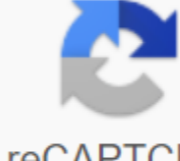


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Previous chapters have focused on the student's characteristics and attributes in terms of learning needs, readiness and learning styles. Obviously, student evaluation is an important first step in the learning process. The assessment determines what the student should know, when and under what conditions the student is most receptive to learning, and how the student actually learns better or prefers to learn. Before you can decide on the content that will be taught or the selection of teaching methods and materials that will be used to change the behavior of students, the teacher must first decide what the student must perform. Customer needs are determined by identifying gaps in the student's knowledge, approaches, or skills. Determining needs is a prerequisite for formulating behavioral goals that serve as a roadmap (Nothwehr, Dennis, Wu, 2007, p. 794), directing follow-up planning, implementation and evaluation of teaching and learning. In the 20th century, noted educators and educators developed approaches to writing and classifying behavioral goals that offer teachers help in organizing educational content for students acting at different levels of ability. Mager (1997) was a principal educator credited with developing a system for writing behavioral goals that serves to help teachers make appropriate learning decisions, as well as to help students understand what they need and are expected to know. The fundamental principle is that if a person does not know where he or she is going, how will the person know when he or she has arrived? In addition, the taxonomic system developed by Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill and Kratvol (1956) to classify learning goals according to the hierarchy of behavior has been a cornerstone of learning for more than half a century. This concept of taxonom, that is, the ordering of such behavior according to their type and complexity, refers to the nature of knowledge that must be learned, behavior, most relevant and achievable for a particular student or group of students, as well as sequencing knowledge and experience for learning. The ability to prepare and classify behavioral goals is a necessary function of the role of the teacher, whether it is the training of patients and their families in health facilities, the training of nursing staff in programs in the service and continuing education, or the training of nursing students in academic institutions. The importance of understanding the systems of writing and classifying behavioural goals in order to determine student outcomes is essential to ensure that the data obtained from educational efforts are consistent and measurable. In addition, knowledge and use of these methods are becoming necessary because of the need to quantify and substantiate others in an environment characterized by ever-increasing cost-containment pressures. This chapter examines the importance of behavioral goals for effective learning; Describes how to write clear and accurate behavioral goals; explores levels of achievement in the taxonomic hierarchy of cognitive, affective and psychomotor areas; and sets out training plans and training contracts. All of these elements provide the basis for successful student learning. It is important to clarify the meaning of terms of educational goals, educational goals, and behavioral or educational goals. Although these terms are often used by synonyms, they can be distinguished from each other. Educational goals are used to determine the intended outcomes of the educational process, whether in relation to the program aspect or the overall curriculum that determines the development of the learning units. Training goals describe teaching activities and resources used to promote effective learning (Morrison, Ross, q Kemp, 2004). Behavioral goals, also called learning goals, use a behavioral modifier or learn to indicate that this type of goal is action-oriented rather than student-oriented, rather than center-oriented, and the short-term outcome is focused rather than process-oriented. Behavioral goals accurately describe what a student can do after a school situation. GOALS GOALS Terms of purpose and purpose are often used interchangeably, albeit incorrectly. In fact, there is a real difference between the two terms. This distinction should be clearly understood by nurse educators. Time lapse and specificity are two factors that distinguish goals from goals (Haggard, 1989). The goal is the end result of what is achieved at the end of the learning process. The goal is a statement that describes the ideal or final state of being at some point in time in the future. The goals are global and broad in nature; they serve long-term goals for both the student and the teacher. Goals are desired learning results that are realistically achievable, usually within weeks or months. They are considered multidimensional in that a number of targets are subdivided or included in the common goal. The goal, on the other hand, is specific, unified, non-emotional behavior. As stated by Anderson et al (2001), When we teach, we want our students to learn. What we want them to learn from our training is our goals (p. 3). The goals are short-term and should be achievable at the end of one training session or usually within a few days of a series of training sessions. According to Mager (1997), the goal describes the performance that students should be exhibited before they are deemed competent. A behavioral goal is the intended result of learning, not the process itself or the means of learning. Goals are statements about specific, short-term behavior that lead step by step to a more general, common long-term goal. The lenses can also be written and reflect aspects of the main goal. They are also specific statements about short-term behaviour that lead to the main objective. Targets and sub-lenses indicate that the student will be able to do as a result of one or more learning experiences. Goals must be achieved before that goal is achieved. They need to be observable and measurable for the teacher to be able to determine whether they have been performed by the student. The goals can be seen as preliminary organizers, i.e. statements that inform the student of what is expected from a cognitive, affective or psychomotor point of view to achieving the goal that is the expected result (Babcock and Miller, 1994). Goals flow from the goal and must meet that goal and be associated with it. By analogy, the target can be seen as a whole pie, the purpose as the individual pieces of the pie that make up the target, and sub-lenses as bite-sized chunks of one piece of cake. Together, goals and objectives form a map that provides guidance (goals) on how to arrive at a specific destination (target). For example, the goal may be that a patient with diabetes will learn how to manage their disease. To achieve this goal, which has been agreed upon by both the nurse and the patient, it is necessary to set specific goals to address behavioral changes such as dietary therapy, insulin administration, exercise regimen, stress management and glucose monitoring. The goals of achieving this goal become a plan to achieve the desired results of education. The success of predetermined goals is partly the result of appropriate training. Of course, many other factors, such as student motivation and ability to perform, are also key factors for successfully demonstrating a particular behavior before a student can be declared to have overall competence in desired behavior. In

order for the learning process to be successful, setting goals and objectives must be a mutual decision on the part of both the teacher and the student. Both sides should be involved in the decision-making process and participate in the immediate objectives and ultimate goals. Engaging a student from the outset in creating goals and objectives is crucial. Otherwise, the time and effort on the part of the teacher and the student may be wasted because the student may refuse the content if it is considered, at least from his or her point of view, to be inappropriate, impractical, unattainable, or something already known. The goal and objective setting for any educational experience should be both the responsibility of the student and the teacher. Mixing what a student wants to learn with what the teacher has identified, what the student needs to know in a common set of goals and objectives provides an educational experience that is mutually accountable, respectful, development and fulfillment (Reilly and Oermann, 1990). Goals and objectives must also be clearly written, realistic and student-oriented. If they don't know exactly what the learner is expected to do in the short and long term, then the learning process will lack clear guidance to follow or the obvious end result to strive for. Similarly, if goals and objectives are unrealistic in that they are too difficult to achieve, the student may become discouraged, which weakens motivation and interferes with the ability to perform. For example, a goal that a patient will maintain a salt-free diet will probably be impossible to accomplish or adhere to for a long period of time. Creating the goal of maintaining a low-salt diet, with the aim of learning to avoid eating and preparing foods high in sodium, is a much more realistic and achievable expectation of the learner. In addition, goals and objectives should be focused on what the student is expected to be able to do, rather than what the teacher is expected to teach. Educators need to be sure not only that their learning is still goal-oriented, but also that the goals are focused on students. This approach allows teachers to be results-oriented rather than the act of learning. Teachers should remember, as Anderson et al (2001) emphasize, not all students will take the same instruction unless the goals are targeted and accurately expressive. DEBATE ABOUT USING BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES Understanding by experienced educators the needs of students is so sophisticated that the implementation of the writing of behavioral goals is redundant. The practice of writing specific behavioral goals leads to a reduction, a format that reduces behavioral processes in equivalents that do not reflect the total amount of parts. Objective writing is a time-consuming task that requires more effort to develop than is justified by their influence on the curriculum. That is, the cost-benefit ratio does not justify the amount of time it takes to formulate goals. Preparing goals is only a pedagogical exercise, often expressing the teacher's hopes for learning outcomes and avoiding the opportunity for students to seek their own goals. Predetermined goals, with their emphasis on accurate and observed behaviour of students, force teachers and students to attend only specific areas that stifle creativity and hinder creativity freedom to learn and teach. Writing specific goals is incompatible with many complex areas of learning, such as nursing, because an infinite number of goals is possible for almost any subject or topic. Behavioral goals fail to capture more complex cognitive processes that are not easily observed and measurable. The rationale for the use of behavioural goals, however, far outweighs the arguments against their use. The following considerations justify the need to write behavioral goals (Ferguson, 1998; Crow, 2011; Morrison et al., 2004). Careful building goals help keep educators thinking about the goal and the student center at the center. He communicates with others - both students and members of the medical team - what is planned for training and learning. Helps students understand what is expected of them to be able to track their progress. Makes the teacher organize educational materials, so as not to get lost in the content and forget about the role of the student in this process. Encourages educators to question their own motives - to consciously think about why they do things, and to analyze what positive results will be achieved as a result of achieving specific goals. Tailors, teaching specific circumstances and student needs. Creates guidance for evaluating teachers and documentation of success or failure. Focuses not on what is being taught, but on what the student will receive after the end of the learning process. Orients both the teacher and the student to the specific end results of the study. Makes it easier for a student to visualize what they need to do. Robert Mager (1997), a recognized body for the preparation of behavioural goals, points to three other major benefits realized by writing explicit objective statements: 1. They provide a good basis for selecting or developing educational content, methods and materials. They provide students with the means to organize their efforts and activities to achieve the goal of learning. 3. They determine whether a goal has really been achieved. As Mager (1997) asks: If you don't know where you're going, how will you know which way to take to get there? (p. 14). That is, before the teacher prepares the instruction, before the materials and methods of teaching are selected and implemented, and before the funds for evaluation of the training are selected, it is important to clearly and succinctly publish the intended results of the training. To paraphrase Mager's thinking, mechanics don't choose repair tools until they know what needs to be fixed; Surgeons do not choose tools until they know which surgery should be performed; and builders do not buy building materials until the plan is developed. Haggard (1989) that arise if the goals are not always written: How will someone else know what goals have been set? How will the teacher evaluate and document success or failure? How will students monitor their progress? Writing goals is not just a mechanical task, but rather a process of synthesis. The behavioral goals development process not only helps teachers explore their own knowledge, values, and beliefs about the entire spectrum of teaching and learning, but also encourages them to learn the student's experience, values, motivations, and knowledge. The time and effort spent writing goals is a thoughtful discussion of the knowledge, attitudes and skills required by a student in accordance with the desired level of competence. The teacher and the student must work together to create goals and objectives that focus on what needs to be achieved in the short and long term. This process provides a direction that helps the teacher and the student identify the following aspects of the learning process: The time that will be needed to teach and learn clues about how the learner best acquires the learning methods that will work most effectively to evaluate the student's progress. In addition, the process of identifying well-written goals of the teacher encourages the teacher to seriously think about what is worth teaching and what is worth spending time achieving. In addition, this process can serve to highlight the value of the existing curriculum and provide a framework for improving the current curriculum. Thus, mutual goals and objectives are considered by many teachers as the initial, most important consideration in the educational process (Haggard, 1989; Mager, 1997). WRITING BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES AND GOALS Well-written behavioral goals give students very clear statements about what is expected of them and help teachers measure students' progress in achieving learning outcomes. Over the years, Robert Mager's approach to writing behavioral goals has been widely accepted among teachers. His message to educators is that in order for the goals to be meaningful, they must communicate the teacher's teaching goal accurately, clearly and very specifically (Arends, 2011). According to Mager (1997), the format of writing concise and useful behavioral goals includes the following three important characteristics: 1. Performance: Describes what a student is expected to be able to do or perform to demonstrate the kinds of behavior a teacher will take as evidence that goals have been achieved. Activities performed by students may be visible, such as writing or listing, or invisible, such as identification or feedback. 2. State: Describes testing situation, resources, help, or by which the behavior will occur, will be observed, or will be completed. 3. Criterion: Describes how well, with what level of accuracy, or during which time a student should be able to perform for behavior that will be deemed acceptable; standard, quality level, or performance, defined as satisfactory craftsmanship. This is the level of competence that a student must achieve. These three characteristics translate into the following questions: (1) What should a student be able to do? (2) Under what conditions should a student be able to do so? (3) How well should a student be able to do this? A fourth component should also be included; it should describe who is to make sure that the behavioral purpose of the student is in the center. For health education, students may be patients, family members, or significant other patients, nurses, or nurses. Thus the behavioral goals of the statement are that of communicating who will do what under the conditions and how well (Cummins, 1994). The more complete the goals statements, the better the goals will be to communicate what is expected of the student and what the intentions are. An easy way to remember the four elements that should be in behavioral purpose is to follow the ABCD rule proposed by Smaldino, Lowther, and Russell (2012): C-condition (under what circumstances) D-degree (how much; how good; to what extent) to the behavioral goals together, the following four steps are recommended: 1. Identify the testing situation (condition). 2. Determine who will perform (the student). 3. Find out what the student (performance) will show. 4. Find out how well the student will perform (the criterion). For example, the following behavioral goal follows: After a 20-minute training session on relaxation techniques (condition), Ms. Smith (student) will be able to determine (performance) three different methods to reduce her stress level (criterion). Table 10-1 sets out a four-way method of objective writing. Table 10-2 provides examples of well-written and poorly written goals. There are actually two accepted approaches to writing behavioral goals, depending on the student audience. Reilly and Oermann (1990) distinguish between so-called specific behavioral goals and common behavioral goals. With both types of goals, students and behaviors that need to be studied should be clearly stated. The difference between the two goals is the desirability of incorporating learning conditions and performance criteria. Specific behavioral goals are closed statements that include a condition and a criterion for learning, making them more prescriptive and predictable for measuring results. It's relatively The format for writing specific behavioral goals is an asset to help focus the learning process on a step-by-step basis, especially when a low level of skill is the intended result. For example, when training a patient to check blood glucose levels or training a nurse with a new procedural protocol for changing changes, writing specific behavioral goals is preferable. TABLE 10-1 Four-comil method of objective writing (Testing situation) Who (Identify Learner) Performance (Student Behavior) Criterion (quality or quantity of skill) Without using calculator the student will solve 5 of the 6 mathematical problems Using the nurse model will demonstrate the correct procedure to change sterile dressings after group discussion the patient will list at least two reasons for weight loss After viewing the video the caregiver will select the products with high accuracy that do not include a condition or criterion for learning, are open statements that lend themselves in assessing higher cognitive skills. This format is more appropriate for the results of an academic program, where the student's knowledge is not expected to be simply the accumulation of designated parts, but rather the integration and synthesis of broader concepts and theories over time. Thus, writing common behavioral goals is more compatible when teaching nurses in a staff development program or nursing students in a course as part of a professional training program. This approach allows teachers to be more creative in teaching and accommodates acceptable variations in the learner that promote creative expression of ideas and knowledge. In addition, it allows the teacher to assign grades, which distinguishes high academic performance from moderate to lower academic performance. It is important to recognize the existence and difference between these two types of behavioral goals. This chapter, however, focuses on writing specific behavioral goals that are appropriate to study the specific skills of patients and their significant others. TABLE 10-2 Samples of written targets Well written goals After viewing the demonstration on suction, the employee will be able to properly suction the tracheostomy tube using aseptic technique. After a course on hypertension, the patient will be able to learn three of the four causes of high blood pressure. At the end of reading the materials provided for the care of the newborn, the mother will be able to express any concerns about the care of the child after discharge. After a thorough health assessment, the nurse will create a patient care plan consisting of at least three patient needs. After a 20-minute training session, the patient will verbalize at least two feelings or problems. Bag. After reading the handouts, the patient will be able to give three examples of foods that are sources of protein. Poorly written targets Patient will be able to prepare menus using low-salt products. Condition and criterion is missing Given the list of exercises to relieve lower back pain, the patient will understand how to control lower back pain. Performance is not specified in measurable terms; The nurse will demonstrate a crutch to walk postoperatively to the patient. (Teacher-center) During discharge, the patient will be more comfortable with insulin injections. Performance is not specified in measurable terms; There is no condition. Criterion is missing The patient will verbally and demonstrate the appropriate steps to perform self-catheterization. Contains two expected behaviors; There is no criterion. There is no time frame After a 20-minute training, the patient will assess the knowledge of the steps necessary to complete the finger. Performance is not specified in measurable terms; There is no criterion. Contrary to writing behavioral goals, formulating well-written goals is another important skill for a teacher to acquire. In particular, the statement of the goal should make it clear that the student is expected to achieve the intended outcome in the long term after achieving a number of specific behavioural goals. The goal represents the expected end result of a combination of changes in the student's behavior that are projected to occur. It should reflect the final destination to which the student aspires in partnership with the teacher. The statement of purpose should be a short-written proposal that focuses on students, is forward-looking, realistic and achievable within a reasonable time frame. Unlike behavioral goals, the statement of purpose does not contain the characteristics of the state and the criterion. The goal is a broad statement about behavior that defines the student, uses a future tense verb, and includes the overall result of the learning to be achieved. Examples of well-written goal statements can be found in Annex C. Speech Performance with many or more interpretations When writing behavioral goals using the format proposed by Mager (1997), the recommendation is to use precise words of action (verbs like labels known as verbal) that are open to multiple interpretations when describing a student's performance. A goal is considered useful only when it clearly states that the student must demonstrate for mastery of knowledge, attitude or skills. The performance verb (verbal) describes what a student should do. The performance can be not, visible, or audible - for example, a student can list, write, manufacture, or walk. These performances are directly observed. Except performance can be invisible - for example, a student can determine, decide, decide, or recognize. Any performance, visible/audible or invisible, described by the word do is measurable. If a word is used to describe something a learner may be, then it is not to make a word, but to be a word. Examples of being words, also known as abstractions, include understanding, knowing, enjoying and appreciating (Mager, 1997). Understanding, knowledge, enjoyment and evaluation are considered abstract states of being, which cannot be directly measured, but simply taken out of the performances. Thus, verbs that mean an inner state of thinking, feeling or faith should be avoided because they are difficult to measure or observe. TABLE 10-3 Verbal with many or more terms of interpretations with many interpretations (not recommended) Terms with few interpretations (recommended) to know to apply to explain to understand to choose to evaluate to evaluate to scroll to realize to compare to be familiar with build, to predict to enjoy the contrast, to recall the value of the define, to recognize to be interested in being interested in being described, to choose to demonstrate, to learn to differentiate, to differentiate, to learn to distinguish between writing Sources: Adapted from Gronlund, N. E. (1985). Setting goals for classroom learning (3rd New York: Macmillan; Gronlund, N. E. (2004). Writing educational purposes for teaching and evaluation (7th place). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall. As stated by Anderson et al (2001), if a teacher is able to describe the behavior that needs to be achieved, it will be easy to know when the learning has occurred. , 1985; Gronlund and Brookhart, 2008). COMMON MISTAKES WHEN WRITING OBJECTIVES in formulating behavioral goals as a beginner and experienced educator are vulnerable to some common pitfalls. The most common errors in the spelling of goals are as follows: Description of what the teacher, not the student, is expected to do by incorporating more than one expected behavior into one goal (avoid using a complex word and connect two verbs, for example, the student will choose and cook) Forgetting all four components of the state, performance, criterion, and learner use terms for performance that are subject to many interpretations that are not action-oriented, and it is difficult to measure the writing of goals that are unattainable given the student's level of ability goals that do not fall within the stated goal of cluttering goals, including unnecessary information Being too common not to indicate clearly expected behavior to be achieved If you use the SMART rule, it is easy to create effective goals for different audiences in different settings. This goal-setting process is shown in table 10-4. TABLE 10-4 Writing SMART Goals Specific Be specific about what needs to be achieved (i.e., use strong action verbs, be specific). Measurable quantitative or qualify goals, including numerical, cost or percentage, or expected degree/level of skill. Are your goals achievable? Are resources realistic to achieve goals (i.e. personnel, facilities, equipment)? Timely, when will the goals be achieved (i.e. within a week, month, the day of the patient's discharge, before the new employee completes the orientation)? Source: Adapted from Glenn M. Parker Associates, Inc. (2000). Team training. Amherst, Massachusetts: HRD Products. TAXONOMY OF OBJECTIVES ACCORDING TO LEARNING DOMAINS A taxonomy is a mechanism used to classify things according to how they relate to each other. Taxonomium is a special basis in which the categories lie along the continuum (Anderson et al., 2001, p. 4). For example, biologists use taxonomies to classify plants and animals based on their natural characteristics. In the late 1940s, psychologists and educators began to worry about the need to develop a system to identify and streamline behavior levels according to their type and complexity (Reilly s Oermann, 1990). Bloom et al. (1956) and Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964) developed a very useful taxonomy, known as the taxonom of educational goals, as a tool for systematic and logical classification of behavioral goals. This taxonomiey, which has become widely accepted as standard assistance for planning as well as assessment of learning, is divided into three broad categories or areas - cognitive, affective and psychomotor. The concept of taxonomics is inherent in the notion that, although these three areas of cognitive, affective and psychomotor learning are described as existing as separate entities, they are, in fact, interdependent and can be tested simultaneously. People do not have thoughts, feelings and actions in isolation from each other and are generally not divided by learning. For example, an affective domain affects the cognitive area, and vice versa; processes of thinking and feelings affect psychomotor performance, and vice versa (Menix, 1996). FIGURE 10-1 Domain Hierarchies. In the taxonomic educational goals, goals in each area are ordered in the taxonomic form of the hierarchy. Behavioral goals are classified at low, medium and high levels, with simple behavior listed first (designated numbers 1.0 2.0), followed by moderate complexity behavior (indicated by numbers 3.0 and 4.0), with more complex behaviors listed last (designated numbers 5.0, 6.0 and 7.0). Sub-lenses are listed according to the primary purpose and are indicated by numbers that vary between whole numbers (for example, the target may have sub-lenses identified as 2.1, 2.2, 2.3). An integral part of the concept of hierarchy is a serial structure in which students must successfully achieve behavior at lower domain levels (1.0 or 2.0) before they can adequately study behavior at higher domain levels (3.0 to 7.0). So to use the analogy of climbing stairs, you can't get to the top if you go up one step at a time (figure 10-1). The cognitive area is known as domain thinking. Learning in this area involves obtaining information and addressing the development of the student's intellectual abilities, mental abilities, understanding and thought processes (Eggen and Kauchak, 2012). Goals in this area are divided into six levels, each of which indicates cognitive processes ranging from simple (knowledge) to more complex (evaluation), as listed and described by Bloom et al (1956) (Table 10-5). EXAMPLES OF BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES IN THE COGNITIVE DOMAIN Knowledge Level: After a 20-minute training session, the patient will be able to accurately know the definition of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). Level of Understanding: After watching a 10-minute video about nutrition after gastric bypass surgery, the patient will be able to give at least three examples of the selection of foods that will be included in the diet. Level of use: At the end of the cardiac rehabilitation program, the patient will change three exercise regimen that can fit into his or her lifestyle at home. Analysis level: After reading the handouts provided by the nurse's caregiver, a family member will calculate the correct amount of total grams of protein included on average per day in the family diet. Synthesis Level: Given the selective list of foods, the patient will develop a menu to include products from four food groups (milk, meat, vegetables and fruits, and grains) in recommended quantities for daily consumption. Assessment level: After careful orientation, the nurse will assess his or her readiness to function independently as a staff nurse. TABLE 10-5 Levels of Cognitive Behavior Knowledge (1.00-1.99): A student's ability to remember, remember, identify, recognize, or identify specific information such as facts, rules, principles, conditions, and terms presented during learning. Understanding (2.00-2.99): A student's ability to demonstrate understanding or understanding of what is being transmitted by translating it into another form or recognizing it in a form form, for example, to understand an idea by defining it or in their own words (knowledge is a necessary behavior). Application (3.00-3.99): A student's ability to use ideas, principles, abstractions, or theories in specific and specific situations, such as figuring out, writing, reading or processing equipment (knowledge and understanding are prerequisites for behavior). Analysis (4.00-4.99): The student's ability to recognize and structure information by breaking it down into constituent parts and pointing out the relationship between parts (knowledge, understanding, and application are a prerequisite for behavior). Synthesis (5.00-5.99): The student's ability to combine parts and elements into a single whole, creating a unique product that is written, oral, pictorial, and so on (knowledge, understanding, application and analysis are prerequisites for behavior). Assessment (6.00-6.99): A student's ability to judge the value of something such as an essay, design or action by applying appropriate standards or criteria (knowledge, understanding, application, analysis, and synthesis are prerequisites for behavior). Table 10-6 lists verbs commonly used to write cognitive-level behavioral goals. WARNING IN COGNITIVE DOMAIN Various learning methods and tools exist for the primary purpose of developing cognitive abilities. However, the techniques most commonly used to stimulate cognitive learning include lectures, one-to-one installations, and self-instruction activities such as computer instruction. Verbal, written and visual tools are particularly successful in complementing learning methods to help students master cognitive content. For example, studies have shown that computer instruction is effective in teaching clients to prevent HIV and students about musculoskeletal cancer testing (Evans, Edmundson-Drane, s Harris, 2000; Ford, Mazzone, and Taylor, 2005). TABLE 10-6 Commonly used verbs according to domain classification Cognitive Domain Knowledge Domain: choose, circle, identify, identify, label, list, match, name, outline, recall, report, choose, state of understanding: describe, discuss, distinguish, evaluate, explain, generalize, set example, find, learn, generalize application: apply, demonstrate, illustrate, implement, interpret, change, order, revise, decide, use analysis: analyze, organize, calculate, classify, compare, conclude, contrast, . correlate, design, design, develop, generate, integrate, reorganize, reassign, generalize assessment: evaluate, evaluate, conclude, criticize, discuss, defend, judge, justify affective domain Getting: accept, recognize, ask, attend, focus, listen, observe, pay attention Answer: agree, answer, conform, discuss, express, participate, recall, report, state readiness, try try follow, help, initiate, join, offer, volunteer organization: stick, change, organize, unite, protect, explain, express, generalize, integrate, authorize Characteristics: approve, commit, discriminate, display, influence, offer, qualify, decide, verify the psychomotor perception of the domain: attend, choose, describe, detect, distinguish, identify, isolate, perceive, treat, choose, separate set: attempt, start, develop, display, position, prepare, continue, align, organize, assemble, attach, build, build, build, discriminate, dismantle, dissect, explore, find, grab, hold, insert, lift, locate, maintain, manipulate, measure, mix, open, work, organize, perform, pour, practice, assembly, remove, repair, replace, separate, shake, suction, turn, transmission, walking, wash, wipe Adaptation: adapt, modify, modify, convert, adjust, repoly, build, create, design, exchange, reordize Sources: Adapted, modify, modify, convert, adjust, reto move, build, create, design, exchange, reorence: Adapted from Gronlund, E. Setting goals for classroom learning New York: Macmillan; Gronlund, N. E. (2004). Writing educational goals for teaching and evaluation (7th place). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall. However, it is a prerequisite for a student to participate in other educational activities such as group discussion or role-playing. Otherwise, what results combine ignorance. For example, clients cannot adequately learn in a group discussion unless they have an accurate and at least basic level of knowledge of a subject that can be relied upon for the purposes of discourse. Participation in a group discussion, in turn, is not the same as participating in a brainstorming session. Brainstorming does not necessarily require prior knowledge of the problems or problems that need to be studied. Cognitive learning is the traditional focus of most teaching. In the education of patients, nurses and students, the focus remains on the exchange of facts, theories, concepts and the like. Cognitive processing, i.e. the means by which knowledge is acquired, often takes precedence over the development of psychomotor skills and the study of affective behavior (Ellis, 1993). Perhaps this emphasis has evolved because teachers tend to feel more confident and more qualified to be the gift of information, is to be an intermediary and training coordinator. Lecture and one-on-one training are the most commonly used teaching methods. How To these training approaches, when delivered in typical fashion, are aimed almost exclusively at the cognitive field. As for cognitive learning, how long does practice need to affect the short-term and long-term preservation of factual information? Cognitive scientists are studying the time allocation of practice to study new material. Typically, studies show that learning distributed over several sessions leads to better memory than information received in a single session. This phenomenon was described by Willingham (2002) as an interval effect. That is, studying information all at once in one day, an approach known as mass practice, is much less effective for memorizing facts than studying information over consecutive periods of time, an approach known as distributed practice. Mass practice, similar to what is usually identified as cramming, can allow information to be withdrawn within a short time, but the evidence strongly supports that distributed practice is very important in forging memories that last for years. The effect of the spread of learning over time is very clear. The average person who has been subjected to distributed practice remembers 67% better than people who receive mass education. That is, the interval of time allotted for training significantly increases memory. The longer the delays between practice sessions, the more and more permanent the training is. In fact, if the training is distributed over time, not only does this distance effect hold, but it becomes even more reliable (Willingham, 2002). Only golden members can continue reading. Sign in or sign up to continue working work done in adiabatic process derivation pdf. work done in adiabatic process derivation class 11. work done in reversible adiabatic process derivation

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