as an added benefit. Gestures and verbal reinforcement techniques are closely linked and are frequently used together. Gesture reinforcements are either:

- a. Facial; or
- b. Body.

12.59 Examples of reinforcing facial gestures are:

- a. Smiling;
- b. Raising eyebrows; and
- c. Winking.

12.60 Examples of reinforcing body gestures are:

- a. Nodding;
- b. Raising arms;
- c. Raising head;
- d. Thumbs up; and
- e. 'OK' hand signal.

12.61 **Display Reinforcement.** Results or materials produced by the student when displayed to the rest of the class, is display reinforcement. This form of reinforcement raises student self esteem, and his/her status in the class. Examples of display reinforcement are:

- a. Student work held up as an example;

- b. Using a student to demonstrate their skill to the classroom;
- c. Students results posted on notice board; and
- d. Allowing a student to assist other members of the group.

12.62 Proximity Reinforcement. Instructor attention to display of interest in and physical nearness to students when linked to student performance can be described as proximity reinforcement. Examples of proximity reinforcement are:

- a. Moving towards a student while they are explaining something or answering a question; and
- b. Standing alongside a student or sitting next to the student and showing an interest in their work.

12.63 Token Reinforcement. Any symbolic or physical item presented to the student as a reward for their efforts is classified as token reinforcement. The effectiveness of token reinforcement will vary with the needs and age levels of your students. Examples of token reinforcement are:

- a. Written comments on student workbooks, test papers etc;
- b. Certificates of successful completion of work;
- c. Qualifications gained as a result of work effort; and
- d. Qualification badges as recognition for successful completion of a course.

12.64 Activity Reinforcement. Activity reinforcement occurs when the instructor uses an activity students prefer as a reward for previous work. These activities add to the esteem of the individual and as such are very powerful reinforcement tools. Examples of activity reinforcement are:

- a. Peer instruction;
- b. Self-paced learning when the student has extra free time as a result of hard work; and
- c. Assistance in operating aids and equipment, for example demonstrating the live firing of a rifle.

12.65 The components of reinforcement outlined above then can be used in various ways. They can be applied to the whole group or to individuals.

Modes of Use

12.66 Reinforcement can be applied as either:

- a. Group Reinforcement;

- b. Individual Reinforcement;
- c. Immediate Reinforcement;
- d. Delayed Reinforcement; or
- e. Partial Reinforcement.

12.67 Group Reinforcement. Reinforcement may be applied to the class as a whole, or to groups within the class to reward activity or projects which are carried out as a class or group effort, rather than as individual tasks. Most drill instructors use group reinforcement when rewarding the squad, or rank within the squad, for a well performed movement. Group reinforcement is used when a syndicate produces a solution to a problem, when a section carries out a section attack, when a gun crew works well with the weapon etc.

12.68 Individual Reinforcement. When an activity or task is done on an individual basis, the instructor should reinforce the individual efforts of students. Each student should be reinforced according to the quality of his effort. Techniques like using the student's name are more effective than anonymous, non-specific reinforcement.

12.69 Immediate Reinforcement. Reinforcement should, as a general rule, be applied as soon as possible after the student responds. This provides immediate feedback to the student on their performance and increases the likelihood of further participation.

12.70 Delayed Reinforcement. Delayed reinforcement is generally not as effective as immediate reinforcement; however, if the delay can be 'bridged' by an explanation, then reinforcement may be effective. An effective technique for using delayed reinforcement is when you refer back to a student answer to introduce a new topic or question.

12.71 Partial Reinforcement. This is used when the student performance is not entirely correct. The instructor should encourage the student by reinforcing that part of their performance which is correct, and try to improve their performance to the desired standard. Partial reinforcement is a positive approach, and is related to the principle of avoiding negative reinforcement. It is particularly important to the student who needs to be given confidence in their ability.

12.72 When a student answers a question incorrectly, or carries out a task incorrectly, the instructor should reinforce their attempt at answering or performing the task, and again try to improve their performance to the desired standard.

Principles of Employment

12.73 Using reinforcement is relatively simple and largely common sense. However, there are some factors to be considered. These factors, or principles of employment, are listed below:

- a. Appropriate;
- b. Meaningful; and
- c. Sincere.

12.74 **Appropriate.** Reinforcement can be positive or negative. There is some evidence to suggest that criticism and punishment can be effective in changing motivation, performance and behaviour. However, most researchers would not advocate the use of negative reinforcement because its results are unpredictable. While it may be effective with some individuals, it can produce undesirable effects with others. Accordingly, instructors should avoid the use of ridicule, criticism, derogatory remarks or strong negative gestures. This does not mean they should ignore or falsely praise incorrect answers. If a student is wrong, they should be told and positively reinforced on the part of their answer that was correct, then rewarded for participation if appropriate. Negative reinforcement may be appropriate to discourage undesirable behaviour.

12.75 **Meaningful.** Reinforcement must be in a form that is meaningful to the students. It should be in keeping with the level of achievement and expressed in terms that the students understand. If a student has worked hard and has achieved a good result, the instructor should reinforce this to the level it deserves. A simple nod of the head is probably not enough in this case.

12.76 Continued use of a narrow range of reinforcement on the instructor's part will cause them to become meaningless and ineffective to the students. Instructors should use a variety of reinforcement methods to convey the desired meaning.

12.77 **Sincerity.** Insincere reinforcement will give students little cause for enthusiasm and little pride in their efforts. Praise and rewards need to be given in a genuine and enthusiastic manner.

12.78 Reinforcement is not difficult. Sensible use of the skill will lead to greater student involvement in learning, and a better working relationship between you and your students. Positive reinforcement will tend to improve the standard of your students' performance, and at the same time, make the learning experiences more enjoyable and more satisfying for everyone concerned.

12.79 Reinforcement is probably the most important skill instructors need to master. The components of the skill come easily with practise, but only by the careful application of the principles of employment will the use of the skill be effective.

SECTION 3 – Body Language

Introduction

12.80 Body language: everybody applies it and everybody reads it, albeit unconsciously. The hands, arms, face, virtually every external part of the body, either individually or collectively, transmit non-verbal messages. These messages are received by an individual, interpreted, and acted upon. People send and receive these non-verbal messages all day and everyday, yet the vast majority of them do not consciously realise it is happening.

12.81 It is important that the instructor be aware of body language, to enhance their instruction (application) and as an indicator of how their lesson is progressing (interpretation).

12.82 This section will broadly cover, firstly, the application of body language, and secondly, the interpretation.

Application

12.83 The instructor can use body language to their advantage to promote and enhance the presentation and acceptability of their lesson.

12.84 **Lesson Room Layout.** This is a very important yet often neglected aspect of instruction. Though it is not strictly body language, it does influence the application of it quite dramatically.

12.85 **Scenario.** Old style instruction: the instructor behind a lectern gripping it like there is no tomorrow, a fierce expression on their face, OHP on a table on one side, a table for their aids, vu foils, etc on the other. The whole layout, reminiscent of a defensive line at the Somme, WW1. Most students would be very hesitant in approaching such an instructor, or even looking them in the eye.

12.86 Today the style of instruction has changed to a more open, approachable style. To facilitate this, the classroom layout should be more open, projector and screen in the middle or on one side of the lecture room, and lectern on the other, so the instructor has full and open movement in between. The instructor is encouraged to move around the lecture room and use remote controlled devices. One hand in the pocket is a relaxed approach; two hands in the pocket for an instructor is seen as lazy and unprofessional.

12.87 Obviously there are variations to this layout and they are just as successful; it's really up to the instructor's imagination.

12.88 The lectern (if used) should be angled inward toward the centre of the room, thus making it virtually impossible to get behind it and create a barrier between the instructor and the audience.

12.89 **Barriers.** A barrier is anything that stands between an instructor and their students, whether it is physical or non-physical. Physical barriers can be lecterns, tables, etc whilst non physical can be instructor attitudes, student attitudes, etc. A barrier serves to hinder, or in the worst case, to prevent one of the most important aspects of instruction; that is interaction between instructor and students.

12.90 Students' desks can be classed as barriers but are one of the few which are helpful to the instructor. Firstly, they are used as a hard backing for the student to write notes and place their material on, but they have another just as important, yet less recognised use. The desk is part of the student's area; it is their barrier they use against the instructor. Immediately after sitting down, the student feels more comfortable as they have something between themselves and the instructor. Because the student feels comfortable they are more likely to respond to the instructor.

12.91 Some lecture rooms have small stages in the instructional area, i.e. the area the instructor uses. Their primary use, contrary to popular belief, was to increase the instructor's height above that of the students. This increased the instructor's authority, but unfortunately detracted from interaction. The more authoritative an instructor is, the less likely it is that the student will interact with them. It is recognised that an authoritative approach is necessary on occasions, but this should be achievable without the use of a stage and rather, by skilled use of body language and the ability of the instructors themselves.

12.92 There are other factors that influence the layout of the lecture room, the area available, students being in a position to see, aids, etc, but if this layout is haphazard, the freedom on the instructor, their movement and their application of body language will be seriously hindered.

12.93 **The Face.** The face is a very accurate indicator of an instructor's confidence and how they feel about the lesson. Beads of sweat on the brow, constant licking of lips because of dryness, and twitching of facial muscles can all be interpreted as indicators of nervousness. Granted, some instructors have natural afflictions but a student seeing these and other indicators, may conclude that the instructor is nervous or less than confident. Natural friendly expressions are encouraged with emphasis on eye contact. When they are talking to a student they should look toward the facial area. If the instructor is listening to a student-question or answer, again, they should look at the student. Inattentiveness on the instructor's part may demoralise students and as a consequence their participation may lessen.

12.94 An instructor should avoid 'playing' with their mouth, moustache, ear, eye etc, as they may indicate that they are less than sure about what they are saying. Although this is not always 100% true, the student, if they interpret the behaviour as such, will not be convinced with the lesson and will be less likely to participate.

12.95 **Arms and Hands.** An instructor's use of arms etc can range from the 'David Bellamy' type, to those who don't move at all. A balance should be struck between the two, with the emphasis on being natural. The hands and arms can be used to emphasise aspects of the lesson, control students, point, urge students and a host of other things.

12.96 The arms can also be a disadvantage. Having them across the chest region for a lengthy period can be seen as an attempt to place a barrier between the instructor and student, i.e. 'a comforter'. Instructors should also avoid placing both hands in their pockets at once as this lessens their ability to communicate non-verbally.

12.97 Clenched fist (heavy emphasis, aggression), open hands, palm up (sincerity), open or spread fingers (inoffensive), should all be known and used by the instructor to enhance their lesson. The arms and hands are powerful instruments to use when communicating non-verbally.

12.98 **Stances.** The preferred and recommended stance for the instructor is having legs slightly apart, the arms being used for non-verbal communications, the body and head upright. This will give the impression of alertness and subject interest.

12.99 Slouching and leaning against walls are not recommended as this gives the impression of disinterest and tiredness that the students may copy. If an instructor, especially when asking a question or listening to an answer, adopts a stance with their head cocked to one side, torso angled slightly, legs spread relatively wide, or hands on hips, they will be seen to be aggressive and/or arrogant which will less than impress the student. Once again the stance an instructor adopts should be above all else natural and non-intimidating.

12.100 **Movement.** Movement to body language is icing to a cake and gives the instructor more flexibility and scope to project themselves. Full use must be made of the instructional area; the instructor can walk from one position to another so as to be out in front of the students without barriers; using body language and speaking with confidence. Movement also releases tension within the instructor. When they are moving, they are thinking; collecting themselves. When they become stationary they are ready to speak again, clearly and with conviction.

12.101 Movement should not be used to excess. If it is, then the instructor will be continually on the move and this could become a distraction and a source of annoyance to the students. Rehearsals will be of benefit to the inexperienced.

12.102 **Personal Space.** Every person has an invisible area around them called their personal space. This is the area that is the individual's, the size of which varies between individuals, races and so on. An instructor should not invade that space unless the student indicates either verbally or non-verbally that they can. Most people have had another person looking over their shoulder whilst reading the paper or a book; the feeling is one of being uncomfortable. That is due primarily to the offending person being in the other's personal space.

12.103 Personal-space invasion can be used quite effectively for control purposes. When emphasising an aspect to a student or gaining control of a heated discussion, whilst still speaking, the instructor moves slowly toward, the person involved. This will invade their space, forcing them to move backwards as they attempt to re establish their personal space; hence the expression; 'having a person on the back foot'.

12.104 **Office Layout.** An instructor is not only expected to perform in the lecture room, among other things, they will also be required to talk to the students in their office.

12.105 Instructors should make themselves approachable even in their own environment: their office. The desk should be in such a position that when a student comes to the door it is not between them. This gives an impression of openness and approachability; if this is the case then a student with a problem is more likely to approach the instructor for help.

12.106 Obviously, at times, there will be a need for a disciplinary session and a quick rearrangement of desk position will be all that is needed. Like lecture-room layout, office layout has a large influence on the instructor's application of body language.

12.107 Body language is a powerful tool in the hands of the instructor. As has been stated, everyone uses it; the key is making them aware of it so as to enable them to develop it to

their advantage. Instructors who are aware of, and become proficient in the use of body language, will be able to develop the delivery of their lessons dramatically, thus benefiting the student.

Interpretation

12.108 An instructor should not only be able to apply body language but should also be able to interpret it. A student's body language is an accurate indicator as to how they are reacting to the instructor's lesson. Students looking away, drawing on paper or propping eyelids open with matchsticks can lead to their not achieving the objective.

12.109 **Posture.** The way a student sits in their chair can be an interesting indicator. If they are upright, leaning slightly forward with arms resting lightly on the desk, they are most probably interested, even waiting in anticipation for what the instructor is to deliver next.

12.110 If the student is leaning well forward over the desk, chin resting on their hand, the instructor may need to look at their method of presentation.

12.111 There are lessons that are not very interesting, content wise; however it is up to the instructor to make the lesson interesting for the student. One works for the other; if the instructor is interesting, the lesson will be interesting; if the lesson is interesting this will increase the student instructor interaction, which in turn will increase learning – a chain reaction of positives.

12.112 If the students are leaning back, hands behind heads, the instructor will have a hard job teaching them. This is normally an indicator of an unwillingness to participate, or that they are less than convinced with the instructor's lesson.

12.113 Most indicators or non-verbal messages given by students are easily recognised; the problem is that the instructor must want to recognise them. Some prefer to ignore the obvious because they want to finish their lesson and 'escape'. Instructors must be alert to all non-verbal messages, so that they can, if necessary, change the presentation of the lesson. You as an instructor need to be prepared to change to suit your students and assist in learning.

12.114 There are specialist books written by various authors which will aid the instructor in all aspects of body language. It is important that instructors make themselves aware of the application and interpretation of body language. It all serves to aid the student and this is a responsibility of an instructor: to provide student-oriented instruction.

12.115 An instructor however cannot be expected to be proficient and confident in the application and interpretation of body language immediately; it takes a great deal of rehearsal with another instructor watching and coaching. The reward for practice will be very noticeable; a confident, interesting and above all, effective instructor.

SECTION 4 – Introduction and Closure Techniques

Introduction

12.116 Generally if a task or lesson is seen to be worthwhile, interesting and job related, motivation is likely to be retained throughout the task. Therefore an instructor when giving their introduction is trying to motivate the student by stressing the key factors mentioned above. If this is achieved it is likely that the student will learn a lot quicker.

Introduction Techniques

12.117 **Gaining Attention.** Some variation in the instructor's activity will gain attention and thus arouse the students. Examples are:

- a. The instructor moving into a central or obvious start position; and
- b. Verbal cues such as 'right', 'ok now' etc, at the beginning of a session or when regaining attention after a discussion or reading session.

12.118 **Use of Aids and Material.** The attention of students can be gained by the use of various types of aids and materials. Examples are:

- a. Varying sound levels. Techniques like turning down background sound levels will alert students to the fact that something is about to happen; and
- b. Any variation in the type or colour of aids gets the student's attention.

12.119 **Varying Interaction.** By switching to various interaction styles, the instructor can gain or regain attention. Examples are:

- a. Starting a question sequence; and
- b. Moving from a film to a discussion with, 'OK, let's discuss what we have just seen'.

12.120 Arouses motivation by:

- a. Warmth and enthusiasm (voice);
- b. Arousing curiosity. By making an individual curious, instructors motivate students to find an answer or solution; and
- c. Appealing to interests. It is possible to create needs in individuals by appealing to their interests. By an appeal to individuals to become better in their interest area, the instructor can create strong needs. The skill here is to determine what the individuals' needs are.

12.121 Structuring the lesson by:

- a. Setting limits upon the student and giving them the purpose for the task: why they are doing it;
- b. Suggesting ways for them to proceed with the task; and
- c. Raising questions before you present the lesson or task.

12.122 Links with:

- a. What the student is familiar with;
- b. Previous experiences or lessons; and
- c. The current interests of the student.

Closure Techniques

12.123 Closure is defined as reviewing the achievement of a task or lesson so that it becomes integrated with the student's previous experience. The instructor should review the completed task for the student, ensuring it is more than a summary of main points. The review should not only cover the main points, but concentrate on the relationship with other elements or lessons. Closure should provide the learner with a consolidated review of the task, and fit the task into a performance oriented framework. This is done by reviewing the material, covering the initial motivation methods, drawing the learner's attention back to why the task was important, and to where the knowledge can be applied.

12.124 **Evaluation.** There are various menus whereby you, as the instructor, can evaluate:

- a. Students' use of the new skills;
- b. Students' application of new ideas; and
- c. Students' expression of opinions.

SECTION 5 – Motivation Theory

Introduction

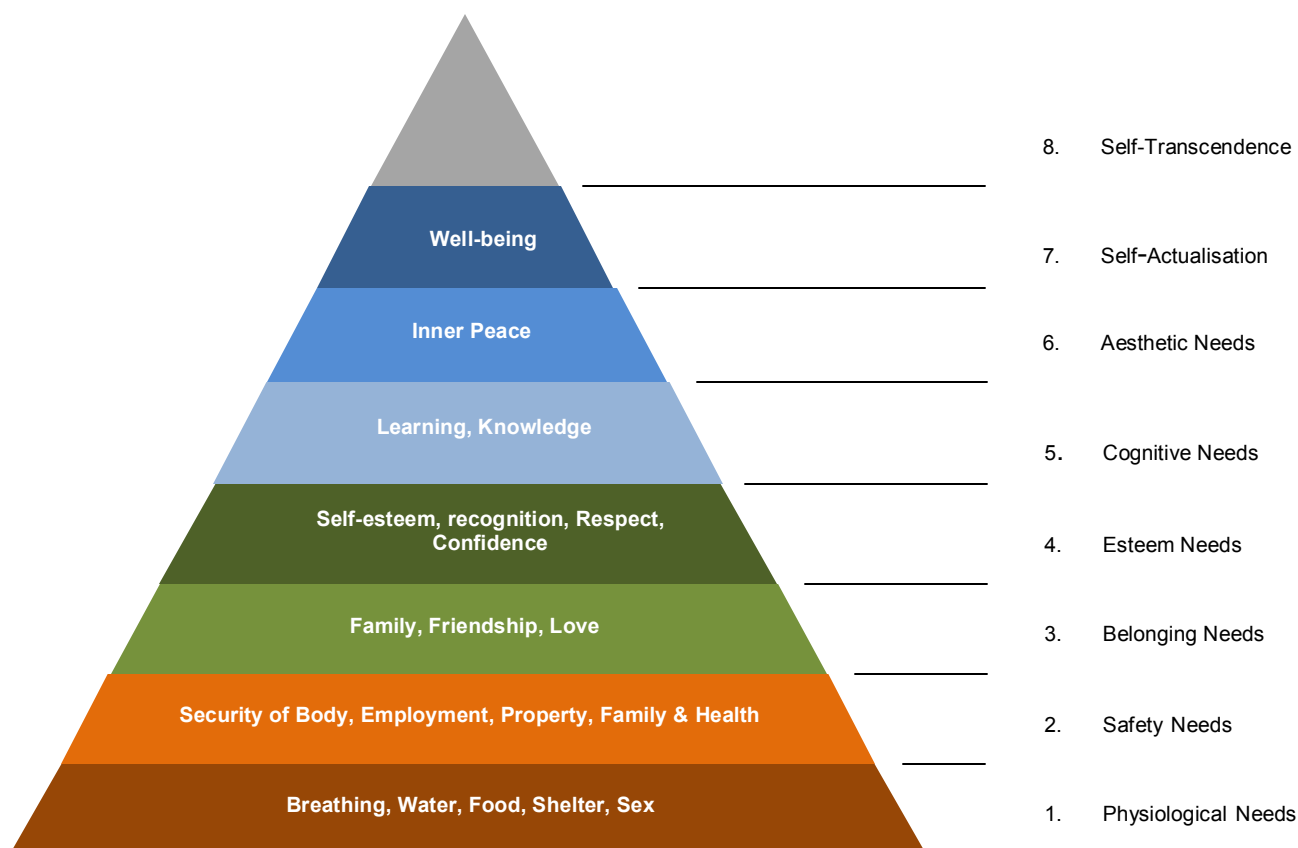
12.125 For years people have studied human behaviour and have offered hundreds of explanations concerning human nature and instincts and how they affect people's actions. All behaviourists agree there are certain factors, elements or needs which cause people to behave in certain ways and to do certain things.

12.126 The term motivation is most frequently used in conjunction with behaviour. Therefore, before we can come to grips with the term motivation, we need to consider human behaviour and the reasons behind this behaviour. Abraham Maslow proposed a theory that human needs were arranged in a hierarchical order.

Hierarchy of Needs

12.127 The theory contends that as humans meet 'basic needs', they seek to satisfy successively 'higher needs' that occupy a set hierarchy. This was referred to as 'Maslow's hierarchy of needs': These needs are identified in two groups:

- a. Basic Needs:
 - (1) Physiological
 - (2) Safety
 - (3) Belonging
 - (4) Esteem
- b. Meta Needs:
 - (1) Cognitive
 - (2) Aesthetic
 - (3) Self-actualisation
 - (4) Self-transcendence



12.128 Physiological Needs. These are food, drink, warmth, shelter, sleep and clothing etc. The basic fundamentals of survival. Note: There is a hierarchy within each need for example: if a person is starving, they will risk personal safety in order to obtain food.

12.129 Safety Needs. This is the need to preserve a person's future through steady employment (money) and good health (injury free) and the survival of people close to them.

12.130 Belonging (Social) Needs. This is a requirement to be loved and belong, to a family, group or club (to be socially acceptable). Note: It has been proven that peer pressure (social need) can overcome the physiological and security needs, for example: an anorexic person will forgo the need to eat in order to feel 'belonging'.

12.131 Esteem Needs. There are two levels of esteem needs: lower and higher. Lower requires the need for the respect of others, status, recognition and reputation. The higher need involves the need for self-respect, feelings of confidence, achievement, mastery and independence. Note: Self-respect is the higher form, because unlike respect of others, once you have self-respect it is a lot harder to lose.

12.132 Cognitive Needs. This is the need to learn for learning sake, the contribution of knowledge.

12.133 Aesthetic Needs. This need is established once a person is at 'peace' with themselves; they need to understand the inner workings of those people around them.

12.134 Self-actualisation. Is recognised as the state of self-fulfilment; having reached 'one's' potential. A state of well-being.

12.135 **Self-transcendence.** This is the ability to connect beyond personal ego to help others find their own self-fulfilment and their potential.

Human Needs

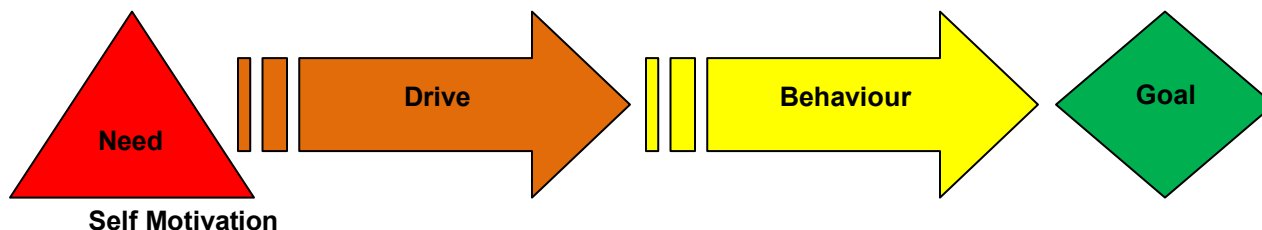
12.136 Humans require that their needs be satisfied; whatever the event is that satisfies that need can be termed a 'GOAL', i.e. food, family group, knowledge etc. Between the need and the GOAL is the human BEHAVIOUR which is what the person does to achieve this goal.



12.137 Human needs give rise to a behaviour which is directed towards the achievement of the goal that will satisfy the needs.

12.138 Needs may be different, or more importantly, they may vary in intensity. A strong need for one person may be a weak need for another. Consequently the strength of our behaviours will be different, i.e. a person may strive hard to achieve a goal, while another may not try very hard at all. This is the area of motivation.

12.139 The term 'motivation' refers to the driving force which directs human behaviour.



12.140 Instructors are concerned with motivating students to learn. It is their job to make the goals or objectives important and obvious to the students. By making the objectives desirable a need is created within the student. That is, the student **wants** to achieve the objective and this in turn creates a strong drive towards achieving them.

12.141 Instructors in the short term need to provide motivation for their students. The true challenge is to be able to create an environment in which your students will become self motivated in the long term.

Types of Motivation

12.142 Basically there are two forms of motivation:

- a. Intrinsic; and
- b. Extrinsic.

12.143 **Intrinsic Motivation.** This is motivation which arises from within the individual. Because learning provides its own rewards, the fulfilment need is probably the most important originator of intrinsic motivation. A student who wants to learn is naturally self-

motivated and will work with little supervision; they will seek answers to questions and will delve into problems that confront them.

12.144 Extrinsic Motivation. This is motivation provided by the instructor, school or class etc. and includes such things as grades, early stand downs, additional money, and promotion. These are extrinsic motivators. For this reason some students learn not for the sake of learning itself (intrinsic) but to satisfy needs such as promotion, passing a course or reaching a higher pay level (extrinsic).

12.145 Instructors should use a combination of both forms of motivation to assist students to achieve the course objectives.

Motivators and Satisfiers

12.146 A theory on this subject is called 'The Motivation/ Hygiene Factors Theory'. Professor Frederick Herzberg arrived at the term 'hygiene' by linking these factors to a rubbish tin in a factory; the bin needs to be emptied whenever it becomes full. The regular emptying of the bin will not motivate the workers in the factory, but if it is not emptied it will cause the workers to become dissatisfied. The emptying of the bin will not motivate them to produce more; however, if it is not emptied the dissatisfaction will result in less productivity.

12.147 Job Environment. The first part of the Motivation/Hygiene Factors involves the job environment, which is composed of hygiene factors such as:

- a. School/Unit policy and Administration;
- b. Technical Supervision;
- c. Interpersonal Relationships; and
- d. Environmental Conditions.

12.148 All the hygiene factors are based on basic human needs. The needs are short term and having been satisfied they will require satisfying again in the near future. They correspond to Maslow's lower level needs. The theory suggests that no matter how good wages, working conditions or relationships are, if all these needs were completely satisfied, the process would not motivate individuals to work more diligently, but would merely prevent dissatisfaction. What then motivates the individual?

12.149 Herzberg. Herzberg's motivators are concerned with the job itself and include such factors as:

- a. Achievement;
- b. Recognition of achievement;
- c. Job satisfaction;
- d. Responsibility; and

- e. Advancement.

12.150 These factors result from internal generators in people, giving motivation rather than movement. Achievement and the recognition of achievement are the two most powerful motivators available to instructors.

12.151 Motivation comes from an internal stimulus, resulting not from the way a person is treated, but the way they are used. It results from the job content, not the job environment. Thus it is necessary to 'enrich' each job to provide responsibility, opportunity for achievement and recognition for achievement. These are the internal motivators which ensure a high level performance of the job.

Theory X and Theory Y

12.152 Professor Douglas McGregor carried out a survey on management in America and found that instructors appealed to either the lower or higher level needs of students, depending on how they saw their needs. For example, if an instructor thought that everyone in the group was concerned about pay, job security, etc. they would appeal to their lower level needs. If they thought most were concerned about higher level needs they would appeal to their social esteem needs.

12.153 To illustrate his ideas, McGregor listed two extreme ways you could think about people. He called them Theory X and Theory Y. As an instructor, if you appealed to your students through their lower level needs, you would believe the following about them:

12.154 Theory X:

- a. The average human being dislikes work and will avoid it if they can do so;
- b. Because people dislike work, they have to be coerced, directed or made to work by threat of punishment in order to get them to do what is needed; and
- c. The average person would rather be told what to do, wants to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition and above all wants security

12.155 **Theory Y.** At the other extreme is the instructor who appeals to students through their higher level needs. In contrast to Theory X above, this instructor believes the following:

- a. It is as natural for people to exert themselves physically at work as it is natural for them to play and rest;
- b. The threat of punishment and external controls are not the only ways to get students to do what is needed by the organisation. A man will exercise self-direction and self-control to achieve objectives he believes in and wants to achieve;
- c. The degree to which students are committed to objectives depends on the rewards associated with achieving them;

- d. The average student under proper conditions will not only accept responsibility; they will also seek it;
- e. Using imagination and creativity to solve problems is not something that just a few people can do; most people have that ability; and
- f. Most students' mental capacities are only partially used in instruction.

12.156 Theory X and Theory Y are two extreme positions and very few instructors will exactly fit either one or the other mould. Instead of trying to motivate their students by using either Theory X or Theory Y by itself, they will probably take a middle approach but will lean in the direction of one or the other.

12.157 In other words, they will use some of the ideas from both theories, but they will emphasise one approach (one theory) to instruction more than they will the other. The question is what type of instructor motivates students best? Do students respond best to the instructor who leans in the direction of Theory X or the one who leans in the direction of Theory Y?

12.158 **Instructor – Theory X.** Instructors who lean towards Theory X and try to motivate using the Theory X approach may be letting themselves in for trouble. They think strict control and supervision is necessary and believe the best way to motivate is through discipline and the exercise of authority: appealing to lower-level needs. This may be the case in some situations but it rarely holds true in today's society.

12.159 **Instructor – Theory Y.** Instructors who motivate using the Theory Y approach hold their students in a much higher regard. Their students trust them and believe that they will do what is necessary to get the job done with efficiency and dispatch. They don't think they have to stand over the students to get them to work. Given the proper conditions and understanding they think students will respond to the type of treatment that appeals to their higher-level needs.

12.160 Most instructors agree that Theory Y has much to offer and most of the evidence indicates that the greatest good will be accomplished using this approach. Thus, to be a better instructor, you should lean in the direction of Theory Y. It's not a magic answer, but leaning toward the Theory Y approach will probably give the best in quality and performance that could reasonably be expected in the long run.

12.161 From what has been said, you can see that there is not a single 'how-to-do-it' approach to motivation. People are much too complex to have some formula applied across the board. Instead, instructors are advised to study, talk with and know their students. Only by taking this approach can the proper atmosphere be generated for the most positive motivation.

Formula for motivating Students

12.162 There are no magic formulas, short cuts or gimmicks for securing student cooperation and motivating them towards work. One of the best approaches for getting students to work within the instructional setting is to employ the following:

- a. Treat students as individuals;

- b. Be sincere with praise;
- c. Promote participation;
- d. Make the instruction interesting;
- e. Promote cooperation and team work;
- f. Provide job-related instruction;
- g. Utilise the students' need to achieve; and
- h. Reinforce student activity and participation.

12.163 As instructors, be aware of those things which both satisfy and frustrate your students; you can then ensure the best possible atmosphere for learning.

12.164 You must provide meaningful and interesting instruction to ensure sufficient stimuli for motivation. The materials used to aid instruction must be regulated according to the level of the students, changed frequently to sustain interest and finally must be clearly connected with the current instruction. Changing of materials for the sake of change is not enough.

12.165 Incentives ordinarily adopted by instructors include reward and punishment; success and failure; praise and correcting; and knowledge of results. As instructors, you must understand the artificial nature of incentives and utilise them only as they relate to the unique needs of the students, otherwise, they will frustrate rather than aid. The essence of an incentive is to link the students' drive towards the training objective by making it meaningful to the students.

SECTION 6 – Instructor Self Assessment

Introduction

12.166 Instructors should always be assessing their personal performance and the effectiveness of their instructional content. The performance of the students provides the measure of whether they have acquired the knowledge or skills detailed in the training objective. If they fail to do that, then instruction has been inadequate.

12.167 This section provides a guide for instructors on how to assess their own effectiveness as instructors and the effectiveness of instructional content.

Instructor-Skills Problems

12.168 The identification of problems in instructor skills is undertaken by a process of elimination. The start point is the test results of the students after instruction. If the results of certain individuals are unexpectedly poor, or the whole group does poorly, there can only be a certain number of explanations for this situation:

Ser	Observation	Possible Causes
1	Unexpectedly poor individual results	Poor test design Lack of study Lack of ability Lack of motivation Learning anxiety Poor state of health Fatigue Poor instruction
2	Unexpectedly poor group results	Poor test design Lack of study Lack of entry standard for the lesson Lack of motivation Fatigue Physical environment of the lesson and test Poor instruction

Table 1: Factors Affecting Test Results.

12.169 Table 1 listed possible causes of unexpectedly poor individual and group results in a test of objective.

12.170 If, after eliminating all other possible causes, the only two that are left are lack of motivation and poor instruction, this indicates there are probably instructor skill problems.

Action Required

12.171 If instructors can quickly identify their weaknesses, they can take action by:

- a. Conducting more detailed rehearsals;

- b. Using videotape replays to identify and solve specific problems; and
- c. Seeking assessment by another instructor.

12.172 Sometimes, instructors are not really sure whether the problem is with their own instructor skills or the actual instructional content and aids used in instruction. In this case, the action required is assessment by another instructor. This assessment either identifies instructor-skill problems or leads to further examination of the instructional content, training aids and test of objective.

Instructional-Content Problems

12.173 The identification of problems with instructional content can be undertaken by a process of elimination. The first step is to eliminate all other causes of poor student performance. The next step is to identify the specific content problem.

12.174 The three areas where instructional content can be faulty are:

- a. Test of objective;
- b. Complexity of stages; and
- c. Training Aids.

12.175 **Test of Objective.** If the actual test of objective is faulty, student results will probably be poor. The key to knowing whether the test of objective is valid, reliable and consistent is to match up the test of objective and the training objective. If there are significant differences, the test of objective should be redesigned.

12.176 **Complexity of Stages.** Each teaching stage of the period of instruction should be examined in detail. If there are any more than five ideas, five mental steps or five physical actions, the stage could be too complex. Research shows that students can only process up to five separate ideas or actions on one teaching stage. If the instructor has confirmed each stage properly, its complexity should have been obvious. Sometimes, further practice will assist the process of learning.

12.177 **Training Aids.** Each training aid should be examined to find out if it is relevant, can be seen and understood and contributes to student learning. For example, common faults in the use of projector media slides/overhead transparencies are that they cannot be read by students, contain far too much detail or are taken away before students have absorbed their contents.

CHAPTER 13 – Course Report Writing

SECTION 1 – Writing Individual Student Course Reports

Introduction

13.1 A course report is a concise summary of a student's performance on a course, or phase of a course. This is an important document as it provides a window into how the student performed on the course, as such this is a vital tool for Unit Commander's. Because of this, care must be taken when writing course reports; it must be an accurate, clear and concise reflection of the student's performance.

Sections of the Course Report

13.2 The course report is made up of the following sections:

- a. Section One – Students Details;
- b. Section Two – Course Details;
- c. Section Three – General Comments;
- d. Section Four – Performance.

Principles of Reporting

13.3 Reporting requires a systematic and careful approach. The following principles are crucial:

- a. Reporting should be progressive. As each terminal is completed, the results should be collected, observations and feedback points noted. Making notes at this point of the course is more accurate and valid, than if they are only written upon reflection at the end of the course.
- b. One person should set the style of the reports, this person should be experienced in report writing (It is to be noted that the Course Director is not necessarily the more experienced person). This provides consistency throughout the report in terms of the style of comments.

Collection of Data

13.4 The following is suggested:

- a. At the completion of each terminal test, the assessor advises each student of their strengths and weaknesses as per the feedback process. The student is given a competent or not yet competent result.
- b. Following this, the result, comments and feedback points are noted by staff.
- c. Throughout the week the Course Director should chair a meeting with all instructors to discuss each student's performance and to compile/collate observations made on each student. Nearing the end of the course these notes can be used to formulate the course report comments. This ensures that the comments are an accurate reflection of the week and can be justified by directly linking back to the observed behaviours.

The Report

13.5 Course reports consist of four components;

- a. Statement of Achievement;
- b. Performance Based Comment;
- c. Attitudes and Observations;
- d. Recommendation

Statement of Achievement

13.6 This is a generic comment of achievement that appears on all course reports.

- a. CDTCPL Davidson has successfully completed the 01/15 Southern Area Senior NCO Course.
- b. PLTOFF Edwards has successfully completed the 02/15 NZCF Officers' Command Course.
- c. CDTLCPL Fox has not yet qualified on the 03/15 Northern Area Junior NCO Course.
- d. SLT Gardiner has not yet qualified on the 04/15 NZCF Officers' Instructional Technique and Training Management Course.
- e. LCDT Harris did not complete all terminal objectives of the 05/15 Central Area Senior NCO Course and will require reassessment at Unit level on Instructional Technique.
- f. CAPT Inglewood has partially qualified on the 06/15 NZCF Officers' Instructional Technique and Training Management Course and will require reassessment at Unit level on 7096 delivering a learning session.

Performance Based Comment

13.7 This is a word picture of the performance in relation to the course aim. Each comment should link directly to observations this acts as a justification for the comments made. This should also include a point for improvement and/or development; this point should be based on the performance observations stated above it.

- a. 2LT Jacobs delivered learning sessions confidently and incorporated feedback from staff when developing learning session plans. In order to continue her development as an instructor it is suggested that she actively seek feedback and coaching from other experienced instructors.
- b. ENS Killick actively sought and took on board feedback from staff and peers, which resulted in him competently completing NZCF risk management forms. It is encouraged that ENS Killick continue to seek coaching on his risk analysis in order to further grow his skills in this area.
- c. CDTCPL Lemon worked at a level beyond that expected of a Junior NCO, she integrated suggestions from staff into her leadership approach and is a highly capable, competent and confident leader. CDTCPL Lemon would benefit from further leadership experience in order to consolidate her skillset.
- d. CPOCDT McMillan appeared to struggle with map to ground navigation and had difficulty identifying terrain features. This prevented him from locating himself on the map with sufficient accuracy. Further training in contour line interpretation will assist CPOCDT McMillan to develop his navigational skills.

Attitudes and Observations

13.8 Comments are on the attitude of the student and any other observations outside the prescribed standards of any objective on the course. This must be factual and justified by specific observations noted whilst on the course. It is important to ensure previous knowledge or experience with a student does not bias these comments.

- a. LT Nelson worked well in a small group format, assisting her team members to complete their workbooks. She would benefit from participating more openly during class discussions, where she could both share her own knowledge and draw from the experiences of those around her.
- b. FLTLT O'Connor was not afraid to challenge ideas and was constantly looking for pragmatic applications for the concepts offered. This empowered him to further his own knowledge and understanding.
- c. LACDT Phillips took on a leadership role within both his syndicate and in the barracks, making him an example for the other cadets.
- d. CDT Quinn epitomizes the values of the NZCF; Respect, Integrity, Loyalty and Discipline. For this reason CDT Quinn received the Leadership award on the 07/15 Northern Area Junior NCO Course.

Recommendations

13.9 This is a statement which summarises how the student could be employed according to the skills they have displayed. It may include recommendations for further training, recommendations for specific positions, or guidance that may be required to assist the student in the recommended role.

- a. MAJ Round is recommended for employment in a Unit Training role.
 - (1) MAJ Round is recommended for employment in a Unit Training role, with a view to staffing NZCF Cadet courses.
 - (2) MAJ Round is recommended for employment in a Unit administrative role, with mentoring.
- b. FGOFF Sutton is recommended for employment on NZCF Cadet Courses.
 - (1) FGOFF Sutton is recommended for employment on NZCF Courses. [denotes Cadet and Officer]
 - (2) FGOFF Sutton is recommended for employment on NZCF Cadet Courses, with a view to staffing the [name] course.
 - I. Instructional technique and training management course can make recommendations for all levels of courses, and may specifically mention cadet, officer and the Instructional Technique and Training Management Course.
 - II. Other officer courses can make recommendations based on content taught, as such unit positions. [Staff may be recommended for use on cadet courses, and that particular course only, for example someone passing the Commissioning Course, can be recommended to staff that particular course.
- c. CDTF/S Tulley is recommended for promotion at Unit Commander's discretion.

- d. CDTSSGT Ulster will require further training and reassessment in [FIELD], prior to being recommended for promotion;
 - (1) CDTSSGT Ulster is recommended for promotion under mentoring, at the Unit Commander's discretion.
- e. LT Vincent is encouraged to attend the Instructional Technique and Training Management course prior to staffing further NZCF Cadet Courses. [this would be a recommendation on a staff course report]
 - (1) LT Vincent is recommended to gain further instructional experience before staffing further NZCF Cadet Courses.
 - (2) LT Vincent is recommended to gain further instructional experience before staffing further NZCF Officer Courses.
 - (3) LT Vincent is recommended to gain further instructional experience before staffing further NZCF Courses.
- f. ENS Williams is recommended to continue staffing NZCF Cadet Courses.
 - (1) ENS Williams is recommended to continue staffing NZCF Cadet and Officer Courses.
 - (2) ENS Williams is recommended to continue staffing NZCF Cadet Courses. ENS Williams has demonstrated the skills required to be considered for the Director role.

Performance – Back Page Comments

13.10 Generally these are comments on the performance of a particular skill;

- a. **Q – Qualified;** Student has achieved the required standard
- b. **NQ - Not Qualified;** the student has not yet achieved the required standard.

13.11 The following are examples for design of back page comments:

- a. **Instructional Technique.** CDTSGT Adams was acutely aware of his student's needs and comfort; this assisted him to achieve his session objective.
- b. **Risk Management.** UO Baxter employed critical thought processes when considering risk. This enabled him to competently complete NZCF Risk Management forms.
- c. **Leadership.** ABCDT Collins demonstrated a sound understanding of the GSMEAC process. She delivered a briefing that exceeded the standards required of a Junior NCO.

General Points

13.12 As a rule in general, all comments are written in the third person. Start the paragraph using their name, subsequently use he/she. This helps ensure the report flows. [see the example report]

- a. POCDT displayed etc; and
- b. He experienced etc.

13.13 When structuring either front page or back page comments, the following rules should apply:

- a. Read over reports once written;

- b. Check for spelling and grammatical errors.
- c. Ensure all detail is based on fact;
- d. Ensure the report is accurate and constructive;
- e. Do not include bias or assumptions in any way or form. All comments made on an individual course report are to be based on observed performance/actions.

Sighting and Signing

13.14 Following the signing of the report by the required signatories (Course Director and Syndicate Leader), the student is to be shown his/her course report and asked to sign it. The student is not signing the course report as an indication of their consent, but rather as proof of having sighted the report.

13.15 Two copies of the report are to be available for sighting and signing. One copy is to be retained by the student and one processed through administrative channels by the Course Director.

13.16 Students and the Course Director are to both initial each page of the reports to ensure that reports being submitted are the same as the reports presented on course.

13.17 Should the student disagree over the reports content, they should be advised that this matter is best handled using the chain of command;

- a. **Cadet Courses** – This is to be done through consultation with the report author, if no consensus is reached then it is to be done through the chain of command beginning with the Cadet Unit Commander.
- b. **Officer Courses** – This is to be done through consultation with the Course Director, if no consensus is reached then a complaint may be made through the chain of command beginning with the Unit Commander. [In the instance that the report is for a Unit Commander. They may take action through their Area Support Officer]
- c. **Staff reports** – Staff may make comment on their report. This is to be done through consultation with the Course Director, if no consensus is reached then the matter may be mediated by the course manager or commander. Further than this a complaint may be made through the Unit Commander. [In the instance that the report is for a Unit Commander. They may take action through their Area Support Officer]

Examples

- 1. Example Course Report
- 2. Words that may be helpful

**NEW ZEALAND CADET FORCES
STUDENT COURSE REPORT**

Insert Photo

SECTION 1 – STUDENTS DETAILS

Rank	Initials and Surname	Corps	Cadet Unit
CDTCPL	X.Y. Zhao	NZCC	YCU

SECTION 2 – COURSE DETAILS

Area Conducting Course / Location	Course Title	Ser No	Dates
SA / Burnham Military Camp	Senior NCO	06/18	08 – 15 Aug 18

Course Aim:	To provide selected NZCF Cadets with the knowledge and skills necessary to undertake the roles of NZCF Senior NCO in a Cadet Unit.
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Qualification:	Qualified	Effective Date:	15 Aug 18
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SECTION 3 – GENERAL COMMENTS

Personal Qualities:

May include comments on course related strengths and weaknesses displayed by the student and on observed, course related, dress and bearing and behaviour. Recommendations for future employment may also be made.

General Comments:

CDTCPL Zhao has successfully completed the Southern Area Senior NCO 06/18 Course.

CDTCPL Zhao delivered a confident and competent lesson, using a variety of training aids and student activities. He employed effective questioning technique, using questions to both develop teaching points and to assess student understanding. CDTCPL Zhao appeared task focussed throughout his leadership assessment. He must ensure that he remains aware of his team needs at all times.

CDTCPL Zhao demonstrated a strong work ethic, and worked diligently to improve himself and meet the standards required of the course. He was considered for the course Endeavour award, as he actively sought out advice and worked with the stronger members of his team to improve himself.

CDTCPL Zhao is recommended for promotion at Unit Commander's discretion.

Rank / Name: SLT I.M. Keen, NZCF Signature: _____ Date: 15 Aug 18
Syndicate Leader

Rank / Name: MAJ D.A. Boss, NZCF Signature: _____ Date: 15 Aug 18
Course Director

Seen by Student: _____ Signature: _____ Date: 15 Aug 18

CM Initials: _____ Student Initials: _____

SECTION 4 – PERFORMANCE

Ser	Performance Statement	Trg Level	C/ NYC	Remarks
	Conduct Leadership			
1.1	NZCF Ethos & Values	1	C	CDTCPL Zhao was quick to adopt and utilise the structure for GSMEAC briefings. With further exposure to this at unit level he will continue to build on gains made during the course.
1.2	List the Responsibilities & Duties of a Senior NCO	1	C	
1.3	Define Functional Leadership	1	C	
1.4	Use GSMEAC as a Tool for Receiving & Delivering a Set of Orders	2	C	
1.5	Demonstrate Leadership by Leading a Group to Complete a Task	2	C	
	Instructional Technique			
2.1	Demonstrate the Qualities of an Instructor	2	C	CDTCPL Zhao conducted extensive research enabling him to offer multiple explanations for his teaching points. It is important that he follows his learning session plans to ensure he incorporates all requirements of the teaching sequence.
2.2	Explain Objectives for a Lesson	1	C	
2.3	Apply Presentation Techniques (Training Aids)	2	C	
2.4	Apply Question Technique	2	C	
2.5	Develop a Lesson Plan	2	C	
2.6	Demonstration of a Practical Lesson	2	C	
2.7	Conduct Assessed Theory or Practical Lessons	2	C	
	Conduct Drill			
3.1	Demonstrate NZCF Corps SNCO Parade Appointments	2	C	CDTCPL Zhao needs to develop his command presence, particularly when instructing drill. Development in this area will enable him to perform the duties of a Senior NCO to a high level.
3.2	Conduct NZCF Corps SNCO Parade Appointments.	2	C	

CM Initials: _____

Student Initials: _____

NZCF Training Levels: All training objectives are assessed against the level of training provided on the course. Unit continuation training and further practice is usually necessary. The levels of training are as follows:

- a. **Level One.** Familiarisation training is conducted. This is not to job standard and the task is not tested;
- b. **Level Two.** Training which is tested but not to job standards. The student must demonstrate in training that they can perform the task correctly, although not with the speed and polished skill required on the job;
- c. **Level Three.** Training which is tested to job standards. The student must demonstrate in training that they can perform the task at the level of accuracy and speed required on the job; and
- d. **Level Four.** Training which is tested several times during the course to produce higher retention of learning. The student must 'over learn' that is, they must be given additional practice on the task after they reach level three.

Word list.

13.18 When writing course reports it adds no value if you write the same information about all the students, or if you write the same information multiple ways within a course report. It is also important that you take care not to contradict your front page comments on the back page and vice versa. The words you use should be as specific as possible, they should quantify the performance as best possible; words such as good should not appear in a course report. Using words that have subtle differences can provide value to those reading the course report who were not present at the time, but who are trying to get an accurate picture of the students performance.

Positive Connotations.

13.19 The following is a list of words that, generally speaking, have a positive connotation. These words may be helpful when formulating course report comments.

Systematic	Methodical	Anticipates	Superior	Clear	Expressive
Satisfactory	Precise	Articulate	Effective	Controlled	Motivates
Influential	Excellent	Energetic	Dependable	Mature	Enthusiastic
Diligent	Intelligent	Thoughtful	Eager	Accepting	Exemplary
Constructive	Able	Confident	Sensible	Trustworthy	Decisive
Astute	Loyal	Competent	Efficient	Sound	Professional
Accurate	Attained	Gained	Acquired	Earned	Received
Obtained	Realised	Incurred	Succeeded	Benefited	Credited
Achieved	Enthusiastic	Willing	Industrious	Persevere	Strive
Remarkably	Markedly	Notable	Performed	Satisfactory	Skilled
Talented	Versatile	Proficient	Developed	Progressed	Evolved
Advanced	Endeavoured	Sought	Displayed	Solid	Valuable
Reflective	Passionate	Prepared	Excellent	Employed	Readily
Independent	Constructive	Exhibited	Grasped	Slogger	Comprehensive
Active	Empowered	Meticulous	Logical	Natural	Consistently
Sufficient	Rational	Execution	Adept	Nimble	Practiced

Negative Connotations.

13.20 The following is a list of words that, generally speaking, have a negative connotation. These words may be helpful when formulating course report comments.

* Often negative, though context dependant may be positive

Disorganised	Lacking	Impulsive	Ambiguous	Disjointed	Difficulty
Inhibited	Immature	Disinterested	Unreliable	Begrudging	Rebellious
Withdrawn	Dishonest	Hesitant	Casual	Acceptable*	Limited
Unsuitable	Encountered	Experienced*	Endured	Underwent	Laboured
Battled	Minor*	Moderate*	Dilemma	Demanding	Uncertain
Adequate	Distracted	Overwhelmed	Struggled	Prevented	Ostentatious
Reserved	Trepidation	Comfortable*	Vocal*	Boundaries	Insufficient
Ineffective	Unable	Imprecise	Careless	Negligent	Inconsiderate
Hasty	Indistinct	Slovenly	Partial	Bias	Selfish
Diminutive	Hindered	Prevented	Tactless	Discourteous	Isolated