

Curriculum, Program,
And Faculty Development:
Managing People,
Process, and Product

JERITT Monograph Four

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Curriculum, Program, and Faculty Development: Managing People, Process, and Product

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1994

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Curriculum, Program, and Faculty Development: Managing People, Process, and Product was developed under Grant No. 91-008-P94-1 from the **State Justice Institute**. Points of view expressed herein are those of the JERITT Project and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the State Justice Institute. The JERITT Project is co-sponsored by the National Association of State Judicial Educators and the School of Criminal Justice at Michigan State University.

Preface

Many scholars, researchers, practitioners, and technicians have written on the topic of adult continuing education. This monograph is a synthesis of many of the theories, principles, and methods from that literature. Through synthesizing this material, its application is made more direct for the practitioners in the field of judicial education.

The references used in writing Curriculum, Program, and Faculty Development are found at the end of this monograph. What follows is a list of other authors and their publications which have contributed to the knowledge and practice of adult continuing education; and who, consequently, have contributed to this monograph because of the collective knowledge now known and applied in the world of adult continuing education. This is not an exhaustive list. Judicial educators who want more information beyond this list or beyond the monograph references, should contact their local and state public libraries; as well as college and university libraries.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

This monograph is intended to be a practical guide for judicial educators wishing to create an organization vision, develop curricula, establish a functional structure for program delivery, and prepare faculty to present to a judicial audience comprised of judges and court personnel. It is intended to be a companion to Program Management: Managing Deadlines, Details, Activities, and People: JERITT Monograph Five (Conner and Waldrop, 1994), which focuses on program management.

This monograph offers a variety of applications for the information presented and is intended to be used creatively by each judicial educator to meet the unique needs of the judicial education organization. The basic tenet of this monograph is that continuous communication is key to successful judicial education programming.

The chapters of this monograph contain several steps for developing a judicial education delivery system; from establishing a vision to implementing faculty development. It is by design that chapters two through four contain information that is again used in the last three. The chapters on developing a vision, curriculum, and programs are intended to provide basic information to the judicial educator. The chapters on faculty development, faculty development handouts, and faculty handbook are to assist in conveying this basic information to faculty and others. What follows is a brief description of what is contained within chapters two through seven:

- Chapter 2: Establishing a Judicial Education Vision presents several basic principles upon which judicial education can be organized. While not an exhaustive treatment, this chapter identifies several key issues that judicial educators and their committees need to consider when developing an organizational vision.
- Chapter 3: Formulating a Curriculum offers a model for creating a curriculum based on the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed by the target audiences to perform their job responsibilities.
- Chapter 4: Developing a Program offers a planning cycle which judicial
 educators can use with faculty to ensure that the faculty and the
 programs they teach focus on learners' needs. This chapter also looks at
 adult teaching methodologies and how faculty can select the best
 teaching methods for their subject matter.

- Chapter 5: Faculty Development Basics offers a step-by-step guide for presenting a one-day faculty development program, which summarizes much of the information contained in this monograph. Each step of the program is cross-referenced to the written materials which are in chapter 6.
- Chapter 6: Creating Faculty Development Written Materials provides sample handout or notebook materials for the one-day faculty development program discussed in chapter 5.
- Chapter 7: Developing a Faculty Handbook provides a model for judicial educators to follow in developing their own faculty handbooks.

While some theory is offered, the information in this monograph is presented largely in a "how-to" approach. It is meant to provide fundamental adult education principles and practices for use in the on-going professional development of judges and court personnel through education and training. Not all portions of this monograph will be appropriate for all judicial education organizations. Those who read it are encouraged to modify its content to fit their own unique needs and program dynamics.

One of the intended outcomes of this monograph is to assist judicial educators in creating outstanding educational programming, which maximizes the knowledge and talents of the planners, fully utilizes the expertise and abilities of all faculty members, and honors the participants for what they bring to the learning environment. Users of this monograph will find all three of these groups are referred to throughout this publication. Therefore, clarification of terms is necessary:

- First, the people who are the focus of the teaching/learning experience are referred to as adult learners, learners, participants, audience, audience members, attendees, or individuals. For the purpose of this monograph, all of these terms or identifiers are synonymous.
- Second, the individuals who teach or instruct the people who attend the educational programming are referred to as instructors, faculty, faculty members, or teachers. Again, these terms or identifiers are synonymous.
- Third, curriculum planners or program planners ar two designations used to refer to those individuals or groups who have a role in crafting judicial education and training. Curriculum and/or program planners may include judicial educators, policy or advisory committees, focus groups, and faculty members.

- Fourth, the term judicial educator refers to the judicial education administrator, manager, or staff member who has responsibility for planning and executing judicial education programming.
- Fifth, the term judicial education is often understood to be training and education for judges only. This understanding grew out of the reality that when training and education first began in the judicial system, judges were its sole audience. Of course, that is no longer the case. For the purposes of this monograph, judicial education refers to the education and training opportunities provided for judges and court personnel.

Chapter 2: Establishing a Judicial Education Vision: Education Concepts for Incorporation in a Vision Statement

While vision statements contain many elements with each element being important, it is the weaving together of the elements which results in a vital and strong statement upon which all judicial education can be based. The vision acts as a goal to be shared and a motivating force around which all those involved in judicial education can rally. It is essential that the vision be written, known, shared, and acted upon by all those committed to judicial education or it is not an action-guiding vision.

A judicial education vision should be established early in order to provide guidance from the start of the planning process, but as subsequent planning steps unfold, the initial vision statement may well undergo refinement. The earlier the vision is established and acted upon, the more cohesive the program. Also, to increase wide ownership in the vision statement, its design should be a collaborative process.

This chapter offers several adult education concepts which have proven to be fundamental to learning. These concepts are offered as a way to stimulate thinking about what a judicial education vision could contain. The first premise of the concepts is that education is a process and not just an end result. The second premise is that learners are active participants in their own learning. While these two premises sound simplistic, they provide a philosophical framework that directs all design, development, and planning. They also provide basic evaluative criteria by which all programs and services can be measured.

Concept 1: Education is a Process of Growth and Change

Malcolm Knowles (1970) pioneered the concept of education being a process that resulted in growth and change. Therefore, if the educational experience is to achieve this goal, it is important that education be viewed as more than simply sharing information. The following three items are central to this concept:

Process: Education is a learning process in which single educational events
play a role. Quality learning occurs on a continuing basis through daily life
experiences and during educational programs. Therefore, judicial education
programming is only one aspect of each individuals' learning.

- 2. Growth: Individuals participating in an educational process should be able to think in new ways, perform new tasks, and view information with a new perspective during and after the educational program. This means that if education is effective, personal and/or professional growth is the result.
- 3. Change: Individuals involved in an educational process should experience some level of transformation at its completion. This transformation can occur through new understanding, increased skill, enhanced reasoning abilities, and so on. Education promotes change and this is not always wanted or accepted by the individual. The prospect of change often results in fear and resistance. Both fear of and resistance to change must be considered and addressed from program planning through delivery. Faculty, in particular, need to be prepared for a variety of responses from learners when the possibility of change becomes evident as they are on the frontline. Chapters 5 and 6 provide guidance to the faculty offering a model of the change process. See pages 71-72 and 106.

Concept 2: The Object of Teaching is to Enable the Learner to Use What Was Learned Independent of the Teacher

Educational processes provide learners with new ways of thinking and doing. It would be impossible for faculty to present every potential situation learners may encounter in which the specific topic being presented may be useful. Instead, faculty should showcase new information, provide basic theory, and allow for sufficient application where each learner can practice adapting to a variety of situations (Knowles, 1970).

The education session is not a "stage" for faculty to showcase their knowledge and expertise. The focus of the session should always be on what the learner needs to know and what the learner can accomplish; inside and outside the learning environment.

Concept 3: A Learning Environment is Critical for Optimal Learning

"The learning environment is characterized by physical comfort, mutual trust and respect, mutual helpfulness, freedom of expression, and acceptance of differences" (Knowles, 1970:52).

The learning environment is both physical and psychological. The physical incorporates a comfortable temperature, comfortable furniture, adequate lighting, and freedom from distracting noise. The psychological climate incorporates a climate of mutuality among those present, an acceptance of other adults as full partners in the

learning process, and an openness to the value and utility of the varying experiences and perspectives of everyone involved.

Concept 4: Considerations for Teaching Adults

Adult learners bring with them a wealth of life experiences, certain expectations about learning, and the pertinence of what they already know. Consequently, judicial education programs must consider the characteristics of adult learners and the implications of these for the design, development, and delivery of programs. The items presented in this concept are adapted from Knowles and further elaborate on the important differences between teaching children and adults.

- 1. Adults are different from children as learners. Much of the education adults experience is based on the same principles used for teaching children. Adults are more realistic, have educational needs which are more immediate, do not comprise a captive audience, are accustomed to being treated as mature persons, often require longer to perform a learning task, are generally more impatient in the pursuit of learning objectives, often have difficulty remembering isolated facts, have more compelling responsibilities competing with education for their time, and often attend class with a mixed set of motives. (Knowles, 1970; Rossman, 1990)
- 2. As adults mature, their self concept moves from being dependent toward being independent. This change necessitates recognition that their reservoir of experience is a resource for learning, their learning is increasingly oriented to the developmental tasks of social and professional roles, their time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and their orientation to learning shifts from subject-centered to problem-centered educational interest. (Knowles, 1970; Cross, 1984)
- 3. With the increased experience adults gain as they mature, they may become more discriminating as to what they accept and believe. Adult learners' experiences may differ from that of faculty; thus, they may frequently question new information, procedures, or approaches. As individuals mature, they experience growth and change as the following Dimensions of Maturation (Knowles, 1970:25) suggests:

Dimensions of Maturation

From:

Dependence Passivity Subjectivity Ignorance

Small Abilities Few Responsibilities

Narrow Interest

Selfishness

Self-Rejection

Amorphous Self-Identity Focus on Particulars

Superficial Concerns

Imitation

Need for Certainty

Impulsiveness

To:

Autonomy Activity Objectivity Enlightenment Large Abilities

Many Responsibilities

Broad Interest

Altruism Self-Acceptance

Integrated Self-Identity

Focus on Principles
Deep Concerns

Originality

Tolerance for Ambiguity

Rationality

The calm often associated with good learners dissipates when envisioning learners who are active, objective, original, rational, have vast experience, and challenge rather than accept faculty information. This challenge is to be expected and is a healthy expression of differing experiences.

- 4. With maturity comes physiological changes, which must be considered in planning and presenting education sessions. Eyesight, hearing, and tolerance to temperature variances may be more limited. Therefore, printed material may need to be in larger type, lighting may need to be brighter, faculty may need to be sensitive to speaking clearly and facing learners when speaking, and the temperature may need to be more closely monitored (Knowles, 1970).
- 5. Some things do not change. Adults (like children) continue to learn best with involvement of multiple senses (hearing, seeing, touching), active participation, and knowing what to expect (Knowles, 1970). Programs should incorporate the use of written materials and overhead transparencies or slides to supplement the verbal presentation. Programs should also be designed to include activities which encourage learner participation. Additionally, faculty should be encouraged to give an overview of the session as a part of the opening.

- 6. One of the prime considerations and dangers of planning and presenting education programs to adults is that they are often especially fearful of competition in front of and evaluation by their professional peers. This consideration becomes very important when faculty plan activities which require a high degree of learner interaction. Initial activities and questions posed by the faculty and the learning environment need to be non-threatening. This creation of a non-threatening learning environment establishes trust between the faculty and the participants and among the participants themselves. Once a trust level has been established, adult learners tend to be more willing to participate and take risks (Knowles, 1970).
- 7. Facilitating retention and recall among adult learners is key to the learning process. Faculty should be encouraged to present one idea at a time to minimize competing intellectual demands, summarize frequently to reinforce information already known or presented, pace presentation of new information to allow time for mastery and assimilation, use teaching aids to assist learners in mentally organizing new material, and present information in a situational context which is relevant to learners' real lives. Faculty also should be encouraged to use a person-centered and collaborative approach to learning, which begins with the question of what the learner wants to get out of the program or what the learner hopes to gain from their attendance (Knowles, 1970).

There are other aspects of a vision which may be considered and embraced by a judicial education organization beyond the concepts just presented. These might include considering the local judicial culture, a supreme court statement of purpose which guides the activities of the court system, and the judicial education organization mandate as it pertains to the audiences served and the quality and quantity of the service. The important point is that these things be identified, agreed upon, and articulated to all committees, faculty, and learners. A vision statement (which incorporates salient factors of judicial education) guides the process, gives it meaning, and provides a sound foundation for all programs and services.

An example of a vision statement which incorporates the adult education concepts just presented is:

Judicial education should encompass, embrace, and facilitate a process of growth and development for each individual; be responsive to and effectively facilitate the changes necessary to support an effective judiciary through timely education programs; respect the needs and role of the adult learner in the teaching/learning process; provide an environment conducive to optimal learning; and incorporate adult teaching/learning methodologies in educational events.

Vision statements which give form and purpose to judicial education become the driving force for curriculum, program, and faculty development; as well as program implementation. Not surprisingly, the vision statement provides purpose, continuity, and direction to all judicial education endeavors.

Chapter 3: Formulating a Curriculum

Formulating a curriculum for any organization is an interactual process involving many steps. Formulating a curriculum for judicial education programming is no different. It rests on an overall design which addresses the needs of the adult learners by identifying what knowledge, skills, abilities, and information they need in the workplace. Malcolm Knowles (1970; 1980) made major contributions to educators' understanding of how to develop curriculum based on understanding the complexities of adult learners. This chapter is primarily based on Knowles' work which suggests adult learning is problem-centered; thus, curriculum should be problem and solution orientated.

Therefore, once the vision is established, the judicial educator can move on to formulating a curriculum which expresses the vision, gives substance to the educational process, and identifies subject matter needs and desires. This chapter offers the judicial educator a model for curriculum development.

Curriculum should be a deliberate creation of systematically related programs having a stated purpose which demonstrates continuity from the initial vision to the delivery of programs. Achieving this goal has at least two components. The first is a carefully developed curriculum with programs in the curriculum that reflect the vision. The second is knowledgeable faculty who can make the vision a reality through instruction which adheres to the vision.

The development of curriculum for a judicial education organization is the focus of this chapter. Developing programs and faculty are addressed in other chapters.

The curriculum development model presented here is only one of many. Its success is dependent on continual dialogue between the curriculum planner(s) and program faculty. Curriculum planners can be standing committees, ad hoc groups, or a judicial educator.

The purpose of ongoing dialogue between curriculum planners and faculty is to achieve an understanding between those requesting programs and those delivering them. The substance of the communication focuses on what is expected from the program by the requester, which may include aspects of the judicial education vision, expectations of what faculty will deliver, and techniques and methods to be employed by the faculty.

Before presenting the curriculum development model, two other areas need to be mentioned: curriculum design and needs assessment.

Curriculum Design

Curriculum design is the organizational scheme of a curriculum. Since there is no standard curriculum design for judicial education, it can take many forms. It is not the purpose of this monograph to provide information or guidance in curriculum design but it is mentioned here to acknowledge its relationship to curriculum development. With a vision which includes addressing the continued growth and development of each individual, a curriculum design for judges, as an example, might take the following form:

- Programs for new judges, mid-career, and advanced-career judges.
- Programs of a procedural nature and programs of a philosophical nature.
- Programs broadening judges' informational base and programs which address thinking processes.
- Programs related to professional development and programs related to personal development (which will enhance professional performance).

Curriculum design should be determined early, thus providing a framework for in-depth development. The judicial education vision should give direction to the curriculum design process. And ultimately, the curriculum should reflect the vision.

Needs Assessment

The primary basis for curriculum design is needs assessment, which can be conducted in a variety of ways. Needs assessments yield invaluable information. While a needs assessment is often a formalized procedure of identifying the audience, developing the assessment instrument, distributing the instrument, analyzing the results, and issuing a report, far less elaborate needs assessment options are available. Focus groups, literature/research review, program evaluation results, and target audience questionnaires can all be used to obtain important information about educational needs and desires.

1. Formal Needs Assessment. To assess what learners need to know, an assessment can be conducted by means of a written instrument completed by potential learners indicating what they need or want. Formal assessment of needs can include learner needs, organizational needs, special interest group needs, consumer needs, and so on. By including a variety of sources in the assessment, an assortment of needs may surface which are not known by the learners and, therefore, not expressed by them.

2. Focus Groups. Focus groups are typically comprised of individuals from the target audience who can provide insight, understanding, and information about the target audience's needs and desires as they relate to training and education. Often, others who are not of the target audience but who are associated with the target audience, are also asked to join the focus group. These individuals often can provide important insights and information that might not otherwise be known.

Usually the size of the focus group is small, perhaps eight to twelve people, so that in-depth assessment work can take place. Consequently, if the target audience is large, more than one focus group may be needed to achieve ample representation.

Focus groups are an excellent source of information if their purpose is well defined. Focus groups can be used at the beginning when curriculum is being formulated. At that juncture, focus groups can provide valuable insight and information about the extent, nature, and direction programming should take in order to be included in a judicial education curriculum. Focus groups can also be used at the program development stage, where individual audience needs are identified, subject matter is selected, presentation methods are recommended, and faculty expertise, knowledge, and skill are established.

As previously stated, the focus group must first and foremost be representative of the target audience. Therefore, to ensure that the composition of the focus group is representative, several questions should be asked. Some sample questions follow:

- Do the focus group members represent the geographic dispersion of the audience?
- Do the focus group members represent the occupational/professional classification, educational level, experience, age, gender, and race of the audience?
- Do the focus group members represent the length of court service of the audience?
- Are all court sizes and types in which the potential audience work represented?
- Does the focus group include individuals who are experienced in the work and activity of the target audience? (Such individuals might include administrative personnel, judges, trial and appellate court administrators, other policymakers, and subject matter experts).

In order for focus groups to be effective, their composition must fully illuminate the present and emerging issues and needs of those to be educated. Therefore, careful consideration must be given to the objectives of the focus group and who can best contribute to the achievement of these objectives.

- 3. Literature/Research Review. One way of identifying contemporary issues and emerging trends is to conduct a literature/research review. A review would include studying trade publications, academic journals, law journals, books, government reports, periodicals, state and federal court statistics, and criminal justice statistical reports. Programming, research, and reference information from other well-regarded state and national judicial education organizations should also be included in a literature/research review.
- 4. Target Audience Needs Assessment. Another form of needs assessment that may be considered is target audience needs assessment. Target audience needs assessment can be done by judicial educators or faculty who send out topic specific questionnaires before a program. Another method is to ask participants at the outset of a program what they most want to learn or accomplish by attending the program.

If the target audience needs assessment information is retained, it can be used in conjunction with other needs assessment results to provide a rich and broad source of information.

In any form, needs assessment is critical to curriculum design and subsequent programs. Learners can contribute much toward identifying what they need educationally. Additionally, identifying and surveying other sources can contribute what the learners themselves cannot. JERITT has published a comprehensive monograph on needs assessment, Judicial Education Needs Assessment and Program Evaluation: JERITT Monograph One (Hudzik, 1991), which provides more detailed information on the value, development, and implementation of a variety of needs assessment designs.

5. Program Evaluation Results. Evaluation results from conferences, seminars, workshops, and so on can provide important feedback from learners about what they learned or did not learn from the existing programs that comprise the curriculum. This information allows curriculum developers to make necessary adjustments to ensure that learner needs are met in the existing curriculum structure.

Additionally, if the evaluations include questions which raise future anticipated needs, curriculum developers can collect information directly from the learners which can be used to adjust the curriculum so these new needs can be met in a timely fashion. Program evaluation results are an important

source of information but should not be used alone. Rather, they should be used in combination with other needs assessment sources to get a full and accurate account of what learners need and want to know.

6. Other Curricular Sources. Judicial education has many other sources of information that can be used with needs assessments when curriculum is being designed and developed. These sources include: special interest groups, state and federal legislatures, judicial performance review panels, bar association survey results, court user complaints, and so on. These sources are important and should not be overlooked.

The tendency when establishing a curriculum is simply to list topics which seem important for the target audience. This is a quick approach but it may cause many relevant aspects of judicial education to be overlooked. Developing the curriculum by directly identifying topics focuses on information as the critical component of curriculum rather than the learners themselves. A different approach to curriculum development is to focus first on the learners through assessing what they should be able to do or know. This is an ability-based approach.

This model can easily be used by curriculum planners. For purposes of discussion, the following example of an ability-based model would use a curriculum development committee.

Ability-Based Curriculum Development Model

Six major tasks comprise this curriculum development model.

First Task: Identifying Skills, Abilities, Tasks, and Information

The curriculum development committee brainstorms about each of the following in the order shown. Each brainstorming item is recorded on an 8 1/2 inch by 11 inch sheet of paper or a letter-size flashcard in large enough print for all to see when posted.

- Identify tasks individuals in the target audience must be able to perform. This can be done by performing a job analysis; however, brainstorming is quicker and can be quite accurate with the right collection of brainstormers.
- Identify skills and abilities individuals in the target audience need in order to perform the tasks identified.

 Identify what information those same individuals need to effectively perform the tasks and adequately use the skills and abilities.

Task one is a form of focus group needs assessment. It identifies what learners need to know or do before educational topics or subtopics are considered. A sample end result of this process for new-judge education might include tasks for new judges; such as handling civil and criminal cases and case management. Skills and abilities needed to perform these tasks would include time management, caseflow management principles, communication skills, and knowledge of civil and criminal law and procedure. Information needed would include bench books and guides, time lines, and court rules.

Second Task: Grouping Tasks, Skills, Abilities, and Information

At the conclusion of or during the brainstorming session, the recorded items can be grouped into logical categories, which may become a program or series of programs in a curriculum. For example, during brainstorming for a judges curriculum, a task such as "charge a jury" may need to be included in both handling criminal and civil cases; thus, a second flash card may need to be made for both eventualities. In contrast, tasks such as controlling attorneys and avoiding unnecessary delays could be subtopics under another task such as managing the courtroom. The outcome of this process should be groupings of tasks, skills, abilities, and information, which can then become educational programs. Items can be deleted if the committee feels there is really no need to include them in the curriculum. Other items may be added as the committee sees the final groupings and assesses their completeness.

If judicial education programs already exist in a state, an abbreviated version of this curriculum development model can be used, focusing on areas that are not already well represented. Existing topics can also be grouped into logical categories to determine completeness, breadth, and depth in given curricular areas.

Programs, whether preexisting or newly identified by the committee, need to be more fully developed before they are offered. This added level of work is to assure each program fits into the over-arching curriculum plan, adheres to the vision, and informs the faculty. Detailed content development takes place at the program level with the faculty and is guided by the curriculum plan.

Third Task: Determining Topic/Program Basics

Once tasks, skills, abilities, and information are grouped into logical categories, each category can be considered as a topical session or program as the committee determines the components of the curriculum. The committee establishes the basic

framework for programs through this process which will be more fully defined during program development.

Fourth Task: Selecting Potential Faculty

Once the design is complete, identifying potential faculty can begin. Usually, an overriding criterion for faculty selection is subject matter expertise; however, there are other criteria which are equally important. This criterion is faculty skill, which addresses the ability of the faculty to establish a learning environment and to present the subject matter using teaching methods appropriate for that subject matter and the audience.

Specific teaching methods can be taught through faculty development, but when identifying potential faculty members, the following criteria (in addition to subject matter expertise) should be applied:

- Ability to communicate; which includes listening, questioning, speaking, writing, interpreting, analyzing, facilitating, and using non-verbal indicators.
- Organizational skills; which include planning, setting, and following deadlines, categorizing, implementing, and following through on tasks and projects.
- Responsiveness; which entails the ability to demonstrate flexibility, empathy, interest, excitement, enthusiasm, concern, and support directed toward learners.

Not all faculty members will have both subject matter expertise and high quality skills. Thus, when trying to assemble program faculty, several questions should be asked. The answers to those questions will help clarify whether the program faculty has the characteristics needed to present the program under consideration. To determine whether the potential faculty members are the best suited for the programs under consideration, the planners should evaluate each faculty member by asking several questions:

- Does the faculty member have knowledge in the topic area?
- Has the faculty member performed well in the past?
- Is the faculty member interested in teaching, seeing learners succeed, and fostering judicial education?

- Does the faculty member incorporate a variety of teaching methods, involve learners actively in the session, and evaluate learning of participants?
- Is the faculty member willing to work with the curriculum development committee and accept appropriate guidance and suggestions they provide?
- Will the faculty member provide the time to plan adequately, provide feedback to the committee on progress, prepare materials, and meet time lines?

By evaluating the appropriateness of a certain faculty member for a specific program, a faculty roster can be established. Those faculty members who are not a good match now, may be excellent for an upcoming program.

Making the right selection is critical to the success of any program. Therefore, if a faculty member has been selected who does not have all of the desired qualities, then that person should receive faculty development (which will be discussed in chapter 5). Additionally, the benefits of teaming that faculty member with a more seasoned presenter should not be overlooked.

Fifth Task: Communicating the Basic Program Design to Faculty

When asking a potential faculty member to develop and present a program, share the information that the curriculum planners identified regarding the topic. This sharing of information is particularly important if the prospective faculty member has not been involved in any of the planning or development prior to faculty selection. The information should be shared verbally and in writing. If the individual accepts the offer to be a faculty member, then in-depth planning can begin.

Sixth Task: Establishing and Maintaining Faculty Dialogue

On-going dialogue with faculty is crucial. The faculty member, if not involved in the curriculum formation process, must be fully apprised of the work previously done on the curriculum. The curriculum information, along with the vision statement, gives the faculty the parameters within which the actual program content and process can be developed.

Whether the faculty members meet with the full curriculum development committee, individual members of the committee, or with the judicial educator, the following information must be conveyed so that the faculty members can begin their work:

- Audience profile
- Needs assessment results
- Tasks the learners must perform at the end of the program
- Skills and abilities the learners must have to perform the tasks
- New information the learners must acquire to perform the tasks
- Specific topics or subtopics that must be included in the program
- Brief descriptions of the topics and subtopics
- Length of program and other time parameters
- Program time lines
- Contact person information
- Facility information
- Reimbursement information
- Teaching specifications related to content development and delivery

Once the faculty members have received the necessary information, their program planning and development can begin. Of course on-going dialogue is key to assuring that they stay focused on what the curriculum planners have identified as necessary for the program. It is important for faculty members to give one or more reports to the judicial educator, curriculum committee liaison, or the full committee about their progress. At a minimum they should report basic information regarding the subject matter, time allocations for subject matter, teaching methods, and objectives.

Faculty interaction should always be on-going. This helps to ensure that the vision of judicial education and the curriculum plan is being carried out and that the program meets the needs of the learners. This dialogue is enhanced by written plans, descriptions, and the like. The curriculum information can be conveyed on a curriculum development report found on page 146. The faculty planning information can be conveyed to the curriculum committee members using the presentation proposal form found on page 148.

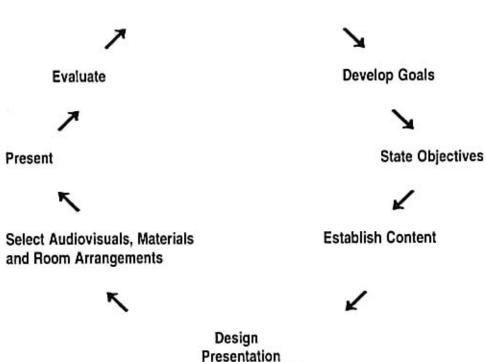
This chapter has outlined a general model for curriculum development which emphasizes dialogue. The purpose of the model is to enhance a process whereby information giving and receiving is reciprocal between curriculum planners and faculty. This reciprocity helps assure that programs reflect the vision originally identified and meets learners' needs.

Assessing abilities and identifying gaps between individual abilities and proficiency needs has been the cornerstone of adult education and professional development. What was presented here was a series of steps which focused on developing a curriculum based on the target audiences' abilities to perform certain tasks. Marcia Mentkowski and Glen Rogers have advanced ability-based education to greater levels of sophistication. They have connected education, work, and citizenship through their assessment strategies that infers abilities from performance. More information on their approach is available in their article titled, "Connecting Education, Work and Citizenship: How Assessment Can Help" (1993).

Chapter 4: Developing a Program

There are several formats for program planning. The planning process in Figure 1 is typical to the majority of adult education programming. The logic of this planning process was advanced by Malcolm Knowles (1970). It is relatively simple to follow and outlines critical steps in order of occurrence. By attending to these steps, the curriculum planners and faculty can work together to assure that each program is well planned. This chapter is primarily written for the judicial educator to provide a sound basis for assisting others in the program planning process.

Figure 1 **Program Development Process** Assess Needs



Methods and Activities

Step One: Assess Needs

Assessing needs is a critical component of program planning. Regardless of how well a program is planned and presented, if there is no need for it, the effort is wasted. A general needs assessment can be conducted using one or more of the approaches already explained on pages 12-15. However, at the program planning level, two audience-specific needs assessment methods can be used.

Faculty can conduct a mini needs assessment prior to the presentation by sending a brief questionnaire to participants. Results can be used to further refine the program to meet the needs of the actual learners. Another option is for the faculty member to open the session by asking learners what they hope to gain from the program. If learner needs are somewhat different from those already identified, the faculty member can adjust the program accordingly.

Step Two: Develop Goals

For faculty, developing goals is a matter of focusing on realistic and achievable outcomes. Goals are statements regarding what the faculty member hopes to accomplish in the education session. Goals are either faculty- or program-centered. Faculty-centered goals state what the faculty will do. Program-centered goals state what the session will do. For example:

- I hope to (or this session will) familiarize participants with aspects of the new law and make them aware of the new procedures to follow.
- I will (or this session will) sensitize judges to the importance of adhering to the code of judicial conduct; thus avoiding the appearance of impropriety in judicial behavior on and off the bench.
- I want to (or this session will) teach judges about the various aspects of alternative dispute resolution including arbitration, mediation, and settlement conferencing.
- I will (or this session will) provide judges with information on how to follow proper procedure when conducting an initial appearance, conducting an arraignment, taking a guilty plea, and processing a revocation of probation.
- I will (or this session will) provide court clerks with information on the new statistical reporting procedure and familiarize them with the forms to be used.

I will (or this session will) sensitize probation officers to the risks of improperly applied search and seizure procedures.

Goals are not necessarily measurable as their function is more to direct the session. Goal statements can be used later as description statements for the program announcement.

Step Three: State Objectives

Curriculum planners often will identify one or more objectives and convey those objectives to faculty members. They will use those objectives as written or modify them to better fit the desired outcome of the program.

Objectives are formulated and written to answer the basic question of what should learners be able to do as a result of their participation in this session? Objectives should be specific, measurable, realistic, clearly worded performance statements regarding what participants will be able to do as a result of the education session. To be measurable, objectives must be written with action verbs focused on what participants will achieve. The faculty member will know when an objective was achieved (if it is achievable during the program) when demonstration of its achievement can be seen.

Some examples of measurable objectives are:

- Participants will be able to compare and contrast the various views regarding intensive probation as opposed to incarceration.
- Participants will be able to define arbitration, mediation, and settlement conferencing.
- Participants will be able to conduct an initial appearance following proper procedure.
- Participants will be able to identify the various components of the cycle of violence and describe their relevance and impact on families and the court system.

There are three basic types of objectives: cognitive, psychomotor, and affective. These three types are developed around what is referred to as the domains of learning (Cranton, 1989).

1. Cognitive Objectives

Cognitive objectives are written for the cognitive domain of learning. The cognitive domain is what is traditionally thought of as learning. It involves all intellectual processes: recall of definitions, terms, names, and dates; the comprehension of concepts; the application of principles or formulae to the solutions of problems; and the analysis of ideas presented by others (Cranton, 1989:39-40). Benjamin Bloom (1956) developed a six-level taxonomy for the cognitive domain: 1) knowledge; 2) comprehension; 3) application; 4) analysis; 5) synthesis; and 6) evaluation. In Bloom's taxonomy, the simplest or lowest level of learning is the acquisition of knowledge, while the highest level is evaluation or judgments of quality. Therefore, cognitive objectives are statements about what participants can say or do to show their grasp of the cognitive domain or the intellectual process. This usually involves the demonstration of knowledge. For example:

- Participants will be able to state the complete and current criteria for juvenile intensive probation placement.
- Participants will be able to list the most commonly violated canons of the code of judicial conduct and identify ways in which they can avoid violation.
- Participants will be able to identify inappropriate behavior of judges in case studies to determine if the canons of judicial conduct have been violated.

The test of can achievement of the objective be seen or heard?, can be applied to the action verbs used in these objectives. Faculty can hear participants state, list, and identify. Faculty can see participants write and subsequently assess achievement of the objectives.

2. Affective Objectives

The affective domain and its hierarchical aspect of learning is less clear. Consequently, affective objectives are less common as they are most relevant at very advanced stages of instruction where learner commitment is already high (Cranton, 1989:46). Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964) developed a five-level taxonomy for the affective domain: 1) receiving; 2) responding; 3) valuing; 4) organizational; and 5) characterization. Receiving refers to attending to information. Responding refers to the learner attending to the information in a positive or negative way depending on values, beliefs, and so on. At the valuing stage, the learner shows consistency and commitment to beliefs, values, and attitudes. At the level or organization, the learner organizes values, beliefs, and attitudes into a system. At the final level

(characterization), a belief or value system has been adopted to the extent that it characterizes the learner.

Affective objectives, then, are statements about what participants can say or do to exhibit an attitude, value, belief, or emotion. For example:

- Participants will be able to convey empathy for children involved in court cases.
- Participants will be able to interact with difficult people in role play situations with an attitude of helpfulness, caring, and trust.
- Participants will be able to listen to testimony in an interested and impartial manner.

The test of can the achievement of the objective be seen or heard? can be applied to the action verbs and modifiers used in these objectives but require application of some subjective evaluation. Faculty can see convey empathy in facial expressions, gestures, and postures and hear it in verbal intonation and choice of words. Faculty can apply these same observations to interact with an attitude of helpfulness, caring, and trust, and to listen in an interested and impartial manner.

3. Psychomotor Objectives

The psychomotor domain of learning is focused on mastery of skill (Cranton, 1989). Therefore, objectives for this domain are written to reflect what level of mastery is expected. Simpson (1966) developed a seven-level taxonomy for the psychomotor domain: 1) perception; 2) set; 3) guided response; 4) mechanism; 5) complex overt response; 6) adaptation; and 7) origination. Perception is the basis of the psychomotor domain and includes the awareness of objects and their association to tasks. Set refers to readiness for action. Guided response refers to performance of specific actions, which will become components of more complex tasks. Mechanism, the fourth level, is about behaviors that are learned through guidance, which become habitual. In the complex overt response level, learners are involved in complex tasks that have a pattern or sequence which they perform without hesitation. The level of adaptation occurs when learners adapt motor skills to unexpected situations. The final level, origination, refers to the learners' ability to create new psychomotor skills based on preexisting skills.

The application of this taxonomy to developing programming and determining objectives serves an important purpose. Having an awareness of the stages of learning, and applying that awareness to skill building activities, ensures that instruction will include the necessary prerequisite behaviors (Cranton, 1989:49).

Consequently, psychomotor objectives are statements about what participants can do to demonstrate skills and abilities. For example:

- Participants will correctly complete form #402, without assistance, using information given to each individual in a fictitious case study.
- Participants will be able to sign on the automated case tracking system and retrieve those cases that need immediate attention.
- Participants will be able to conduct an initial appearance in a mock case.

The test of can the achievement of the objective be seen or heard? can be applied to the action verbs used in these objectives. Faculty can see participants complete the form, sign on the system, and retrieve information and conduct a proceeding.

Objectives become a dominant force in the rest of the planning cycle since they guide faculty in selection of content. Objectives further narrow what was at one time a very broad topic solely defined by goals. Specifically stated, objectives become the foundation from which all subject matter and activities flow.

Stated objectives also define the method of evaluation faculty will use to assess learner achievement. If an objective states that participants will conduct an initial appearance, the program content will need to include information, demonstration, and explanation of this procedure.

Step Four: Establish Content

At the curriculum development level, content is identified by the subtopics determined to be necessary for inclusion in the program. These subtopics guide faculty in content selection.

At the faculty level, content becomes a much more expansive portion of planning. Based on objectives, content will be the mainstay of the program for faculty. The selection and organization of content is critical to realizing the curriculum vision and to maximizing learning.

Deciding What to Include

Content should be carefully considered and selected for its relevance to the objectives established for the program. Content should cover only relevant aspects of the topic area and it should include enough theory to sufficiently explain the subject matter and its application in the work place.

2. Arranging Information

There are numerous ways in which faculty can organize content, and organization can differ from one part of a program to another. The overriding criteria for selecting an arrangement of content are to maximize learning, to assist learners in grasping information, and to weave new information into existing knowledge. A few common content arrangements are:

- Chronologically/Sequentially: This arrangement is best for content geared to processes, procedures, or courses of action. Examples might include conducting an initial appearance, taking a guilty plea, or charging a jury.
- Simple to Complex: This arrangement is best for content which is complicated, offers a variety of options, or introduces totally new concepts. Examples might include automation training, evidence, or ethics.
- Specific to General or Big Picture: This arrangement is geared toward de-emphasizing the importance of specific information and emphasizing the general or big picture. It can also be effective for showing how parts fit into a whole. Examples might include the court system, the impact of legislative action, or budget cuts.
- General or Big Picture to Specific: This arrangement is geared toward emphasizing the importance of the specific, while possibly diminishing the importance or implications of the "bigger picture." Examples might include individual rights, bias, or diversity.

Step Five: Design Presentation Methods and Activities

Use of appropriate and varied methods is critical to maximize learning. Certain methods are more appropriate for specific types of information, and each method has special attributes which enhance learning. Methods need to be chosen carefully and not by default.

Criteria for selecting teaching/learning methods include:

How the information is best conveyed, which relates to what types of substantive content are compatible with a specific method.

- How different types of learning objectives are best met, which relates to the use of specific methods to accomplish preestablished types of objectives.
- Audience status and perception, which relates to how the learners feel about the method and its psychological impact on them.
- Special aspects related to the unique features of each method that cannot be accomplished by other methods.

Teaching methods are chosen after objectives are determined and content is established. The methods selected need to be conducive to meeting the learning objectives and also be the most beneficial means to present the materials.

The methods presented in this monograph can be used alone or in a combination. A combination is preferred since some are more interactive than others, and interaction is desirable in adult education. Those to be discussed include lecture, debate and panel discussion, group activity, demonstration, experiential activity, and individual activity.

Lecture

Lecture is an instructor-centered method which is appropriate for the cognitive domain of learning (Cranton, 1989). Lecture is defined as the verbal presentation of information, generally in a one-way communication format. As a teaching method, lecture has the longest history and is the most misused and/or overused. Substituted for other methods when time is short or faculty are fearful of trying something new, lecture is often reduced to lengthy, monotone monologues.

While it may seem that lecture places the greatest burden on faculty in terms of planning and presentation, this is not really the case. Lecture is the safest method from the perspective of the faculty. A faculty member has complete control, paces the program, adheres to the program plan, and is not subject to question or challenge when using the lecture method. Additionally, because the lecture method requires no instructor/learner interaction, the faculty member never has to adjust the teaching plan to address new issues raised by the learner.

The misuse of lecture does not have to be the norm. When appropriately planned and executed, lecture can be a very effective method. Faculty members who use lecture exclusively should be taught other teaching methods.

Factors to consider when using the lecture method:

- Types of Information Best Conveyed: Lecture is best used for conveying facts, histories, explanations, research results, theories, and other types of cognitive information.
- Types of Objectives Best Met: Although a very good lecturer can convey some affective objectives, cognitive objectives are the most frequently satisfied by the lecture method.
- Audience Status and Perception: The negative side of lecture is that for the most part, the learners are passive, which may produce inattention or boredom. There is an implication of superiority of the speaker, which negates the adult education principle of mutuality.
- Special Aspects: Lecture can be a very effective method for conveying large amounts of information in a short time period. The positive impact of lecture can be increased by breaking the lecture time into 45 minute segments. Learners can be engaged and become active if lecturers invite questions, not just at the conclusion of the program but throughout.
- For Best Results: If lecture is to be used, plan learner involvement at 20 to 30 minute intervals. If possible, integrate lecture with other teaching methods; this provides an interesting collage of methods and creates an environment more conducive to learner participation. Unless speaker superiority is a desired effect, or the size of the audience necessitates it, avoid the use of a lectern and/or riser. Faculty who move into the audience during their presentations tend to enhance the feeling of mutuality, which is desired in adult education.

Debate and Panel Discussion 2.

Even though the debate and panel discussion method is also an instructorcentered model (Cranton, 1989), it often integrates discussion and questioning. Debate and panel discussion is defined as the use of two or more individuals discussing varying viewpoints or perspectives on a topic. By-in-large, however, the learners are passive receivers of information, as the panelists or debaters are active. Like lecture, panel discussion has been historically misused. Its overuse becomes evident when program flyers list a panel for almost every topic on the agenda. Some topics simply do not lend themselves to panel or debate.

Panels and debates can be very effective, exciting, and somewhat "explosive" if the topic is a volatile one. The use of panelists or debaters does not have to

constitute an entire program. These approaches can be combined with other methods to make a very interesting session.

Factors to consider when using the debate and panel discussion method:

- Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed: Various and/or divergent views, perspectives, opinions, or beliefs are best conveyed with the panel and debate format.
- Type(s) of Objectives Best Met: While affective objectives can certainly be met with panel and debate, cognitive objectives are most frequently satisfied with these approaches.
- Audience Status and Perception: Unlike other methods, almost everyone can agree with someone or some comments made in a panel discussion and debate. Learners can be involved emotionally, psychologically, and physically; especially if they ask questions.
- Special Aspects: Panel and debate is best used to showcase controversy and diversity. A panel discussion is not effective when all panelists simply reaffirm what others have said.
- For Best Results: If using panel and debate, have one responsible
 faculty member as a moderator who can carefully plan the program
 with clearly stated objectives. Panelists and debaters must be well
 informed about the program plan and objectives so they do not deviate
 from the purpose. Allow adequate time for each panel member to
 comment and time for audience input. It is critical that interaction
 among panelists and debaters take place. Without such interaction, this
 method deteriorates into serial lectures.

Carefully select a moderator. An individual with a commanding voice and presence, as well as quick humor, can best direct the panel or debate, relieve tension, and control comments. The moderator must not only know the subject matter but must also be familiar with the rest of the faculty members who are the debaters or panelists.

 Moderators assist in planning the session and are vital in facilitating discussion, controlling time, involving each panel member equally, screening questions, and involving participants on an active level. They can determine the order of subtopics to be discussed and the sequencing for panel members' contributions as moderators establish the time frames.

- Moderators can plan questions for panel members or act as host while participants ask questions. If questions are submitted in writing, the moderator can screen them, asking only those which are the most relevant and interesting.
- Moderators do not necessarily present information but facilitate the discussion process. They can provide reactions to information presented, summarize at key points in the discussion, and facilitate transitions from one aspect of the discussion to another.
- Moderators assure that one or two panel members do not dominate the discussion. They can also clarify panel members' comments and restate participants' questions for all to hear.

Restrict the size of panels. Four to five panelists are more than adequate for a lively discussion. It is important that each panelist has an opportunity to explain viewpoints, be involved in the discussion, and/or respond to questions from the audience. When panels exceed ten, members are not equally heard, and thus, the method is not effectively used.

For optimum results from a panel:

- Inform panel members of program objectives.
- Allow each panelist a set, limited time for presenting individual views.
- Actively engage each of them in answering participant questions.

Ensure that questions to panelists are a planned component of the program, as they are important to the panel process. Questions provide panel members with points of departure for comments, assure that a variety of information is covered, and present participants with areas of agreement or disagreement with the panel. Ideally, some questions should come from participants. This gives participants ownership in the presentation, makes them active rather than passive, and provides a much wider spectrum of information. Be creative in involving the audience. Solicit write-in questions from participants when they register or during breaks at the program. If you have a large group of participants, have several microphones strategically placed in the audience for easy access to ask questions.

3. Small Group Participation/Activity

This method of teaching is interactive. Small group participation/activity is often used when a group is too large, when learners' interests vary, or when learners feel more comfortable interacting in smaller numbers (Cranton, 1989:83). Depending

on the objectives and the characteristics of the audience, group composition can be either homogeneous or heterogeneous, which should be determined on how much diversity of perspectives is desired (Cranton, 1989:83).

Small group participation/activity is defined as learners actively involved in the discovery of information and practicing/applying new skills and abilities through interaction among learners and between learners and faculty. Small group participation/activity is a vital instructional method. If it is to be effective and worthwhile for the learners, it must have concrete objectives, clear and written instructions, assigned time allocations, and it must be an integral part of the subject matter or topic being conveyed. If the small group participation/activity method is not well planned and used, it loses its impact. This method, when done correctly, capitalizes on group dynamics as a way to maximize learning while at the same time honors the knowledge, skills, and abilities brought to the experience by all who are involved.

Factors to consider when using the group participation/activity method:

- Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed: The information best conveyed includes personal experiences, individual knowledge, specific perspectives, consensus on issues, responses, and reactions.
 Additionally, small group participation/activity provides an opportunity for learners to practice using the information conveyed.
- Type(s) of Objectives Best Met: Cognitive, psychomotor, and affective objectives can be satisfied using this method.
- Audience Status and Perception: Learners are a direct part of the
 educational experience with small group participation/activity. There is
 generally a feeling of shared ownership in the educational outcome and
 faculty can use this method to assess learner progress toward program
 objectives.
- Special Aspects: The most beneficial aspect of small group participation/activity includes providing time for every individual to participate. While some learners may hesitate to speak in a large group, their hesitancy often is lessened in a small group setting because a small group is less threatening. Another positive effect of using this method is that it increases trust and respect among group members and reinforces the individual and collective knowledge held by all those involved.
- For Best Results: The ideal size of a small group is between five to seven members. A minimum group size is three. Fewer members

cannot provide a forum for active discussion. A maximum number is nine. If more than nine members are in a group, they will often split into subgroups, thus reducing group cohesion.

Groups should ideally be seated in a circle. If a circle is impossible, learners can group together in whatever manner facilitates open discussion. Ideally, groups should have private space for their activity. If private space is not possible, groups can function as an island within the larger group.

Group discussion should be monitored by the faculty member and guided by a facilitator using the instructional tools provided. Facilitators can be preselected and trained, randomly selected by the group, or volunteer for the role. They should be given facilitation instructions in writing and reviewed verbally to reduce misunderstanding. Facilitators assure that the instructions are followed by the group members, pass out all work sheets, monitor each groups' progress, record appropriate information, assure full participation of each group member, and may give the oral report of each small groups' work when the large group reconvenes.

Although some faculty are hesitant to use group activity with large audiences, they can be successful if facilitators are used. In large group settings, it is imperative to provide each facilitator and each participant with both written and verbal instructions and all necessary work sheets. When large audiences are broken down into small groups, it is difficult for the faculty member to monitor the progress of all of the small groups. But, well designed group participation/activity can eliminate many of the problems. Additionally, judicial education staff can assist the faculty member in monitoring the small groups, thus increasing the opportunity of using this method effectively with large audiences.

Groups often function best if they have an identity. They can select a name, number, or some other identifier. When the group reports on their activity to the large audience, the reporter should give the group name before beginning. This procedure gives the group members a sense of camaraderie and may add some levity to the exercise.

Small group activity is best capitalized on by having at least some groups report on the activity to the entire audience. Information reported should include their process and their product or decision. This makes the activity relevant to the topic and gives participants a sense of ownership in the session.

Demonstration 4.

Demonstration is defined as faculty or designees actively engaging in application, implementation, or modeling of new information (Cranton, 1989). Demonstration is not frequently used and when it is, it is usually with some other method. Demonstration is most appropriate at higher levels of the cognitive domain or in the psychomotor domain (Cranton, 1989). Programs which have objectives addressing the performance of any skill or ability (psychomotor objectives) should include demonstration.

Factors to consider when using the demonstration method:

- Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed: Use or application of new information/skills is best conveyed in demonstration, including appropriate or correct use and inappropriate or incorrect use.
- Type(s) of Objectives Best Met: The most effective objective satisfied by demonstration is psychomotor. Cognitive objectives can also be met. Affective objectives can be satisfied but are not associated with demonstration as frequently as with other methods.
- Audience Status and Perception: The audience can feel drawn into the
 program through well executed demonstration. In general,
 demonstration raises learners' confidence levels as they observe new
 information being put to the test. Problems can arise if the group is too
 large or the seating is inappropriate for clear viewing by all present.
- Special Aspects: Demonstration eases the tension learners may feel about trying out new information. Seeing and hearing faculty or others perform allows learners to assess the realistic and practical use of information, practice mentally while watching, verify their understanding of what has been presented, and become more comfortable with the expected sequence of events.
- For Best Results: When involving others in a demonstration, inform all
 actors of the expected outcome. If possible, provide written scripts
 (actors do not need to speak/read from the script but it gives them a
 clear understanding of what they are to do).

The demonstration must be viewed by all learners. With large audiences, several simultaneous demonstrations can be held at strategic places in the room or use simultaneous video to project the live demonstration onto a large screen.

If there is a chance that the outcome of a demonstration may not be what is desired due to unpredictable variables, videotaping a structured demonstration may be more appropriate than doing it live.

Demonstration should generally be preceded by verbal instructions on the application of the new information. Learners should have brief and sequential

written instructions so they can visually check the progress of the demonstration at any given moment and assess how that stage relates to the outcome.

5. Experiential Activity

A great deal of learning, particularly in the affective and psychomotor domains, takes place in experiential learning models where learners participate in performing tasks (Cranton, 1989:86).

Experiential activity is defined as a method of involving learners in situational action which approximates reality and in which learners can actually experience an event, situation, or procedure. It differs from group activity in that learners are in a structured situation which approximates a real situation.

Some faculty resist using experiential activity for a variety of reasons: the outcome is not always what was predicted or desired, some types are believed or perceived to be "touchy-feely" and thus not substantive enough, and experiential activities take time that faculty believe could be better spent in conveying more information.

The appropriate use of carefully planned experiential activity can be the most beneficial and effective time spent in a session. At best, an education session is contrived. Experiential activity brings a great deal of reality to the session and paves the way for learner use of new information when on the job. The key to successful experiential activity is pre-planning, having clearly stated instructions, establishing appropriate time frames, monitoring the activity as it happens, being flexible in outcomes, and tying the experience back to the information presented.

Factors to consider when using the experiential activity method:

- Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed: Testing new information and personal abilities in life-like situations, personal reactions, empathetic action, decision-making activity, and teamwork experiences are the types of information best conveyed in experiential activity.
- Type(s) of Objectives Best Met: Cognitive, psychomotor, and affective objectives can be satisfied in experiential activity, but the most effective use of this method is achievement of affective objectives.
- Audience Status and Perception: The learners are part of the program in experiential activity, which gives them ownership and builds trust in faculty, each other, and use of new information. There is really no limit to the number of learners who can participate in experiential situations, but use in large groups requires careful planning.

- Special Aspects: The most difficult time learners will have in applying
 new information is the first time. If this first experience can be in the
 education session, where there is little risk and no consequence for
 error, learners will have less difficulty in using the new information in
 the workplace. Experiential activity, because it approximates real
 situations, is the only method which provides this opportunity.
- For Best Results: The most common use of experiential activity is role
 play, which has two very different uses in an education session. Both
 can facilitate learning greatly, if carefully planned.

Role play is an experiential activity involving participants in acting out a scenario, performing a certain role, or practicing newly learned skills. It can increase the effectiveness of learning by providing participants a nearly real situation in which they can experience feelings, attitudes, comfort, or discomfort. Role play also provides an opportunity for learners to test or validate newly acquired information. The advantage of role play is that it provides a safe environment for learners to experience a variety of situations (Cranton, 1989:88).

One use of role play is to set the tone for learning. Used prior to the introduction of new information, role play can provide participants with an experience to open their minds to new possibilities. Another use of role play is to help participants bridge the gap between learning new information and putting it into practice. In a course on dealing with difficult people, a role play used early in the program can help participants realize they could expand their skills, thus creating the need to know which motivates participants to learn the new strategy. A role play later in the program allows participants to test newly acquired strategies and can provide faculty with an evaluation tool to assess how well participants have learned and are able to apply new information.

Role play can involve a few individuals who perform for the entire audience or it can be an activity in which all participants take part in small groups. In either case, instructions need to be clearly stated as well as given to participants in writing before they are asked to engage in the activity.

If used by the entire audience within small groups, role play works best if participants have established a comfort level with faculty and with each other. If used with a few actors who perform for other learners in the large group, faculty should preselect individuals and provide them with the specifics of the role play before the program begins. Without this preparation, the role play performance before the large group risks failing.

If the entire audience participates in small group role play, an observer may be useful within each group. The observer does not participate directly in the role play

but watches others and gives feedback to fellow group members on their actions, emotions, use of skills, and so on. This can be especially helpful if the audience is large and the faculty member cannot observe all groups to provide this feedback. If the role play takes place as a small group of actors performing for the audience, feedback can come from the audience and/or the faculty member.

Whether role play is in small groups or demonstrated in front of the entire audience, discussion following the activity should be structured. Faculty can design a format for discussion that involves a series of questions participants can answer, a list of topics to be covered, or a list of expected outcomes, which participants can validate or invalidate.

A concluding discussion of the role play experience is critical if faculty are to tie the activity to the topic. It should involve the entire audience so participants are able to hear the views and experiences of others.

6. Individual Activity

Individualized learning techniques are based on the assumption that individuals learn at different speeds and that regular feedback facilitates the learning process (Cranton, 1989:84). Individual activity can be defined as providing time for learners to work on their own; setting a personal and comfortable pace.

Factors to consider when using the individual activity method:

- Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed: Facts, directions, individual action plans, and application of new information are best conveyed through individual activity.
- Types of Objectives Best Met: Cognitive objectives are the most likely to be met in individual activity, but psychomotor objectives can also be achieved. While unlikely, affective objectives could be met if the individual is engaged in something which can be personalized on an emotional level.
- Audience Status and Perception: Learners are part of the program in individual activity and thus gain some ownership in its success. If the activity goes on too long, however, learners can begin to feel isolated.
- Special Aspects: Learners are in control during individual activity, which makes it unlike any other method. When successful with the task assigned, learners can experience a sense of individual accomplishment and enhanced self esteem. Individual activity can lead to a meaningful exchange of information with faculty. If used to allow learners to test

new information for themselves, individual activity can generate questions, opinions, and new options for the task. Case studies which require learners to apply newly acquired information are effective individual activities.

For Best Results: When using individual activity, it is important that at least some learners share their work with the large group. This maintains continuity and allows the audience to validate what they each accomplished through those who shared their work. It is best for faculty to visit individuals to check their understanding of the task, their progress, and their feelings about the activity. In this way faculty can ascertain how long the activity should continue.

Step Six: Select Audiovisuals, Materials, and Room Arrangements

Faculty, in consultation with the judicial educator, determine the teaching aids to be used based on both the topic and their individual teaching style. Teaching aids include audiovisual equipment and handouts. A related area is selection of room arrangements.

Teaching Aids

Conveying information in a learning environment is greatly enhanced by using instructional media technologies such as those discussed here. There has been an explosion of new technologies. However, those found in step six will be the aids or technologies most often available to judicial educators. All of the information to follow informs judicial educators and faculty about key aspects of the teaching aids, which can help them select one or more most appropriate for the faculty member, audience, room arrangements, and subject matter. The descriptions and suggestions for use can be further investigated by reading Instructional Media, Second Edition, by Heinich, Molenda, and Russell.

Teaching aids are tools for faculty to use in facilitating learner achievement. Room arrangements have a physical and psychological impact on learning. Both teaching aids and room arrangements should be chosen by faculty after teaching methods are determined

Criteria for selecting teaching aids include:

Impact/special aspects, which refer to the unique features of an aid that others cannot offer.

- Appropriateness, which refers to the relationship between compatibility of the aid and the setting in which it will be used.
- Nature of information, which refers to the compatibility of the information and the benefit the aid can offer.
- Audience size, which refers to the fact that certain aids, even if appropriate for the information being offered, are not effective with larger groups of people.
- Availability, which refers to the ease of access and use of the aid. Even a very appropriate aid, if difficult to access or use, will not yield optimal results and thus should not be selected.

Teaching aids are innumerable and include everything from props, such as a judge's robe and gavel, to audiovisual equipment. Due to the vast number of potential aids, only a few will be explored here: flip charts and posters, overhead transparencies, slides, films and videos, audiotapes, and written materials. Information best conveyed, audience size, special aspects, and preparation will be examined for each teaching aid. Aids may be used individually or several may be used in a single presentation.

1. Flip Charts and Posters

Flip charts and posters capture spontaneous thoughts, ideas, or information and can be used for prepared written material of a size appropriate for display to the group of learners. Teaching aids are to be used with a purpose and intent toward some educational end. The use of a flip chart to write vast amounts of information, which could be provided more effectively in handout form, is unnecessary and counterproductive. Flip charts are most effective when faculty record only the most important aspects of the information being presented and/or when they record learner comments.

Factors to consider when using flip charts and posters:

- Information Best Conveyed: Lists, charts, graphs, key words, and learner input are the types of information generally conveyed through flip charts and posters.
- Audience Size: Due to the restrictive size of flip chart and poster paper, use of these aids is restricted to relatively small groups, possibly up to 30 people.

- Special Aspects: Flip charts and posters are the only teaching aids
 which can be posted on the wall for continued viewing throughout the
 session. They are alterable. If faculty or learners want to add, delete, or
 modify, it can be done easily.
- Preparation: Paper and markers are relatively inexpensive. Preparation
 can be nonexistent if flip charts are only used to record participant
 input. Pads of paper are available in blank or lined versions. Markers
 are available in water-based or permanent, broad, or fine point.
- For Best Results: Always use a variety of color pens/markers and paper. Avoid yellow pens/markers as they are almost impossible to see beyond the first few feet. This variety adds interest, allows for highlighting certain points, and is easier to read from a distance. Use water-based markers when possible. Permanent, acetone-based markers bleed through paper and have an unpleasant odor.

Flip chart pads come with lined or unlined paper. To obtain neat lettering when using unlined paper, use a yard stick or "t" square to draw dark lines on one sheet of paper and place it under each sheet before lettering begins. The lines show through and the sheet can be reused for future lettering.

If pre-lettering flip chart pages with headings to later record participant input, skip several sheets between headings so that ample recording space is available.

Check the facility to determine whether tape or tacks are preferred for posting sheets of paper. If tape is preferred, cut or tear several strips of tape and place on the edges or the legs of the easel. This way the tape is ready for use avoiding the awkward act of tearing tape to post a sheet while the learners wait.

If the flip chart is being used for recording audience input, have a non-faculty member (or a faculty member not teaching at the time) record on the flip chart. This allows the faculty member to continue the dialogue with the learner offering the information, keeping the audience engaged, while the recorder has time to record the information. It also prevents the faculty from turning away from the audience while the information is being recorded. It is best to preselect a recorder, either before the session or during a break. Selection of a recorder should be based on the individual's comfort with the task and ability to spell and write/print legibly.

Flip charts and posters are only effective when the information on them can be read; therefore, the information must be written clearly and in large letters. In other words, the information on the flip chart and poster must be readable from the back of the room.

2. Overhead Transparencies

Overhead transparencies are designed to project information onto a screen. Misuse of overhead transparencies occurs when there is too much information on one transparency, print size is smaller than 18 point, print quality is poor, or the projection from the overhead projector onto the screen cannot be enlarged adequately for all learners to read.

Factors to consider when using overhead transparencies:

- Information Best Conveyed: Key words, key phrases, charts, graphs, highlights, or portions of handout materials are generally the most effective types of information presented via overhead projection.
- Audience Size: While not as restrictive as flip charts or posters, there is a limitation to audience size with overhead projection. The farther the projector is from the screen, the larger the projection. However, there is a limit to the size of the screen and how far you can separate the projector and screen and still focus the projection. Depending on the equipment, the screen, and the space available, overhead projection can work for groups of up to 100.
- Special Aspects: Overhead projection offers the only opportunity for faculty to keep learners focused on the front of the room while enabling them to see key terms and listen to the faculty member simultaneously. Overhead projection can take place in a fully lighted room, which is not true of some similar methods such as slides.
- Preparation: Overhead transparencies are relatively inexpensive when purchased by the box. Transparencies are available in several varieties: write-on film, which can be hand-lettered; duplication film, which comes in different versions for different high speed copiers; revelation film, which is dark blue with a special pen which makes the blue disappear leaving yellow lines/letters/drawings; color film, which is used in full sheets; and color adhesive film, which can be cut into shapes and applied to write-on or duplication film.

Transparency pens come in permanent or water based versions and broad or fine point for use with write-on or most duplication film. A variety of colors is available.

Light-weight cardboard frames are available for transparencies.

Transparencies are secured to frames with tape. Frames protect transparencies and provide a much more professional projection as they block out extraneous light from the projector.

Overlays can be created by hinging one transparency onto a frame in which a companion transparency is secured. The secured transparency can be shown, and at the appropriate time, the overlay can be laid in place to superimpose new information.

A relatively new addition to the overhead projector is a device which, when used on the overhead, projects a computer screen image onto a screen. This allows faculty to manipulate data in view of all participants.

 For Best Results: Locate the projection screen where there is not a light directly above it. Although an overhead projector works well in lighted areas, a light close to the screen causes the projection to appear faded.

Keep information on transparencies to a minimum; use large, bold letters and illustrations. Print size should be no smaller than 18 point. Therefore, typewritten material is inappropriate unless enlarged before transformed into a transparency.

Use color with transparencies; whether added by pens, color overlays, or adhesive film. This creates interest and breaks the monotony of black and white projection.

When wanting to reveal portions of material on a transparency, place a full sized piece of paper under the transparency, blocking out what is to be kept covered. Move the paper, which is still under the transparency, as needed to reveal more information. If placing the paper on top of the transparency, faculty must hold it in place; however, under the transparency, the weight of the transparency and frame hold it. A common writing pen can be used as a pointer; lay the pen on the transparency and it will appear as a pointer on the projection screen. Faculty often point to items on the screen which the image is projected rather than the projection screen of the overhead projector. This is an inappropriate and ineffectual way of bringing attention to a certain item.

When using an overhead projector, arrive early, place one transparency on the projector, turn the projector on, and focus the transparency on the screen. To emphasize the information, point to the transparency while still facing the audience.

Turn the projector off between transparencies. Continue to speak as you remove one transparency and place the next on the projector. Once you have the transparency in proper position, turn the projector on. However, sometimes turning the projector on and off can be disruptive to the learners and overtaxes the projector, thus causing the bulb to prematurely burn out. To determine which method is best, inquire about the proper use of the projector, and practice using the transparencies and equipment to ensure that the method used adds to the presentation and does not detract from its impact.

Extra bulbs should always be available. Replacement is easy. The faculty member should receive information about both extra bulbs and replacement instructions prior to the program beginning.

The use of transparency frames are preferred by many faculty members because presentation notes can be recorded on the frames eliminating the need for other notes.

3. Slides

Slides are projections of photographs onto a screen. Slides are often underused in education sessions for a variety of reasons: they must be planned and produced well in advance of the program, they can be expensive to produce, and they require some photographic expertise if they are to be truly effective.

Factors to consider when using slides:

- Information Best Conveyed: Real situations, events, and people are conveyed by photograph slides. Slides can also be used to project words, phrases, charts, and graphs.
- Audience Size: Slides can be used with relatively large audiences so long as the images or words projected are clear and large. As with the overhead projector, the greater the distance between the projector and the screen, the larger the projected image. Slide projectors can be focused at greater distances from the screen than overheads. Slide projectors have both wired or wireless remote control capabilities which allows the faculty member the freedom to move about and respond to questions by easily advancing to new slides or returning to previous

slides. This feature gives the faculty member the option of turning a slide presentation into an interactive experience possibly involving a large number of learners.

- Special Aspects: Slides can bring reality into a session. They can charge
 a group with emotion or take them to places they would not otherwise
 be able to go.
- Preparation: A 35 mm camera and film is all that is required to produce slides. Film and processing can become expensive, however. There are also slides available for purchase and companies which will make slides of words, phrases, graphs, and so on. Additionally, many computer software programs can easily and inexpensively make slides.
- For Best Results: Slides must be used in a darkened room. While this
 makes viewing easier, it makes notetaking impossible for learners.

The faculty must be familiar with the slides and assure each is relevant to the overall presentation. If sections of slides are to be shown at different times, leave a blank between sections. Using a blank prevents premature showing of a slide and helps the faculty mark the beginning and ending of the slide presentation.

When turning off a slide projector, turn off the lamp but not the fan. The fan needs to run until room temperature air is exiting the projector. Turning off the fan before it has adequately cooled the lamp can cause the bulb to explode.

Not all slide projectors use the same carousel; consequently, the faculty member must be sure the carousel or tray is compatible with the slide projector being used.

4. Films and Videos

Films and videos are action oriented and, like slides, can bring reality into the session. Professional and home versions of films and videos can be effective teaching aids. Both films and videos produced for educational purposes or those done for entertainment can be useful. Films and videos can be purchased or rented from forprofit distributors. Public and university libraries often have extensive film and video selections for loan.

 Information Best Conveyed: Stories, demonstrations, procedures, human interactions, and events are conveyed well through film or video.

- Audience Size: With 16 mm film, an audience of several hundred can be accommodated. With video, the numbers are smaller. If using a VCR and 19" monitor, an audience of 15 to 20 is possible. If the group is larger, use of multiple monitors is possible. Placed at strategic points in the room, one VCR can serve each monitor with proper cabling. Another relatively new piece of equipment, a video projector, can project video onto a screen up to about 70 inches which would serve an audience of 100 to 150.
- Special Aspects: Films and videos bring action and real life situations into the session.
- **Preparation:** Filming is beyond the scope of most judicial education programs, but videotaping is very accessible. Today camcorders are user friendly enabling the operator to edit and add graphics and special effects. There are professional videographers in most large cities who can produce a video costing from a couple hundred to several thousand dollars, depending on the product desired and the budget available. Additionally, camcorders can be rented or borrowed as they are increasing in use. Many community colleges and universities have video departments which can be accessed at little or no cost.
- For Best Results: Use only the portion of the film or video which is relevant to the program content. A few minutes of viewing may be all that is needed to spark discussion among learners. If using only a portion, have the film/tape preset at the point you want to start and be familiar with that point. Preparing the audience for the viewing helps them to immediately focus on what to look for before the film or video begins. It also makes for a more informed discussion following the viewing.

Faculty should practice using the equipment. Smooth operation and lack of unnecessary noise and fumbling gives a much more professional presentation. If faculty are uncomfortable using the equipment, an audiovisual technician or judicial education staff member should be located before the program to assist the faculty.

Run a portion of the film/video before the session and move around the room checking for adequate viewing and sound.

5. Audiotapes

Audiotapes are sound only. Often, the use of audiotape is more effective than the use of video. Audiotape forces the learner to participate by having to visualize

what is heard on the tape. Effective use can be made of professional tapes, both educational and entertainment-oriented.

Factors to consider when using audiotapes:

- Information Best Conveyed: Verbal skills and human interaction represent the most effective use of audiotapes. However, procedures, histories, instructions, and more are commonly found in audio format. Another use of audiotape is to bring music into the session; music can become the focus of the session or serve as background for an activity.
- Audience Size: If channeled through a public address system, a very large audience can be accommodated with audiotape. If using a tape player, an audience of 25 to 30 may be the upper limit.
- Special Aspects: Audiotape can have an affective impact on learners; sometimes more powerful than video since it engages learners in visualizing, thus engaging their imaginations.
- Preparation: If recording your own, a tape recorder and blank tapes are all that is required.
- For Best Results: If recording your own tapes, find an acoustically suitable place to record. Such a place must be quiet and free of echoes and interruptions.

Written Materials

Written materials are created or duplicated and given to learners. Written materials should be designed with care and have a professional look.

- Information Best Conveyed: Supplemental information, backgrounds, details, facts, procedures, agendas, outlines, and summaries can be addressed. Written materials are often misused. Some faculty mistake quantity for quality and overload learners with material they will probably never read or use. The most effective use is to provide learners with concise, to-the-point material that supports the presentation.
- Audience Size: There is no limit to the size of the audience when using written materials.
- Special Aspects: Written materials are the only teaching aid that learners can take with them for later reference. Written materials also

allow learners to make notes relevant to the discussion for future reference.

- Preparation: Preparation is inexpensive and simple with typewriters, computers, duplication machines, and binding resources available in most organizations.
- For Best Results: Limit written materials to what is necessary, manageable, and useful to learners. The materials should be clean of distracting marks, page numbered, and referred to by the faculty throughout the session.

Materials should be distributed to learners at appropriate times. Sometimes giving all materials at the beginning of the session is best. Sometimes giving portions of materials during the session is best. And, sometimes it is even best to give materials to learners at the conclusion of the program. Determine the optimal time according to the nature of the material, program objectives, and the teaching style to be used.

Room Arrangements

Room arrangements affect the learning environment and play a role in implementing activities and using teaching aids. Three basic room arrangements will be discussed: classroom, theater, and conference style.

Criteria for selecting a room arrangement include:

- Size of space and number of participants.
- Types of teaching methods to be used.
- Teaching aids to be used.
- Desired psychological environment.

1. Classroom Style

Classroom style consists of rows of tables and chairs facing the same general direction. The advantages of classroom style include: participants face one focal point making it good for audiovisual equipment use; since there are tables, it is good for notetaking; and because it is somewhat formal and participants are not facing each other, it discourages unwanted conversation. Some disadvantages include: it is reminiscent of school, thus does not lend itself to an adult environment; it is difficult to break into groups; it inhibits participant interaction; and it implies speaker

superiority, which is not conducive to the mutuality desired for optimal adult education.

2. Theater Style

Theater style consists of chairs only, generally facing one direction. Some advantages of this style of seating include: participants face one direction, thus it is good for audiovisual equipment use; and since there are no tables, it allows a maximum number of people in the available space and it is easy to break participants into smaller groups. Some disadvantages include: because there are no tables, it is uncomfortable for participants over long periods of time and it makes notetaking difficult; and since participants do not face each other, this arrangement discourages interaction, unless rearranged.

Conference Style

Conference style consists of tables and chairs in a variety of arrangements where participants face each other, as a whole or in smaller groupings. Some advantages of this arrangement include: it is informal, thus conducive to optimal adult learning; since participants face each other, it encourages participant interaction; it eases freedom of movement for faculty, since there are not long rows of participants; and the very nature of this arrangement facilitates small group activity. Some disadvantages include: some arrangements can make use of audiovisual equipment difficult; and most arrangements require larger amounts of space than schoolroom or theater styles. Numerous arrangements come under the conference style category including traditional conference table style, rounds, union, u-style, and others. Seating arrangements are discussed in more detail in chapters 5 and 6.

Step Seven: Present

Faculty should present the program utilizing the adult education principles presentation cycle, teaching methods, and aids described in this monograph.

Opening a session is best done by providing participants with an overview of the session. Learning is best accomplished when learners know what to expect. If participants are to listen, interact, and respond successfully to the objectives, opening a session with an overview, an agenda, and an explanation of what participants will experience is important.

Presentation Cycle

Once participants know what to expect, the presentation should follow a wellestablished cycle to maximize learning as demonstrated in Figure 2. This cycle is reflective of the basic premise of andragogy put forth by Knowles (1970). Andragogy proposes that adult learners are lead to new learning experiences through their problem-centered focus on learning. Consequently, their learning must be experiential, and experiential activity is the basis of this presentation cycle.

Figure 2 Presentation Cycle

Establish the Need to Know

Provide an experience and personalize the experience



This presentation cycle describes optimal learning for an individual learner and can be used as a model for program development. The program should be reflective of this cycle and individual sessions may address one or all components of the presentation cycle.

1. Establish the Need to Know

To design the overall program, the initial task for faculty is to establish the need to know in learners. Adults come to education sessions with a variety of expectations, experiences, motives, and opinions. If faculty simply launch into content, learners will be at varying levels of interest and involvement.

Provide An Experience to Open Minds: Faculty need to provide learners with an experience to open their minds to new information. This experience can be provided by use of an anecdote, video, case study, role play, or question which causes learners to acknowledge that there may be something worth knowing about this topic.

For example, to establish the need to know in an ethics session, faculty could present an anecdote which is a borderline violation of the code of judicial conduct, or show a video in which a judge acts in some questionable way, or ask participants to recall the most significant event from their past experiences in which they struggled with an ethical issue.

Personalize The Experience and Check Participants' Readiness To
Learn: The next step is to personalize the experience for learners. This
can be done by asking them to react to an anecdote, or respond to the
behavior of the judge in the video, or reassess their own behavior in the
situation they recalled. The responses from the ensuing discussion
provide faculty with a measure of learners' readiness to learn. When
that readiness has been reached, faculty can introduce the content to be
discussed.

For example, in an ethics presentation, as learners disagree about the correct resolution to a situation and the group rediscovers that there are no simple answers to complex ethical situations, faculty can use that moment to transition to content. This can be done by stating, "There are no simple answers. We face these situations daily. Let's examine what we can do to avoid the appearance of impropriety, even though we may know we have done nothing unethical."

2. Provide New Information

Faculty can then present the content designed to meet the established objectives set for the program. Presentation of content should involve a variety of teaching methods and aids. The new information should be provided through knowledgeable sources by using visuals, lecture, handouts, and demonstrations and/or panel discussions. For example, in the ethics session, faculty can present the canon, use a panel of experienced judges to analyze some ethical dilemmas, and show overhead transparencies with some ethical situations to which the canons apply.

Condensing/Expanding - Faculty should be prepared to condense or expand information during the presentation. Group discussion may take longer than anticipated, so some information may have to be covered in a shorter time than planned. The session may move along more rapidly than anticipated or learners may indicate a need for more detail, so some information may be covered in more depth than planned.

Arrangement - Faculty should arrange content in an appropriate manner. Some options include: simple to complex, general to specific or specific to general, sequential or chronological order. More detailed explanation and examples of these common methods of arranging information can be found on page 27.

3. Allow Validation of Information

The final phase of the cycle is to allow learners to test the new information to validate its usefulness to them. This portion of the program actively involves participants. As was stated previously, the first time learners use new information may be the most difficult. Providing a situation for use in the session makes it easier to use in daily activity. For example, in the ethics session, faculty can have learners analyze some case studies or return to the experience provided during the opening session and reassess their reactions.

The presentation cycle can be followed several times within the program or session as previously mentioned. For example, in a session on domestic violence, subtopics might include orders of protection and the cycle of violence. When introducing orders of protection, the faculty can establish the need to know by showing slides of battered women and could personalize the experience by asking judges to react to what they saw. To expand the information base or provide new information, procedures for handling these cases and working with the individuals in them could be discussed. To allow validation of information, learners could process an order of protection in a case study situation.

When introducing the cycle of violence, faculty could establish the need to know by first providing an experience. For instance, they might use an anecdote about a woman who had her husband arrested for severely beating her only to ask for his release the next day. To personalize the experience, faculty could ask learners for similar examples and new information on the cycle of violence could then be discussed. Finally, learners could validate the new information by establishing an action plan for their court on how to deal with families caught in the spiral of family violence.

The presentation cycle described here is based on maximizing the impact of education on an individual learner. It is also compatible with the Kolb Learning Cycle explained in Education for Development: Principles and Practices in Judicial Education: JERITT Monograph Three (Claxton and Murrell, 1992).

Assuring Optimum Results

There are a number of factors faculty should consider to assure optimum results from their teaching. One of the most important is timing. Learners need time to internalize information. Faculty awareness of the process can guide the introduction of new information and the timing of its application. The first task of a learner is to remember new information on either a conscious or unconscious level. Once remembered, hopefully the learner can come to understand the information and possibly apply it. Further use of the information leads to an ability to assimilate the information with existing experience and knowledge. From this assimilation, the

learner can begin to analyze the information. Eventually the learner can synthesize the information with other knowledge to create new approaches and evaluate the information as to its validity for practical use.

Another factor is <u>creating an atmosphere</u>. Whether deliberately or accidentally, faculty create an atmosphere in which learners are expected to function. As mentioned in the chapter on adult learners, the atmosphere or environment in which learning is optimal for adults is one of mutuality, respect for differences, and incorporation of the variety of experiences adults bring to education.

Actively <u>engaging participants</u> in the learning process is not only more interesting for faculty and learners, it also provides the session with a rich pool of information, experiences, perspectives, and opinions.

The effect of what is learned in one situation on one's learning and performance in new situations is called <u>transfer of learning</u>. Transfer of learning is necessary if participants are to apply what is learned in an education session to their daily tasks. To facilitate this transfer, faculty can establish a practical, life-like situation for participants to try new skills or make use of new information in the context of the education program.

When making key points, faculty should introduce the information to come. Faculty should note its importance and let the learners know what to expect, make the point within a minute of the preview, and follow up with an example. Before moving to another area, faculty should restate the point and relate it to other information presented. This stresses to the learners that the information is important. Additionally, retention is increased because they hear it more than once.

Making transitions is a matter of planning how to move from one subtopic to the next, maintaining continuity. Comments on how the subtopics relate to one another, examples that encompass both subtopics, or a learner comment can serve as transitions.

A related matter is <u>punctuating changes</u>, which is a technique of letting learners know that focus is moving from one area into another. This can be accomplished with a statement like, "now let's turn our attention to another matter"; or with a noted change, such as referring learners to another chapter of their handouts; or with a physical act, such as turning on the overhead projector to show a new topic on the screen.

Faculty are expected to continually <u>measure the success</u> of the program and make changes if necessary. This can be fostered by reading learners. Reading them involves assessing their verbal and non-verbal cues. The faculty should always ask

themselves the following questions: "Are they with me? Are they tired? Do they need a break? Are they bored?"

A companion consideration is that faculty need to read themselves. If learners are behaving a certain way, it could be they are reflecting something faculty is doing. If faculty expect learners to be enthusiastic, faculty must be enthusiastic. If learners are apathetic, faculty may be portraying a low level of interest in the learners.

Listening actively is a critical skill for faculty. Learners need to feel heard if the environment is to be one of mutuality. A simple formula for listening actively is represented by the acronym SOLER: Squarely face the talker; Open your posture; Lean forward slightly; make Eye Contact; and Respond Reflectively (Egan, 1982:108-Squarely facing the talker means turning your body toward the individual. Opening your posture means uncrossing your arms. Leaning forward is a very subtle movement, barely noticeable. Making eye contact means looking directly at who is speaking. Responding reflectively means summarizing what the learner has said; in word, tone, and nonverbal gestures. This validates for the learner that you understand the message.

Questioning effectively is another critical skill. Questioning is a versatile tool in an education session. It can draw learners into the session as active participants, it can assist faculty in evaluating learning, and it can make a session lively while setting a tone of mutuality. Questions asked early in the session should be non-threatening; their purpose is to involve people. Faculty should ask about thoughts, opinions, and reactions disclosing that there is no right or wrong answer. Later in the session, faculty should ask questions that assess what learners know and how they can apply new information.

It is always best to allow answers to be voluntary. Remember that adults often fear competition and evaluation among their peers. It is also best to always ask open-ended questions; those which cannot be answered with a yes or no. This forces learners to be active and think.

Maintaining learner interest in a program can be difficult. Varying the approach is one technique to keep learners from getting too bored. Changing pace, teaching methods, or tone are all examples of varying the approach to keep learner interest high but not to the point of discordance.

Making adjustments may be necessary. Faculty should be prepared to change the program plan if learners are discontent, to present without the overhead projector if the equipment fails, and to accept a different room arrangement in case the program is moved to another room or if the set-up is not what was requested. If prepared to accept these inconveniences, faculty will enjoy the experience despite some unexpected adjustments.

Faculty behavior has a direct impact on participant behavior as many adult educators have noted. Malcolm Knowles talked about faculty behavior as an important factor in adult learning.

The behavior of the faculty member probably influences the character of the learning climate more than any other single factor. The behavior of the faculty member conveys whether the attitude is one of interest in and respect for participants or whether they are seen as receiving sets for the faculty's transmissions of wisdom (Knowles,1970:841).

Truly listening to what participants say, demonstrating enthusiasm, adapting to participant needs, and using appropriate humor sets the tone of informality, mutuality, and respect, which are all conducive to adult learning.

Step Eight: Evaluate

Evaluation of education sessions is often limited to participant evaluation of the site, the faculty, and the program as it relates to others they have attended. Evaluation in the context of this planning model refers to faculty evaluation of the participants' grasp of the information presented. This is a critical step if the programs in the curriculum are to be considered contributing to the growth and change of learners. Faculty evaluation of participant learning can reveal a new set of needs to be addressed in later programs.

To be of optimal benefit, evaluation of learner progress should take place throughout the program. The faculty should make adjustments to reinforce information presented if learning is deemed inadequate at any point.

The most effective evaluation techniques are designed to evaluate the achievement of:

- Cognitive objectives by obtaining learner feedback with questions and answers. Questions should be based on the action verbs used in the objectives (list, define, explain, identify, and so on).
- Psychomotor objectives by having learners demonstrate their newly acquired skills and abilities. Demonstration should be based on the action verbs used in the objectives (complete, operate, conduct, perform, and so on).

Affective objectives by having learners participate in role play or case analysis. The role play or case analysis should be based on the attitudes or emotions used in the objectives (empathetic, helpfulness, impartiality, and so on).

The effective use of the program planning cycle can assist the judicial educator and faculty in assuring that each aspect of a program has been considered. The information presented in this chapter is to provide judicial educators with the information necessary to assist faculty in effective planning and to give judicial educators a foundation for presenting a faculty development program as outlined in chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Faculty Development Basics

Faculty development is essential to the success of judicial education programming. This chapter is written for the judicial educator who wants to conduct a one-day faculty development program. It provides an agenda and information on adult learning and program planning. This chapter is a guide and companion to chapter 6 which focuses on written materials for a faculty development program. Consequently, similar information appears in both chapters and cross referencing is made. Likewise, previous chapters are also referenced as they relate to the subject matter being discussed.

What You Will Need

- Screen
- Overhead projector
- Transparencies
- Flip chart
- Colored markers
- Masking tape or tacks
- VCR
- Monitor
- Videotape
- Slide projector
- Slides
- Written materials

What You Will Need To Do

- Follow the presentation cycle explained in chapter 4
- Expose participants to the use of audiovisual equipment
- Allow participants to experience more than one room arrangement
- Involve participants actively throughout the program
- Have participants complete some version of a program plan for a topic they will present incorporating the information gained in your presentation
- Incorporate appropriate humor
- Demonstrate use of the principles of adult education

What You Will Need To Model

- Incorporate as many of the aspects of the faculty development program into your own presentation as possible
- Follow the presentation tips given to participants on pages 139-140.
- Use audiovisual equipment appropriately and effectively
- Demonstrate the need to sense reactions of the audience and yourself in order to adjust the program when necessary
- · Effectively use the various teaching methods

The following instructions cover 20 steps involved in conducting a one-day faculty development seminar. By using these steps, the judicial educator can hold a faculty development seminar and be assured that basic adult learning and teaching principles have been adequately conveyed to new faculty. What is offered here is only a prototype and should be modified to meet the needs of each judicial education organization and its faculty.

Faculty Development Program Learning Objectives and Time Frames

Learning Objectives

Participants will be able to:

- 1. Write program objectives in measurable terms.
- 2. Plan an evaluation of participant growth and change.
- 3. Plan a presentation incorporating the presentation cycle, using a variety of presentation methods.

Time Frame

Instruction Time

Steps	<u>Time</u>	
one - seven	60 minutes	
eight - twelve	60 minutes	
thirteen - sixteen	120 minutes	
seventeen - twenty	180 minutes	

The Session

Instructions for Faculty Presentation

Step One: Opening the Session

- Welcome the participants to the faculty development seminar.
- B. Introduce self.
- C. Conduct participant introductions.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

- A. For the welcome, tell the participants you are happy they are at the faculty development seminar and that you look forward to their contributions in this learning experience.
- For your introduction, give your name and briefly describe your background. State your goals or objectives for the seminar.
- C. 1) Ask participants to introduce themselves.
 - Tell participants you would like to know what they hope to achieve by attending this seminar.
 - Explain that the way you will obtain this information is by asking the participants to tell you their goals or objectives and you will record their statements on the flip chart and post any responses on the wall.
 - Explain further that throughout the program and at the conclusion, the group will revisit the statements to determine if the goals or objectives are being met.

Step Two: Review the Agenda

- A. Ask the participants to turn to the agenda found in their materials.
- B. Review the topics, activities, and time frames to answer any questions that the participants may have.
- C. Inform the participants that this session is to prepare them to be a faculty member for programming being offered through your judicial education organization.
- Instruct them that several activities will focus on further developing their program topic and improving or expanding their teaching methods for that topic. This instruction alerts participants to the fact that this is not faculty development in the abstract but rather that it is very concrete with immediate application.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

 Refer participants to page 91 and ask the participants to follow with you as you review the agenda for this one-day program.

Step Three: Review the Written Materials

- A. Explain that written materials are for notetaking, providing space for each participant to personalize materials with what seems to be most important for them to remember.
- To help participants become familiar with the materials, refer them to the table of contents.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

B. Refer participants to the table of contents on page 90. As you go through the table of contents, ask the participants to follow and briefly look at the materials in each tab of the notebook.

Step Four: Create The Need To Know Detailed information on creating the need to know is on pages 49-511

- It is critical to create the need to know. even among potential faculty. One method to accomplish this is to ask participants to envision an individual with whom they had a positive educational experience and to list the characteristics and/or the behaviors of the individual. Assure them that there are no right or wrong answers. Give examples such as: a characteristic would be that the individual was fair or friendly; a behavior would be that the individual would never embarrass a learner.
- B. Have participants voluntarily share their answers from either or both lists and have someone record them on a flip chart and post them for later reference.
- C. Then, ask participants to envision an individual with whom they had a negative educational experience and to list characteristics and/or behaviors of this individual. Have participants share their answers, record them on a flip chart, and post them for later reference.
- D. Have participants discuss the most important aspects of both the positive and negative experiences posted on the flip chart paper. There are no necessarily right or wrong answers in this process, but be sure to comment that the purpose of this program is to provide participants with tools to achieve positive aspects and strategies and to avoid the negative aspects they have identified.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

 To complete this exercise, ask the participants to turn to page 93 in their materials before you begin the discussion.

State that the objective of this exercise is to provide them with the tools to create a positive experience for participants by reflecting on their own past experiences.

Tell the participants to complete the exercise as instructed and then you will debrief by recording their answers on the flip chart.

Step Five: Adults As Learners

[Detailed information on adult learners is on pages 7-9]

- A. Explain that the first section of faculty development involves discussion of the adult learner. Add that the learner is the focus of the education process. The information presented during an educational event is only important if it is useful for and usable by learners.
- B. Briefly discuss the characteristics of the adult learner as they mature, highlighting those that you feel are the most important. Note that the mature adult learner is active, autonomous, and inquiring and is not the quiet, accepting learner one might expect.
- C. Briefly discuss the differences between children and adults as learners, using the information in the monograph as a basis. Solicit answers from the participants for a list that highlights the differences. Short answers for differences are:
 - Experience: adults have more.
 - Application of information: adults want immediate application.
 - Acceptance of information: adults are more skeptical.
 - Physiology: adults may have declining vision and/or hearing, they may not tolerate temperature highs/lows and changes as well, and they cannot sit as long without breaks.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

 Tell participants that the adult learner materials begin on page 94.

- B. Ask participants to follow you as you review the characteristics of adult learners as they mature on page 95.
 - Ask participants to think about the implications of the mature learner for their presentation as they look at the list on page 95.
- C. Ask participants to read the child/adult learner differences and similarities list on page 96. After a discussion, ask participants to give answers for the items listed under differences and similarities on page 97.

Also, solicit answers from the participants for the similarities list. Short answers for similarities are:

- Involvement of multiple senses: enhances learning for everyone with one sense validating and reinforcing others.
- · Active experience: maintains interest and gives all learners a basis for relating new information to what they already know.
- Knowing what to expect: gives all learners a focus regarding how the parts of the educational experience fit into the whole.
- D. Briefly discuss a condition of learning. Then, emphasize the importance of the learning environment, noting that there are two types: physical and psychological. Give some examples of what constitutes each, asking participants to contribute their thoughts as well.
- E. Discuss the fact that even confident adults often fear competition and evaluation in front of their peers. Ask participants why they think this is true.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

D. Ask the participants to turn to page 98 to discuss a condition of learning and the importance of the physical and psychological learning environment.

After reading the entry under a condition of learning on page 98, solicit examples from participants that would comprise the physical and psychological learning environment factors.

E. Ask participants to brainstorm aloud on why they think adults fear peer competition and evaluation.

- F. Explain that the role of faculty is to create a safe learning environment in which learners can receive new information and practice what they have learned. Faculty can reduce the fear factor by providing participants ample opportunity for retention, recall, and practice within the learning environment. Fear will diminish when familiarity, comfort, and competence increase.
- G. Discuss the tips to facilitate retention and recall explaining each. The short definitions of the final three tips are:
 - Repetition: planned, reframed statements to refresh learners' recall of certain relevant material.
 - Reinforcement: giving examples to validate information.
 - Association: associate new information with what has been previously taught, each reinforcing the other.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

F. Review with participants how retention and recall can be facilitated by reviewing those items on page 98.

G. After reviewing tips to facilitate retention and recall, ask the participants to define repetition, reinforcement, and association on the bottom of page 98. If they cannot define the three terms, you may provide the definitions for them.

Step Six: Interaction Styles

[Detailed information on interaction styles is on pages 99-103][Information adapted from the widely used DiSC Dimensions of Behavior Model and the Personal Profile System, copyright Carlson Learning Company, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Used with permission.]

A. A consideration of interaction styles provides an opportunity to anticipate interactions in an educational setting. disassociate the behavior from a personal commentary on the faculty member, provide faculty with an opportunity to assess their own style, and shed some light as to how various individuals will respond to new information. The point is to give participants an idea of what to expect in education sessions. Learners are not equally receptive to new information and faculty should be aware of this. Interaction styles, like learning styles, can be measured by an assessment. But interaction styles can be readily identified, providing a basis for faculty response to various individuals.

Cover each interaction style separately explaining that these styles were developed by the Carlson Learning Company. Ask how many participants feel they fall into a specific style. Ask how they would probably respond to new information given the description provided. Although there are no wrong answers to this question, you are hoping to get participants to think how learning is shaped by interaction styles.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

A. After reviewing with participants what interaction styles are and who developed the four interaction styles presented on page 99, begin reviewing the characteristics of each style and ask participants to follow along.

D Interaction Style, page 100 i Interaction Style, page 101 S Interaction Style, page 102 C Interaction Style, page 103

- B. Dominance Interaction Style: the "movers and shakers" of the world are going to question new information, want to see proven results, and be skeptical.
- C. Influencing Interaction Style: the "social, need to belong" learners will be receptive to new information as they are affiliation oriented and appreciate others' perspectives.
- D. Steadiness Interaction Style: the "hold to the tried and true" learners will not be very receptive and will want to cling to the old ways until the new information proves to be secure enough to risk being embraced.
- E. Cautiousness/Compliance Interaction Style: the "it is not in my job description" learners will not be very receptive unless they can be shown the new information is the "right" way to proceed according to their own values or to written procedures.

The point of reviewing the four interaction styles is to alert participants to the fact that they will have all kinds of learners and they should prepare accordingly.

- Review the Dominance Interaction Style on page 100.
- Review the Influencing Interaction Style on page 101.
- Review the Steadiness Interaction Style on page 102.
- Review the Cautiousness/ Compliance Interaction Style on page 103.

Step Seven: Ages and Stages of Adults [A great deal of research has been done on life cycles or life stages. What follows is a synthesis of the research to fit the needs of judicial education faculty development programs. The researchers are Chickering and Havighurst (1981); Havighurst (1961); Gould (1972, 1975); Lehman and Lester (1978); Levinson and others (1974); McCoy (1977); Neugarten (1968); Sheehy (1976); Weathersby (1981).]

- A. The purpose of this section is to broaden faculty views of differences in adult learners.
- B. Ages and stages starts with a small group activity. Divide participants into five groups and assign each an age decade. When participants seem to have exhausted their ideas or the time available, ask that each group to select a spokesperson to report to the large group. As each reporter gives the group's answers, fill in any missing information. Examples of such reports include:

20s: trying to establish self in world, choosing a life style, idealistic, limited experience, view learning as a way to get into a profession, may overlook potential obstacles to implementation of new methods/ procedures.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

- A. Tell participants that other factors affect how learners act and interact in a learning environment, like age. Ask the participants to turn to page 104.
- B. Explain that they are going to break into 5 groups and each group will be assigned an age. Explain that there is really no way to make broad generalities about people, but there are some age-related differences in how people of varying ages might respond to education and to new information. Ask each group to identify some characteristics of how their group views the world and their place in it. Also, ask them to predict how their group sees education both for its utility and value.

Ask the participants to record their answers on page 104 and explain that at the end of the exercise, their spokesperson will report to the full group.

30s: often reassess decisions made in 20s, some experience, not so idealistic due to exposure to real world, have established a life style, may have a family, view learning as a necessary way to maintain competency, can identify some obstacles to implementing new methods/procedures.

40s: often feel pressure to achieve highest status before age becomes detrimental, much experience, realistic and often skeptical, view learning as mechanism for achieving goals but may feel they have more information to give than they are receiving, can be competitive.

50s: are more content with life, much experience, may have grown children and aging parents, assessing retirement as life factor, view learning as area to contribute to, make good mentors, are not so competitive, very knowledgeable, may talk about "good old days".

60s: are viewing retirement as near, are concerned with more philosophical issues than others, are generally more financially secure, view learning as more mind expanding and social.

Summarize and remind participants that life is much more complex than this exercise implies. Remind them that the point is to be aware that learners of different ages may have different motives for education and that they may respond differently to the same information.

Step Eight: The Educational Process [Detailed information on the educational process of growth and change is on pages 5-6]

- Explain that the next several subjects are in the area of the educational process.
- Begin by telling participants that education is a process of growth and change. Define growth and change as shown on page 106. Discuss the fact that change is not always welcomed and may be met with resistance. Explain that one of the reasons for resistance is that change is often viewed as a threat.
- C. Ask participants to jot down any educational topics they can think of that may be viewed as threats in the four categories listed in the handout. Have participants voluntarily share answers. Be prepared to provide answers if participants have none.
 - Economic Threat*: automation. alternative dispute resolution. unified/consolidated courts.
 - Social Threat*: ethics, many new procedures, and automation.
 - Threat to Symbols*: jurisdictional changes.
 - · Threat of Inconvenience*: new procedures, automation, and new sentencing guidelines. (You may joke that it is no wonder that automation met with resistance by some adults if it qualifies for three of the four threat categories.)

- Ask the participants to turn to page 105. which starts the subject of the educational process.
- B. Ask participants if they can identify with the elements involved in growth and change described on page 106. Suggest that everyone has experienced a variety of emotions around growth and change.
- C. After you have reviewed growth and change, ask them to offer examples for each of the four threat categories listed under change.

- D. Have participants discuss why it may not be desirable to eliminate resistance to change.
 Without some resistance we might participate in change indiscriminately.
- E. Discuss change as a process within education which faculty must be able to facilitate by reducing resistance. Explain the change process of unfreezing, changing, and refreezing. The short versions of the definitions are:
 - Unfreezing*: assisting learners in recognizing that the current situation, procedure, or state of affairs may not be ideal.
 - Change*: introducing new information, procedures, or processes.
 - Refreezing*: reinforcing with learners
 that the new way may solve some of the
 preexisting problems identified in the
 unfreezing process. Select a topic and
 ask participants how unfreezing might
 be accomplished; then ask how, after
 offering new information on the subject,
 refreezing might be accomplished.

- Ask the participants to identify when or how resistance to change can be beneficial.
- E. After explaining the unfreezing, changing, refreezing process, ask participants to give examples of the process for their topic or some topic selected by you or the group.

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Step Nine: Introduce Program Planning [Detailed information on program planning is in chapter 4]

- Explain that quality education does not just happen; it is the result of a planning process.
- B. Review the education planning process cycle on page 108, indicating that planning should begin with assessing needs and follow the cycle. Ask participants where they think most people will start planning, if they are not familiar with the cycle. While any answer can be correct, you want them to know that many people begin with "establishing content." This is often an inappropriate starting place as the focus of education is the learner (content is only important as it relates to what learners need to know). There is usually so much content that starting there is sure to yield extraneous information that will not necessarily be used by learners. Explain that the next several sections of material will further define and explain this cycle.

- Tell participants that the program planning materials start on page 107.
- B. Review the education planning process cycle on page 108 and ask participants to indicate where they think other presenters start when planning presentations. Or, ask the participants where they have started in the past.

Step Ten: Assessing Need

[Detailed information on assessing need is on pages 12-15 and 22]

- Review the definition of assessing need on page 109.
- B. Discuss the methods of assessing need and add any that participants may have. Explain that without a need, even an excellent education session will be wasted time and effort. Add that needs have been assessed by boards, committees, and judicial education staff and the topics for which faculty have been recruited are among those given priority. Explain that if faculty desire, they can further assess the needs of their specific learners by sending out a pre-program questionnaire or during the opening of the session by having learners identify what they want from the session. Remind them that you did so when this session began which gave you guidance on how to present the information you have.

- Ask participants to follow along with you as you read the definition of assessing need on page 109.
- Explain each needs assessment method on page 109, and then ask participants to contribute more needs assessment ideas.

Step Eleven: Writing Goals

[Detailed information on goals is on pages 22-23]

- Explain that once needs are identified, goals should be formulated to give direction to developing educational programming. Read the definition of goals on page 110, as it relates to faculty. Review the examples given.
- B. Have each participant attempt to write a goal for the topic they will be teaching. Ask participants to share their goals. Explain that goals can be used as a basis for program brochures and flyers. Add that goals direct the next level of planning which is stating objectives.

- Review the definition of faculty-centered goals, then ask participants to read the examples on page 110.
- B. Ask participants to draft a goal for their own presentation. Then ask participants to read their goal to the group.

Step Twelve: Stating Objectives

[Detailed information on stating objectives is on pages 23-26]

- A. Give the definition of participant objectives from page 111. Review the examples given, noting the action verbs which can be seen or heard. Also, note that verbs such as know or understand cannot be seen or heard, thus are not appropriately used in objectives.
- B. Have participants write one or two objectives for their presentations and share those objectives with the whole group. If there are any incorrect verbs used, give some possible substitutions.
- C. The information on objectives can be fully explored or briefly treated, depending on your time. Give the definitions and examples of cognitive, psychomotor, and affective objectives on page 112. If there is time, have participants write one of each type of objective for their topic. Explain that there is no need to have all three types for every session. Add that it is important to be able to identify the type of objectives written for a program because different teaching and evaluation methods are necessary for the various types.

- A. Review the definition of participant-centered objectives on page 111, then ask participants to read the examples.
- B. Ask participants to write one or two objectives for their own presentations. Ask participants to read their objective(s) to the group.
- After defining cognitive, psychomotor, and affective objectives, ask participants to write one of each on page 112.

Step Thirteen: Establishing Content [Detailed information on establishing content is on pages 26-27]

- A. This section can be fully explored or briefly treated, depending on your time. Explain that establishing content needs to be based on the objectives stated and include only the relevant components of the broad topical area; content should be gathered and presented with brevity and contain that information having the most practicality. Add that this is so because adult learners do not have time for extraneous information and that adults want usable information they can apply on the job.
- B. Discuss some of the possibilities for arranging information once gathered. Note that chronological/sequential is best for procedures, simple to complex for new skills, specific to general for de-emphasizing the specific, and general to specific to emphasize the specific. Ask participants if they can offer additional arrangement possibilities and discuss their answers. Ask participants to begin to think about how they will arrange the information they gather.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

 A. Review with participants criteria they should use when establishing content by discussing those items listed under Deciding What to include on page 113.

 B. Then address how the content should be arranged based on what it is they are trying to teach. Discuss the items listed under Arranging Information on page 113.

Step Fourteen: Selecting Presentation Methods

[Detailed information on presentation methods is on pages 27-38]

- Explain that the next step for faculty, after having established content, is to determine presentation methods.
- B. Break participants into six groups (not the same group assignments as they had in the last small group activity) and assign each group one presentation method. The presentation methods are lecture, debate and panel discussion, group participation/ activity, demonstration, experiential activity, and individual activity. Explain that they have experienced these methods as faculty or as learners and that they know a great deal about the effects of each. Ask each group to define the method and then discuss the types of information best conveyed through their assigned method, the types of objectives best met, the status or perception of the learners, the special aspects of the method and any tips they can think of to make the method most effective. Go through the methods assigning one to each group. Circulate among groups, providing guidance and clarifying any areas of misunderstanding. Give groups the benefit of your knowledge. After participants have exhausted their ideas, have each group select a reporter and share the information on each method.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

- Tell participants that you are now moving into presentation methods which begins on page 114.
- B. Explain that after dividing the participants into six small groups, each group will be responsible for one teaching method. They will have to discuss the five items listed for each method and record their answers for reporting to the full group. Remind them they must have one reporter/recorder.

The presentation methods are:

Lecture, page 115
Debate and Panel Discussion, page 116
Group Participation/Activity, page 117
Demonstration, page 118
Experiential Activity, page 119
Individual Activity, page 120

- Explain that you would like to elaborate on the participatory method which can be used with all the methods just discussed to make them more effective. Tell the participants that you have been demonstrating this method throughout the program and that it is the basis for an environment of mutuality. It involves learners at every opportunity by incorporating questions, creating a dialogue, and engaging learners actively in all aspects of the session. Encourage participants to be participatory in all of their presentations regardless of the specific method(s) they have chosen.
- Explain the use of the presentation cycle to maximize learning for the individual. Review with participants what faculty can do to establish the need to know, provide new information, and allow for learner validation of the new information. [Detailed information on the presentation cycle is on pages 48-51]

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

D. Ask participants to turn to page 121, as you review the presentation cycle.

Step Fifteen: Selecting Teaching Aids [Detailed information on teaching aids is on pages 38-47]

- A. Explain that the next step in the planning process, after selecting presentation methods, is to select teaching aids. Remind participants that these aids can be anything which fosters learning, but for purposes of the program, you are going to discuss a few of the more commonly used ones.
- B. Break learners into five groups (not the same group assignment they were in for the last group activity) and assign each group one teaching aid. The teaching aids are flip charts/posters, overheads, slides, films and videos, and written materials. Go over the criteria for selecting a teaching aid, defining each: special aspects (unique features no other aid can supply), appropriateness (time, setting, and group), nature of information (aid best suited for the specific information), audience size (use aid appropriate for the size of the group), and availability (ease of access and use).
- C. Ask each group to discuss the information best conveyed by the assigned teaching aid, the ideal audience size, the special or unique aspects the aid brings, and what is required for preparation to use this aid. As before, circulate among groups assisting them in being successful with their assignment. Ask that each group select a reporter to share information with other learners. Supplement group reports with any missing information and give tips for use and show examples of each.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

 Tell participants that the next topic is selecting teaching aids which begins on page 122.

B. Explain that they will break into five groups with each group assigned a teaching aid. After participants break into small groups, ask them to select a recorder/reporter who will report to the large group. Ask participants to follow along on page 123 as you review criteria for selecting a teaching aid. Instruct the participants to discuss and record their answers to the items listed on each sheet.

Flip Charts/Posters work sheet, page 124
Overheads work sheet, page 125
Slides work sheet, page 126
Films and Videos work sheet, page 127
Written Materials work sheet, page 128

Step Sixteen: Determining Room Arrangements

[Detailed information on room arrangements is on pages 47-48]

- Explain that one contributor to the psychological learning climate is room arrangement. Provide participants with some criteria on how to select room arrangement. The short version of criteria includes the number of participants, size of space, use of audiovisual equipment, types of activities planned, and psychological climate desired.
- Discuss classroom, theater, and conference style room arrangements highlighting the advantages and disadvantages noted in the written materials.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

 Ask participants to follow along as you review three possible room arrangements. Tell participants this topic begins on page 129.

Classroom Style Information and Diagram, page 130 Theater Style Information and Diagram, page 131 Conference Style Information and Diagrams, page 132

Step Seventeen: Evaluation

[Detailed information on evaluation is on pages 54-55]

- Remind participants that the next step in the planning process is evaluation of participant growth and change.
- B. Discuss the fact that, to be most effective, evaluation is dictated by the objectives and presentation methods used in the program. Discuss what can be evaluated and when evaluation can take place. Highlight that the most effective evaluation is continuous, and can be implemented based on objectives.
- C. Continue the discussion to include questions and evaluation from page 135, noting that questions from participants provide faculty with some vital information:
 - Repeat subject matter already covered: these questions may indicate that information may need to be covered again, in a different way, reframed to provide a clearer description, example, or use.
 - Bid for attention: these questions may indicate a psychological need rather than a cognitive one.
 - Searching: these questions may be signs that learners grasp information on a firm basis and are trying to apply the information to new situations.
 - Want more in-depth information: these questions may indicate that learners want more complexity.

- Tell participants that you are now going to cover evaluation which starts on page 133.
- B. Ask participants to turn to page 134 as you explain the connection between presentation methods and evaluation methods.
- C. Ask participants to review with you the ways faculty can evaluate the teaching process. Tell them this review is on page 135. Tell them you are first going to review how questions from participants can provide evaluative feedback.

- D. Discuss questions from the faculty. Note that carefully structured questions solicit very important information from participants and help foster the dialogue necessary for the most effective adult education experience:
 - · Open-ended: questions actively involve learners (which is a goal of adult education).
 - · Non-threatening and no correct answer: questions, in the beginning stages of a program, engage learners and build trust (another goal).
 - Assess participants' grasp of information: questions, at mid and later stages of a program, are a critical part of assessing learners' growth and change.
 - · Reframed questions: are essential if learners are not participating.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

 Tell participants that questions from faculty are equally important, then review with them why this is so.

Step Eighteen: Presentation Skills

- A. Introduce this topic by explaining that good educational content and good presentation skills are of equal importance to the success of any teaching endeavor.
- B. Provide participants with some guidance as to effective presentation skills by highlighting the fact that faculty behavior has a direct impact on participant/learner behavior.
- C. Provide some examples of what faculty need to do if desiring specific behavior from learners (i.e., if faculty want learners to be enthusiastic about the program and information, faculty must demonstrate enthusiasm). Stress the fact that listening to participants is the most important factor. Discuss the conditions of learning and principles of teaching on page 138.
- D. Briefly go over the presentation tips on pages 139-140. Give examples of how you used the tips in your presentation.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

- A. Ask participants to turn to page 136, where you will begin the last subject of the day presentation skills.
- B. Ask participants to turn to page 137 so that you can review the connection between faculty behavior and participant behavior.
- C. Ask participants to turn to page 138 as you review conditions of learning and principles of teaching.

D. Ask participants to turn to page 139 as you review the presentation tips with them.
After reviewing, ask the participants what advice they would give to new faculty.

- E. Define transfer of training and note that it is the most important aspect of teaching. Unless learners can take what they have gained in an education session and apply it on the job, education has not yielded effective growth and change. Note that practical application opportunities in the session are one method of increasing transfer of training. Cover the most effective way to make key points. Using a past experience you have had, give a description or an example of when a faculty member does not follow this method and learners become impatient or become distracted.
- F. Lastly, go over the list of fears, noting that speaking before a group outranks sickness and death. Add that if participants have not taught before, there will be some fear. Note that careful planning and preparation will lessen their fear, but some anxiety before a presentation is natural and should be expected.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

 E. Ask participants to turn to page 141 as you cover transfer of training.

After reviewing transfer of training, ask participants what their experiences have been when they tried to implement at work what they learned in the classroom.

F. Ask participants to review with you the list of human fears on page 142.

G. Have participants read pages 144-145. Explain the group method of curriculum (and program) development and the need for a dialogue between the planning committee and faculty. Review the curriculum development report on pages 146-147.

H. Explain to the participants that it is now their turn to develop a presentation. Announce that after they have completed this assignment, each person will be asked to review their plan with the full group.

Review the presentation proposal form with them on pages 148-150. Spend the rest of the day allowing the participants to plan their own presentations.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

G. Tell participants you want to offer them a quality assurance measure which is the group process for curriculum development. Ask participants to read pages 144-145. Review the curriculum development report on pages 146-147.

After participants have completed the reading, ask if they have any questions. Explain that the purpose in learning about the group process is so they will know and understand that a great deal of thought, planning, and care goes into judicial education planning, development, and delivery. And, their part in the process contributes to its success.

H. Introduce the presentation proposal form on pages 148-150. Instruct participants to complete the form for their own presentation. Tell participants they will share their proposals with the group.

Step Nineteen: Review Appendix

A. Refer to the appendix materials. Let participants know this is additional information on panels, moderators, small groups, facilitator instructions, role play, dealing with problems in the education session or small groups, fair communication, and diversity guidelines. Note that the fair communication information and diversity guidelines section should be carefully read and followed to minimize the possibility of exhibiting bias in presentations or in handouts.

Instructions for Faculty/Participant Interaction

A. Review materials in the appendix. Ask participants to turn to page 151.

Step Twenty: Closing the Session

- A. Review the goals/objectives participants set at the beginning of the session. Highlight how each has been met.
- Thank participants for their hard work and compliment them on what they have accomplished.

- Review the goal/objective list made at the opening session.
- B. Thank the participants for their hard work.
- Handout and collect evaluations and adjourn the session.

Chapter 7: Developing a Faculty Handbook

Chapter 7 addresses the development and use of a faculty handbook. The issues, items, and topics described are not all-inclusive of what a faculty handbook could contain. Rather, these are those subjects which most commonly get addressed when judicial educators orient faculty to their role and responsibilities in educational programming for judges and court personnel.

A faculty handbook should have a cover which identifies itself as the faculty handbook with the judicial education organization name prominently displayed. The first page of the handbook should contain the organization name, date of publication, and any other identifying information.

The contents of this faculty handbook are to be used as a model for judicial educators desiring to write such a handbook. This model handbook provides standardized substantive content and also suggests areas where judicial educators should personalize the handbook to meet the needs of their organization and educational programming.

Some information contained in chapter 7 can also be found in other chapters within this monograph. The repetition is deliberate as this chapter was written to provide the judicial educator with a complete, or nearly complete, handbook to give to faculty who may not have had the benefit of attending a faculty development seminar.

4				

Faculty Handbook

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Introduction

The introductory statement should contain an overview of the faculty handbook, its purpose, and intended use. This section should be personalized by each judicial educator to reflect their preferences and practices. The following example demonstrates how judicial educators can personalize this information:

Thank you for agreeing to serve as faculty for the Supreme Court's judicial education program. Your expertise will provide information to participants which will enhance the delivery of justice in our state.

This faculty handbook is meant to assist you in the development and presentation of the session you have agreed to teach. It offers information on our judicial education system, what we can do to assist you in the development of your session and what you should do to assist us to assure that your program is of the highest quality.

- The first section, "Who We Are," provides a brief history and overview of judicial education in our state. It will give you an understanding of how we are structured, the programs we sponsor, and the learners we serve.
- The second section, "What We Can Do for You," offers a summary of the services we
 can provide to assist you in the development and presentation of your session(s). It
 describes how to access our graphic artist, how to request duplication of materials, and
 how to request assistance in the development of teaching aids. It also provides
 information on faculty contracts and reimbursement procedures.
- The third section, "What You Should Do for Us," outlines ideas, expectations, and suggestions to enhance the success of your session(s). It contains time lines for various educational events, descriptions of several teaching methodologies, effective uses of various pieces of audiovisual equipment, advantages and disadvantages of various room arrangements, and more.
- The final section is the "Faculty Handbook Appendix." It contains several forms which
 are important to the development and presentation of your session(s).
- If you have any questions or need assistance in any way, please contact us at the phone/fax number or address listed on the cover sheet preceding the Table of Contents.
 We look forward to working with you.

Section 1: Who We Are

This section should contain a brief history of your organization, organizational structure, judicial education staff, other relevant personnel, and court audiences that are served by your judicial education organization. An example of what should be included in the Who We Are section follows:

- Judicial education in our state is under the supervision of the Supreme Court. Policies and standards for judicial education are set by the Committee on Judicial Education and Training. Curriculum development is under the supervision of the Judicial College Board of Directors, the Judicial Staff Committee, and the Probation Training Board. Day-to-day management of judicial education is provided by the judicial education organization.
- Faculty work with the committee responsible for the education program as well as with the judicial education organization. Committee members are available to assist faculty throughout the planning process. The judicial education staff, however, is the primary resource for faculty during planning; staff can provide a variety of assistance, as described in section two.
- The routine programs and target audiences we serve are:

Orientation for New Judges (new limited and general jurisdiction judges)

Judicial Conference (all judges)

Probation Certification (adult and juvenile probation officers)
Judicial Staff Conference (court administrators, judicial
assistants, court reporters, bailiffs, court clerks, etc.)
Legal Institute (limited jurisdiction, non-law trained judges)
Supreme Court Update (all judges)

Managing Trials Effectively (one program each for general and limited jurisdiction judges)

Domestic Relations Seminar (domestic relations judge) Settlement Conference Workshop (general jurisdiction judges)

Faculty Skill Development (train-the-trainer for all judicial personnel)

JCA Faculty Development (for judges)

Numerous broadcasts on various topics for a variety of audiences

Our Mission Is To Achieve Judicial Excellence Through Education and Training

In Our Judicial Education Programs We Value:

- Effective planning, preparation, and presentation
- Incorporation of the expertise and experience of participants
- Productive use of time
- Incorporation of effective teaching/learning methodologies
- Practical, useful information
- A balance of challenge and support for learners

In Our Faculty We Value:

- Knowledge and experience
- Sensitivity to diversity
- Honor for the teaching/learning experience
- Fairness and respect for learners
- Commitment
- Cooperativeness
- Openness
- Forethought

Section 2: What We Can Do for You

This section should contain a brief summary of what resources you can provide faculty as they prepare and present their programs. It should indicate what role the judicial education staff have in the development and delivery of programming. An example is as follows:

For more information regarding any of the following services, please contact the judicial education staff assigned to your program by calling the number listed on the first page of this faculty handbook.

1. Provide Faculty Development Training

There are three types of faculty development training offered on a routine basis: (1) a half-day program which focuses on teaching methodologies and use of audiovisual equipment; (2) a one-day program which focuses on understanding the adult learner, selecting and effectively using teaching methodologies, creating a learning environment, and effective program planning; and (3) a four-day program which covers all of the above and provides hands-on training with audiovisual equipment, assistance with program planning and practice sessions where the faculty-in-training have an opportunity to present portions of their program.

2. Support Program Planning

The education staff can assist you in the development of your program. Each has a background in adult education and can provide information on structure, timing, activities, materials, audiovisual resources, teaching aids, and evaluation techniques for you to use during your session.

3. Provide Graphic Art Support

The graphic artists on staff can assist you with production of overhead transparencies, slides, videotapes, graphs, charts, or other special teaching aids. They can create designs for your teaching aids or reproduce materials you provide in other formats. A form to request graphic art for your presentation can be found in the appendix.

For best results, allow adequate time for creation, editing, and proofing of your work. Judicial education staff will provide you with deadlines for submission of teaching aids.

4. Duplicate Materials

Your written materials will be duplicated by the judicial education organization and delivered to the conference or seminar site. Material deadlines will be given to you. All materials should be ready for duplication; therefore, they should be clear, at least 18 point type, page numbered, and with 1 1/2" margins. A form to accompany your materials for duplication can be found in the Appendix.

If using copyrighted materials, obtain permission from the source for use of the material or contact the judicial education staff to verify that your usage does not violate copyright law.

Assist in Selecting Audiovisual Equipment/Teaching Aids

To enhance your presentation, a variety of audiovisual equipment is available. Please note that some equipment must be rented. In the event that you request equipment and then decide not to use it, please notify the judicial education staff assigned to your program so the request can be canceled. Available equipment includes:

Flip Charts

Overhead Projectors

Slide Projectors

Video Players or Projectors

Tape Recorders

Dry Erase Boards

For more information on audiovisual equipment/teaching aids, consult pages 186-193.

Assist in Selecting Room Arrangement(s)

Depending on your session size, the types of activities you plan to use, and the psychological climate you want to establish, a variety of room arrangements are available. Some possibilities are theater style, classroom style, or conference styles (which include round tables, "u" shape, or hollow square). Education staff can provide information on the session site and assist you in selecting the most appropriate room arrangement. Consult pages 193-194 to acquaint yourself with the advantages and disadvantages of the various room arrangements.

Provide Time Lines for Your Session(s)

Although each education event is unique, there are some common elements in planning. The following are abbreviated time lines for various types of educational events. The judicial education staff will provide you with specific time lines for your session(s).

Conference

9 months prior Faculty selected and contracts negotiated

7 months prior Faculty meeting held

6 months prior Presentation proposals submitted to planning committee

5 months prior Program announcement information submitted to graphic artist 3 months prior Audiovisual and material requests submitted to graphic artist

Program materials submitted for duplication

1 month prior Sample materials sent to faculty

Seminar

7 months prior Faculty selected and contracts negotiated

Faculty meeting held

6 months prior Presentation proposals submitted to planning committee

Program announcement information submitted to graphic artist

6 weeks prior Audiovisual and material requests submitted to graphic artist

Program materials submitted for duplication

1 month prior Sample materials sent to faculty

Broadcast

7 months prior Faculty selected and contracts negotiated

Faculty meeting held

6 months prior Program outline or script submitted to planning committee

Program announcement information submitted to graphic artist

4 months prior Graphics request submitted to graphic artist

6 weeks prior Program materials submitted for duplication

1 month prior Sample materials sent to faculty

1 week prior Dry run held with faculty

Full time lines for educational programs are in the appendix.

8. Supply Information on Participants

A participant list for your program or session will be provided. The list will include participants' names and courts/departments. If more detailed information is desired or needed, please contact the education staff assigned to your program to discuss obtaining more information.

9. Process Reimbursement of Expenses and/or Fees

Faculty expenses are reimbursable for planning meetings as well as for program presentation. The judicial education staff assigned to your program will provide additional information.

Contracting: If you are contracted faculty, the education staff assigned to your session will negotiate a formal agreement which will include honorarium/fee, if any, as well as program related and traveling expenses. The contract must be reviewed by the legal department staff before being forwarded to you for signature.

Reimbursement: Guidelines restrict the amounts reimbursable for travel, lodging, and per diem. The guidelines will be provided to you.

Travel: Faculty are expected to incur the lowest costs reasonable for travel. The reimbursement guidelines will explain what will be reimbursed, at what rate, and in what amount of time.

Lodging: Faculty should stay at the site recommended by staff. If the program is at a lodging site, staff will have negotiated a group rate. If the program is not at a lodging site, nearby lodging rates will have been negotiated. If faculty make their own lodging arrangements, an original receipt from the hotel is necessary for reimbursement.

Per diem: Unless contracted differently, reimbursement for each meal will be at the approved rate. Prearranged group meals, which are direct billed, are not eligible for reimbursement.

Invoicing/Billing: Faculty must provide a statement of services, fees, and costs in compliance with the contract and reimbursement guidelines.

Provide Participants' Evaluation Results of Session/Faculty

Participant evaluation of the session and faculty is a routine practice. Evaluation is done through a form provided to participants near the conclusion of the program. They are collected and compiled by education staff. The compiled results will be sent to you.

Section 3: What You Should Do for Us

1. Plan Your Program or Presentation

The programs which are found to be the most beneficial to participants are those which are planned well in advance. To assist you in your planning, complete the presentation proposal form in the appendix and return it by the date specified in the cover letter accompanying this handbook. Use the information contained in this handbook to make decisions about your presentation proposal.

2. State Objectives in Measurable Terms

The purpose of setting objectives is to answer the basic question "What should learners be able to do as a result of this session?" Objectives are participant-centered, measurable, and are written with action verbs. The test for determining whether an objective has been written in measurable terms is if the faculty can verify its achievement. Some objectives may be written in such a way that their achievement will not be proven until later. Judicial educators will need to conduct follow-up evaluations in such cases. Objectives of this kind are usually written for programs where the greatest portion of the application of the new knowledge, skills, and abilities are activated in the workplace.

Some examples of measurable objectives that are achievable during a program are:

- Participants will be able to compare and contrast the various views regarding intensive probation as opposed to incarceration.
- Participants will be able to define arbitration, mediation, and settlement conferencing.
- Participants will be able to conduct an initial appearance following proper procedure.
- Participants will be able to identify the various components of the cycle of violence and describe their relevance and impact on families and the court system.

Types of Objectives

There are three basic types of objectives: cognitive, psychomotor, and affective.

Cognitive objectives are statements about what a participant can say or do to demonstrate knowledge. For example:

- Participants will be able to state the complete and current criteria for juvenile intensive probation placement.
- Participants will be able to list the most commonly violated canons of the code of judicial conduct and identify ways in which they can avoid violation.

 Participants will be able to identify the inappropriate behavior of judges in case studies to determine if the code of judicial conduct has been violated.

Psychomotor objectives are statements about what participants can do to demonstrate skills and abilities. For example:

- Participants will correctly complete form #402, without assistance, using information given to each individual in a fictitious case study situation.
- Participants will be able to access the automated case tracking system and retrieve the cases needing immediate attention.
- Participants will be able to conduct an initial appearance in a mock case.

Affective objectives are statements about what participants can say or do to exhibit an attitude or emotion. For example:

- Participants will be able to convey empathy for children involved in court cases.
- Participants will be able to interact with "difficult people" in role play situations with an attitude of helpfulness, caring, and trust.
- Participants will be able to listen to testimony in an interested and impartial manner.

Role of Objectives in Content Selection

Objectives guide faculty in the selection of content. They further narrow what was at one time a broad topic. Once stated, objectives are the focus of teaching. This means that the educational session is developed and executed so that the participant objectives can be achieved.

Role of Objectives in Evaluation of Learners

Stated objectives also define the method of evaluation faculty will use to assess learner success. If a stated objective is, "participants will conduct an initial appearance," program content needs to include information, demonstration, and explanation of this procedure. Faculty also need to plan a portion of the session so participants can demonstrate achievement of the objectives. In the case of the above objective, participants will demonstrate their ability to "conduct an initial appearance" in a case study or role play situation. Several participants can demonstrate the newly acquired skills simultaneously. Faculty can observe and determine whether the objective has been met.

Design and Present Your Program Using an Effective Model

Opening a session is best done by providing participants with an "overview of the session." Learning is best accomplished when learners know what to expect if they are to listen, interact, and respond successfully to the objectives faculty have set.

Once participants know what to expect, the presentation should follow a well established cycle to maximize learning. There are numerous teaching models which have been proven effective with adults. The following is one example.

Presentation Cycle

Establish the Need to Know

Provide an experience and personalize the experience



The Presentation Cycle

The presentation cycle describes optimal learning for an individual learner and can be used as a model for program development. The overall session should reflect the presentation cycle, and components of the program can reflect it as well.

Establish the "need to know"

To design the overall program, the initial task for faculty is to establish the need to know in learners. Adults come to education sessions with a variety of expectations, experience, motives, and opinions. If faculty simply launch into content, learners will be at varying levels of interest and involvement.

Faculty need to provide learners with an experience to open their minds to new information. This experience can be provided by use of an anecdote, video, case study, role play, or question which causes learners to acknowledge that there may be something worth knowing about this topic.

For example, to establish the need to know in an ethics session, faculty could present an anecdote which is a borderline violation of the code of judicial conduct, or show a video in which a judge acts

in some questionable way, or ask participants to recall the most significant event from their past experiences in which they struggled with an ethical issue.

The next step is to personalize the experience for learners. This can be done by asking them to react to the anecdote, or respond to the behavior of the judge in the video, or reassess their own behavior in the situation they recalled. The responses from the ensuing discussion provide faculty with a measure of learners' readiness to learn. When that readiness has been reached, faculty can introduce the content to be discussed.

For example, in the ethics presentation, as learners disagree about the correct resolution to a situation and the group rediscovers that there are no simple answers to complex ethical situations judges are confronted with, faculty can use that moment to transition to content. This can be done by stating, "There are no simple answers. We face these situations daily. Let's examine what we can do to avoid the appearance of impropriety, even though we may know we have done nothing unethical."

Provide New Information

Faculty can then present the content designed to meet the established objectives set for the program. Presentation of content should involve a variety of teaching methods and aids. The new information should be provided through knowledgeable sources by using visuals, lecture, handouts, and demonstrations and/or panel discussions. For example, in the ethics session, faculty can present the canon, use a panel of experienced judges to analyze some ethical dilemmas, and show overhead transparencies with some ethical situations to which the canons apply.

Condensing/Expanding - Faculty should be prepared to condense or expand information during the presentation. Group discussion may take longer than anticipated, so some information may have to be covered in a shorter time than planned. The session may move along more rapidly than anticipated or learners may indicate a need for more detail, so some information may be covered in more depth than planned.

Arrangement - Faculty should arrange content in an appropriate manner. Some options include: simple to complex, general to specific or specific to general, sequential or chronological order. More detailed explanation and examples of these common methods of arranging information can be found on page 27.

Allow Validation of Information

The final phase of the cycle is to allow learners to test the new information to validate its usefulness to them. This portion of the program actively involves participants. As was stated previously, the first time learners use new information may be the most difficult. Providing a situation for use in the session makes it easier to use in daily activity. For example, in the ethics session, faculty can have

learners analyze some case studies or return to the experience provided during the opening session and reassess their reactions.

The presentation cycle can be followed several times within the program or session as previously mentioned. For example, in a session on domestic violence, subtopics might include orders of protection and the cycle of violence. When introducing orders of protection, the faculty can establish the need to know by showing slides of battered women and could personalize the experience by asking judges to react to what they saw. To expand the information base or provide new information, procedures for handling these cases and working with the individuals in them could be discussed. To allow validation of information, learners could process an order of protection in a case study situation.

When introducing the cycle of violence, faculty could establish the need to know by first providing an experience. For instance, they might use an anecdote about a woman who had her husband arrested for severely beating her only to ask for his release the next day. To personalize the experience, faculty could ask learners for similar examples and new information on the cycle of violence could then be discussed. Finally, learners could validate the new information by establishing an action plan for their court on how to deal with families caught in the spiral of family violence.

The presentation cycle described here is based on maximizing the impact of education on an individual learner. It is also compatible with the Kolb Learning Cycle explained in *Education for Development: Principles and Practices in Judicial Education: JERITT Monograph Three* (Claxton and Murrell, 1992).

4. Consider Using a Variety of Teaching Methodologies

After having gathered content, it is important to determine the best way to present the content. The following information defines the most common teaching methods, the types of information best conveyed through each method, the types of objectives best met, the status or perception of the learners, the special aspects of the method, and some suggestions to increase effectiveness.

Lecture

Lecture is an instructor-centered method which is appropriate for the cognitive domain of learning (Cranton, 1989). Lecture is defined as the verbal presentation of information, generally in a one-way communication format. As a teaching method, lecture has the longest history and is the most misused and/or overused. Substituted for other methods when time is short or faculty are fearful of trying something new, lecture is often reduced to lengthy, monotone monologues.

While it may seem that lecture places the greatest burden on faculty in terms of planning and presentation, this is not really the case. Lecture is the safest method from the perspective of the faculty. A faculty member has complete control, paces the program, adheres to the program plan, and is not subject to question or challenge when using the lecture method. Additionally, because the

lecture method requires no instructor/learner interaction, the faculty member never has to adjust the teaching plan to address new issues raised by the learner.

The misuse of lecture does not have to be the norm. When appropriately planned and executed, lecture can be a very effective method. Faculty members who use lecture exclusively should be taught other teaching methods.

Factors to consider when using the lecture method:

- Types of Information Best Conveyed: Lecture is best used for conveying facts, histories, explanations, research results, theories, and other types of cognitive information.
- Types of Objectives Best Met: Although a very good lecturer can convey some affective objectives, cognitive objectives are the most frequently satisfied by the lecture method.
- Audience Status and Perception: The negative side of lecture is that for the most part, the
 learners are passive, which may produce inattention or boredom. There is an implication
 of superiority of the speaker, which negates the adult education principle of mutuality.
- Special Aspects: Lecture can be a very effective method for conveying large amounts of
 information in a short time period. The positive impact of lecture can be increased by
 breaking the lecture time into 45 minute segments. Learners can be engaged and become
 active if lecturers invite questions, not just at the conclusion of the program but throughout.
- For Best Results: If lecture is to be used, plan learner involvement at 20 to 30 minute intervals. If possible, integrate lecture with other teaching methods; this provides an interesting collage of methods and creates an environment more conducive to learner participation. Unless speaker superiority is a desired effect, or the size of the audience necessitates it, avoid the use of a lectern and/or riser. Faculty who move into the audience during their presentations tend to enhance the feeling of mutuality, which is desired in adult education.

Debate and Panel Discussion

Even though the debate and panel discussion method is also an instructor-centered model (Cranton, 1989), it often integrates discussion and questioning. Debate and panel discussion is defined as the use of two or more individuals discussing varying viewpoints or perspectives on a topic. By-in-large, however, the learners are passive receivers of information, as the panelist or debaters are active. Like lecture, panel discussion has been historically misused. Its overuse becomes evident when program flyers list a panel for almost every topic on the agenda. Some topics simply do not lend themselves to panel or debate.

Panels and debates can be very effective, exciting, and somewhat "explosive" if the topic is a volatile one. The use of panelists or debaters does not have to constitute an entire program. These approaches can be combined with other methods to make a very interesting session.

Factors to consider when using the debate and panel discussion method:

- Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed: Various and/or divergent views, perspectives, opinions, or beliefs are best conveyed with the panel and debate format.
- Type(s) of Objectives Best Met: While affective objectives can certainly be met with panel and debate, cognitive objectives are most frequently satisfied with these approaches.
- Audience Status and Perception: Unlike other methods, almost everyone can agree with someone or some comments made in a panel discussion and debate. Learners can be involved emotionally, psychologically, and physically; especially if they ask questions.
- Special Aspects: Panel and debate is best used to showcase controversy and diversity.
 A panel discussion is not effective when all panelists simply reaffirm what others have said.
- For Best Results: If using panel and debate, have one responsible faculty member as a
 moderator who can carefully plan the program with clearly stated objectives. Panelists and
 debaters must be well informed about the program plan and objectives so they do not
 deviate from the purpose. Allow adequate time for each panel member to comment and
 time for audience input. It is critical that interaction among panelists and debaters take
 place. Without such interaction, this method deteriorates into serial lectures.

Carefully select a moderator. An individual with a commanding voice and presence, as well as quick humor, can best direct the panel or debate, relieve tension, and control comments. The moderator must not only know the subject matter but must also be familiar with the rest of the faculty members who are the debaters or panelists.

- Moderators assist in planning the session and are vital in facilitating discussion, controlling time, involving each panel member equally, screening questions, and involving participants on an active level. They can determine the order of subtopics to be discussed and the sequencing for panel members' contributions as moderators establish the time frames.
- Moderators can plan questions for panel members or act as host while participants ask
 questions. If questions are submitted in writing, the moderator can screen them, asking only
 those which are the most relevant and interesting.
- Moderators do not necessarily present information but facilitate the discussion process.
 They can provide reactions to information presented, summarize at key points in the discussion, and facilitate transitions from one aspect of the discussion to another.

Moderators assure that one or two panel members do not dominate the discussion. They
can also clarify panel members' comments and restate participants' questions for all to hear.

Restrict the size of panels. Four to five panelists are more than adequate for a lively discussion. It is important that each panelist has an opportunity to explain viewpoints, be involved in the discussion, and/or respond to questions from the audience. When panels exceed ten, members are not equally heard, and thus, the method is not effectively used.

For optimum results from a panel:

- Inform panel members of program objectives.
- Allow each panelist a set, limited time for presenting individual views.
- Actively engage each of them in answering participant questions.

Ensure that questions to panelists are a planned component of the program, as they are important to the panel process. Questions provide panel members with points of departure for comments, assure that a variety of information is covered, and present participants with areas of agreement or disagreement with the panel. Ideally, some questions should come from participants. This gives participants ownership in the presentation, makes them active rather than passive, and provides a much wider spectrum of information. Be creative in involving the audience. Solicit write-in questions from participants when they register or during breaks at the program. If you have a large group of participants, have several microphones strategically placed in the audience for easy access to ask questions.

Small Group Participation/Activity

This method of teaching is interactive. Small group participation/activity is often used when a group is too large, when learners' interests vary, or when learners feel more comfortable interacting in smaller numbers (Cranton, 1989:83). Depending on the objectives and the characteristics of the audience, group composition can be either homogeneous or heterogeneous, which should be determined on how much diversity of perspectives is desired (Cranton, 1989:83).

Small group participation/activity is defined as learners actively involved in the discovery of information and practicing/applying new skills and abilities through interaction among learners and between learners and faculty. Small group participation/activity is a vital instructional method. If it is to be effective and worthwhile for the learners, it must have concrete objectives, clear and written instructions, assigned time allocations, and it must be an integral part of the subject matter or topic being conveyed. If the small group participation/activity method is not well planned and used, it loses its impact. This method, when done correctly, capitalizes on group dynamics as a way to maximize learning while at the same time honors the knowledge, skills, and abilities brought to the experience by all who are involved.

Factors to consider when using the group participation/activity method:

- Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed: The information best conveyed includes personal
 experiences, individual knowledge, specific perspectives, consensus on issues, responses,
 and reactions. Additionally, small group participation/activity provides an opportunity for
 learners to practice using the information conveyed.
- Type(s) of Objectives Best Met: Cognitive, psychomotor, and affective objectives can be satisfied using this method.
- Audience Status and Perception: Learners are a direct part of the educational experience with small group participation/activity. There is generally a feeling of shared ownership in the educational outcome and faculty can use this method to assess learner progress toward program objectives.
- Special Aspects: The most beneficial aspect of small group participation/activity includes
 providing time for every individual to participate. While some learners may hesitate to speak
 in a large group, their hesitancy often is lessened in a small group setting because a small
 group is less threatening. Another positive effect of using this method is that it increases
 trust and respect among group members and reinforces the individual and collective
 knowledge held by all those involved.
- For Best Results: The ideal size of a small group is between five to seven members. A
 minimum group size is three. Fewer members cannot provide a forum for active discussion.
 A maximum number is nine. If more than nine members are in a group, they will often split
 into subgroups, thus reducing group cohesion.

Groups should ideally be seated in a circle. If a circle is impossible, learners can group together in whatever manner facilitates open discussion. Ideally, groups should have private space for their activity. If private space is not possible, groups can function as an island within the larger group.

Group discussion should be monitored by the faculty member and guided by a facilitator using the instructional tools provided. Facilitators can be preselected and trained, randomly selected by the group, or volunteer for the role. They should be given facilitation instructions in writing and reviewed verbally to reduce misunderstanding. Facilitators assure that the instructions are followed by the group members, pass out all work sheets, monitor each groups' progress, record appropriate information, assure full participation of each group member, and may give the oral report of each small groups' work when the large group reconvenes.

Although some faculty are hesitant to use group activity with large audiences, they can be successful if facilitators are used. In large group settings, it is imperative to provide each facilitator and each participant with both written and verbal instructions and all necessary work sheets. When large audiences are broken down into small groups, it is difficult for the faculty member to monitor the progress of all of the small groups. But, well designed group participation/activity can eliminate many

of the problems. Additionally, judicial education staff can assist the faculty member in monitoring the small groups, thus increasing the opportunity of using this method effectively with large audiences.

Groups often function best if they have an identity. They can select a name, number, or some other identifier. When the group reports on their activity to the large audience, the reporter should give the group name before beginning. This procedure gives the group members a sense of camaraderie and may add some levity to the exercise.

Small group activity is best capitalized on by having at least some groups report on the activity to the entire audience. Information reported should include their process and their product or decision. This makes the activity relevant to the topic and gives participants a sense of ownership in the session.

Demonstration

Demonstration is defined as faculty or designees actively engaging in application, implementation, or modeling of new information (Cranton, 1989). Demonstration is not frequently used and when it is, it is usually with some other method. Demonstration is most appropriate at higher levels of the cognitive domain or in the psychomotor domain (Cranton, 1989). Programs which have objectives addressing the performance of any skill or ability (psychomotor objectives) should include demonstration.

Factors to consider when using the demonstration method:

- Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed: Use or application of new information/skills is best conveyed in demonstration, including appropriate or correct use and inappropriate or incorrect use.
- Type(s) of Objectives Best Met: The most effective objective satisfied by demonstration
 is psychomotor. Cognitive objectives can also be met. Affective objectives can be satisfied
 but are not associated with demonstration as frequently as with other methods.
- Audience Status and Perception: The audience can feel drawn into the program through
 well executed demonstration. In general, demonstration raises learners' confidence levels
 as they observe new information being put to the test. Problems can arise if the group is
 too large or the seating is inappropriate for clear viewing by all present.
- Special Aspects: Demonstration eases the tension learners may feel about trying out new
 information. Seeing and hearing faculty or others perform allows learners to assess the
 realistic and practical use of information, practice mentally while watching, verify their
 understanding of what has been presented, and become more comfortable with the expected
 sequence of events.

For Best Results: When involving others in a demonstration, inform all actors of the
expected outcome. If possible, provide written scripts (actors do not need to speak/read
from the script but it gives them a clear understanding of what they are to do).

The demonstration must be viewed by all learners. With large audiences, several simultaneous demonstrations can be held at strategic places in the room or use simultaneous video to project the live demonstration onto a large screen.

If there is a chance that the outcome of a demonstration may not be what is desired due to unpredictable variables, videotaping a structured demonstration may be more appropriate than doing it live.

Demonstration should generally be preceded by verbal instructions on the application of the new information. Learners should have brief and sequential written instructions so they can visually check the progress of the demonstration at any given moment and assess how that stage relates to the outcome.

Experiential Activity

A great deal of learning, particularly in the affective and psychomotor domains, takes place in experiential learning models where learners participate in performing tasks (Cranton, 1989:86).

Experiential activity is defined as a method of involving learners in situational action which approximates reality and in which learners can actually experience an event, situation, or procedure. It differs from group activity in that learners are in a structured situation which approximates a real situation.

Some faculty resist using experiential activity for a variety of reasons: the outcome is not always what was predicted or desired, some types are believed or perceived to be "touchy-feely" and thus not substantive enough, and experiential activities take time that faculty believe could be better spent in conveying more information.

The appropriate use of carefully planned experiential activity can be the most beneficial and effective time spent in a session. At best, an education session is contrived. Experiential activity brings a great deal of reality to the session and paves the way for learner use of new information when on the job. The key to successful experiential activity is pre-planning, having clearly stated instructions, establishing appropriate time frames, monitoring the activity as it happens, being flexible in outcomes, and tying the experience back to the information presented.

Factors to consider when using the experiential activity method:

 Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed: Testing new information and personal abilities in life-like situations, personal reactions, empathetic action, decision-making activity, and teamwork experiences are the types of information best conveyed in experiential activity.

- Type(s) of Objectives Best Met: Cognitive, psychomotor, and affective objectives can be satisfied in experiential activity, but the most effective use of this method is achievement of affective objectives.
- Audience Status and Perception: The learners are part of the program in experiential
 activity, which gives them ownership and builds trust in faculty, each other, and use of new
 information. There is really no limit to the number of learners who can participate in
 experiential situations, but use in large groups requires careful planning.
- Special Aspects: The most difficult time learners will have in applying new information is
 the first time. If this first experience can be in the education session, where there is little risk
 and no consequence for error, learners will have less difficulty in using the new information
 in the workplace. Experiential activity, because it approximates real situations, is the only
 method which provides this opportunity.
- For Best Results: The most common use of experiential activity is role play, which has two
 very different uses in an education session. Both can facilitate learning greatly, if carefully
 planned.

Role play is an experiential activity involving participants in acting out a scenario, performing a certain role, or practicing newly learned skills. It can increase the effectiveness of learning by providing participants a nearly real situation in which they can experience feelings, attitudes, comfort, or discomfort. Role play also provides an opportunity for learners to test or validate newly acquired information. The advantage of role play is that it provides a safe environment for learners to experience a variety of situations (Cranton, 1989:88).

One use of role play is to set the tone for learning. Used prior to the introduction of new information, role play can provide participants with an experience to open their minds to new possibilities. Another use of role play is to help participants bridge the gap between learning new information and putting it into practice. In a course on dealing with difficult people, a role play used early in the program can help participants realize they could expand their skills, thus creating the need to know which motivates participants to learn the new strategy. A role play later in the program allows participants to test newly acquired strategies and can provide faculty with an evaluation tool to assess how well participants have learned and are able to apply new information.

Role play can involve a few individuals who perform for the entire audience or it can be an activity in which all participants take part in small groups. In either case, instructions need to be clearly stated as well as given to participants in writing before they are asked to engage in the activity.

If used by the entire audience within small groups, role play works best if participants have established a comfort level with faculty and with each other. If used with a few actors who perform for other learners in the large group, faculty should preselect individuals and provide them with the specifics of the role play before the program begins. Without this preparation, the role play performance before the large group risks failing.

If the entire audience participates in small group role play, an observer may be useful within each group. The observer does not participate directly in the role play but watches others and gives feedback to fellow group members on their actions, emotions, use of skills, and so on. This can be especially helpful if the audience is large and the faculty member cannot observe all groups to provide this feedback. If the role play takes place as a small group of actors performing for the audience, feedback can come from the audience and/or the faculty member.

Whether role play is in small groups or demonstrated in front of the entire audience, discussion following the activity should be structured. Faculty can design a format for discussion that involves a series of questions participants can answer, a list of topics to be covered, or a list of expected outcomes, which participants can validate or invalidate.

A concluding discussion of the role play experience is critical if faculty are to tie the activity to the topic. It should involve the entire audience so participants are able to hear the views and experiences of others.

Individual Activity

Individualized learning techniques are based on the assumption that individuals learn at different speeds and that regular feedback facilitates the learning process (Cranton, 1989:84). Individual activity can be defined as providing time for learners to work on their own; setting a personal and comfortable pace.

Factors to consider when using the individual activity method:

- Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed: Facts, directions, individual action plans, and application of new information are best conveyed through individual activity.
- Types of Objectives Best Met: Cognitive objectives are the most likely to be met in
 individual activity, but psychomotor objectives can also be achieved. While unlikely, affective
 objectives could be met if the individual is engaged in something which can be personalized
 on an emotional level.
- Audience Status and Perception: Learners are part of the program in individual activity and thus gain some ownership in its success. If the activity goes on too long, however, learners can begin to feel isolated.
- Special Aspects: Learners are in control during individual activity, which makes it unlike any other method. When successful with the task assigned, learners can experience a sense of individual accomplishment and enhanced self esteem. Individual activity can lead to a meaningful exchange of information with faculty. If used to allow learners to test new information for themselves, individual activity can generate questions, opinions, and new options for the task. Case studies which require learners to apply newly acquired information are effective individual activities.

For Best Results: When using individual activity, it is important that at least some learners
share their work with the large group. This maintains continuity and allows the audience to
validate what they each accomplished through those who shared their work. It is best for
faculty to visit individuals to check their understanding of the task, their progress, and their
feelings about the activity. In this way faculty can ascertain how long the activity should
continue.

Consider Using a Variety of Audiovisual Equipment/Teaching Aids

Faculty, in consultation with the judicial educator, determine the teaching aids to be used based on both the topic and their individual teaching style. Teaching aids include audiovisual equipment and handouts. A related area is selection of room arrangements.

Teaching Aids

Conveying information in a learning environment is greatly enhanced by using instructional media technologies such as those discussed here. There has been an explosion of new technologies. However, those found in step six will be the aids or technologies most often available to judicial educators. All of the information to follow informs judicial educators and faculty about key aspects of the teaching aids, which can help them select one or more most appropriate for the faculty member, audience, room arrangements, and subject matter. The descriptions and suggestions for use can be further investigated by reading *Instructional Media*, Second Edition, by Heinich, Molenda, and Russell.

Teaching aids are tools for faculty to use in facilitating learner achievement. Room arrangements have a physical and psychological impact on learning. Both teaching aids and room arrangements should be chosen by faculty after teaching methods are determined

Criteria for selecting teaching aids include:

- Impact/special aspects, which refer to the unique features of an aid that others cannot offer.
- Appropriateness, which refers to the relationship between compatibility of the aid and the setting in which it will be used.
- Nature of information, which refers to the compatibility of the information and the benefit the aid can offer.
- Audience size, which refers to the fact that certain aids, even if appropriate for the information being offered, are not effective with larger groups of people.
- Availability, which refers to the ease of access and use of the aid. Even a very appropriate
 aid, if difficult to access or use, will not yield optimal results and thus should not be selected.

Teaching aids are innumerable and include everything from props, such as a judge's robe and gavel, to audiovisual equipment. Due to the vast number of potential aids, only a few will be explored here: flip charts and posters, overhead transparencies, slides, films and videos, audiotapes, and written materials. Information best conveyed, audience size, special aspects, and preparation will be examined for each teaching aid. Aids may be used individually or several may be used in a single presentation.

Flip Charts and Posters

Flip charts and posters capture spontaneous thoughts, ideas, or information and can be used for prepared written material of a size appropriate for display to the group of learners. Teaching aids are to be used with a purpose and intent toward some educational end. The use of a flip chart to write vast amounts of information, which could be provided more effectively in handout form, is unnecessary and counterproductive. Flip charts are most effective when faculty record only the most important aspects of the information being presented and/or when they record learner comments.

Factors to consider when using flip charts and posters:

- Information Best Conveyed: Lists, charts, graphs, key words, and learner input are the types of information generally conveyed through flip charts and posters.
- Audience Size: Due to the restrictive size of flip chart and poster paper, use of these aids
 is restricted to relatively small groups, possibly up to 30 people.
- Special Aspects: Flip charts and posters are the only teaching aids which can be posted
 on the wall for continued viewing throughout the session. They are alterable. If faculty or
 learners want to add, delete, or modify, it can be done easily.
- Preparation: Paper and markers are relatively inexpensive. Preparation can be nonexistent
 if flip charts are only used to record participant input. Pads of paper are available in blank
 or lined versions. Markers are available in water-based or permanent, broad, or fine point.
- For Best Results: Always use a variety of color pens/markers and paper. Avoid yellow pens/markers as they are almost impossible to see beyond the first few feet. This variety adds interest, allows for highlighting certain points, and is easier to read from a distance. Use water-based markers when possible. Permanent, acetone-based markers bleed through paper and have an unpleasant odor.

Flip chart pads come with lined or unlined paper. To obtain neat lettering when using unlined paper, use a yard stick or "t" square to draw dark lines on one sheet of paper and place it under each sheet before lettering begins. The lines show through and the sheet can be reused for future lettering.

If pre-lettering flip chart pages with headings to later record participant input, skip several sheets between headings so that ample recording space is available.

Check the facility to determine whether tape or tacks are preferred for posting sheets of paper. If tape is preferred, cut or tear several strips of tape and place on the edges or the legs of the easel. This way the tape is ready for use avoiding the awkward act of tearing tape to post a sheet while the learners wait.

If the flip chart is being used for recording audience input, have a non-faculty member (or a faculty member not teaching at the time) record on the flip chart. This allows the faculty member to continue the dialogue with the learner offering the information, keeping the audience engaged, while the recorder has time to record the information. It also prevents the faculty from turning away from the audience while the information is being recorded. It is best to preselect a recorder, either before the session or during a break. Selection of a recorder should be based on the individual's comfort with the task and ability to spell and write/print legibly.

Flip charts and posters are only effective when the information on them can be read; therefore, the information must be written clearly and in large letters. In other words, the information on the flip chart and poster must be readable from the back of the room.

Overhead Transparencies

Overhead transparencies are designed to project information onto a screen. Misuse of overhead transparencies occurs when there is too much information on one transparency, print size is smaller than 18 point, print quality is poor, or the projection from the overhead projector onto the screen cannot be enlarged adequately for all learners to read.

Factors to consider when using overhead transparencies:

- Information Best Conveyed: Key words, key phrases, charts, graphs, highlights, or portions
 of handout materials are generally the most effective types of information presented via
 overhead projection.
- Audience Size: While not as restrictive as flip charts or posters, there is a limitation to
 audience size with overhead projection. The farther the projector is from the screen, the
 larger the projection. However, there is a limit to the size of the screen and how far you can
 separate the projector and screen and still focus the projection. Depending on the
 equipment, the screen, and the space available, overhead projection can work for groups
 of up to 100.
- Special Aspects: Overhead projection offers the only opportunity for faculty to keep learners
 focused on the front of the room while enabling them to see key terms and listen to the

faculty member simultaneously. Overhead projection can take place in a fully lighted room, which is not true of some similar methods such as slides.

Preparation: Overhead transparencies are relatively inexpensive when purchased by the
box. Transparencies are available in several varieties: write-on film, which can be
hand-lettered; duplication film, which comes in different versions for different high speed
copiers; revelation film, which is dark blue with a special pen which makes the blue
disappear leaving yellow lines/letters/drawings; color film, which is used in full sheets; and
color adhesive film, which can be cut into shapes and applied to write-on or duplication film.

Transparency pens come in permanent or water based versions and broad or fine point for use with write-on or most duplication film. A variety of colors is available.

Light-weight cardboard frames are available for transparencies. Transparencies are secured to frames with tape. Frames protect transparencies and provide a much more professional projection as they block out extraneous light from the projector.

Overlays can be created by hinging one transparency onto a frame in which a companion transparency is secured. The secured transparency can be shown, and at the appropriate time, the overlay can be laid in place to superimpose new information.

A relatively new addition to the overhead projector is a device which, when used on the overhead, projects a computer screen image onto a screen. This allows faculty to manipulate data in view of all participants.

For Best Results: Locate the projection screen where there is not a light directly above it.
 Although an overhead projector works well in lighted areas, a light close to the screen causes the projection to appear faded.

Keep information on transparencies to a minimum; use large, bold letters and illustrations. Print size should be no smaller than 18 point. Therefore, typewritten material is inappropriate unless enlarged before transformed into a transparency.

Use color with transparencies; whether added by pens, color overlays, or adhesive film. This creates interest and breaks the monotony of black and white projection.

When wanting to reveal portions of material on a transparency, place a full sized piece of paper under the transparency, blocking out what is to be kept covered. Move the paper, which is still under the transparency, as needed to reveal more information. If placing the paper on top of the transparency, faculty must hold it in place; however, under the transparency, the weight of the transparency and frame hold it. A common writing pen can be used as a pointer; lay the pen on the transparency and it will appear as a pointer on the projection screen. Faculty often point to items on the screen which the image is projected

rather than the projection screen of the overhead projector. This is an inappropriate and ineffectual way of bringing attention to a certain item.

When using an overhead projector, arrive early, place one transparency on the projector, turn the projector on, and focus the transparency on the screen. To emphasize the information, point to the transparency while still facing the audience.

Turn the projector off between transparencies. Continue to speak as you remove one transparency and place the next on the projector. Once you have the transparency in proper position, turn the projector on. However, sometimes turning the projector on and off can be disruptive to the learners and overtaxes the projector, thus causing the bulb to prematurely burn out. To determine which method is best, inquire about the proper use of the projector, and practice using the transparencies and equipment to ensure that the method used adds to the presentation and does not detract from its impact.

Extra bulbs should always be available. Replacement is easy. The faculty member should receive information about both extra bulbs and replacement instructions prior to the program beginning.

The use of transparency frames are preferred by many faculty members because presentation notes can be recorded on the frames eliminating the need for other notes.

Slides

Slides are projections of photographs onto a screen. Slides are often underused in education sessions for a variety of reasons: they must be planned and produced well in advance of the program, they can be expensive to produce, and they require some photographic expertise if they are to be truly effective.

Factors to consider when using slides:

- Information Best Conveyed: Real situations, events, and people are conveyed by photograph slides. Slides can also be used to project words, phrases, charts, and graphs.
- Audience Size: Slides can be used with relatively large audiences so long as the images or words projected are clear and large. As with the overhead projector, the greater the distance between the projector and the screen, the larger the projected image. Slide projectors can be focused at greater distances from the screen than overheads. Slide projectors have both wired or wireless remote control capabilities which allows the faculty member the freedom to move about and respond to questions by easily advancing to new slides or returning to previous slides. This feature gives the faculty member the option of turning a slide presentation into an interactive experience possibly involving a large number of learners.

- Special Aspects: Slides can bring reality into a session. They can charge a group with emotion or take them to places they would not otherwise be able to go.
- Preparation: A 35 mm camera and film is all that is required to produce slides. Film and
 processing can become expensive, however. There are also slides available for purchase
 and companies which will make slides of words, phrases, graphs, and so on. Additionally,
 many computer software programs can easily and inexpensively make slides.
- For Best Results: Slides must be used in a darkened room. While this makes viewing easier, it makes notetaking impossible for learners.

The faculty must be familiar with the slides and assure each is relevant to the overall presentation. If sections of slides are to be shown at different times, leave a blank between sections. Using a blank prevents premature showing of a slide and helps the faculty mark the beginning and ending of the slide presentation.

When turning off a slide projector, turn off the lamp but not the fan. The fan needs to run until room temperature air is exiting the projector. Turning off the fan before it has adequately cooled the lamp can cause the bulb to explode.

Not all slide projectors use the same carousel; consequently, the faculty member must be sure the carousel or tray is compatible with the slide projector being used.

Films and Videos

Films and videos are action oriented and, like slides, can bring reality into the session. Professional and home versions of films and videos can be effective teaching aids. Both films and videos produced for educational purposes or those done for entertainment can be useful. Films and videos can be purchased or rented from for-profit distributors. Public and university libraries often have extensive film and video selections for loan.

- Information Best Conveyed: Stories, demonstrations, procedures, human interactions, and events are conveyed well through film or video.
- Audience Size: With 16 mm film, an audience of several hundred can be accommodated. With video, the numbers are smaller. If using a VCR and 19" monitor, an audience of 15 to 20 is possible. If the group is larger, use of multiple monitors is possible. Placed at strategic points in the room, one VCR can serve each monitor with proper cabling. Another relatively new piece of equipment, a video projector, can project video onto a screen up to about 70 inches which would serve an audience of 100 to 150.
- Special Aspects: Films and videos bring action and real life situations into the session.

- Preparation: Filming is beyond the scope of most judicial education programs, but
 videotaping is very accessible. Today camcorders are user friendly enabling the operator
 to edit and add graphics and special effects. There are professional videographers in most
 large cities who can produce a video costing from a couple hundred to several thousand
 dollars, depending on the product desired and the budget available. Additionally,
 camcorders can be rented or borrowed as they are increasing in use. Many community
 colleges and universities have video departments which can be accessed at little or no cost.
- For Best Results: Use only the portion of the film or video which is relevant to the program
 content. A few minutes of viewing may be all that is needed to spark discussion among
 learners. If using only a portion, have the film/tape preset at the point you want to start and
 be familiar with that point. Preparing the audience for the viewing helps them to immediately
 focus on what to look for before the film or video begins. It also makes for a more informed
 discussion following the viewing.

Faculty should practice using the equipment. Smooth operation and lack of unnecessary noise and fumbling gives a much more professional presentation. If faculty are uncomfortable using the equipment, an audiovisual technician or judicial education staff member should be located before the program to assist the faculty.

Run a portion of the film/video before the session and move around the room checking for adequate viewing and sound.

Audiotapes

Audiotapes are sound only. Often, the use of audiotape is more effective than the use of video. Audiotape forces the learner to participate by having to visualize what is heard on the tape. Effective use can be made of professional tapes, both educational and entertainment-oriented.

Factors to consider when using audiotapes:

- Information Best Conveyed: Verbal skills and human interaction represent the most
 effective use of audiotapes. However, procedures, histories, instructions, and more are
 commonly found in audio format. Another use of audiotape is to bring music into the
 session; music can become the focus of the session or serve as background for an activity.
- Audience Size: If channeled through a public address system, a very large audience can be accommodated with audiotape. If using a tape player, an audience of 25 to 30 may be the upper limit.
- Special Aspects: Audiotape can have an affective impact on learners; sometimes more powerful than video since it engages learners in visualizing, thus engaging their imaginations.
- Preparation: If recording your own, a tape recorder and blank tapes are all that is required.

For Best Results: If recording your own tapes, find an acoustically suitable place to record.
 Such a place must be quiet and free of echoes and interruptions.

Written Materials

Written materials are created or duplicated and given to learners. Written materials should be designed with care and have a professional look.

- Information Best Conveyed: Supplemental information, backgrounds, details, facts, procedures, agendas, outlines, and summaries can be addressed. Written materials are often misused. Some faculty mistake quantity for quality and overload learners with material they will probably never read or use. The most effective use is to provide learners with concise, to-the-point material that supports the presentation.
- Audience Size: There is no limit to the size of the audience when using written materials.
- Special Aspects: Written materials are the only teaching aid that learners can take with them for later reference. Written materials also allow learners to make notes relevant to the discussion for future reference.
- Preparation: Preparation is inexpensive and simple with typewriters, computers, duplication machines, and binding resources available in most organizations.
- For Best Results: Limit written materials to what is necessary, manageable, and useful to learners. The materials should be clean of distracting marks, page numbered, and referred to by the faculty throughout the session.

Materials should be distributed to learners at appropriate times. Sometimes giving all materials at the beginning of the session is best. Sometimes giving portions of materials during the session is best. And, sometimes it is even best to give materials to learners at the conclusion of the program. Determine the optimal time according to the nature of the material, program objectives, and the teaching style to be used.

6. Consider the Best Room Arrangement(s) For Your Program

Room arrangements affect the learning environment and play a role in implementing activities and using teaching aids. Three basic room arrangements will be discussed: classroom, theater, and conference style.

Criteria for selecting a room arrangement include:

- Size of space and number of participants.
- Types of teaching methods to be used.

- Teaching aids to be used.
- Desired psychological environment.
- Classroom Style: Classroom style consists of rows of tables and chairs facing the same general direction. The advantages of classroom style include: participants face one focal point making it good for audiovisual equipment use; since there are tables, it is good for notetaking; and because it is somewhat formal and participants are not facing each other, it discourages unwanted conversation. Some disadvantages include: it is reminiscent of school, thus does not lend itself to an adult environment; it is difficult to break into groups; it inhibits participant interaction; and it implies speaker superiority, which is not conducive to the mutuality desired for optimal adult education.
- Theater Style: Theater style consists of chairs only, generally facing one direction. Some advantages of this style of seating include: participants face one direction, thus it is good for audiovisual equipment use; and since there are no tables, it allows a maximum number of people in the available space and it is easy to break participants into smaller groups. Some disadvantages include: because there are no tables, it is uncomfortable for participants over long periods of time and it makes notetaking difficult; and since participants do not face each other, this arrangement discourages interaction, unless rearranged.
- Conference Style: Conference style consists of tables and chairs in a variety of arrangements where participants face each other, as a whole or in smaller groupings. Some advantages of this arrangement include: it is informal, thus conducive to optimal adult learning; since participants face each other, it encourages participant interaction; it eases freedom of movement for faculty, since there are not long rows of participants; and the very nature of this arrangement facilitates small group activity. Some disadvantages include: some arrangements can make use of audiovisual equipment difficult; and most arrangements require larger amounts of space than schoolroom or theater styles. Numerous arrangements come under the conference style category including traditional conference table style, rounds, union, u-style, and others. Seating arrangements are discussed in more detail in chapters 5 and 6.

7. Use Presentation Techniques to Assure Success

Use the presentation techniques listed here to increase the effectiveness of your presentation.

Prepare

State your goals and objectives, know your purpose, and plan your activities.

State the Session Purpose

Participants need to know what is expected of them.

Limit Information

Outline your presentation, cover key points, condense and summarize information. Too much information often confuses participants.

Speak in a Conversational Manner

Use notes, an outline, or key points to remind you of the information to be covered. Reading from a prepared paper eliminates communication between you and your participants.

Make Eye Contact with Participants

This allows you to determine how engaged the participants are in your presentation. It is also a sign of trust and interest.

Punctuate Points or Transitions

Use an illustration, a transitional activity, a summary, or a short film to indicate transition from one focus to another. Be conscious to connect all segments of your presentation.

Plan For Participation

Ask open-ended questions and solicit personal examples to illustrate a point. Involvement of participants is key to a successful presentation.

Use Teaching Aids

Involving more than the sense of hearing reinforces material being presented, makes remembering easier, and clarifies your point. Use a variety of aids but only to enhance your information, not for the sake of using aids.

Break Material Into Short Units

After 30 to 45 minutes of presentation, insert an activity or ask questions. This allows participants time to assimilate information already presented and makes further presentations more meaningful.

Know Your Environment

Be familiar with the room, room arrangements, and participant composition, and check your equipment. All of these affect the success of your presentation and should be factored into your teaching plan.

Make Information Relevant

Use examples, illustrations, case studies, discussion groups, and other means to make the information presented relevant to participants.

Move Into the Audience

Moving into the participants seating area builds trust, creates a friendly atmosphere, and makes everyone more comfortable. If done appropriately, it can lessen the feeling of authority often present in an educational setting.

Use Attendee Comments to Further Your Progress

When asking open-ended questions, be alert to comments that can serve as stepping stones in your presentation. This makes participants feel good about themselves and serves as a transition point for you.

Avoid Traditional Barriers

Adults often identify traditional items as signs of authority and barriers to the two-way communication that is so important in adult education. Avoid the use of the lectern and podium (unless using them to hold your notes or aids) while you move into your audience and remain in view. Avoid use of the chalkboard, unless it is the only aid available. Avoid use of terms such as *test* and *student* which have a negative impact on adults.

Use Gender Neutral Language

Avoid using the male pronoun when intention is to refer to both men and women. Avoid stereotyping roles. Avoid occupational terms that apply to one sex.

Be Sensitive to Diversity Issues

When delivering your presentation and engaging in discussion, be conscious of the probable diversity of opinions, beliefs, values, lifestyles, races, and ethnic groups represented within your audience.

Practice and Time Your Presentation

Read your presentation notes or outline, adding conversational comments, giving examples, etc. Keep going over your material until you feel comfortable with the content. Time yourself, estimate activity time, make whatever adjustments that are necessary so that all key points can be covered in the allotted time frame.

Be Yourself and Have Fun

Develop a style and method of presentation that is comfortable for you. Relax and enjoy the reciprocal learning that takes place between you and the participants.

8. Evaluate Participant Learning

To be most effective, evaluation is dictated by the objectives and the presentation method used in the program. The most effective evaluation is continuous during the program. Carefully structured questions solicit very important information from participants and help foster the dialogue necessary for the most effective adult education experience: open-ended questions actively involve learners; non-threatening and no correct answer questions, in the beginning stages of a program, engage learners and build trust. Questions which assess participants' grasp of information, at mid-point and at later stages of a program, are a critical part of assessing learners' growth and change.

For assessing learners achievement of cognitive objectives, evaluation might take the form of feedback through questions which demonstrate learner grasp of new information. For example, you

might ask a group of learners in an ethics program to read a case study and apply what they have learned to describe appropriate behavior in the situation given.

For psychomotor objectives, evaluation might involve demonstration of newly acquired skills. For example, you might ask a group of learners in a judicial orientation program to apply what they have learned to conducting an initial appearance with "actors" from the audience.

For affective objectives evaluation can be from role play, case studies, and experiential activities. For example, you might ask a group of learners in a program regarding children in courts to apply what they have learned in an interview of a child in a role play situation.

To determine what kind of questions faculty should ask to evaluate participant growth and change, use the faculty question checklist developed by Warren (1970) and adapted for this handbook.

Faculty Question Checklist

- Are questions open-ended, meaning they are not answerable by a "yes" or "no"?
 If so, learners are encouraged to process information and think in new ways.
- Are initial questions non-threatening?
 - If so, learners will build trust and respect.
- Do initial questions solicit feelings or opinions and have no "correct" answers?
 If so, the stage is being set for equal participation and involvement of learners.
- Are later questions designed to assess learners' grasp of information?
 If so, learner achievement can be easily assessed.
- In cases where there is a specific or correct answer and an incorrect answer is offered, is the answer and the person who provide it treated with respect?
 If so, learners will continue to participate.
- Are your questions "reframed" if they are not answered or are answered incorrectly?
 If so, learners are able to re-think the question and answer without being embarrassed.

After the Presentation:

9. Faculty Should Provide Statement/Billing for Services and/or Reimbursement

After the presentation, it is necessary for you to submit an invoice in compliance with the faculty contract and reimbursement guidelines in order to effect payment.

10. Provide Feedback to Us Regarding Your Teaching Experience

It is always helpful for faculty to provide feedback on their thoughts about the program and specifically about their presentation. The feedback can be verbal or in writing and should be directed to the education staff assigned to your session.

Section 4: Faculty Handbook Appendix

The appendix contains forms for faculty to use, supplemental information on teaching methodologies, information on gender neutral language, and diversity guidelines.

· Forms:

Teaching Aid Request Form
Duplication Request Form
Conference Management Time Line
Seminar/Workshop Management Time Line
Interactive Broadcast Management Time Line
Presentation Proposal Form

Additional Information:

Panel Presentations
Small Groups
Sample of Facilitator Instructions
Role Play
Dealing with Problems in Education Session or Small Groups
Fair Communication
Diversity Guidelines

*	Teaching Aid Request	*
structions to Faculty: esentation. Submit this esignated judicial educati	Complete one teaching aid request form for each teachin form and attach any examples by the deadline to your pro on staff.	g aid needed for you gram planner or othe
ate Submitted:	Date Needed:	
Faculty Name:		
Session Title:		
	TEACHING AID DESCRIPTION	
7		
	FOR STAFF USE ONLY	
Date Completed:		

Extracted from Conner, M., and K. Waldrop. 1994. Program Management: Managing Deadlines, Details, Activities, and People: JERITT Monograph Five. East Lansing, MI: Judicial Education Reference, Information and Technical Transfer Project.

*		Duplication Req	uest	*
indicate any ins	structions you hav	e about the duplication of you	rm for each set of materials submitted. Ir materials on the lines designated for Ier designated judicial education staff.	special
Date Submitted:			Needed:	
	ctions (check as man			
10	☐ Single Side	□ Staple		
	☐ Double Side	☐ 3 Hole Pun	ch .	
	☐ Special Colors (explain):		
Check One: A copy of the A copy of the A copy of the	s form for inclusion in material is attached, material is attached,	the program file. duplication is hereby requested. duplicate but do not put in materia duplication is not necessary. I am		must be
		Duplication Instructions — For	Staff Use Only	
☐ Single Side		☐ Staple	☐ Notebook Assembly	
☐ Double Side		☐ 3 Hole Punch	☐ Special Colors (explain):	
Date Submitted		Date Needed:	Return To:	
Other Special Ir	estructions:			

Extracted from Conner, M., and K. Waldrop. 1994. Program Management: Managing Deadlines, Details, Activities, and People: JERITT Monograph Five. East. Lansing, MI; Judicial Education Reference, Information and Technical Transfer Project.

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Conference Management Time Line

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Instructions to Program Planner: This form should be completed for the purpose of setting deadlines, assigning tasks, and monitoring completion of tasks.

		Start	Finish	Date
	Assigned To	Date	Date	Completed
12 Months Prior* Committee Selected Chair Selected (if necessary)				
Conference Dates Determined				
Conference Length Established		_		
Deadlines Established				
Facility Selected and Meeting Space Reserved				
Audience Identified				
10 Months Prior Committee Meeting Held				
Topics Identified				
Curriculum Development Sheets Completed		_		
Non-Committee Faculty Identified		_		
Committee Assignments Made				-
9 Months Prior Faculty Selected and Contacted		_		
Contracts Negotiated (if necessary)		_		
7 Months Prior Faculty Meeting Held				
6 Months Prior Presentation Proposals Submitted for Committee Review				

^{*}Adjust time frames and tasks to fit staffing patterns, demands on judicial education organization resources, and judicial education program and development structure.

	Assigned To	Start Date	Finish Date	Date Completed
5 Months Prior Feedback Provided to Faculty on Plans				Completes
Program Announcement Information Submitted to Graphic Artist			-	
4 Months Prior Program Announcement Designed and Submitted for Committee Review		·		
3 Months Prior Audiovisual Material Requests Submitted to Graphic Artist			<u> </u>	
Program Announcement Printed and Mailed**			9-14-07	
2 Months Prior Registration Deadline				
Preliminary Logistical Information Sent to Facility			-	
6 Weeks Prior Conference Materials Submitted for Duplication				
Preliminary Registration Information Provided to Faculty and Committee				
Participant Confirmation Letters and Pre- Conference Assignments Mailed (f necessary)		-		
Month Prior Sample of Materials, Hard Copy of Audiovisual Materials, and Logistical Sheets Submitted to Faculty		-	-	
Final Registration Information Provided to Faculty and Committee			1. The same of the	
All Logistics Finalized and Guaranteed with Facility		-		-
2 Weeks Prior Send Program Materials to Facility				
Notes:			li .	

Extracted from Conner, M., and K. Waldrop. 1994. Program Management. Managing Deadlines, Details, Activities, and People: JERITT Monograph Five. East Lansing, MI: Judicial Education Reference, Information and Technical Transfer Project.

[&]quot;If a yearly master program calendar has not been issued previously, the program planner should consider distributing the program announcement earlier so that appropriate staffing assignments can be made within the courts while still allowing for program attendance.

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Seminar/Workshop Management Time Line

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Instructions to Program Planner: This form should be completed for the purpose of setting deadlines, assigning tasks, and monitoring completion of tasks.

	Assigned To	Start Date	Finish Date	Date Completed
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10 Months Prior* Committee Selected Chair Selected (if necessary)				
Seminar/Workshop Dates Determined		_		
Program Length Established				2
Deadlines Established				
Facility Selected and Meeting Space Reserved		_		
Audience Identified				
8 Months Prior Committee Meeting Held				
Topics Identified	<u> </u>			
Curriculum Development Sheets Completed		_		
Non-Committee Faculty Identified				
Committee Assignments Made		_		
7 Months Prior Faculty Selected and Contacted				
Contracts Negotiated (if necessary)				
Faculty Meeting Held		_		
6 Months Prior Presentation Proposals Submitted for Committee Review				
Feedback Provided to Faculty on Plans		_		
Program Announcement Information Submitted to Graphic Artist		_		

^{*}Adjust time frames and tasks to fit staffing patterns, demands on judicial education organization resources, and judicial education program and development structure.

	Assigned To	Start Date	Finish Date	Date Completed
5 Months Prior Program Announcement Designed and Submitted for Committee Review				
3 Months Prior Program Announcement Printed and Mailed**				·
2 Months Prior Registration Deadline				ř.
Preliminary Logistical Information Sent to Facility				
6 Weeks Prior Audiovisual Material Requests Submitted to Graphic Artist				
Program Materials Submitted for Duplication		53		
Month Prior Final Registration Information Provided to Faculty and Committee	-			
Participant Confirmation Letters and Pre- Program Assignments Mailed (if necessary)		-		<u> </u>
All Logistics Finalized and Guaranteed with Facility			-	
Sample of Materials, Hard Copy of Audiovisual Materials, and Logistical Sheets Submitted to Faculty				
1 Month Prior				
Send Program Materials to Facility				
Notes:				

[&]quot;If a yearly master program calendar has not been issued previously, the program planner should consider distributing the program announcement earlier so that appropriate staffing assignments can be made within the courts while still allowing for program attendance.

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Interactive Broadcast Management Time Line

Instructions to Program Planner: This form should be completed for the purpose of setting deadlines, assigning tasks, and monitoring completion of tasks.

	Assigned To	Start Date	Finish Date	Date Completed
10 Months Prior* Committee Selected Chair Selected (# necessary)		191		
Broadcast Dates Determined				
Program Length Established	ALCON PURANTA		-	
Deadlines Established				
Facility Selected and Meeting Space Reserved				
Audience Identified			-	
8 Months Prior Committee Meeting Held				
Topics Selected				
Curriculum Development Sheets Completed				
Facility, Date, and Program Length Finalized				
Non-Committee Faculty Identified				
Committee Assignments Made		1		
Facility Scheduled				
Contracts Negotiated for Services (technical consultants, satellite)				
7 Months Prior Faculty Selected and Contacted	-			
Faculty Meeting Held to Discuss Program Outline/Studio/Graphics/Broadcast Process/Needs			-	
Contracts Negotiated with Faculty (if necessary)				
Dry Run Date Determined				
6 Months Prior Program Outline and/or Script Submitted for				

^{*}Adjust time frames and tasks to fit staffing patterns, demands on judicial education organization resources, and judicial education program and development structure.

	Assigned To	Start Date	Finish Date	Date Completed
Feedback Provided to Faculty				
Program Announcement Information Submitted to Graphic Artist		St. (7-11-11-11-11)		_
Meeting with Local Facilitators Held to Discuss Broadcast		-		
4 Months Prior Program Announcement Designed and Submitted for Committee Review				
Graphics Submitted to Graphic Artist for Production		-		
3 Months Prior Program Announcement Printed and Mailed**	<u> </u>			
2 Months Prior Registration Deadline		100 000 0000000000000000000000000000000		
Preliminary Logistical Information Sent to Facility		3		
6 Weeks Prior Program Materials Submitted for Duplication	2			
Month Prior Final Registration Information Provided to Faculty and Committee		e 19 <u>11-11</u>		
All Logistics Finalized and Guaranteed with Facility		ē . 		
Sample of Materials, Hard Copy of Broadcast Graphics, and Logistical Sheets Submitted to Faculty			-	
Participant Confirmation Letters and Pre- Program Assignments Mailed (if necessary)		-		
1 Week Prior "Dry Run" Held		: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	70	17450 - 1740 MA CAN
Adjustments Made for Live Broadcast				
Send Program Materials to Facility				
Notes:	ASS	18 Page - 1979	, San Jan 1997	

Extracted from Conner, M., and K. Waldrop. (1994). Program Management: Managing Deadlines, Details, Activities, and People: JERITT Monograph Five East Lansing. MI: Judicial Education Reference, Information and Technical Transfer Project.

[&]quot;If a yearly master program calendar has not been issued previously, the program planner should consider distributing the program announcement earlier so that appropriate staffing assignments can be made within the courts while still allowing for program attendance.

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Presentation Proposal



Instructions to Faculty: Before completing the presentation proposal, consider what kind(s) of teaching aids could be used in your presentation and what kind of meeting room arrangements would create the appropriate learning environment for your session. The reference materials attached to the presentation proposal form (teaching aids, room arrangements, and presentation tips) will help stimulate your thoughts about these considerations. Items 1, 8, 9, and 20 have already been completed by the program planner. All blank sections are to be completed by the faculty member.

Topic:			
Faculty: (List faculty name as it should appear on the program			50
	аппоипсете	nt)	
Faculty title:			
Faculty court, business, or organization name:			
(List information as it should appear on the program a	nnouncemen	t)	
Address:			
Faculty phone and fax number:		_	
(Phone)		(Fax)	
Faculty social security or FEIN number:			
Consultant fee as previously agreed upon:			
Consultant travel:			
	odging)		(Transportation)
Consultant biographical information: (Note: Attach a one-page biographical sketch or resumé)			
List additional discussion leaders or facilitators (attact (Note: If the names listed below are to appear on the conference travel and/or paid a fee, make copies of this form and complete the	announcemer	nt, and if th	ese persons will be reimbur

3.	Provide a four or five sentence description of the presentation as it should appear on tannouncement (for more space, attach additional sheets):	he program
1.	Provide the learning objectives of the presentation as they should appear on the programnouncement (for more space, attach additional sheets):	am

Topical Outline	Time Allocation	Presentation Method
		12 4 - 4 - 12 - 2
	2 11000	
st.		

ist <u>all</u> audiovisual equipment or t uestion, review the room arrange	eaching aids needed for the presentation (before comple ment information sheet):
dentify room set-up requirements for before completing this question, re	or this presentation. Provide both written instructions and a eview the room arrangement information sheet):
R	Room Arrangement Diagram
ist the expected number of page	s for your notebook or handout materials:
430404	(Number of handout pages)

Panel Presentations

- Panels are most effective with controversial topics or when there are differing perspectives on a subject.
- Panels should be limited in size so all members are effectively involved in the discussion.
- Panel members should be: informed of program objectives, allowed a set and limited time for presenting their individual views, and actively engaged in answering questions (asked in the session or submitted in writing before or during the session).
- One form of a panel presentation is the debate. A debate usually involves two individuals who have opposing views on a topic.
- Panels work best with a moderator.
 - Moderators assist in planning the session and are vital in facilitating discussion, controlling time, involving each panel member equally, screening questions, and involving participants on an active level. They can determine the order of subtopics to be discussed, the sequencing for panel members, and the time frames to be allowed for each.
 - Moderators can plan questions for panel members or field participant questions. If questions
 are submitted in writing, the moderator can screen them, asking those which are the most
 relevant and interesting.
 - Moderators do not present information but facilitate the discussion process. They can
 provide reactions to information presented, summarize at key points in the discussion and
 provide transitions from one aspect of the discussion to another.
 - Moderators assure that one or two panel members do not dominate the discussion. They
 can also clarify panel members' comments and restate participants' questions for all to hear.

Questions are important to the panel process. Questions provide panel members with points of departure for comments, assure a variety of information is covered, and present participants with areas of agreement or disagreement with the panel.

Ideally, some questions should come from participants. This gives participants ownership in the presentation, makes them active rather than passive, and provides a much wider spectrum of information.

Small Groups

- A small group should ideally be from five to seven members to be most effective. A minimum number
 is three. Fewer members do not provide a sufficient forum for active discussion. A maximum number
 is nine. If more than nine people are in a small group, often discussion is hindered by private
 conversations, which develop among two or three of the small group members.
- Groups should ideally be seated in a circle.
- Group discussion should be monitored by the faculty member. When discussion gradually winds down,
 it should be ended. Generally the problem faced by faculty is the opposite. Time does not allow
 discussion to continue long enough for participants to exhaust their ideas.
- Faculty should visit all groups to assess progress, clarify any misunderstanding about the purpose of the discussion, and answer any questions participants may have.
- It is advisable to provide groups with verbal and written instructions as to the purpose of the group and the expected product, if any.
- Have a facilitator for each group. Facilitators can be preselected and trained or they can be randomly selected, by the group or volunteered. Random selection of facilitators can be accomplished by placing a marker under chairs before participants arrive. Facilitators should be given instructions verbally and in writing. Facilitators assure faculty established ground rules are followed. They distribute instructions/work sheets, monitor the group's progress, record appropriate information, and assure that each group member has an opportunity to speak. Facilitators also report the small group's progress/decisions to the large audience.
- Small group activities can be successful with large audiences, if facilitators are used. If using this
 method in a large group, it is advisable to provide each participant with written, as well as verbal,
 instructions and work sheets to reduce confusion.
- Groups function best if they have an identity. They can select a name, be numbered, and so on.
 When presenting a group report to the large audience, the reporter should give the group name before reporting. This gives the group a sense of camaraderie and accomplishment.
- After the small groups have completed their work, always have some, if not all groups, report on their
 activity to the entire audience. Information reported should include their process and their product or
 outcome. This makes the activity relevant to the topic and gives participants a sense of ownership in
 the session.

Sample of Facilitator Instructions

As facilitator for your group you are asked to perform two functions:

- Hand out materials at appropriate times
- Conduct activities

Materials and activities are placed in this envelope in the order in which they will be addressed.

Materials

When asked, please distribute the appropriate materials. Materials are color coded so you can locate the proper one with ease. Faculty will indicate when to distribute and will identify the item by name and color of paper.

Activities

Please lead the discussion and record information from participants in your group for each of the three activities in this packet.

Each activity has a cover page which is numbered 1, 2, or 3. Faculty will indicate when to initiate an activity and will identify it by number.

With each activity, there will first be discussion within each small group. Then there will be discussion among participants as a whole.

With each activity, you are provided several questions for your group members to answer. Faculty will indicate when questions are to be introduced to your group.

If information for an activity is to be given to each individual group member for review, you are provided with an appropriate number of copies. Faculty will indicate when to distribute copies.

If information is for you only, to be shared verbally with your group, you will have only one copy. Faculty will indicate when to share the information.

Thank you for serving as facilitator for your group!

Role Play

- Role play is an experiential activity involving participants in acting out a scenario, performing a certain
 role, or practicing newly learned skills. It can increase the effectiveness of learning by providing
 participants a "nearly real" situation in which they can "experience" feelings, attitudes, comfort or
 discomfort, and in which they can test or validate newly acquired information.
- One use of role play is to set the tone for learning. Used prior to the introduction of new information, role play can provide participants with an experience to open their minds to new possibilities. Another use of role play is to help participants bridge the gap between learning new information and putting it into practice. In a course on dealing with difficult people, a role play used early in the program can help participants realize that they need expanded skills, thus creating the need to know new strategies. A role play later in the program allows participants to test newly acquired strategies and can provide faculty with an evaluation tool to assess how well participants have learned and are able to apply new information.
- Role play can involve a few individuals who perform for the entire audience or it can be an activity in
 which all participants take part by use of small groups. In either case, role play instructions and roles
 to be played need to be clearly stated as well as given to participants in writing before they are asked
 to engage in the activity.
- If used with the entire audience, role play works best if participants have established a comfort level
 with faculty and with each other. If used with a few actors who perform for other participants, to assure
 success faculty may preselect individuals and provide them with the specifics of the role play before
 the program begins.
- If the entire audience participates in small group role play, an observer may be useful within each group. The observer does not participate directly in the role play but watches others and gives feedback to fellow group members on their actions, emotions, use of skills, and so on. This can be especially helpful if the audience is large and the faculty member cannot observe all groups to provide this feedback. If the role play takes place as a small group of actors performing for the audience, feedback can come from the audience and/or the faculty member.
- Whether role play is in small groups or demonstrated in front of the entire audience, discussion
 following the activity should be structured. Faculty can design a format for discussion which may
 include: a series of questions participants can answer, a list of topics to be covered, or a list of
 expected outcomes which participants can validate or invalidate, based on their personal experiences
 with the role play.
- A concluding discussion of the role play experience is critical if faculty are to tie the activity to the topic.
 It should involve the entire audience so participants are able to hear the views and experiences of others.

Dealing with Problems in Education Sessions or Small Groups

To prevent problems, establish some ground rules for your sessions or small group activities. Ground rules may include respecting the views of others and maintaining focus on the current topic of discussion and so on.

What to do when one individual monopolizes discussion time:

- Remind the individual of the ground rules: "Everyone needs to have an opportunity to express their views. Let's hear from some participants who have not yet had a chance to speak."
- If the problem continues, speak to the individual privately: "Your input is really appreciated, but I am
 concerned that others are not having a chance to voice their opinions."

What to do when one individual chronically interrupts others:

- Remind the individual of the ground rules: "Everyone has the right to be heard. Let's let (name) complete any comments."
- If the problem continues, interrupt the interrupter: "Hold that thought, Bob. As soon as (name) has finished, you can comment."
- If the problem still continues, speak with the interrupter privately: "With as many ideas as you have, Bob, I know it is difficult for you not to offer your comments. But, I am afraid that others will hesitate to participate if they are not allowed to complete their comments."

What to do when two people carry on a private conversation:

- Remind the talkers of the ground rules: "We agreed to stay with the group and focus on the topic at hand. Let's try to have only one person talking at a time so we can all hear the comments being made."
- If the problem continues, speak to the talkers privately: "I know it is tempting to talk to one another, but
 you may be missing some important information and the rest of the participants are having difficulty
 focusing on what is being said."
- If the problem still persists, separate the talkers by doing a "round robin" reseating so people can
 interact with new partners for the next activity.

What to do when one participant continually digresses or brings up unrelated "war stories":

- Remind participants of the ground rules: "That is very interesting, but how do you relate it to the topic
 we are discussing?" or "That is very interesting, but I'll bet we could spend an hour on that topic and
 not resolve the issue. I think we need to get back on track."
- If the problem continues, speak to the individual privately: "You really have a lot of information and anecdotes to share and I am sorry we don't have the time to hear them all. Our time is really limited so I would appreciate it if you would only comment on things relevant to our topic."

What to do when a participant is silent/does not participate or comment:

- While this situation may not be problematic, there are some ways to draw-out participants who may be hesitant to interact in a learning setting.
- Observe the individual discretely. When you sense that participant may have had a reaction to what
 was said or show some signs of having something to contribute, show interest in what the individual
 may have to say: "You seem to agree (disagree) with that last comment, Bob. I would be interested
 in hearing your perspective." (Be sure to value their input by commenting, summarizing, or tying their
 thoughts into your next point.) It is best to ask them for an opinion, feeling, or experience rather than
 a question that has a right or wrong answer. If they answer incorrectly, they will probably not
 participate again.
- If you get no indication that they may have something to contribute, speak with the individual privately: "You are awfully quiet today. Is the information being presented relevant to you?" Be prepared to value what ever the answer is. If it is negative: "Well, I can understand your difficulty in accepting this approach. Could you tell me what might be more useful for you?" You may want to alter the program or you may need to stay with your original plan. Follow up in the session with some mention of the opinion (not the person) and value the perspective if possible: "Someone commented at the break that this information was really not applicable in their court. That is unfortunate, but I am glad for that information. My plan is to provide you with practical information, so if it is not practical or you have other perspectives, please feel free to share them." The individual may begin to participate.
- Although many people learn best when they are actively participating, others do not and should not be forced.

Fair Communication

There is increasing concern regarding the need for neutrality of language, both written and spoken. To avoid statements which are insensitive to a person's age, socioeconomic status, national origin, sexual preference, religious beliefs, or gender, faculty should become aware of their use of language, the implications of certain types of humor, and the impact of some common slang terms.

To avoid use of language which could be termed sexist, faculty can incorporate the following guidelines:

- Avoid use of the male pronoun (he, his, or him) when the intention is to refer to both men and women.
 Alternative choices depend on context.
 - a. Eliminate the pronoun entirely:

The judge shall perform duties assigned to him with honor.

The judge shall perform assigned duties with honor.

Replace the pronoun with a neutral article:

An attorney must prepare his case before coming to court.

An attorney must prepare the case before coming to court.

or The judge will issue his decision tomorrow.

The court will issue its decision tomorrow.

c. Change singular pronouns to plural:

Each judge must answer for his ethical conduct.

Judges must answer for their ethical conduct.

d. Use an adjective other than a pronoun to modify the noun:

A judge shall not lend the prestige of his office to advance his private interests.

A judge shall not lend the prestige of judicial office to advance private interests.

Use "who" with or without a noun;

If an attorney shows disrespect for the judge he may be found in contempt of court. An attorney who shows disrespect for the judge may be found in contempt of court.

Repeat the noun or use a synonym:

Each attorney must file his motions in a timely manner. If he does not, he may lose the

opportunity.

Each attorney must file motions in a timely manner. Any attorney who does not, may lose the opportunity.

g. Eliminate unnecessary pronouns entirely:

If a judge does not find ways to articulate her decisions, she may have problems.

If a judge does not find ways to articulate decisions, problems may occur.

- Avoid stereotyping of roles. Illustrations, case studies, or role plays laden with prejudicial implications connote sexism.
 - a. Instead of man and wife, use parallel terms such as man and woman or husband and wife
 - b. Avoid patronizing terms such as the "little woman" or "woman driver"
 - c. Avoid use of the terms "girl" and "boy" unless referring to children
 - d. Avoid using the terms "male" or "female" before an occupation, such as "female" doctor, "male" nurse, "female" attorney
 - e. Use the term "spouse" to avoid implying that a category of individuals is all one gender; for example rather than say, "Judges' wives are invited," say "Judges' spouses are invited"
- Avoid occupational terms that apply to one sex; focus instead on the work performed.

Use	Do not use
insurance agent	insurance man
flight attendant	stewardess
postal worker	postman
fire fighter	fireman
homemaker	housewife
electrician, plumber	repairman
police officer -	policeman
spokesperson	spokesman
chair or chairperson manufactured	chairman man-made

Avoid using the terms "man" or "men" when there is a more specific reference.

Do not use
one-man operation
five-man staff
workman
men in high places
businessmen
best person for the job
man-to-man
man-hours
the average man

Each faculty member must decide whether to expend the extra effort to use gender-fair language or decide how to offset the negative image created from the lack of that effort.

Diversity Guidelines

The diversity in our country has enriched available human resources and made each of us more aware of the need for sensitivity and tact when interacting with others. A major factor in diversity is the need to understand and respect others' cultures, beliefs, and behaviors. This is extremely important in an educational environment, especially with faculty engaged in the education of public officials, elected officers, and judicial personnel. Faculty must be vigilant in creating a learning environment that honors all participants. The following three suggestions should be incorporated in the development and delivery of all educational programs:

Incorporate diversity issues into the substantive portions of your program. It is everyone's
responsibility to assure diversity issues are addressed. While programs on diversity are usually
offered in judicial education, it seems preferable to incorporate diversity issues into existing programs
to more fairly represent our diverse population, dispel biases, and align our perspectives to reflect
today's society.

This can be accomplished in the following ways:

- Incorporate ethnic, racial, and gender diversity issues into your program objectives.
- Employ the use of diverse populations in your case studies, examples, and other language.
- Have an individual who is representative of a diverse group or someone who is sensitive to these issues review your program and materials.
- 2. Address any diversity issues which arise during your program. Frequently our own biases are too subtle to identify on our own, yet we can recognize them in others. When recognized, it is the faculty member's responsibility to protect every individual in the session from the biases of others and to assist participants in becoming more sensitive to what may be perceived as inappropriate individual behavior.

This can be accomplished in the following ways:

- If someone in your session treats another participant in an inappropriate manner, speak to the offender privately as soon as possible. Take an unscheduled break, if necessary, so that you can address the situation.
- If someone in your session uses inappropriate terminology publicly in your session, provide the correct, more acceptable term. For example you could say, "I assume you are referring to (the acceptable term)?" Or you can assist the individual in understanding that the term is unacceptable. For example you could say, "Are you aware that the term you used is considered derogatory or unacceptable?"

Always give the offender the benefit of the doubt:

- · They may not recognize the appearance/impact of their behavior.
- They may not intend to be inappropriate or offensive.
- Assure that your presentation is bias free:
 - Monitor your presentation, language, and conduct to avoid the use of derogatory, demeaning, and stereotypical references. This includes use of slang terms and jokes which target a specific group of people.
 - Avoid the perception of bias by refraining from the use of stereotypes in your examples, case studies, and comments.

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Chapter 6: Creating Faculty Development Written Materials

The following are written materials for the one-day faculty development program referenced in chapter 5.

Faculty Development Program

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Faculty Development Program Agenda

ts
ion Proposal

Educators of the Past

Educators of the Past

Picture an individual with whom	you had	a positive	educational	experie	ence in the past.	List
characteristics and behaviors of	the indiv	idual which	contributed	to the	positive encount	er.

Characteristics of the Individual:

Behaviors of the Individual:

Picture an individual with whom you had a negative educational experience in the past. List characteristics and behaviors of the individual which contributed to the negative encounter:

Characteristics of the Individual:

Behaviors of the Individual:

Adults as Learners

Characteristics of adults as they mature:

- The self concept moves from being dependent toward being independent.
- There is a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning.
- There is a readiness to learn oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of social and professional roles.
- 4) The time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application and an orientation shift from subject-centered to problem-centered educational interest.

As individuals mature they move...

From:

To:

Dependence Passivity Subjectivity Ignorance Small Abilities Few Responsibilities Narrow Interest

Selfishness

Self-Rejection Amorphous Self-Identity Focus on Particulars Superficial Concerns

Imitation

Need for Certainty

Impulsiveness

Autonomy Activity Objectivity Enlightenment Large Abilities

Many Responsibilities **Broad Interests**

Altruism

Self-Acceptance Integrated Self-Identity Focus on Principles Deep Concerns

Originality

Tolerance for Ambiguity

Rationality

Knowles, M. 1970. The Modern Practice of Adult Education. New York: Association Press, page 25.

Child/Adult Learner Differences and Similarities

1)	Adults are more realistic.
2)	Adults have needs which are more immediate.
3)	Adults do not comprise a captive audience.
4)	Adults are used to being treated as mature persons.
5)	Adults often require longer to perform a learning task.
6)	Adults are generally more impatient in the pursuit of learning objectives.
7)	Adults often have more difficulty in remembering isolated facts.
8)	Adults have more compelling responsibilities competing with education for time.
9)	Adults often attend class with a mixed set of motives.

Adapted from Rossman, M. 1990. Characteristics of adults as compared with children. Tempe, AZ: Educational Leadership and Policy Studies, College of Education, Arizona State University Tempe, Photocopy.

Teaching and Learning

A Condition of Learning:

The learning environment is characterized by physical comfort, mutual trust and respect, mutual helpfulness, freedom of expression, and acceptance of differences.

Knowles, M. 1970. The Modern Practice of Adult Education. New York: Association Press, pages 52-53.

Learning	Environment:
Physical:	

Psychological:

Adults Fear Competition and Evaluation

To facilitate retention and recall:

- Present one idea at a time to minimize competing intellectual demands
- Summarize frequently to reinforce information already known or presented
- Pace presentation of new information to allow time for mastery and assimilation
- · Use teaching aids to assist learners in organizing new material
- · Present information in situational context, relevant to learners' real life situations
- · Use a person-centered, collaborative approach to learning
- Begin with "what would you like to get out of this presentation?" or "what do you expect to gain from this program?"

Facilitation of Learning

- Repetition
- Reinforcement
- Association

Interaction Styles: Four Dimensions of Behavior Developed by the Carlson Learning Company

- Interaction styles are not personality assessments
- There are four basic styles:
 - D = Dominance
 - = Influencing
 - S = Steadiness
 - Cautiousness/Compliance
- Each individual has aspects of all four
- Generally one is predominant
- There are no value judgments associated with these styles

Knowing interaction styles are important because they:

- Provide an opportunity to anticipate interactions in an educational setting
- Disassociate the behavior from a personal commentary on the faculty member
- Provide faculty with an opportunity to assess their own style
- Shed some light as to how various individuals will respond to new information

Dominance

D Tends to take an active, assertive, direct approach to obtaining results.

Behavioral tendencies at work:

High ego

Impatient

· Desires change

· Fears being taken advantage of

May want:

Authority

Challenges

Prestige

Freedom

Varied activities

Difficult tasks

Logical approaches

Opportunity for advancement

Interact with a high "D" person with the following:

- Provide direct answers
- Be brief and to the point
- · Ask "what" questions, not "how" questions
- · Stick to business
- · Outline the possibilities for this person to get results
- · Stress the logic of ideas
- · Agree with facts and ideas, not with the person
- · Get facts in the open
- Relate all to end results or the work goal

Influencing

Tends to approach new others in an outgoing, gregarious, socially aggressive manner. Tends to be impulsive, emotional, and reactive. Needs to be loved.

Behavioral tendencies at work:

- Emotional
- People-oriented
- Fears loss of social approval
- Disorganized
- Optimistic

May want:

- Social recognition
- Popularity
- People to talk to
- Freedom of speech
- Freedom from control and detail
- · Favorable working conditions
- · Recognition of abilities
- · To help others
- · Chance to "motivate" others

Interact with a high "i" with the following:

- Provide a favorable, friendly environment
- Provide opportunity to verbalize about ideas, people
- Provide ideas for them to turn talk into action
- Provide testimonials from experts on ideas
- Provide time for stimulating and fun activities
- · Provide details in writing, but do not dwell on them
- Provide democratic relationship
- Provide incentives for taking on tasks

Steadiness

S Tends to prefer more controlled, deliberate, predictable environment, values security of situation and disciplined behavior.

Behavioral tendencies at work:

- Very loyal
- Very family-oriented
- Investigative

- Slow to change
- · Fears loss of security

May want:

- Status quo
- Security of situation
- Time to adjust
- Appreciation

- Identification with group
- Work patterns
- Limited territory
- · Areas of specialization

Interact with a high "S" with the following:

- · Provide a sincere, personal, agreeable environment
- · Provide a sincere interest in them as a person
- · Ask "how" questions to get their opinions
- · Be patient
- · Present ideas on change in a non-threatening manner
- Clearly define roles or goals
- · Provide personal assurances of support
- · Emphasize how their actions will minimize their risk

Cautiousness/Compliance

C Tends to prefer that things are done the "right" way according to the book or the established accepted standards and expectations.

Behavioral tendencies at work:

- Perfectionist
- Sensitive
- Very accurate

- · Needs many explanations
- Fears criticism

May want:

- Security
- No sudden changes
- Personal attention
- Little responsibility
- Exact job description

- · Controlled work environment
- Status quo
- Reassurances
- . To be part of the group

Interact with a high "C" with the following:

- · Take time to prepare your information in advance
- Provide straight pros and cons of ideas
- Support ideas with accurate data
- Provide reassurances, no surprises
- Give exact explanations
- Provide thorough description of job or responsibilities
- · Explain how their part fits into the big picture
- · Provide step by step approach to the goal
- · If agreeing, be specific
- · If disagreeing, disagree with facts; not the person
- · Be prepared to provide many explanations
- · Be patient and persistent

Ages or Stages of Life

Ages or stages of life can affect an individual's view of and reaction to education, change, and new information.

Age:	Social/Professional Tasks:	View of Education or Acceptance of Information:
20s:		
30s:		
40s:	× ·	
8		
50s:		
60s:		

The Educational Process

Education is a Process of Growth and Change

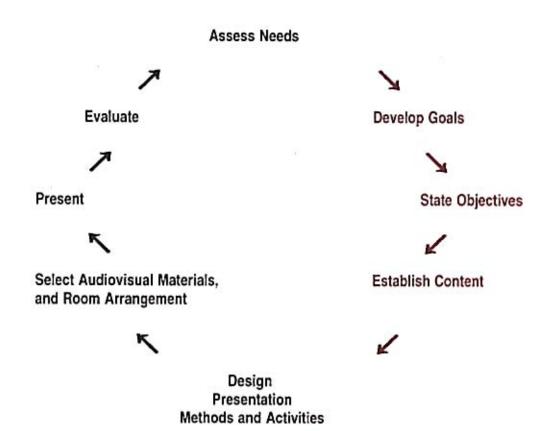
Growth:		
The individual involved in an educational process should be able to think in new ways, perform new tasks, and view information with a new perspective.		
Change:		
Individuals involved in an educational process should leave a program different than they were when they entered.		
Change is frequently viewed as a threat and met with resistance.		
Economic Threat*:		
Social Threat*:		
Threat to Symbols*:		
Threat of Inconvenience*:		
It may not be possible or desirable to eliminate resistance but minimizing it allows change to take place in a more positive environment and gives the new information, technology, or process an opportunity to be successful.		
A Change Process:		
Unfreezing*:		
Changing*:		

Refreezing*:

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Program Planning

Planning Process Cycle



Assessing Need

Assessing need is the process of determining areas of discrepancy between the ideal and reality and determining if education can bridge the gap. Needs can be identified as those of the organization and/or those of the learners.

those of the learners.	gap. 110000 can be identified as mose of the organization of	and or
Methods of Needs Assessment:		
Performance Appraisals		
Formal Needs Assessments		

- · Focus Groups
- · Research/Literature Review
- Other

Writing Goals

Goals are statements regarding what the faculty member hopes to accomplish in the education sessi-	on
and they are faculty-centered.	

Examples:

I hope to/this session will familiarize participants with the aspects of the new law and make them aware of the new procedures to follow.

I want to/this session will prepare new judges for their duties regarding jury management.

I will/this session will sensitize judges to the importance of adhering to the code of judicial conduct and avoiding the appearance of impropriety in their behavior on and off of the bench.

I want to/this session will teach judges about the various aspects of alternative dispute resolution including arbitration, mediation, and settlement conferencing.

I will/this session will help judges understand the nature of domestic violence and how to best deal with families in crisis.

I want to/this session will familiarize judges with the responsibilities of probation officers, the nature of their work, and their educational requirements.

I will/this session will provide information on how to follow proper procedure when conducting an initial appearance, conducting an arraignment, taking a guilty plea, and processing a revocation of probation.

Stating Objectives

Objectives are specific, measurable, realistic, and clearly worded performance statements regarding what participants will be able to do as a result of the education session. Objectives are participant-centered and include action verbs.

A good way for a faculty member to determine whether an objective has been met is to ask whether the objective being accomplished could be seen or heard.

Examples:

Participants will be able to compare and contrast the various views regarding intensive probation as opposed to incarceration.

Participants will be able to define arbitration, mediation, and settlement conferencing.

Participants will be able to conduct an initial appearance following proper procedure.

Participants will be able to utilize the script in the bench book and demonstrate charging a jury.

Participants will be able to assess various case study situations, determine whether the code of judicial conduct has been violated, and analyze what the acceptable behavior for the judge should have been.

Participants will be able to use effective listening skills in role play situations.

Participants will be able to **identify** the various components of the cycle of violence and describe their relevance and impact on families and the court system.

Participants will be able to		

Types of Objectives

Cognitive Objective is a statement about what a participant can say or do to demonstrate knowledge.
Examples:
Participants will state, in writing and without assistance, the complete and current criteria for juvenile intensive probation placement.
Participants will be able to list the most commonly violated canons of the code of judicial conduct and identify ways in which they can avoid violation.
Participants will
Psychomotor Objective is a statement about what participants can do to demonstrate skills and abilities.
Examples:
Participants will complete form #402, without assistance, using information given to each individual in a fictitious case study situation.
Participants will be able to sign on the automated case tracking system and retrieve the cases needing immediate attention.
Participants will
Affective Objective is a statement about what participants can say or do to exhibit an attitude or emotion.
Examples:
Participants will be able to convey empathy for children involved in court cases.
Participants will be able to interact with "difficult people" in role play situations with an attitude of helpfulness, caring, and trust.
Participants will

Establishing Content

Deciding What to Include:
Objective-Based
Key/Relevant Components
Brevity
Practicality
Arranging Information:
Chronologically/Sequentially
Simple to Complex
Specific to General
General to Specific
XI

Selecting Presentation Methods

Lecture

Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed:	
Type(s) of Objectives Best Met:	
Audience Status and Perception:	å
Special Aspects:	
Tips:	

Debate and Panel Discussion

Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed:	(*)
Type(s) of Objectives Best Met:	
Audience Status and Perception:	
Special Aspects:	
Tips:	

Group Participation/Activity

Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed:	1(6)
Type(s) of Objectives Best Met:	
Audience Status and Perception:	
Special Aspects:	
Tips:	

Demonstration

Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed:
ype(s) of Objectives Best Met:
audience Status and Perception:
Special Aspects:
ips:

Experiential Activity

Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed:	
Type(s) of Objectives Best Met:	
Audience Status and Perception:	
Special Aspects:	
Tips:	

Individual Activity

Type(s) of Information Best Conveyed:	
Type(s) of Objectives Best Met:	
Audience Status and Perception:	
Special Aspects:	
Tips:	

Presentation Cycle

Establish the Need to Know

Provide an experience and personalize the experience

Allow validation of information

Provide new information

Establish the need to know by providing an experience to open minds.

How - video, anecdote, case study, questions, and role play.

Check participants' readiness to learn.

How - questions and group discussion about the experience.

Provide new information through knowledgeable sources.

How - visuals, lecture, handouts, demonstration, and panel discussion.

Allow validation of information by providing opportunity for use of information.

How - case study, action plan, role play, individual activity, and practice.

Selecting Teaching Aids

Criteria for Selecting Teaching Aids

Impact/Special Aspects:	
Appropriateness:	
Nature of Information:	
Audience Size:	
Availability:	

Flip Charts/Posters

Information Best Conveyed:		
Audience Size:		
Special Aspects:		
Preparation:		

Overheads

Information Best Conveyed:	3	
Audience Size:		
Special Aspects:		
Preparation:		

Slides

	311	ucs	
Information Best Conveyed:			
Audience Size:			
Special Aspects:			
Preparation:			

Films and Videos

Information Best Conveyed:	
Audience Size:	3
Special Aspects:	
Preparation:	

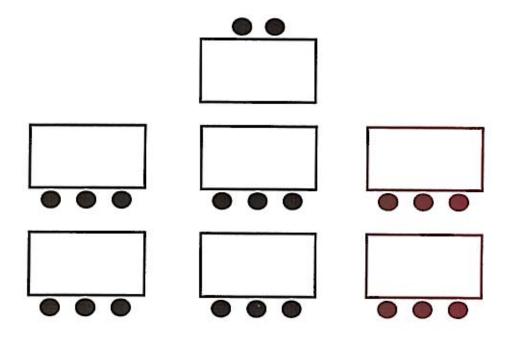
Written Materials

Information Best Conveyed:		
Audience Size:		
Special Aspects:	65	
Preparation:		

Determining Room Arrangement

Classroom Style

Rows of tables and chairs, facing the same general direction:



Advantages:

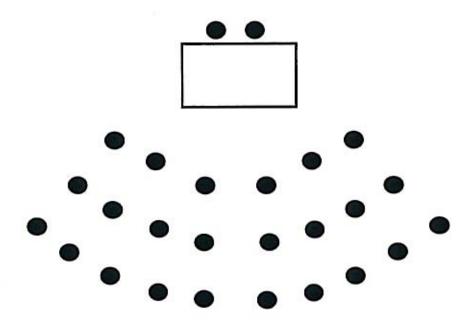
- · Participants face toward one focal point
- · Good for use of audiovisual equipment
- · Good for notetaking
- · Discourages unwanted conversation

Disadvantages:

- · Reminiscent of school
- · Difficult to break into groups
- · Inhibits participant interaction
- · Implies speaker superiority

Theater Style

Chairs only, generally facing one direction:



Advantages:

- · Participants face toward one focal point
- · Good for use of audiovisual equipment
- · Allows maximum number of people in available space
- · Allows breaking into smaller groups

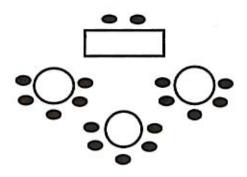
Disadvantages:

- · Uncomfortable for participants over long periods of time
- · Makes notetaking difficult
- · Discourages interaction, unless rearranged

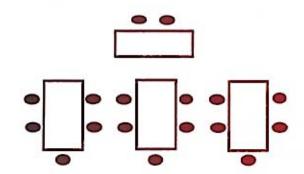
Conference Style

Tables and chairs in a variety of arrangements:

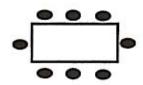
A. Rounds



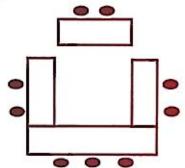
B. Union Style



C. True "Conference" Table



D. Open "U"



Advantages:

- · Is informal
- · Encourages participant interaction
- · Eases freedom of movement for faculty
- · Good for small group activities

Disadvantages:

- Requires extra care when using audiovisual equipment to make sure all participants can see
- · Requires large amount of space

Evaluation

Presentation Methods



Evaluation Methods

Evaluate to determine the significance or worth of the presentation, which is usually done through careful appraisal.

Evaluate what:

faculty by participants

site

content material by participants

participant growth and change by faculty

Evaluate when:

at the conclusion

as a follow-up

throughout the program

How to Evaluate:

through cognitive objectives soliciting feedback and questions and

answers

through psychomotor objectives using participant demonstration to show

achievement

through affective objectives using role play or case analysis, which show

achievement

Questions and Evaluation

Questions asked and not asked can provide much information about participants and how well faculty are getting their points across.

Questions from participants:

Do participants ask that you repeat matter already covered?

Are the questions obvious bids for attention?

Are the questions search questions, perhaps stimulated by what you have taught?

Are the questions indicating that participants want more in-depth information?

Questions from faculty:

Are your questions open-ended (not answerable by a yes or no)?

Are your initial questions non-threatening?

Do your initial questions solicit feelings or opinions and have no correct answers?

Are your eventual questions designed to assess participants' grasp of information?

Are incorrect answers treated with respect?

Are your questions reframed if they are not answered or are answered incorrectly?

Presentation Skills

Faculty Behavior



Participant Behavior

The behavior of the faculty member probably influences the character of the learning climate more than any other single factor. The behavior of the faculty member conveys whether the attitude is one of interest in and respect for participants, or whether they are seen as receiving sets for the faculty's transmissions of wisdom.

Adapted from Knowles, M. 1970. The Modern Practice of Adult Education. New York: The Association Press, page 41.

Truly listening to what participants say, demonstrating enthusiasm, adapting to participants' needs, and using humor appropriately set a tone of informality, mutuality, and respect, which are conducive to adult learning.

Conditions of Learning and Principles of Teaching

Condition: The learners feel a need to learn.

Principle: Faculty expose learners to new possibilities.

Condition: The learning environment is characterized by physical comfort, mutual trust and respect,

mutual helpfulness, freedom of expression, and acceptance of differences.

Principle: Faculty assures physical comfort (seating, temperature, lighting, decor) and a learning

environment in which each individual's ideas and feelings are respected,

relationships are built on mutual trust and are non-threatening, and the faculty is a

co-learner.

Condition: The learners perceive the learning goals to be theirs.

Principle: Faculty involves participants in a mutual process of formulating learning goals reflective

of the learners, the faculty, the agency, and society.

Condition: The learners participate actively in the learning process.

Principle: Faculty assists learners in organizing themselves (groups, teams, independent study,

etc.) to assure a process of mutual inquiry.

Condition: The learning process is related to and makes use of the experience of the learners.

Principle: Faculty assists participants in exploring their own experience as a resource for learning

(discussion, role play, case study, etc.), gears the presentation to the experience level of the learners, and provides an opportunity for learners to apply new information; making it

more meaningful and more integrated with previous knowledge.

Condition: Learners have a sense of progress toward achieving their goals.

Principle: Faculty involves participants in developing criteria for measuring their progress toward

learning objectives and assists them in applying procedures of self evaluation.

Presentation Tips

1. Prepare

State your goals and objectives, know your purpose, and plan your activities.

2. State the Session Purpose

Participants need to know what is expected of them.

3. Limit Information

Outline your presentation, cover key points, and condense and summarize information. Too much information often confuses participants.

4. Speak in a Conversational Manner

Use notes, an outline, or key points to remind you of the information to be covered. Reading from a prepared paper eliminates communication between you and your participants.

5. Make Eye Contact with Participants

This allows you to determine how engaged the participants are in your presentation. It is also a sign of trust and interest.

6. Punctuate Points or Transitions

Use an illustration, a transitional activity, a summary, or a short film to indicate transition from one focus to another. Be conscious to connect all segments of your presentation.

7. Plan For Participation

Ask open-ended questions and solicit personal examples to illustrate a point. Involvement of participants is key to a successful presentation.

8. Use Teaching Aids

Involving more than the sense of hearing reinforces material being presented, makes remembering easier, and clarifies your point(s). Use a variety of aids but only to enhance your information, not for the sake of using aids.

9. Break Material Into Short Units

After 30 to 45 minutes of presentation, insert an activity or ask questions. This allows participants time to assimilate information already presented and makes further presentations more meaningful.

10. Know Your Environment

Be familiar with the room, room arrangements, participant composition, and check your equipment. All of these affect the success of your presentation and should be factored into your teaching plan.

11. Make Information Relevant

Use examples, illustrations, case studies, discussion groups, and other means to make the information presented relevant to participants.

12. Move Into the Audience

Moving into the participants seating area builds trust, creates a friendly atmosphere, and makes everyone more comfortable. If done appropriately, it can lessen the feeling of authority often present in an educational setting.

13. Use Attendee Comments to Further Your Progress

When asking open-ended questions, be alert to comments that can serve as stepping stones in your presentation. This makes participants feel good about themselves and serves as a transition point for you.

14. Avoid Traditional Barriers

Adults often identify traditional items as signs of authority and barriers to the two-way communication that is so important in adult education. Avoid the use of the lectern and podium (unless using them to hold your notes or aids), while you move into your audience and remain in view. Avoid use of the chalkboard, unless it is the only aid available. Avoid use of terms such as *test* and *student* which have a negative impact on adults.

15. Use Gender Neutral Language

Avoid using the male pronoun when intention is to refer to both men and women. Avoid stereotyping roles. Avoid occupational terms that apply to one sex.

16. Be Sensitive to Diversity Issues

When delivering your presentation and engaging in discussion, be conscious of the probable diversity of opinions, beliefs, values, lifestyles, races, and ethnic groups represented within your audience.

17. Practice and Time Your Presentation

Read your presentation notes or outline, adding conversational comments, giving examples, etc. Keep going over your material until you feel comfortable with the content. Time yourself, estimate activity time, make whatever adjustments that are necessary so that all key points can be covered in the allotted time frame.

18. Be Yourself and Have Fun

Develop a style and method of presentation that is comfortable for you. Relax and enjoy the reciprocal learning that takes place between you and the participants.

Transfer of Training

The effect of what is learned in one situation and performing in new situations is called transfer of training. Transfer of training is necessary if participants are to apply what is learned in an education session to their daily tasks. To facilitate this transfer, faculty can establish a practical, life-like situation for participants to try out new skills or make use of new information.

Making Key Points

Introduction:

- a) Preview the importance of the point
- b) Let the audience know what to expect

Effective placement:

- a) Make the point within a minute of the preview
- b) Follow it with an example, comparison, etc.

Reinforcement:

- a) Restate the point before moving on
- b) Relate progressive points

The Ten Worst Human Fears (in the U.S.)

1.	Speaking before a group
2.	Heights
3.	Insects and bugs
4.	Financial problems
5.	Deep water
6.	Sickness
7.	Death
8.	Flying
9.	Loneliness
10.	Dogs

Assuring Quality: The Group Process

Group Methods of Curriculum Design and Development

Group curriculum design tends to be more comprehensive and complete than design by an individual. Often curricula are not designed, but are the result of a collection of programs. And, this collection of programs may not comprise a well balanced curriculum or offer the best approach to the subject matter.

Another hazard in curriculum design is for the curriculum committee and/or judicial educator to give faculty free rein over the development of individual programs which are part of a curriculum framework. The program may become the faculties vision of what is needed and not that of the committee's or the judicial educators.

There are more effective ways to incorporate curriculum decisions into program design, yielding programs which fit together in a coordinated, complimentary manner and which reflect the overall vision of the curriculum committee. What follows is one way this can be accomplished.

One Approach

Responsibility for development of the curriculum lies with the curriculum committee and/or judicial educator. This includes the curriculum framework as well as the quality of the programs within the curriculum.

Curriculum development employs a group process by which learners' needs are assessed and met, subject matter is chosen, minimum course content is established, and faculty are selected and/or their credentials are identified for future selection. Faculty should be directed by the curriculum development report which conveys the expectations of the curriculum committee. This report is on pages 146-147. The curriculum development report provides the following information:

- Topic
- Target audience
- Audience size
- Program duration
- Reason/need for topic
- Important subtopics
- Important activities
- Draft program description
- Desired outcomes
- Curriculum committee liaison member
- Responsible judicial education staff member

The faculty member uses this information to develop the presentation. The faculty member's plans should be recorded on the presentation proposal form. This form is on pages 148-150 and asks the faculty to further refine the presentation and provide necessary program information which pertains to:

- Faculty identification information
- · Faculty biographical information
- · Need for facilitators/discussion leaders
- · Session/program title
- · Description of session/program
- Objectives
- · Topical outline
- · Identification of special concerns
- Audiovisual needs
- Room arrangements
- · Numbers/kinds of notebook/handout materials

The presentation proposal form is reviewed by the curriculum committee and the judicial educator. Questions, comments, or concerns should be exchanged among the faculty member, curriculum committee, and judicial educator for the purposes of approving the presentation proposal so the faculty member can complete any planning.

Following the program, all faculty and curriculum committee should receive compilations of the participant evaluations for review and to guide future planning. To effectively use the evaluation results, individual discussions with faculty members or a faculty meeting should be held where the results and their implications can be fully explored.

Curriculum Development Report

Topic:	Priority #:
	Ideal Size of Audience:
Liaison:	
1	o Assist Faculty in Developing Topic
Reason/Need for Topic:	
Important Sub-Topics:	
Important Activities:	
·	
Draft Program Description:	
Participants should be able to DO the following	lowing or ANSWER the following questions at the conclusion of this program:
1	
2	
3	
T-10	

Suggested Faculty:	
Name:	
Phone:	
Name:	
Phone:	
Additional Committee	ee Comments/Issues/Resources Regarding Topic:
Delivery Method: _	

Presentation Proposal

Instructions to Faculty: Before completing the presentation proposal, consider what kind(s) of teaching aids could be used in your presentation and what kind of meeting room arrangements would create the appropriate learning environment for your session. Items 1, 8, 9, and 20 have already been completed by the program planner. All blank sections are to be completed by the faculty member.

	Topic: _				
	Faculty: _		ne as it should appear on the		
			ne as it should appear on the	program announcemen	()
	Faculty title:				
i.	Faculty court, business, or organization name:				
	(1	ist information	as it should appear on the p	program announcement)	
	Address: _	All districts and the second s			
	_				
i.	Faculty pho	ne & fax nu			
	-		(Phone)		(Fax)
	Faculty soc	ial security	or FEIN number:		
3.	Consultant	fee as prev	iously agreed upon:		
	Consultant	travel:			
			(Meals)	(Lodging)	(Transportation)
0.			l information: ographical sketch or resumé)		
 List additional discussion leaders or fa (Note: If the names listed below are to appear of travel and/or paid a fee, make copies of this for appropriate.) 			elow are to appear on the cor	nference announcement,	and if these persons will be reimbursed for

12.	Provide the presentation title as it should appear on the program announcement:
13.	Provide a 4 or 5 sentence description of the presentation as it should appear on the program announcement (for more space, attach additional sheets):
14.	Provide the learning objectives of the presentation as they should appear on the program announcement (for more space, attach additional sheets):
15.	Provide a topical outline of the presentation:

Topical Outline	Time Allocation	Presentation Method

ist all audiovisual equipme	nt or teaching aids needed for the presentation (before compl
uestion, review the room a	rrangement information sheet):
lentify room set-up requirer iagram (before completing	ments for this presentation. Provide both written instructions this question, review the room arrangement information):
	Room Arrangement Diagram
st the expected number of	names for your notabook or handaut materials.
st the expected flumber of	pages for your notebook or handout materials: (Number of handout pages)
(Number of notebook pages)	(Bluembar of bandout pages)

Extracted from Conner, M., and K. Waldrop. 1994. Program Management: Managing Deadlines, Details, Activities, and People: JERITT Managraph Five. East Lansing, Mi: Judicial Education Reference, Information and Technical Transfer Project.

Faculty Development Program Appendix

- · Panel Presentations
- Small Groups
- Sample of Facilitator Instructions
- · Role Play
- . Dealing with Problems in Education Sessions or Small Groups
- Fair Communication
- Diversity Guidelines

Panel Presentations

- Panels are most effective with controversial topics or when there are differing perspectives on a subject.
- Panels should be limited in size so all members are effectively involved in the discussion.
- Panel members should be: informed of program objectives, allowed a set and limited time for
 presenting individual views, and actively engaged in answering questions (asked in the session or
 submitted in writing before or during the session).
- One form of a panel presentation is the debate. A debate usually involves two individuals who
 have opposing views on a topic.
- Panels work best with a moderator.
 - Moderators assist in planning the session and are vital in facilitating discussion, controlling time, involving each panel member equally, screening questions, and involving participants on an active level. They can determine the order of subtopics to be discussed, the sequencing for panel members, and the time frames to be allowed for each.
 - Moderators can plan questions for panel members or field participant questions.
 If questions are submitted in writing, the moderator can screen them, asking those which are the most relevant and interesting.
 - Moderators do not present information but facilitate the discussion process. They
 can provide reactions to information presented, summarize at key points in the
 discussion, and provide transitions from one aspect of the discussion to another.
 - Moderators assure that one or two panel members do not dominate the discussion. They can also clarify panel members' comments and restate participants' questions for all to hear.

Questions are important to the panel process. Questions provide panel members with points of departure for comments, assure a variety of information is covered, and present participants with areas of agreement or disagreement with the panel.

Ideally, some questions should come from participants. This gives participants ownership in the presentation, makes them active rather than passive, and provides a much wider spectrum of information.

Small Groups

- A small group should ideally be from five to seven members to be most effective. A minimum number is three. Fewer members do not provide a sufficient forum for active discussion. A maximum number is nine. If more than nine people are in a small group, often discussion is hindered by private conversation, which develop among two or three of the small group members.
- Groups should ideally be seated in a circle.
- Group discussion should be monitored by the faculty member. When discussion gradually winds
 down, it should be ended. Generally the problem faced by faculty is the opposite. Time does not
 allow discussion to continue long enough for participants to exhaust their ideas.
- Faculty should visit all groups to assess progress, clarify any misunderstanding about the purpose of the discussion, and answer any questions participants may have.
- It is advisable to provide groups with verbal and written instructions as to the purpose of the group and the expected product, if any.
- Have a facilitator for each group. Facilitators can be preselected and trained or they can be randomly selected, by the group or volunteered. Random selection of facilitators can be accomplished by placing a marker under chairs before participants arrive. Facilitators should be given instructions verbally and in writing. Facilitators assure faculty established ground rules are followed. They distribute instructions/work sheets, monitor the group's progress, record appropriate information, and assure that each group member has an opportunity to speak. Facilitators also report the small group's progress/decisions to the large audience.
- Small group activities can be successful with large audiences, if facilitators are used. If using this
 method in a large group, it is advisable to provide each participant with written, as well as verbal,
 instructions and work sheets to reduce confusion.
- Groups function best if they have an identity. They can select a name, be numbered, and so on.
 When presenting a group report to the large audience, the reporter should give the group name before reporting. This gives the group a sense of camaraderie and accomplishment.
- After the small groups have completed their work, always have some, if not all groups, report on their activity to the entire audience. Information reported should include their process and their product or outcome. This makes the activity relevant to the topic and gives participants a sense of ownership in the session.

Sample of Facilitator Instructions

As facilitator for your group you are asked to perform two functions:

- Hand out materials at appropriate times
- Conduct activities

Materials and activities are placed in this envelope in the order in which they will be addressed.

Materials

When asked, please distribute the appropriate materials. Materials are color coded so you can locate the proper one with ease. Faculty will indicate when to distribute and will identify the item by name and color of paper.

Activities

Please lead the discussion and record information from participants in your group for each of the three activities in this packet.

Each activity has a cover page which is numbered 1, 2, or 3. Faculty will indicate when to initiate an activity and will identify it by number.

With each activity, there will first be discussion within each small group. Then there will be discussion among participants as a whole.

With each activity, you are provided several questions for your group members to answer. Faculty will indicate when questions are to be introduced to your group.

If information for an activity is to be given to each individual group member for review, you are provided with an appropriate number of copies. Faculty will indicate when to distribute copies.

If information is for you only, to be shared verbally with your group, you will have only one copy. Faculty will indicate when to share the information.

Thank you for serving as facilitator for your group!

Role Play

- Role play is an experiential activity involving participants in acting out a scenario, performing a
 certain role, or practicing newly learned skills. It can increase the effectiveness of learning by
 providing participants a "nearly real" situation in which they can "experience" feelings, attitudes,
 comfort or discomfort, and in which they can test or validate newly acquired information.
- One use of role play is to set the tone for learning. Used prior to the introduction of new information, role play can provide participants with an experience to open their minds to new possibilities. Another use of role play is to help participants bridge the gap between learning new information and putting it into practice. In a course on dealing with difficult people, a role play used early in the program can help participants realize that they need expanded skills, thus creating the need to know new strategies. A role play later in the program allows participants to test newly acquired strategies and can provide faculty with an evaluation tool to assess how well participants have learned and are able to apply new information.
- Role play can involve a few individuals who perform for the entire audience or it can be an
 activity in which all participants take part by use of small groups. In either case, role play
 instructions and roles to be played need to be clearly stated as well as given to participants in
 writing before they are asked to engage in the activity.
- If used with the entire audience, role play works best if participants have established a comfort level with faculty and with each other. If used with a few actors who perform for other participants, to assure success, faculty may preselect individuals and provide them with the specifics of the role play before the program begins.
- If the entire audience participates in small group role play, an observer may be useful within each group. The observer does not participate directly in the role play but watches others and gives feedback to fellow group members on their actions, emotions, use of skills, and so on. This can be especially helpful if the audience is large and the faculty member cannot observe all groups to provide this feedback. If the role play takes place as a small group of actors performing for the audience, feedback can come from the audience and/or the faculty member.
- Whether role play is in small groups or demonstrated in front of the entire audience, discussion
 following the activity should be structured. Faculty can design a format for discussion which may
 include: a series of questions participants can answer, a list of topics to be covered, or a list of
 expected outcomes which participants can validate or invalidate, based on their personal
 experiences with the role play.
- A concluding discussion of the role play experience is critical if faculty are to tie the activity to the topic. It should involve the entire audience so participants are able to hear the views and experiences of others.

Dealing with Problems in Education Sessions or Small Groups

To prevent problems, establish some ground rules for your sessions or small group activities. Ground rules may include respecting the views of others and maintaining focus on the current topic of discussion and so on.

What to do when one individual monopolizes discussion time:

- Remind the individual of the ground rules: "Everyone needs to have an opportunity to express their views. Let's hear from some participants who have not yet had a chance to speak."
- If the problem continues, speak to the individual privately: "Your input is really appreciated, but I
 am concerned that others are not having a chance to voice their opinions."

What to do when one individual chronically interrupts others:

- Remind the individual of the ground rules: "Everyone has the right to be heard. Let's let (name) complete any comments."
- If the problem continues, interrupt the interrupter: "Hold that thought, Bob. As soon as (name)
 has finished, you can comment."
- If the problem still continues, speak with the interrupter privately: "With as many ideas as you
 have, Bob, I know it is difficult for you not to offer your comments. But, I am afraid that others
 will hesitate to participate if they are not allowed to complete their comments."

What to do when two people carry on a private conversation:

- Remind the talkers of the ground rules: "We agreed to stay with the group and focus on the topic at hand. Let's try to have only one person talking at a time so we can all hear the comments being made."
- If the problem continues, speak to the talkers privately: "I know it is tempting to talk to one
 another, but you may be missing some important information and the rest of the participants are
 having difficulty focusing on what is being said."
- If the problem still persists, separate the talkers by doing a "round robin" reseating so people can
 interact with new partners for the next activity.

What to do when one participant continually digresses or brings up unrelated "war stories":

- Remind participants of the ground rules: "That is very interesting, but how do you relate it to the
 topic we are discussing?" or "That is very interesting, but I'll bet we could spend an hour on that
 topic and not resolve the issue. I think we need to get back on track."
- If the problem continues, speak to the individual privately: "You really have a lot of information
 and anecdotes to share and I am sorry we don't have the time to hear them all. Our time is
 really limited so I would appreciate it if you would only comment on things relevant to our topic."

What to do when a participant is silent/does not participate or comment:

- While this situation may not be problematic, there are some ways to draw-out participants who
 may be hesitant to interact in a learning setting.
- Observe the individual discretely. When you sense that participant may have had a reaction to what was said or show some signs of having something to contribute, show interest in what the individual may have to say: "You seem to agree (disagree) with that last comment, Bob. I would be interested in hearing your perspective." (Be sure to value their input by commenting, summarizing, or tying their thoughts into your next point.) It is best to ask them for an opinion, feeling, or experience rather than a question that has a right or wrong answer. If they answer incorrectly, they will probably not participate again.
- If you get no indication that they may have something to contribute, speak with the individual privately: "You are awfully quiet today. Is the information being presented relevant to you?" Be prepared to value whatever the answer is. If it is negative: "Well, I can understand your difficulty in accepting this approach. Could you tell me what might be more useful for you?" You may want to alter the program or you may need to stay with your original plan. Follow up in the session with some mention of the opinion (not the person) and value the perspective if possible: "Someone commented at the break that this information was really not applicable in their court. That is unfortunate, but I am glad for that information. My plan is to provide you with practical information, so if it is not practical or you have other perspectives, please feel free to share them." The individual may begin to participate.
- Although many people learn best when they are actively participating, others do not and should not be forced.

Fair Communication

There is increasing concern regarding the need for neutrality of language, both written and spoken. To avoid statements which are insensitive to a person's age, socioeconomic status, national origin, sexual preference, religious beliefs, or gender, faculty should become aware of their use of language, the implications of certain types of humor, and the impact of some common slang terms.

To avoid use of language which could be termed sexist, faculty can incorporate the following guidelines:

- Avoid use of the male pronoun (he, his, or him) when the intention is to refer to both men and women. Alternative choices depend on context.
 - a. Eliminate the pronoun entirely:

The judge shall perform duties assigned to him with honor. The judge shall perform assigned duties with honor.

Replace the pronoun with a neutral article:

An attorney must prepare his case before coming to court. An attorney must prepare the case before coming to court. or

The judge will issue his decision tomorrow.

The court will issue its decision tomorrow.

c. Change singular pronouns to plural:

Each judge must answer for his ethical conduct. Judges must answer for their ethical conduct.

d. Use an adjective other than a pronoun to modify the noun:

A judge shall not lend the prestige of his office to advance his private interests. A judge shall not lend the prestige of judicial office to advance private interests.

e. Use "who" with or without a noun:

If an attorney shows disrespect for the judge he may be found in contempt of court.

An attorney who shows disrespect for the judge may be found in contempt of court.

Repeat the noun or use a synonym:

Each attorney must file his motions in a timely manner. If he does not, he may lose the opportunity.

Each attorney must file motions in a timely manner. Any attorney who does not, may lose the opportunity.

- g. Eliminate unnecessary pronouns entirely:
 - If a judge does not find ways to articulate her decisions, she may have problems. If a judge does not find ways to articulate decisions, problems may occur.
- Avoid stereotyping of roles. Illustrations, case studies, or role plays laden with prejudicial implications connote sexism.
 - a. Instead of man and wife, use parallel terms such as man and woman or husband and wife.
 - b. Avoid patronizing terms such as the "little woman" or "woman driver"
 - c. Avoid use of the terms "girl" and "boy" unless referring to children
 - d. Avoid using the terms "male" or "female" before an occupation, such as "female" doctor, "male" nurse, "female" attorney
 - e. use the term "spouse" to avoid implying that a category of individuals is all one gender; for example rather than say, "Judges' wives are invited," say "Judges' spouses are invited"
- Avoid occupational terms that apply to one sex; focus instead on the work performed.

Use	Do not use
insurance agent	insurance man
flight attendant	stewardess
postal worker	postman
fire fighter	fireman
homemaker	housewife
electrician, plumber	repairman
police officer	policeman
spokesperson	spokesman
chair or chairperson	chairman
manufactured	man-made

4. Avoid using the terms "man" or "men" when there is a more specific reference.

Use	Do not use
one-person operation	one-man operation
five-member staff	five-man staff
worker	workman
high ranking officials	men in high places
business people	businessmen
best candidate for the job	best person for the job
person-to-person	man-to-man
work hours	man-hours
the average person	the average man

Each faculty member must decide whether to expend the extra effort to use gender-fair language or decide how to offset the negative image created from the lack of that effort.

Adapted from Zappen, E.F. Jr., et. al. 1992. "Gender-fair communication in the judiciary." Madison, WI: Wisconsin Supreme Court Judicial Education Office.

Diversity Guidelines

The diversity in our country has enriched available human resources and made each of us more aware of the need for sensitivity and tact when interacting with others. A major factor in diversity is the need to understand and respect others' cultures, beliefs, and behaviors. This is extremely important in an educational environment, especially with faculty engaged in the education of public officials, elected officers, and judicial personnel. Faculty must be vigilant in creating a learning environment that honors all participants. The following three suggestions should be incorporated in the development and delivery of all educational programs:

Incorporate diversity issues into the substantive portions of your program. It is everyone's
responsibility to assure diversity issues are addressed. While programs on diversity are usually
offered in judicial education, it seems preferable to incorporate diversity issues into existing
programs to more fairly represent our diverse population, dispel biases, and align our
perspectives to reflect today's society.

This can be accomplished in the following ways:

- Incorporate ethnic, racial, and gender diversity issues into your program objectives.
- Employ the use of diverse populations in your case studies, examples, and other language.
- Have an individual who is representative of a diverse group or someone who is sensitive to these issues review your program and materials.
- 2. Address any diversity issues which arise during your program. Frequently our own biases are too subtle to identify on our own, yet we can recognize them in others. When recognized, it is the faculty member's responsibility to protect every individual in the session from the biases of others and to assist participants in becoming more sensitive to what may be perceived as inappropriate individual behavior.

This can be accomplished in the following ways:

- If someone in your session treats another participant in an inappropriate manner, speak
 to the offender privately as soon as possible. Take an unscheduled break, if necessary,
 so that you can address the situation.
- If someone in your session uses inappropriate terminology publicly in your session, provide the correct, more acceptable term. For example you could say, "I assume you are referring to (the acceptable term)?" Or you can assist the individual in understanding that the term is unacceptable. For example you could say, "Are you aware that the term you used is considered derogatory or unacceptable?"

Always give the offender the benefit of the doubt:

- They may not recognize the appearance/impact of their behavior.
- They may not intend to be inappropriate or offensive.
- 3. Assure that your presentation is bias free:
 - Monitor your presentation, language, and conduct to avoid the use of derogatory, demeaning, and stereotypical references. This includes use of slang terms and jokes which target a specific group of people.
 - Avoid the perception of bias by refraining from the use of stereotypes in your examples, case studies, and comments.