

In Search of a Better Way to Organize Instruction: The Elaboration Theory

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The elaboration theory of instruction is an alternative to the standard way of organizing instruction based on a hierarchical task analysis. The hierarchical organization results in an instructional sequence that begins with highly fragmented, small pieces of the subject-matter content. Many educators have found its fragmentation to be demotivating. Many educational psychologists have found its parts-to-whole sequence to be inconsistent with much knowledge about how learning occurs most effectively—namely schema theory and its predecessor, subsumption theory. And many instructional designers have found that “learning hierarchies” represent a very incomplete basis upon which to make decisions about sequencing the instruction, primarily because learning hierarchies are only one aspect of the structure of subject-matter content. All this is not to deny that learning prerequisites exist nor to say that they are not important—they do exist and they

are important. Rather this affirms that learning prerequisites are not a sufficient basis for organizing a whole course: our knowledge must progress beyond the hierarchy. It is for these reasons that the elaboration theory is being developed.

Context

Before describing the elaboration theory, I would like to place it within the context of instructional design in general. Instructional design theory can be thought of as being concerned with four major aspects of instruction (see Figure 1): (1) ways of organizing instruction, which include such concerns as sequencing and formatting the subject-matter content, (2) ways of delivering instruction, which is usually a matter of media selection, (3) ways of motivating students, which may be intrinsic or extrinsic, and (4) ways of managing the student's use of the other three aspects of instruction (Reigeluth & Merrill, 1979).

As Figure 1 indicates, it is helpful to think of ways for organizing instruction as being of two types, based on their scope. Micro strategies are ways of organizing instruction on a single topic, such as on a single concept or on a single principle. They include such strategy components as generalities (or definitions), instances (or examples), and practice. Macro strategies are ways of organizing those aspects of instruction which relate to more than one topic, such as sequencing the topics, showing interrelationships among the topics, and previewing or reviewing the topics. Task analysis is done primarily, if not exclusively, to develop this last type of strategy—specifically sequencing strategy.

The elaboration theory of instruction is a partial theory of instruction—it does not deal with all aspects of instruction. As is shown in Figure 1, it deals primarily with macro strategies for organizing instruction; but it also includes

many motivational strategies, and the other aspects of instruction will be integrated with elaboration theory in the foreseeable future. Merrill has done excellent work on micro strategies for organizing instruction (Merrill, Reigeluth, & Faust, 1979; Merrill, Richards, Schmidt, & Wood, 1977), and Keller (1979) and Dodge (1979) are making some excellent progress in the development of a motivational theory of instructional design.

The Elaboration Theory

The elaboration theory of instruction states that if cognitive instruction is organized in a certain specified way, then that instruction will result in higher levels of learning, synthesis, retention, and affect. There is a limitation to this theory: the smaller the amount of interrelated subject-matter content, the less difference it will make. With a small enough number of topics, it doesn't make any difference how you sequence them, whether you show interrelationships among them, or whether you preview and review the topics (as long as there are no learning prerequisite relationships among them). The following is a description of that “certain specified way” of organizing instruction, which is called the elaboration model of instruction.

The Elaboration Model

A good introduction to the nature of the elaboration model of instruction is an analogy with a zoom lens. Taking a look at a subject matter “through” the elaboration model is similar in many respects to looking at a picture through a zoom lens on a movie camera.

A person starts with a wide-angle view, which allows one to see the major parts of the picture and the major relationships among those parts (e.g., the composition or balance of the picture), but without any detail.

The person then zooms in on a part of the picture. Assume that, instead of

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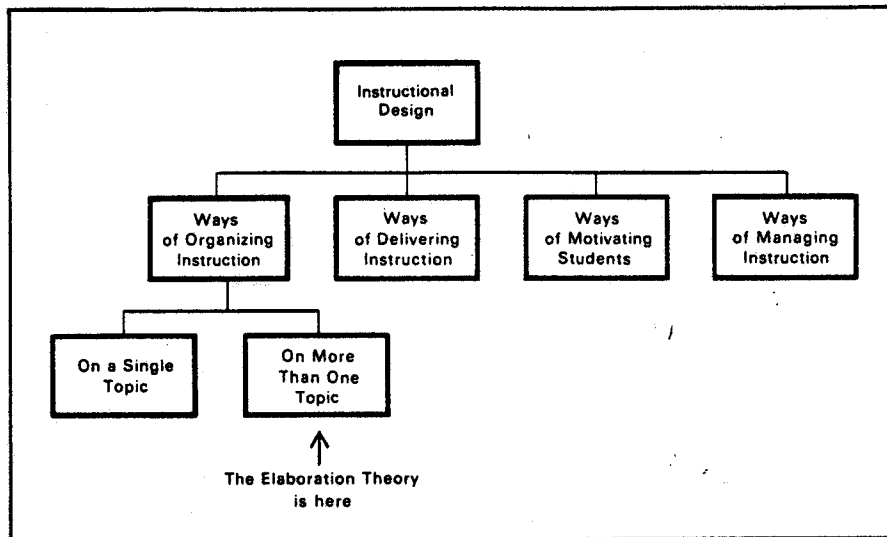


Figure 1. The context of the elaboration theory in relation to other aspects of instructional design theory.

being continuous, the zoom operates in steps or discrete levels. Zooming in one level on a given part of the picture allows the person to see the major subparts. After having studied those subparts and their interrelationships, the person could then zoom back out to the wide-angle view to review the other parts of the whole picture and to review the context of this part within the whole picture.

The person continues this pattern of zooming in one level to see the major subparts of a part and zooming back out for context and review, until the whole picture has been seen at the first level of detail. Then the person can follow the same zoom-in/zoom-out pattern for the second level of detail, the third level, and so on, until the desired level of detail is reached.

In a similar way the elaboration model of instruction starts the student with an overview of the major parts of the subject matter, it elaborates on one of those parts to a certain level of detail (called the first level of elaboration), it reviews the overview and shows the context of that part within the overview (an expanded overview), it continues this pattern of elaboration/expanded overview for each part of the overview until all parts have been elaborated one level, and it follows the same pattern for further levels of elaboration. Of course, it must be remembered that the zoom-lens analogy is just an analogy and therefore that it has nonanalogous aspects. One such dissimilarity is that all

the detail of the picture is actually present (although usually not noticed) in the wide-angle view, whereas the detail is not there at all in the overview of the subject matter.

Now, some people ask, "don't you have to go through a lot of learning prerequisites to teach the overview?" The answer is a definite "no." In fact few unmastered learning prerequisites (if any) exist at the level of the overview. As a learner works to deeper levels of detail, increasingly complex prerequisites will need to be introduced. But if they are introduced only at the level of detail at which they are necessary, there will be only a few prerequisites at each level; and the learner will want to learn those prerequisites because he or she will see their importance for learning at the level of detail that now interests him or her.

The general-to-detailed organization prescribed by the elaboration model helps to ensure that the learner is always aware of the context and importance of the different topics that are being taught. It allows the learner to learn at the level of detail that is most appropriate and meaningful to him or her at any given state in the development of one's knowledge. And the learner never has to struggle through a series of learning prerequisites that are on too deep a level of detail to be interesting or meaningful at the initial stages of instruction.

Unfortunately, the zoom-lens approach has not been used much in instruction, in spite of its fundamental simplicity and intuitive rationale. Many

textbooks begin with the "lens" zoomed in to the level of detail deemed appropriate for the intended student population, and they proceed—with the "lens" locked on that level of detail—to pan across the entire subject matter. This has had unfortunate consequences for synthesis, retention, and motivation. Many instructional developers begin with the lens zoomed all the way in and proceed in a highly fragmented manner to pan across a small part and zoom out a bit on that part, pan across another small part and zoom out a bit on it, and so on until the whole scene has been covered and to some limited degree integrated. This has also had unfortunate consequences for synthesis, retention, and motivation. And some educators have intuitively groped for an elaboration-type approach with no guidelines on how to do it. This has resulted in a good deal less effectiveness than is possible for maximizing synthesis, retention, and motivation.

The major reason for the lack of utilization of the zoom-lens approach in instruction is probably that the hierarchical approach was well-articulated and was a natural outgrowth of a strong behavioral orientation in educational psychology. This in effect put "blinders" on most of the few people who were working on instructional design strategies and methodology.

To summarize, the elaboration model of instruction starts by presenting knowledge at a very general or simplified level—in the form of a special kind of overview. Then it proceeds to add detail or complexity in "layers" across the entire breadth of the content of the course (or curriculum), one layer at a time, until the desired level of detail or complexity is reached. It is important to emphasize, though, that the elaboration model prescribes a special kind of overview, and it prescribes a special way in which the elaboration is to occur. The following is as close as we can come (without sacrificing clarity) to a nontechnical introduction to these special aspects of the elaboration model.

The Epitome

We do not like to use the word "overview" because its meaning is very vague—it means different things to different people. Also, we believe that a certain specific kind of overview is superior to other kinds. Among other

things, our overview must epitomize the subject matter that is to be taught, rather than summarizing it. Hence, we have named it the *epitome*. An epitome has two "critical characteristics" that distinguish it from other types of overviews: (1) it epitomizes the subject matter of the course (or curriculum) rather than summarizing it, and (2) it has a single "orientation"—which means that it emphasizes a single type of content.

With respect to epitomizing the subject matter of the course (or curriculum), an epitome is formed by "boiling down" the course content to its essence. It does not preview all of the course content; rather it presents a few fundamental topics that convey the essence of the entire content. Those topics are chosen or derived in such a way that all the remaining course content provides more detail or more complex knowledge about the epitome. Although an epitome is very general, it is not purely abstract. Since "general" and "abstract" are often confused, this distinction will be discussed in greater detail shortly.

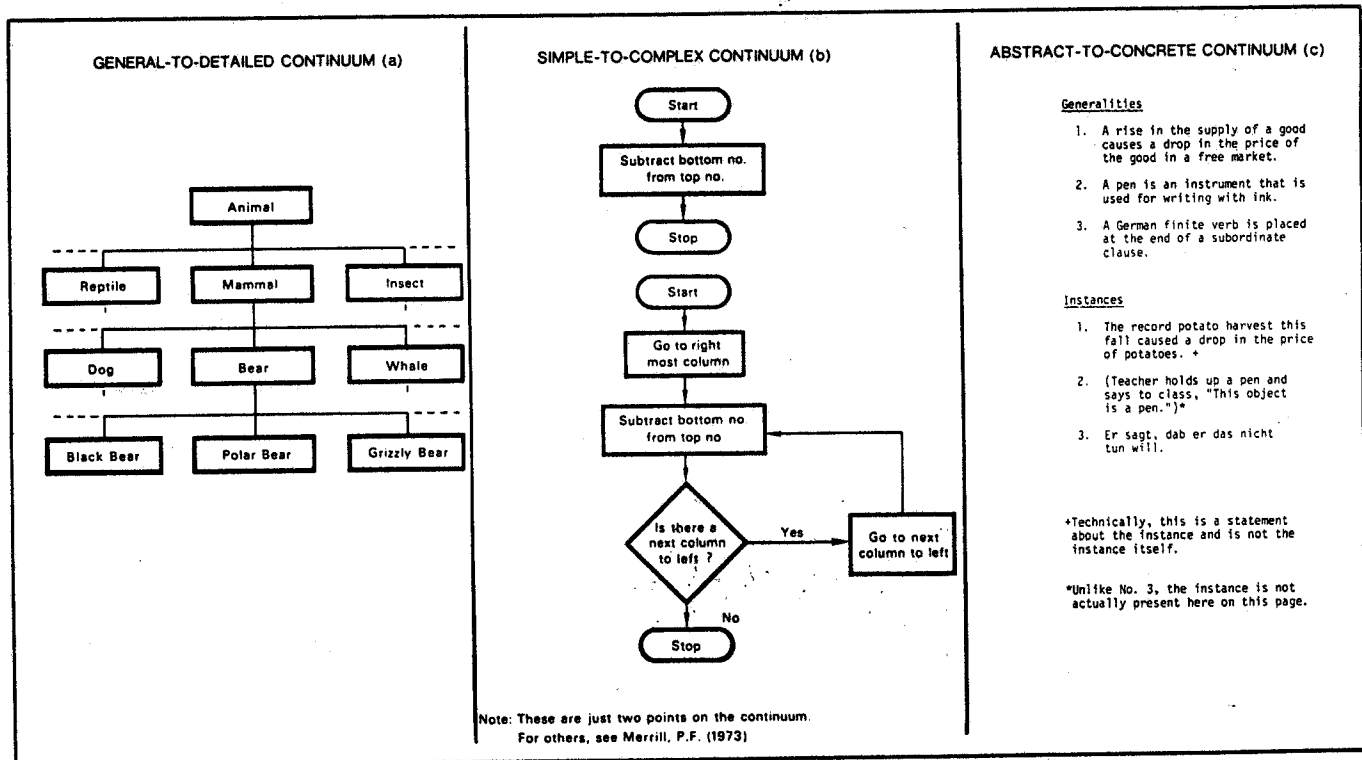
With respect to having an orientation, the epitome emphasizes any one of three types of content: concepts, procedures, or principles. A concept is a set of

objects, events, or ideas that have certain characteristics in common. Knowing a concept entails being able to identify, recognize, classify, or describe what something is. A procedure is a set of actions that are intended to achieve an end. It is often referred to as a skill, a technique, or a method. Knowing a procedure entails knowing how to do something. A principle is a change relationship—it indicates the relationship between a change in one thing and a change in something else. It describes causes or effects by identifying what will happen as a result of a given change (the effect) or why something happens (the cause). These three different emphases are referred to respectively as a conceptual orientation, a procedural orientation, and a theoretical orientation; and the orientation is selected on the basis of the general goals or purpose of the course (or curriculum). All three types of content may appear in the epitome, but one type receives primary emphasis; and the epitome is formed by epitomizing the orientation type of content, and then introducing whatever of the other two types of content are highly relevant. More will be said about this below.

I mentioned above that an epitome is

very general but is not purely abstract. The terms "general" and "abstract" are often confused. It is helpful to think of three continua: (1) general to detailed, (2) simple to complex, and (3) abstract to concrete. These three continua are illustrated in Figure 2. The first two are very similar to each other, but the third is very different.

The general-to-detailed continuum refers primarily to a continuum formed by subdividing things (concepts or procedures) or by lumping things (concepts or subprocedures) together. "General" has breadth (things lumped together), while "detailed" is usually narrow (subdivisions). In Figure 2(a) "polar bear" is a more detailed concept than "animal." The simple-to-complex continuum refers primarily to a continuum formed by adding or removing things (principles or procedures). "Simple" has few things, while "complex" has many things. In Figure 2(b), the procedure for subtracting multidigit numbers is more complex than the procedure for subtracting single-digit numbers. Additional complexity can be added by introducing subprocedures for "borrowing" when the top number is smaller than the bottom number. The abstract-to-concrete continuum refers to tangi-



bility, and there are two major types of tangibility. First, generalities are abstract, and instances are usually concrete—the definition of a tree is abstract, while a specific tree (an object) is concrete. This is the most important abstract-to-concrete continuum for instructional theory. Second, some concepts are considered abstract because their instances are not tangible. “Intelligence” is a good example of an abstract concept. This second abstract-to-concrete continuum is largely irrelevant for our purposes.

On the basis of these distinctions, an epitome is always either very general or very simple—it must be, to epitomize the instructional content. But it should never be purely abstract. According to Merrill’s Component Display Theory (Merrill, Reigeluth, & Faust, 1979) it should contain the following for each topic it presents: a generality (e.g., the definition of a concept), some instances of that generality (e.g., examples of the concept), and some practice for the student in applying the generality to new instances. As a rough guide, an epitome usually contains about six (plus or minus three) topics—that is, about six different generalities, along with some instances and practice items for each. These topics may be any combination of concepts, procedures, and/or principles. Figures 3 and 4 illustrate the nature of each of the three kinds of epitomes: conceptual, theoretical, and procedural.

A Level-1 Elaboration

A level-1 elaboration is a part of the instruction that provides some more detailed or complex knowledge on an aspect of the epitome. It should not include all of the more detailed or complex knowledge on that aspect. Rather, a level-1 elaboration should itself be an epitome of all of the more detailed or complex knowledge on that aspect, just as zooming in one level provides a slightly more detailed wide-angle view of one part of the whole picture. There is usually a level-1 elaboration for each aspect of the epitome, but an aspect is not the same thing as a topic. It is possible that a level-1 elaboration may elaborate to some extent on all of the topics in the epitome or perhaps even on a relationship among those topics.

The depth to which a level-1 elaboration

Theoretical Epitome

1. The law (principle) of supply and demand.
 - a. The principle of what causes changes to occur in the quantity demanded and the quantity supplied (price changes).
 - b. The principle of why prices change in a free market economy.
2. The principle of why changes occur in supply schedules or demand schedules.
3. The concepts of supply, supply schedule, and supply curve.
4. The concepts of demand, demand schedule, and demand curve.^s
5. The concept of changes in quantity supplied or demanded.
6. The concept of changes in supply schedules or demand schedules.
7. The concept of equilibrium price.

Practically all principles of economics can be viewed as elaborations on the law of supply and demand, including those that relate to monopoly, regulation, price fixing, and planned economies.

Conceptual Epitome

1. Definition of economics
2. Definitions of subdivisions of economics:
 - a. Definition of macro economics
 - b. Definition of micro economics
 - c. Definition of comparative economics
 - d. Definition of international economics
 - e. Definition of labor economics
 - f. Definition of managerial economics.

Practically all concepts in economics can be viewed as elaborations on these concepts (i.e., as further subdivisions—either parts or kinds—of these concepts).

Figure 3. The instructional contents for a theoretical epitome and for a conceptual epitome for an introductory course in economics.

1. There are four major stages in the multidimensional analysis and interpretation of creative literature:
 - a. Identifying elements of the dramatic framework—character and plot.
 - b. Combining the elements into composites appropriate for analysis of their literal meaning—analysis of character in terms of plot.
 - c. Figuratively interpreting the elements—symbolism through character, mood, tone.
 - d. Making a judgment of worth—personal relevance, universality.

(This procedure is simplified by introducing only *two* elements for the analyses in a and b, *three* in c, and *two* in d. It is further simplified by introducing only those procedures and concepts necessary for the analysis and interpretation of a *short poem*. Complexity is added later by increasing the number of elements used in each stage of analysis or interpretation and by introducing procedures and concepts needed for analyzing and interpreting more complicated types of creative literature.)

2. Concepts necessary for performing the procedure in 1.
 - a. Character
 - b. Plot
 - c. Symbolism
 - d. Mood
 - e. Tone
 - f. Universality

Figure 4. The instructional content for a procedural epitome for an introductory course in literature. (I appreciate the help of Faith Stein in the preparation of this figure.)

tion should elaborate on an aspect of the epitome is somewhat variable (i.e., the discrete levels on the zoom lens are variable, not always constant and equal in the amount of detail added). The most important factor for deciding on the depth of a given level-1 elaboration is student learning load. It is important that the student learning load be neither too large nor too small, for either will impede the instruction's efficiency, effectiveness (especially for retention), and appeal. The number of topics that represent the optimal student learning load will vary with such factors as student ability, the complexity of the subject-matter topics, and student pre-familiarity with the topics. The breadth of a level-1 elaboration will usually be fairly difficult to adjust. Hence optimizing the student learning load in a given elaboration can often be done mainly by varying the depth of that elaboration.

Figure 5 illustrates the nature of a level-1 elaboration on the theoretical epitome in Figure 3, and Figure 6 illustrates the nature of a level-1 elaboration on the procedural epitome in Figure 4.

Other Elaborations

A level-2 elaboration is identical to a level-1 elaboration except that it elaborates on an aspect of a level-1 elaboration rather than on an aspect of the epitome. In a similar manner, a level-3 elaboration provides more detail or complexity on an aspect of a level-2 elaboration, and so on for elaborations at deeper levels of detail/complexity. In all cases, an elaboration at one level of detail/complexity should be an epitome for all the lower level elaborations that elaborate on it.

According to this kind of organization, elaborations that are on the same level are very different from each other with respect to the instructional content they contain (i.e., their topics are very different from each other); but elaborations that are on different levels are very similar to each other with respect to their instructional content (i.e., their topics are very similar), because each level has the same content as the previous levels, only at a level of greater detail/complexity. This provides an important systematic review mechanism—more will be said about this shortly.

1. Principle of increasing marginal costs as an explanation for the shape of the supply curve.
2. Principle of profit maximization for individual firms.
3. Procedure of marginal analysis to arrive at profit maximization.
4. Concepts of fixed and variable costs.
5. Concepts of total, average, and marginal costs.
6. Concepts of break-even point and shut-down point.

Figure 5. The instructional content for a level-1 elaboration on the theoretical epitome in Figure 3. This level-1 elaboration elaborates on the supply aspect of the law of supply and demand by presenting more complex principles that relate to supply.

1. How to identify other elements of the dramatic framework—setting, perspective, and language.
2. How to combine the elements into composites appropriate for analysis of their literal meaning—(1) analysis of character, plot, and setting, (2) analysis of perspective, character, and plot, and (3) analysis of language.
3. Concepts of setting, perspective, and language.
4. Concepts of types and patterns of imagery (in language).
5. Procedure for analyzing imagery.
6. Concept of prosody.
7. Procedure for analyzing prosody.

Figure 6. The instructional content for a level-1 elaboration on the procedural epitome in Figure 4. This level-1 elaboration elaborates just on stages a and b—which must be elaborated at the same time because of their interrelatedness. It elaborates on these two stages by adding elements that need to be identified (in stage a of Figure 4) and analyzed in combination (in stage b of Figure 4). (I appreciate the help of Faith Stein in the preparation of this figure.)

Expanded Epitome

After each elaboration, the instruction presents a summarizer and an expanded epitome, equivalent to the zoom-out-for-context-and-review activity in the zoom-lens analogy. The summarizer is comprised of a concise generality for each topic presented in the elaboration. The expanded epitome does two things. (1) it synthesizes the topics presented within the elaboration (internal synthesis) and (2) it shows the relationship of those topics (and relationships) to the rest of the topics (and relationships) that have been taught (external synthesis).

Summary of the Elaboration Model

In summary, the elaboration model is as follows (see Figure 7). First, the epitome is presented to the student. Then a level-1 elaboration is presented to provide more detail on an aspect of

the orientation content in the epitome (that aspect which is most important or contributes most to an understanding of the whole orientation structure). Next a summarizer and an expanded epitome are presented. Another level-1 elaboration and its summarizer and expanded epitome are presented. This pattern of level-1 elaboration followed by its summarizer and expanded epitome continues until all aspects of the orientation content that were presented in the epitome have been elaborated one level. Then a level-2 elaboration is presented to provide more detail on an aspect of the orientation content that was presented in one of the level-1 elaborations. As always, this elaboration is followed by a summarizer and an expanded epitome. This pattern continues until all of the aspects of the orientation content presented in all of the level-1 elaborations have been elaborated one

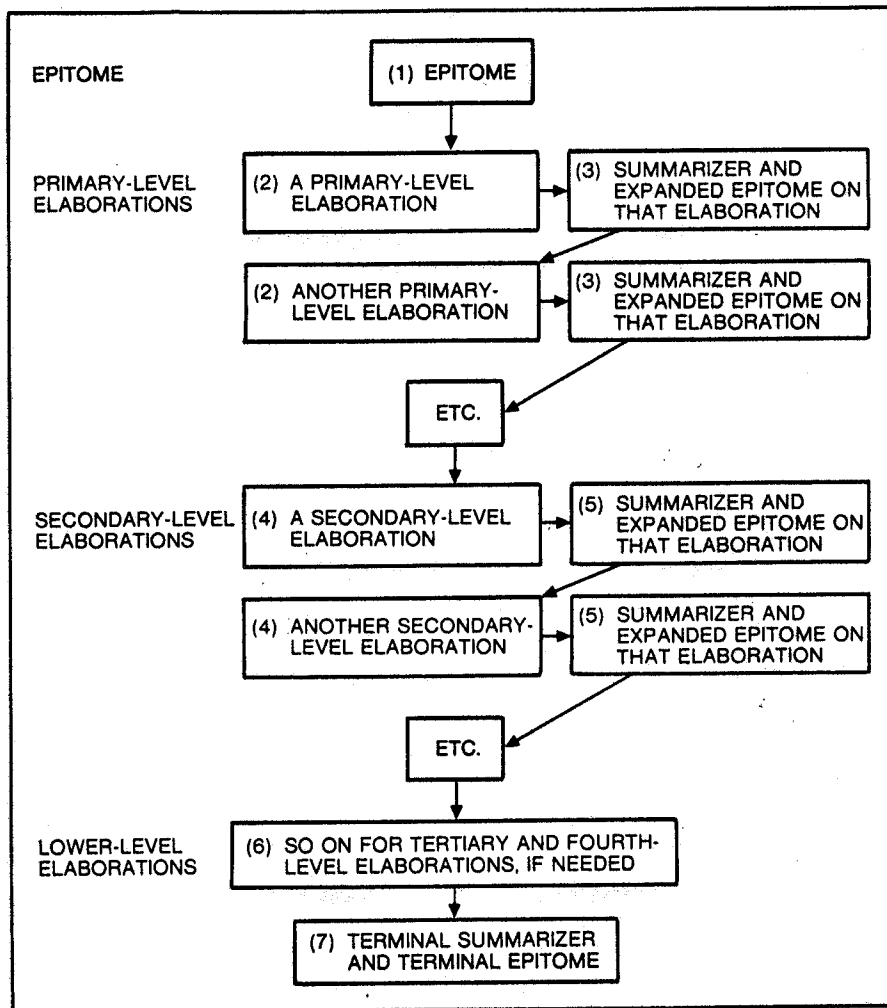


Figure 7. A diagrammatic representation of the elaboration model of instruction.

level (unless the objectives of the course or the nature of the subject matter exempt a level-1 elaboration from being further elaborated). Additional levels of elaboration are provided in the same manner—an elaboration followed by a summarizer and an expanded epitome—until the level of detail/complexity specified by the objectives is attained in all aspects of the orientation content of the course.

It should be noted that there are three ways in which systematic review takes place. First, each level of elaboration covers content similar to that in the previous level (only with some additional detail and related topics). Learning this more detailed version of the same content stimulates or incorporates review of that earlier part of the course content. Second, the summarizer at the end of each elaboration reviews

the content that was just presented in that elaboration. It does this by providing a concise generality for each topic. And third, the expanded epitome at the end of each elaboration constantly reviews the major content that was presented in earlier elaborations.

Using the Elaboration Model

We have developed a fairly detailed set of procedures for designing instruction according to the elaboration model (Reigeluth, Merrill, Wilson & Spiller, 1978). A major part of those procedures is analyzing the instructional content as to four different types of subject-matter structures. A subject-matter structure is something which shows a single kind of relationship that exists within a subject matter. Figure 2(a) shows part of a subject-matter structure. The four different

types of subject-matter structures are: conceptual, procedural, theoretical, and learning structures. (Learning structures show learning prerequisite relations within the subject matter.) It is beyond the scope of this paper to describe and illustrate each of these four types of structures. The interested reader is referred to Reigeluth, Merrill, & Bunderson, 1978.

There are six major steps for designing instruction according to the elaboration model (see Figure 8). First, one must select an orientation—either conceptual, procedural, or theoretical—on the basis of the goals or purpose of the instruction. Second, one must develop an orientation structure for that orientation. It depicts the orientation content (either concepts, procedures, or principles) in the most detailed/complex version that the student needs to learn. This is a form of content analysis or task description. Then the orientation structure is analyzed in a systematic manner to determine which aspect(s) of the orientation content will be presented in the epitome and which aspects will be presented in each level of elaboration. In this way the "skeleton" of the instruction is developed on the basis of epitomizing and elaborating on a single type of content.

The fourth major step is to embellish the "skeleton" by adding the other two types of content at the lowest appropriate levels of detail. This is usually done by "nesting" the remaining subject-matter structures within different parts of the skeleton. Learning prerequisites are one of the considerations that enter in at this point.

Having allocated all of the instructional content to the different levels of elaboration, it is now important to establish the scope and depth of each individual elaboration that will comprise each level. The scope is usually predetermined by the orientation topic and its necessary supporting topics. The depth is then determined on the basis of achieving an optimal student learning load, as described above.

Sixth and finally, some of the internal structure of each elaboration within each level can be planned. The sequence of topics within an elaboration is decided on the basis of contribution to an understanding of the whole orientation structure (but of course within the constraints of learning prerequisites),

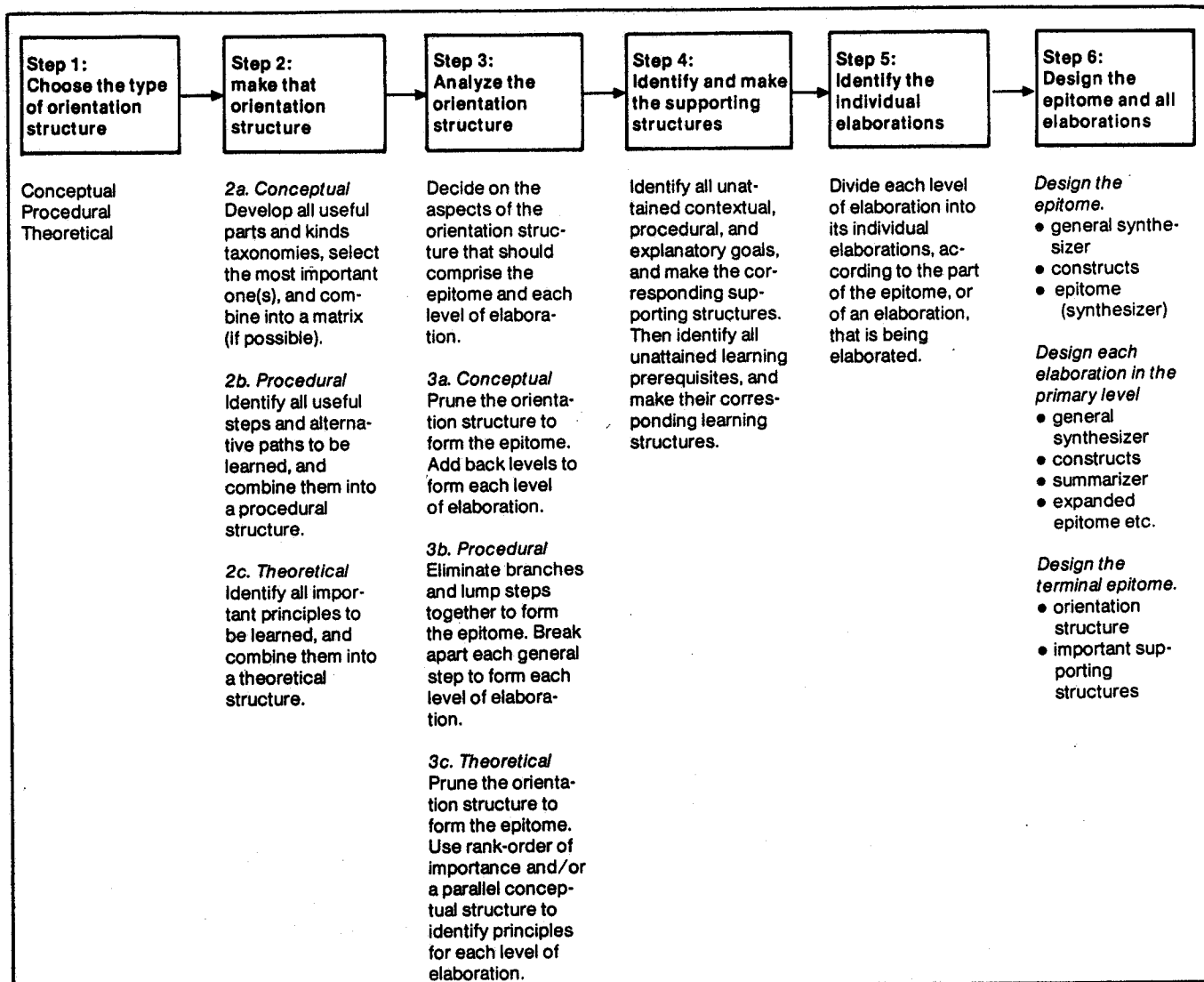


Figure 8. The six-step design procedure for structuring the instruction in any course entailing cognitive subject matter.

and the locations of synthesizers and summarizers are also determined.

This concludes the "macro" design process, at which point the "micro" design process begins—decisions as to how to organize the instruction on a single topic. We have spelled out these procedures for designing instruction in much greater detail elsewhere (Reigeluth, Merrill, Wilson, & Spiller, 1978).

The Need for Research

The model and procedures as described above have undergone very limited field-testing and virtually no research. It may turn out that having a complete expanded epitome after every single elaboration is inefficient and un-

necessary (especially after lower-level elaborations). It may also turn out that it is unnecessary for a student to study all level-1 elaborations before proceeding to a level-2 elaboration. This would have important implications for learner-controlled selection and sequencing of topics—a student could now truly follow his or her interests in approaching a subject matter. This would be particularly valuable in adult and continuing education contexts.

It is also likely that a large, full-scale field test of the design procedures will reveal more effective and efficient ways to design instruction according to the model.

The elaboration model as developed to date is a tentative move in a much-

needed direction. It does not yet have the maturity and validation of the currently used approaches to instructional design, but the need for alternatives should be clear. And there is great potential for the elaboration model to meet that need.

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The Instructional Quality Profile: A Curriculum Evaluation and Design Tool¹

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The Instructional Quality Profile provides a set of detailed procedures for analyzing the quality of instruction in relation to different kinds of objectives and test items. *Instructional quality* refers to the degree to which instruction is effective, efficient, and appealing—that is, the degree to which it works in cost-effectively promoting student performance on a posttest and student affect toward learning. Educators have developed detailed procedures for making reliable tests and for writing well-stated objectives. However, very little attention has been devoted to detailed procedures for analyzing instruction. The Instructional Quality Profile is an analytic tool for diagnosing specific weaknesses and correcting those weaknesses in existing instruction and for providing prescriptions for avoiding such weaknesses in the design of new instruction.

¹ Previous publications on the Instructional Quality Profile referred to it as the Instructional Strategy Diagnostic Profile (Merrill, Richards, Schmidt, & Wood, 1977) and the Instructional Quality Inventory (Ellis & Wulfek, 1978). The authors gratefully acknowledge support from the following institutions (in alphabetical order) for the development of the ideas presented herein: Brigham Young University; The Church of Jesus Christ of the Latter Day Saints (Education System), Courseware Incorporated, and the Navy Personnel Research and Development Center (San Diego) and Advanced Research Project Agency. The ideas expressed herein are those of the authors and should not be interpreted as necessarily representing the official policies, either expressed or implied, of any of the funding institutions.

WHERE DOES IT FIT?

Clearly, there are many different aspects of instruction that influence its quality. We believe it is helpful to classify those aspects as to three kinds: (a) ways for *organizing* the instruction, such as the choice of words, diagrams, format, and student responses; (b) ways for *delivering* the instruction to the student and for receiving responses from the student, such as textbooks, class lectures, homework assignments, television, and discussion groups; and (c) ways for *managing* the interaction between the student and the instruction, such as scheduling, motivation, record keeping, and strategy selection. (See Reigeluth and Merrill [1978a] for a more detailed description of these three aspects of the quality of instruction.)

Within this scheme, the Instructional Quality Profile analyzes only Class 1: ways for organizing the instruction. But it is also helpful to divide this class into two categories: (a) ways for organizing the instruction on a single concept, principle, or procedure, such as the use of examples, and mnemonics; and (b) ways for organizing aspects of instruction that relate to more than one concept, principle, or procedure, such as the use of overviews, advance organizers, and various kinds of sequencing (Reigeluth & Merrill, 1978b). The profile analyzes only Category 1: ways for organizing the instruction on a single concept, principle, or procedure (see Figure 6.2). However, work is currently in progress to expand the scope of the profile to the second category (Reigeluth, Merrill, & Bunder-son, 1978; Reigeluth, Merrill, Wilson, & Spiller, in press) and the profile will eventually be expanded to include the other two classes: the aspects of the quality of instruction that relate to delivery and management.

WHAT DOES IT DO?

The Instructional Quality Profile is a tool for analyzing the quality of instruction in the six areas shown in Figure 6.1: (a) purpose-objective

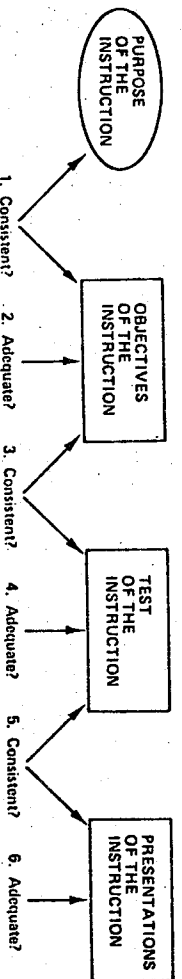


Figure 6.1 The context of the Instructional Quality Profile with respect to the major aspects of instructional quality.

6. The Instructional Quality Profile

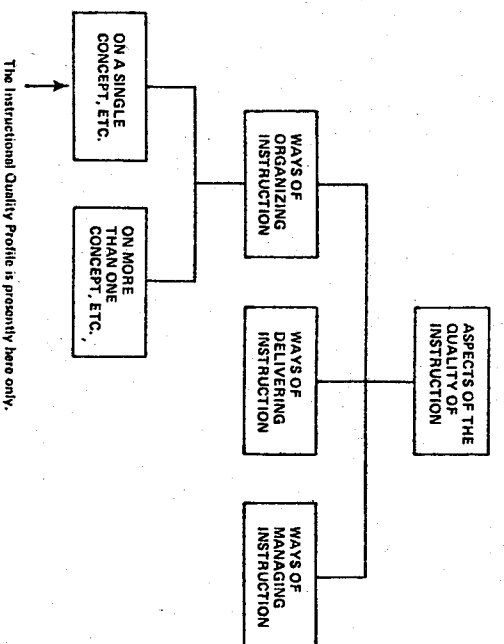


Figure 6.2 The six areas of instructional quality analyzed by the Instructional Quality Profile.

consistency; (b) objective adequacy; (c) objective-test consistency; (d) test adequacy; (e) test-presentation consistency; and (f) presentation adequacy. The following is a general introduction to what the profile does in each of these six areas.

Purpose-Objective Consistency

The educational literature contains a considerable amount of material about the importance of instructional objectives and about how to write them (Logan, 1978). Though knowing how to write correctly stated objectives is important, there has been relatively little guidance in how to decide whether the objectives that have been written are the objectives that should be taught. There have been no adequate guidelines for justifying the substance of one's objectives. As a consequence, many of the objectives that have been written are either unnecessary or trivial. They often stress memory-level behavior when rule using or problem solving is more appropriate. Though some memory-level objectives are certainly justified, many more are not. Merely stating objectives correctly cannot compensate for inappropriate substance.

The first set of profile prescriptions addresses the question, Is the objective justified? In other words, is the substance of the objective consistent with the purpose of the course?

Objective Adequacy

Knowing that the substance of an objective is consistent with the purpose of the course is very important, but it is not enough. In order to be an effective guide for writing both test items and instructional presentations, an objective must be stated adequately. The educational literature contains many prescriptions for writing objectives in a useful form. Perhaps the classic is Robert Mager's book (1962). Although the profile does not make any new contributions to objective adequacy, it emphasizes the importance of this area of instructional quality.

The second set of profile prescriptions addresses the question, Is the objective adequate? In other words, does the objective contain the characteristics that make it useful for guiding the design of test items and instructional presentations? (See Figure 6.1.)

Objective-Test Consistency

Much of educational psychology over the past 30 years has been directed toward testing. But most of this effort has been devoted to prescriptions for the construction of reliable tests and for the construction and use of good items of various kinds (e.g., multiple-choice and true-false). Although reliability and other aspects of test adequacy are important, validity is critical. If the test items measure the wrong thing, then the careful construction of the test items is of little value.

In spite of the extensive work on tests, relatively little effort has been devoted to correlating tests with objectives. Often the two activities are viewed separately and are not related. Consequently, most tests end up measuring memory, even though it might be more appropriate to measure the ability to use knowledge to solve problems. Some testing of memory is necessary and desirable, but too often we test memory and make inferences about ability to use the information remembered.

The third set of profile prescriptions addresses the question, Are the test items consistent with the justified objectives? In other words, are we measuring the real goals of our instruction?

Test Adequacy

Knowing that the substance of a test item is consistent with a justified objective is critical, but it is not enough. A test item must also be reliable, well-formatted, and in other ways adequately constructed. In the educational literature there are excellent prescriptions available for constructing reliable tests. There are also many guidelines for constructing a wide

variety of test formats, such as multiple-choice, matching, true-false, short-answer, and essay (Courseware, Inc., 1977). The profile emphasizes the importance of these aspects of test adequacy and includes them, but it does not contribute anything new to them. What the profile does contribute is the identification of other aspects of test adequacy that have been largely overlooked.

The fourth set of profile prescriptions addresses the question, Are the test items adequate? In other words, do the test items have the characteristics necessary to ensure that they will adequately test the objectives with which they are consistent?

Test-Presentation Consistency

Of the three components of instruction shown in Figure 6.1 (objectives, tests, and presentations), objectives and tests have received considerable attention, as previously described; but the prescription of appropriate instructional presentations has received much less attention in the educational literature. Most instructional presentations are based on tradition, intuition, or the modeling of others. Most of the texts in a given field are modeled after a given best seller. Most professors teach as they have seen others teach. There is almost no information available for judging the appropriateness of an instructional presentation for teaching what is required by an objective and its test item(s). As a consequence, many instructional presentations are inappropriate. Often the information needed to pass the test is not available anywhere in the presentation—either in the text or in the teacher's elaboration of the text.

The fifth set of profile prescriptions addresses the question, Are the instructional presentations consistent with their corresponding test items? In other words, do the instructional presentations provide the kind of information necessary for the student to learn how to perform as required by the test?

Presentation Adequacy

Even when the necessary information is present, it is often hidden in the elaboration or nice-to-know material; it is often inadequately illustrated with examples; and it is frequently unclear to the student. The necessary information may be present, but the student is unable to find it or to understand it if he does find it.

The sixth set of profile prescriptions addresses the question, Is the presentation adequate for effective and efficient learning to occur? In

other words, has the student been provided with a complete, concise, easily studied, adequately illustrated, and sufficiently elaborated presentation to enable him or her to acquire the desired performance efficiently?

HOW DOES IT WORK?

A distinction between descriptive and prescriptive principles (Reigeluth, Bunderson, & Merrill, 1978; Simon, 1969) is germane to an understanding of the profile. An experimental psychologist might attempt to describe *predictive relationships*, which are somewhat value-free. That is, under a given set of conditions a given event can be predicted to occur within some range of probability. It does not matter whether someone wants such an event to occur, or whether it is good for such an event to occur; it occurs.

An instructional psychologist, on the other hand, might attempt to state *prescriptive relationships*, which are based on values. Such prescriptions often take this form: "If you want such an event to occur, then do this and so." In stating prescriptive principles it is important that the desired outcomes be clearly identified. Such specified outcomes enable one to consider the desirability or relative importance of the prescriptions with respect to one's own values and to decide if a given set of prescriptive principles is appropriate in a given situation.

The common goals of an instructional strategy are maximum effectiveness (i.e., the fewest errors and least time to perform), maximum efficiency (i.e., the least time to learn), maximum retention (i.e., continued low error rate and low performance time over time), maximum transfer (i.e., maximum effectiveness in new contexts), and maximum appeal (i.e., students perceive they are learning and seek additional opportunity to interact with the task or similar tasks).

Profile prescriptions are usually stated using the term *should*. This *should* implies that if the prescription is followed, one or more of the desired goals will be promoted. Instructional situations exist in which one or more of these common goals may be inappropriate, destructive of another goal, or impractical. The profile also provides prescriptions for these situations in which only some subset of the common goals is desired.

The following six sections describe how the profile works in each of the six areas of instructional quality shown in Figure 6.1. With the exception of the section on objective adequacy, all sections have three parts: (a) a description of concepts essential to the analysis of quality in that area, (b)

a description of instructional principles that provide the basis for the analysis of quality; and (c) an outline of the procedures for performing each analysis.

Purpose-Objective Consistency

The first set of profile diagnoses is concerned with determining whether or not each objective is one which we really want to teach. This justification of the objectives requires four steps (see Figure 6.3). First, analyze the purpose of the lesson to be taught and classify it on the basis of important characteristics. Second, analyze the objectives and classify them on the basis of the same characteristics. Third, compare the classification of each objective with the classification of the purpose. If they are not the same, the objective should be revised to be consistent with the purpose. Finally, make sure that no important objectives have been left out.

Concepts

The most crucial requirement for estimating the quality of instruction in this area is the nature of the characteristic(s) for classifying the purpose and objectives. After much consideration and experimentation, it was concluded that just one characteristic was of great importance: the level of behavior expected of the student, which is referred to as *task level*. To be justified, an objective must be at an appropriate task level for the purpose of the lesson.

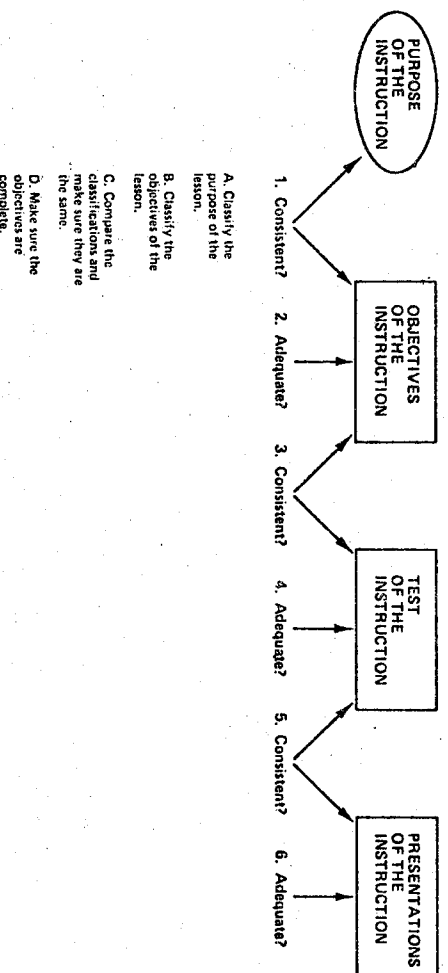


Figure 6.3 A summary of the aspects of instructional quality analyzed by the Instructional Quality Profile.

