Chapter 1 : Developing a Plan for Outcome Measurement

What is Your Intended Outcome? Details Written by Michael Angier Michael Angier here with some ideas for you on getting more of what you want. I've been creating and presenting quite a few teleseminars lately on a variety of topics.

Broken pottery, abundant and virtually free, served as a kind of scrap paper in contrast to papyrus , which was imported from Egypt as a high-quality writing surface, and was thus too costly to be disposable. Each year the Athenians were asked in the assembly whether they wished to hold an ostracism. The question was put in the sixth of the ten months used for state business under the democracy January or February in the modern Gregorian Calendar. If they voted "yes", then an ostracism would be held two months later. In a section of the agora set off and suitably barriered, [2] citizens gave the name of those they wished to be ostracised to a scribe, as many of them were illiterate, and they then scratched the name on pottery shards, and deposited them in urns. The presiding officials counted the ostraka submitted and sorted the names into separate piles. The person whose pile contained the most ostraka would be banished, provided that an additional criterion of a quorum was met, about which there are two principal sources: According to Plutarch , [3] the ostracism was considered valid if the total number of votes cast was at least 6, According to a fragment of Philochorus , [4] the "winner" of the ostracism must have obtained at least 6, votes. If he attempted to return, the penalty was death. Notably, the property of the man banished was not confiscated and there was no loss of status. After the ten years, he was allowed to return without stigma. Similarly, Cimon , ostracised in BC, was recalled during an emergency. By contrast, an Athenian trial needed the initiative of a particular citizen-prosecutor. While prosecution often led to a counterattack or was a counterattack itself , no such response was possible in the case of ostracism as responsibility lay with the polity as a whole. In contrast to a trial, ostracism generally reduced political tension rather than increased it. Further, the elite Athenians who suffered ostracism were rich or noble men who had connections or xenoi in the wider Greek world and who, unlike genuine exiles, were able to access their income in Attica from abroad. In Plutarch , following as he does the anti-democratic line common in elite sources, the fact that people might be recalled early appears to be another example of the inconsistency of majoritarianism that was characteristic of Athenian democracy. However, ten years of exile usually resolved whatever had prompted the expulsion. Ostracism was simply a pragmatic measure; the concept of serving out the full sentence did not apply as it was a preventative measure, not a punitive one. One curious window on the practicalities of ostracism comes from the cache of ostraka discovered dumped in a well next to the acropolis. This was not necessarily evidence of electoral fraud being no worse than modern voting instruction cards , but their being dumped in the well may suggest that their creators wished to hide them. If so, these ostraka provide an example of organized groups attempting to influence the outcome of ostracisms. The two-month gap between the first and second phases would have easily allowed for such a campaign. It first prevented the candidate for expulsion being chosen out of immediate anger, although an Athenian general such as Cimon would have not wanted to lose a battle the week before such a second vote. Further, in that time of waiting, ordinary Athenian citizens must have felt a certain power over the greatest members of their city; conversely, the most prominent citizens had an incentive to worry how their social inferiors regarded them. Period of operation[edit] Ostracism was not in use throughout the whole period of Athenian democracy circa â€" BC , but only occurred in the fifth century BC. In that case ostracism would have been in place from around BC. Over the course of the next sixty years some twelve or more individuals followed him. The list may not be complete, but there is good reason to believe the Athenians did not feel the need to eject someone in this way every year. The list of known ostracisms runs as follows: The known ostracisms seem to fall into three distinct phases: This suggests that ostracism fell in and out of fashion. There is no sign of its use after the Peloponnesian War , when democracy was restored after the oligarchic coup of the Thirty had collapsed in BC. However, while ostracism was not an active feature of the 4th-century version of democracy, it remained; the question was put to the assembly each year, but they did not wish to hold one. Purpose[edit] Because ostracism was carried out by thousands of people over many decades of an evolving political situation and culture, it did not serve a single monolithic purpose. Observations can be made about

the outcomes, as well as the initial purpose for which it was created. The first rash of people ostracised in the decade after the defeat of the first Persian invasion at Marathon in BC were all related or connected to the tyrant Peisistratos , who had controlled Athens for 36 years up to BC. After his son Hippias was deposed with Spartan help in BC, the family sought refuge with the Persians, and nearly twenty years later Hippias landed with their invasion force at Marathon. Tyranny and Persian aggression were paired threats facing the new democratic regime at Athens, and ostracism was used against both. Tyranny and democracy had arisen at Athens out of clashes between regional and factional groups organised around politicians, including Cleisthenes. As a reaction, in many of its features the democracy strove to reduce the role of factions as the focus of citizen loyalties. Ostracism, too, may have been intended to work in the same direction: In later decades when the threat of tyranny was remote, ostracism seems to have been used as a way to decide between radically opposed policies. For instance, in BC Thucydides, son of Melesias not to be confused with the historian of the same name was ostracised. By expelling Thucydides the Athenian people sent a clear message about the direction of Athenian policy. The motives of individual voting citizens cannot, of course, be known. Many of the surviving ostraka name people otherwise unattested. They may well be just someone the submitter disliked, and voted for in moment of private spite. As such, it may be seen as a secular, civic variant of Athenian curse tablets , studied in scholarly literature under the Latin name defixiones, where small dolls were wrapped in lead sheets written with curses and then buried, sometimes stuck through with nails for good measure. In one anecdote about Aristides, known as "the Just", who was ostracised in , an illiterate citizen, not recognising him, came up to ask him to write the name Aristides on his ostrakon. When Aristides asked why, the man replied it was because he was sick of hearing him being called "the Just". Ostracism rituals could have also been an attempt to dissuade people from covertly committing murder or assassination for intolerable or emerging individuals of power so as to create an open arena or outlet for those harboring primal frustrations and urges or political motivations. The solution for murder, in Gregory H. Fall into disuse[edit] The last ostracism, that of Hyperbolos in or near BC, is elaborately narrated by Plutarch in three separate lives: Hyperbolos is pictured urging the people to expel one of his rivals, but they, Nicias and Alcibiades , laying aside their own hostility for a moment, use their combined influence to have him ostracised instead. According to Plutarch, the people then become disgusted with ostracism and abandoned the procedure forever. In part ostracism lapsed as a procedure at the end of the fifth century because it was replaced by the graphe paranomon , a regular court action under which a much larger number of politicians might be targeted, instead of just one a year as with ostracism, and with greater severity. But it may already have come to seem like an anachronism as factional alliances organised around important men became increasingly less significant in the later period, and power was more specifically located in the interaction of the individual speaker with the power of the assembly and the courts. The threat to the democratic system in the late 5th century came not from tyranny but from oligarchic coups, threats of which became prominent after two brief seizures of power, in BC by "the Four Hundred" and in BC by "the Thirty" , which were not dependent on single powerful individuals. Ostracism was not an effective defence against the oligarchic threat and it was not so used. Analogues[edit] Other cities are known to have set up forms of ostracism on the Athenian model, namely Megara , Miletos , Argos and Syracuse, Sicily. In the last of these it was referred to as petalismos , because the names were written on olive leaves. Little is known about these institutions. Furthermore, pottery shards identified as ostraka have been found in Chersonesos Taurica , leading historians to the conclusion that a similar institution existed there as well, in spite of the silence of the ancient records on that count. Unlike under modern voting procedures, the Athenians did not have to adhere to a strict format for the inscribing of ostraka. Many extant ostraka show that it was possible to write expletives, short epigrams or cryptic injunctions beside the name of the candidate without invalidating the vote. Kallixenes, son of Aristonimos, "the traitor" Archen, "lover of foreigners".

Chapter 2 : Literary Terms and Definitions S

The end of an action is the intended outcome of the action and not a mere by-product of the action, and the end's value is thus the only reason for the action. So while it is true that not every end's value will justify any means, and even, perhaps, that there is no end whose value will justify every means, it is clear that nothing will justify a mans except an end's value.

Developing a Plan for Outcome Measurement Overview Welcome to the e-learning lesson on developing a plan for outcome measurement. The world of evaluation uses countless words and varying terminology to describe the process of evaluating outcomes. For the purpose of this e-learning, we will be discussing outcome measurement as a means of exploring the impacts or results of a program or initiative. An outcome is a measurable and observable change in individuals, groups, organizations, systems, or communities. Outcome measurement is a systematic way to assess the extent to which a program has achieved its intended results. The main questions addressed in outcome measurement are: What has changed in the lives of individuals, families, organizations, or the community as a result of this program? Has this program made a difference? How are the lives of program participants better as a result of the program? By the end of this lesson, you will be able to: Outcomes are the reason nonprofit organizations strive to deliver programs and build their capacity. Most importantly, however, proper evaluation techniques provide your organization with proof of their value to existing funders, potential funders, and the larger community. Whether this value is communicated in dollars or the number of individuals served, quantifiable performance measures are becoming important in the increasingly competitive social service industry. Successful outcome measurement hinges on a cohesive plan. Preparation and planning is a key part of the outcome measurement process. By the conclusion of this lesson you will be able to: Understand how to identify measurable outcomes and outcome chains Develop a logic model Identify performance indicators and performance targets to support the outcome measurement process CHAPTER 1: Getting Started Your outcome measurement efforts will benefit greatly from some planning at the front end. Before you jump head first into the outcome measurement process, convene stakeholders and organizational leadership to discuss the important questions. Where will you focus your efforts? What are you hoping to accomplish through the process? Who will be involved in the process? How will you engage members of your organization in the process? What is your timeline? What resources are at your disposal? Once you have answers to these questions, you can begin to look more closely at the specific outcomes and performance indicators that will drive the outcome measurement process. Narrow your scope and clarify your goals. Start slowly and learn from your experience. Pick one program or service as a starting point. Questions that will help you brainstorm where to begin include: Is a funder, board member, or staff person requesting that you look at a particular program? Do you have a new program with an unproven track record? Do you have an existing service with shaky performance? Do you have an effective program that you want to document as being so? Once you have decided what program to evaluate, explore the purpose for the outcome measurement processes. There are a variety of reasons that could motivate outcome measurement, including: The outcome measurement team will require a well-rounded group with varying skill sets and a devoted leader. As you begin to assemble your outcome measurement team, consider who on your staff possesses the following skills: Project coordination, including laying out tasks in a sequence, informing other staff of their roles and assignments, providing assistance to the team as they complete their parts of the evaluation process, and ensuring that the work is being done Service or program knowledge, including the ability to identify the relationship between the activities being provided and the intended impacts and an understanding of the types of outcomes your program could achieve Computer skills, including expertise in formatting surveys and other data collection instruments, creating spreadsheets or databases, and entering data The outcome measurement process can often feel intimidating or threatening to program staff, as outcome measurement is sometimes a response to poor performance or part of a corrective action plan. Outcome measurement is an investment. Developing an outcome measurement plan will require an investment of time and resources. For organizations first learning outcome measurement, it may take as long as three years to develop a comprehensive outcome

measurement system. Timing is also important to funders. Keep in mind that there are times when conducting outcome measurement may not be a good idea. If your organization is in crisis or severe financial trouble, outcome measurement cannot be a priority. In addition to investing time, outcome measurement may require an investment of other resources, including: Staff labor Communication e. As a nonprofit organization, your intended outcomes focus on the impacts or changes that your clients experience as a result of your programs and services. When crafting outcomes, consider the who, what, and how of the initiative. Who will be impacted by the initiative? What will change as a result of the initiative, and how will it change? When identifying outcomes, it can be helpful to organize your thoughts in the form of an outcome chain that logically links your services to client learning, behavior, and, eventually, results. Outcome statements capture the "who," "what," and "how. When crafting an outcome statement, consider the details of the initiative you are providing, the recipient of that service or program, and the intended impact of that service on your target recipients. For instance, a youth-serving nonprofit might identify the following outcome statements in relation to their afterschool programming: Increased school engagement for participating students Reduced high-risk behavior for participating students Increased high school graduation rates for participating students Outcome chains document correlative relationships. Outcome chains can help organize your thinking about what you hope to achieve. They require you to put your program theory to work and articulate how your activities will bring about the impacts in the organizations with whom you are working. Outcome chains create a logical progression of the short-term, intermediate, and long-term outcomes that lead to your goals. Consider the example of a large nonprofit that provides training to smaller nonprofit organizations. The provision of training can create the following chain, linking reactions, learning, behavior, and results: Not all organizations can and will measure all the different outcomes noted in an outcome chain. Consider the example of the outcome chain above. Your organization may not have the tools and resources to evaluate outcomes as they relate to reaction, learning, behavior, and results. If your circumstances do not allow you to evaluate all areas, focus on the earlier outcomes noted in the outcome chain. There is no point in measuring for results if you cannot point to the series of outcomes that impacted those results. Develop realistic, informed outcomes. When crafting outcomes, consider the following: Is it within your control to influence these outcomes? Are your outcomes realistic and attainable? Are your outcomes achievable within funding and reporting periods? Are your outcomes written as change statementsâ€"will things increase, decrease, or stay the same? Have you moved beyond client satisfaction in your outcomes? Is there a logical sequence among your short-term, intermediate, and long-term outcomes? Logic Models and Outcome Measurement An organization should have a well-developed logic model in place before they finalize a comprehensive outcome measurement plan. A basic logic model documents inputs or resources, activities, outputs, and short-term, intermediate, and long-term outcomes. Inputs or resources are the assets that an organization is prepared to invest to support or implement a program, including things like money, staff, and equipment. Activities capture the methodologies an organization plans to use in order to implement a project, while outputs describe activities in more finite, numerical terms such as the units of service provided. Ask the right questions. What inputs or ingredients do you need to operate your program? How large a budget? What will you do? What methods will you use to deliver your program or activities? What content areas will you cover? What will you provide? What will be the tangible products or units of your program or activity? How many clients will you serve? What impact will your program or activities have on your clients? What is reasonable to expect in the way of change? Logic models capture underlying assumptions and program theory. This connection between the activities you provide and the outcomes you hope to accomplish is known as the program theory; it articulates the assumptions about the ability of certain activities to drive particular changes. Many nonprofit providers use logic models as a tool to reflect the program theory underlying their programs. Logic models document relationships. While not all logic models look the same, they all serve the same purpose: Download a sample logic model template and test your understanding of the different elements of a logic model using the activity on the right. Developing Performance Indicators The next step in putting together an effective outcome measurement plan focuses on deciding how you are going to make your intended outcomes measurable by defining a set of performance measures or indicators. Because outcomes can be broad in nature and somewhat

vague, performance indicators serve as a bridge, connecting intended outcomes and the actual data collection process. Identifying performance indicators and creating targets for performance help your organization to determine whether you have, in fact, had a measurable impact on your clients and reached your programmatic goals. Indicators are specific and observable.

Chapter 3 : Intended Outcomes

"The phrase "intended outcome" is what the organization intends to achieve by implementing its environmental management system. The minimal intended outcomes include enhancement of environmental performance, fulfilment of compliance obligations and achievement of environmental objectives.

Resources and Inputs Key resources and inputs include leadership, political commitment, and strategic planning that elevate childhood obesity prevention to a high priority. Adequate and sustained funding through government appropriations and philanthropic funding and capacity development are needed to initiate and sustain effective obesity prevention efforts. Evaluation of these two sets of factors can provide information about the adequacy of the leadership and the resources committed to a specific childhood obesity prevention initiative Chapter 4. An essential implication of this framework is that rhetoric is an inadequate response. Announcements or statements made by leaders in all sectors should be accompanied by resource allocation and policy and programmatic actions committed to reversing the childhood obesity epidemic. Evidence of planning and adequate resource allocation and appropriations by government leaders, philanthropic boards, senior corporate managers, and shareholders is needed. At the national level, an example of both resource allocation and leadership is the Alliance for a Healthier Generation, a joint initiative of the William J. The purpose of this program is to foster healthy environments that support efforts to reduce obesity in school-aged children and youth Alliance for a Healthier Generation, a. In May , the Alliance announced a new initiative in collaboration with industry representativesâ€"including Cadbury Schweppes, The Coca-Cola Company, PepsiCo, and the major trade association that represents these companies, the American Beverage Associationâ€"to establish new guidelines to limit portion sizes; prohibit the sale of sweetened beverages and high-calorie, low-nutrient foods; and offer calorie-controlled servings of beverages to children and adolescents in the school environment. Page 46 Share Cite Suggested Citation: Progress in Preventing Childhood Obesity: How Do We Measure Up?. The National Academies Press. These objectives are both quantifiable and measurable, thus making it feasible to track progress. However, the complexity of evaluating multiple ongoing initiatives is acknowledged. In contexts such as these, in which local programs are implemented while a larger-scale nationwide intervention is occurring, there may be parallel and reinforcing activities that present challenges in assessing the relative contribution of each intervention. A systems approach to health promotion and childhood obesity prevention offers the opportunity to develop and evaluate interventions in the context of the multiple ongoing efforts Green and Glasgow, ; Midgley, However, evaluation methods of this approach are currently not well developed Best et al. Methodological work in the evaluation of systemic initiatives in public education may offer some good starting points for example, Ruiz-Primo et al. Nevertheless, national leadership and support should be acknowledged and documented as a strategy that can support and reinforce the goals of local efforts. Another example of leadership and resource allocation is the Healthy Carolinians Microgrants program. Fawcett and colleagues have created a simple procedure that assists local program evaluators in documenting changes in programs, policies, and practices that are stimulated in part by organized community-based prevention strategies. The ability to document these events, the methods of which are accessible online Fawcett et al. Once the relevant events and accomplishments are documented, they can be plotted on a timeline to demonstrate the progress of the overall effort. It should be noted, however, that these events related to the observed changes in communities are associative rather than causative Figure Strategies and Actions As depicted in Figure , a variety of strategies and actions are needed to effectively use the resources and inputs for childhood obesity prevention Page 47 Share Cite Suggested Citation: Strategies are the concerted plans for action that when implemented through changes such as new product development or the enactment of legislation on nutritional standards for school foods and beverages result in outcomes that can be assessed. Evaluating the extent to which strategies are being developed e. The interactions among complex social, economic, and cultural factors, combined with the varying availability of resources, require that interventions should be adapted to meet the particular needs, circumstances, or contexts of a community or setting. In the absence of generalizable solutions, effective planned childhood obesity prevention efforts

will consist of a variety of potential strategies and actions based on an assessment of local needs, assets, conditions, and available resources. On the basis of the results of these assessments, obesity prevention program planners can draw from an array of Page 48 Share Cite Suggested Citation: All elements of the framework are amenable to evaluation. Through a grant awarded by the Kansas Coordinated School Health Program, the Goddard School District which is located in West Wichita, Sedgwick County, and which includes three elementary schools, one intermediate school, two middle schools, and one high school offered health promotion activities and resources Kansas State Department of Education, ; Greg Kalina, Coordinator of the Goddard School District Nutrition Program, personal communication, April 24, with the dual goal of benefiting both students and school staff: A mapped walking course on elementary school playgrounds and inside school hallways; Monday morning stretch exercises led by trained teachers on closed-circuit television at the intermediate school; The provision of pedometers and walk-run and marathon events for students, faculty, staff, and community residents; Nutritious snack options at staff and district committee meetings and the introduction of low-calorie and high nutrient snack options in schools; Two annual teacher in-service programs on healthful nutrition choices and physical fitness; A fitness center for staff, established with equipment donated by staff members and expanded with locally raised funds; and Training for staff on the proper use of the fitness center equipment. Both formative and process evaluations can assist with the assessment of the quality of the strategies and actions used at an early phase of the implementation of interventions. These types of evaluations can reveal in- 7 A coalition is an organized group of people in a community working toward a common goal. A coalition can have individual, group, institutional, community, and public policy goals. Coordination refers to the process of seeking concurrence from one or more groups, organizations, or agencies regarding a proposal or an activity for which they share some responsibility and that may result in contributions from each of these entities. Collaboration is defined as a cooperative effort between and among groups of people e. Collaboration can range from informal ad hoc activities to more planned, organized, and formalized ways of working together. Page 49 Share Cite Suggested Citation: The results attained through process evaluation not only will provide information that enables program planners to make needed adjustments in the program during its formative stages but also will yield critical insights about the intervention after outcomes data are available. An example from West Virginia illustrates how attention to strategies and actions the third column of the evaluation framework in Figure provides support to local-level obesity prevention program activities. The Partnership for a Healthy West Virginia consists of representatives from education, health care, nonprofit and faith-based organizations, business, and state government who developed a 3-year statewide action plan to address obesity. One key component of the action plan was to provide policy recommendations to the West Virginia governor and legislature. The proposal was strategically built on previously successful education and advocacy efforts under the leadership and organizational credibility of the West Virginia Action for Healthy Kids Team, the West Virginia State Medical Association, and the American Heart Association. Two key policy recommendations were proposed: On the basis of the efforts of this state coalition, the governor introduced and supported the Healthy West Virginia Act of Both policy recommendations policy implementation is a structural outcome in the fourth column of the evaluation framework have been included in the new law HWVA, The challenge of tracking the implementation of the policies is being addressed by one of the partners, the State Department of Education. The Office of Healthy Schools has the responsibility for tracking three key areas:

Chapter 4 : Ostracism - Wikipedia

A sound, gesture, image, or object that represents something else is known as a(n) a. communication device. b. new technology. c. emoticon. d. symbol.

Explain how to do something or how something happens. Does any portion of the essay include concrete directions about a certain process? Does it evaluate or analyze two or more people, places, processes, events, or things? Does it explain why something happened? How does the writer portray herself? What choices does she make that influence her position? IRONY An expression or utterance marked by deliberate contrast between apparent and intended meaning, often humorous Does the writer really support her own assertions? Does she seem to be claiming the opposite you expect her to claim? PARADOX Reveals a kind of truth which at first seems contradictory; Red wine is both good and bad for us Do any contradictions used in the essay contain some grain of truth? Does the writer seem to assert that a thing has meaning outside of the obvious? Do any contradictions used in the essay contain some grain of truth? SARCASM Using an object or action that means something more than its literal meaning; A skull and crossbones symbolize death Does the writer seem to assert that a thing has meaning outside of the obvious? Persuasive Appeals[edit] The persuasive appeals, or what could also be known as the rhetorical triangle, were developed by Aristotle to ensure effective communication, and are a cornerstone within the field of Rhetoric and Writing. It is common to see the three persuasive appeals depicted as the points of a triangle because like the points of triangle they each play a role in the ability to hold the message together. Aristotle was a Greek philosopher that believed all three of these rhetorical appeals were needed to effectively communicate an intended message to a pre-determined audience. Logos, Ethos, and Pathos; they are discussed in detail throughout the remainder of this section. Deductive reasoning begins with a generalization and then applies it to a specific case. The generalization you start with must be based on a sufficient amount of reliable evidence. Inductive reasoning takes a specific representative case, or facts, and then draws generalizations or conclusions from them. Inductive reasoning must be based on a sufficient amount of reliable evidence. In other words, the facts you draw on must fairly represent the larger situation or population. Both deductive and inductive reasoning are discussed more in depth further down on this page. Say that you are writing a paper on immigration and you say "55, illegal immigrants entered this country last year, of those, only 23, did it legally. Although saying 55, immigrants were "illegal" makes for an impressive statistic, it is apparently not correct if you admit that 23, of these people immigrated legally. The actual number of illegal immigrants would then be only 32,, a significantly lower number. The purpose of this example is to demonstrate how having logical progression to an argument is essential in effectively communicating your intended message. ETHOS Ethos is the appeal to ethics, the use of authority to persuade an audience to believe in their character. And while ethos is called an ethical appeal, be careful not to confuse it solely with ethics; it encompasses a large number of different things which can include what a person wears, says, the words they use, their tone, their credentials, their experience, their charge over the audience, verbal and nonverbal behavior, criminal records, etc. Ethos gives the author credibility. It is important to build credibility with your audience because without it, readers are less inclined to trust you or accept the argument presented to them. Using credible sources is one method of building credibility. A sure way to damage your ethos is by attacking or insulting an opponent or opposing viewpoint. The most effective ethos should develop from what is said, whether it is in spoken or written form. The most persuasive rhetoricians are the ones that understand this concept. To elaborate, the construction of authority is reflected in how the rhetorician presents herself, what diction she uses, how she phrases her ideas, what other authorities she refers to, how she composes herself under stress, her experience within the context of her message, her personal or academic background, and more. In academia, ethos can be constructed not only by diction, tone, phrasing, and the like, but by what the rhetorician knows. A works cited page reflects this. And if those sources are relevant, reputable, and well regarded, the author has just benefited from that association. At the same time, authors want to make sure they properly introduce their sources within their writing to establish the authority they are drawing from. Pathetic appeals the use of pathos are characterized by evocative imagery, description, visuals,

and the like to create within the reader or listener a sense of emotion: Pathos is often easily recognizable because audiences tend to know when what they hear or read swells emotion within their hearts and minds. Both use emotion to make their point, but the fallacy diverts the audience from the issue to the self while the appeal emphasizes the impact of the issue. Although argument emphasizes reason, there is usually a place for emotion as well. Emotional appeals can use sources such as interviews and individual stories to paint a moving picture of reality, or to illuminate the truth. For example, telling the story of a specific child who has been abused may make for a more persuasive argument than simply stating the number of children abused each year. The story provides the numbers with a human face. However, a writer must be careful not to employ emotional appeals which distract from the crux of the debate, argument, or point trying to be made. A good example of pathos is in public services announcements. Some of the most popular include drug warnings: A woman is at the stove in the kitchen with a skillet. Audiences are not meant to pity these individuals; rather, the audience is meant to reel in horror at the destruction meth can cause to a person in a short amount of time. In this case, horror or shock is the emotional tool rhetoric wields to persuade. Either of the pictures alone would not be rhetorically effective, it is only by placing them together that the audience is passionately moved. It begins with what is known as a "major premise," adds a "minor premise," and attempts to reach a conclusion. A major premise is a statement that names something about a large group, a minor premise takes a single member, and the conclusion attempts to prove that because this single member is a part of the larger group, they must also have the trait named in the original statement. However, beware the logical fallacy. Though it may be true that in certain cultures men are, on average, taller than women, certainly this is not always the case. Being that our major premise is not altogether true, we can now say that this argument is flawed. Furthermore, we might ask what our definition of "tall" is. Tall is different if we are talking about the average population, or basketball players. Also, what is a man? Do transgendered individuals count? We see that the problem becomes far more complex the more we look into it. This is mildly misleading. What is meant by this is that an inductive logical argument begins with a firm affirmation of truth, a conclusive statement. By getting the audience to agree with this statement, the argument moves to the next "logical" step. It proceeds in this manner until the argument has led you from one seemingly reasonable conclusion to another that you may not have originally agreed with. Take the following as an example. The human soul is inherently free. This is its very nature. We are confined to our mortal, earthly bodies, but our souls must be kept free, or the nature of the soul is entirely negated. If one chooses to believe in a soul, they can only believe that it embraces this vague idea of freedom. At conception, a child is given a soul. Some may argue that it is not until birth, but if those very same persons are pro-life, they confuse their arguments. Thus, if someone is pro-life, and believes in a soul, they must believe in the freedom of that soul, and also accept that the soul is granted upon conception. A soul cannot die. By the same means by which it is free over the body, a soul claims immortality while the body decomposes and is ruined. To deny that a soul is immortal is again to deny the very essence of a soul. Thus, if someone is pro-life, and believes in a soul, they must believe in the freedom of that soul, the immortality of the soul, and also accept that the soul is granted upon conception. A soul cannot be born. It is immortal and cannot die, it is not earthly, it forever exists, and cannot be born. She was not born. She existed previously, as Milton writes the Son in Paradise Lost. Thus, if someone is pro-life, and believes in a soul, and does not accept reincarnation, they must believe in the freedom of that soul, the immortality of the soul that is always and forever which cannot be born and cannot die , and also accept that the soul is granted upon conception. A soul being always an essence, and not being able to be reincarnated, can only exist outside of the body, somewhere, until the act of conception occurs. That soul must then be placed in the body that was forever intended to receive it, as it belongs nowhere else. The soul is fated to that one body. Thus, if someone is pro-life, and believes in a soul, and does not accept reincarnation, namely a practicing Catholic, they must also believe in the freedom of the soul, and in the concept of fate. Fate, however, completely opposes the idea of freedom. One cannot then believe in a soul, for it immediately enforces a belief if fate which directly negates the belief in the soul. If our actions are written in a Divine plan, we are not free to make our own choices. Every action has been scripted. Do not worry, it must be that you were meant to read this. A sample inductive argument by Ben Doberstein. Having seen this, some might say

that the argument defeats Catholicism from an atheist standpoint. Others might find that it argues for the secularization of religion. Still, there are ways in which it supports Catholicism at the same time. Though the argument might seem as if it is disagreeing with the Catholic religion, and some would agree that it is, we must always be looking for the logical fallacy. Upon closer inspection, you may notice that all this argument truly does, in one reading of the text, is to explain the complexity of God through the mind of a human.

In "Harrison Bergeron," Vonnegut suggests that total equality is not an ideal worth striving for, as many people believe, but a mistaken goal that is dangerous in both execution and outcome. To achieve physical and mental equality among all Americans, the government in Vonnegut's story tortures its citizens.

The divine truth was at times revealed to the mystic in visions, auditions, and dreams, in colours and sounds, but to convey these nonrational and ineffable experiences to others the mystic had to rely upon such terminology of worldly experience as thatâ€¦ The nature of religious symbols and symbolization The word symbol comes from the Greek symbolon, which means contract, token, insignia, and a means of identification. Parties to a contract, allies, guests, and their host could identify each other with the help of the parts of the symbolon. In its original meaning the symbol represented and communicated a coherent greater whole by means of a part. The part, as a sort of certificate, guaranteed the presence of the whole and, as a concise meaningful formula, indicated the larger context. The symbol is based, therefore, on the principle of complementation. The symbol object, picture, sign, word, and gesture require the association of certain conscious ideas in order to fully express what is meant by them. To this extent it has both an esoteric and an exoteric, or a veiling and a revealing, function. The discovery of its meaning presupposes a certain amount of active cooperation. As a rule, it is based on the convention of a group that agrees upon its meaning. Concepts of symbolization In the historical development and present use of the concepts of symbolization, a variety of categories and relationships must necessarily be differentiated. Rational, scientific-technical symbols have assumed an ever increasing importance in modern science and technology. They serve partly to codify and partly to indicate, abbreviate, and make intelligible the various mathematical e. It functions in a manner similar to that of the religious symbol by associating a particular meaning with a particular sign. The rationalization of symbols and symbolical complexes as well as the rationalization of myth have been in evidence at least since the Renaissance. Sailko The concept of the religious symbol also embraces an abundantly wide variety of types and meanings. Allegory , personifications, figures, analogies , metaphors , parables, pictures or, more exactly, pictorial representations of ideas , signs, emblems as individually conceived, artificial symbols with an added verbal meaning, and attributes as a mark used to distinguish certain persons all are formal, historical, literary, and artificial categories of the symbolical. The symbol religious and other is intended primarily for the circle of the initiated and involves the acknowledgment of the experience that it expresses. The symbol is not, however, kept hidden in meaning; to some extent, it even has a revelatory character i. It indicates the need for communication and yet conceals the details and innermost aspects of its contents. Varieties and meanings associated with the term symbol Different forms and levels of the experience of and relationship to reality both sacred and profane are linked with the concepts of symbol, sign , and picture. The function of the symbol is to represent a reality or a truth and to reveal them either instantaneously or gradually. The relationship of the symbol to a reality is conceived of as somewhat direct and intimate and also as somewhat indirect and distant. The symbol is sometimes identified with the reality that it represents and sometimes regarded as a pure transparency of it. The doctrine of the eucharistic sacramental presence of Christ in the teachings of Eastern Orthodoxy , Roman Catholicism , and the Protestant Reformers concretely demonstrate the various and extensive levels of symbolical understandings. The concept of the symbol, however, includes all these interpretations. Archivo Mas, Barcelona Furthermore, a symbol in its intermediary function has aspects of epistemology theory of knowing and ontology theory of being. As a means of knowledge, it operates in a characteristically dialectical process of veiling and revealing truths. It fulfills an interpretative function in the process of effectively apprehending and comprehending religious experience. In doing so, the word, or symbolâ€"with its meaning, contextual use, relationship to other types of religious expression, and interpretative connection with the various forms of sign, picture, gesture, and soundâ€"plays an important part in the process of symbolical perception and reflection. Although the symbol is an abbreviation, as a means of communication it brings aboutâ€"through its connection with the object of religion and with the world of the transcendentâ€"not only an interpretative knowledge of the world and a

conferral or comparison of meaning to life but also a means of access to the sacred reality. It may possibly even lead to a fusion, or union of some sort, with the divine. Here, the concept of analogy is important; the symbol functions in these ways because it has an analogous cognitional as well as existential relationship to that which it signifies. The symbolic process To trace the origin, development, and differentiation of a symbol is a complicated process. Almost every symbol and picture in religion is at first either directly or indirectly connected with the sense impressions and objects of the human environment. Many are derived from the objects of nature, and others are artificially constructed in a process of intuitive perception, emotional experience, or rational reflection. In most cases, the constructions are again related to objects in the world of sense perception. A tendency toward simplification, abbreviation into signs, and abstraction from sense objects is quite evident, as well as a tendency to concentrate several processes into a single symbol. A good example of this last tendency may be seen in ancient Christian portrayals of the triumphant cross before a background of a star-filled heaven that appear in the apses of many basilican churches. In these representations the Crucifixion , Resurrection , Ascension , exaltation, and Transfiguration of Christ are joined to apocalyptic concepts centring on sudden interventions by God into history inherent in the doctrine of the Last Judgment. An excellent example of such an apse mosaic is to be found in the S. Apollinare in Classe , near Ravenna in Italy. On the other hand, there is a tendency to accumulate, combine, multiply, and differentiate symbolical statements for the same thought or circumstance, as seen, for example, on the sarcophagi stone coffins of late Christian antiquityâ€"especially in Ravenna. Here, the same idea is symbolically expressed in various mannersâ€"e. The forms and figures of symbolical thought can change into exaggerations and rank growths, however, and lead to transformations and hybridsâ€"figures with several heads, faces, or handsâ€"as exemplified in the statues and pictorial representations of the deities of India e. The meaning of individual symbols can change and even be perverted. The lamb that in ancient Christian art symbolizes Christ may also symbolize the Apostles or humankind in general. The dove may symbolize the Holy Spirit or the human soul. The wheel or circle can symbolize the universe, the sun, or even the underworld. The encyclopaedic Christian allegorism symbolism of the Middle Ages offers many interesting examples, as noted in the writings of St. Isidore of Sevilla , a 6th- to 7th-century Spanish theologian, and Rabanus Maurus , a 9th-century German abbot and encyclopaedist. Chandra The foundations of the symbolization process lie in the areas of the conscious and the unconscious , of experience and thought, and of sense perception, intuition , and imagination. From these arises the structure of religious symbolism. Sensation and physiological and psychological processes participate in the formation of the symbol structure. Extraordinary religious experiences and conditions, visions, ecstasy, and religious delirium brought about by intoxication, hallucinogenics, or drugs that produce euphoria and changes in consciousness must also be taken into consideration. The symbol itself, however, is intended as an objective concentration of experiences of the transcendent world and not as a subjective construction of a personally creative process. In cultic and mystical visions and trances, the forms and processes of the external world and of the religious tradition are condensed and combined with mythical images and historical events and take on a life of their own. The process of rational conceptualization and structuralization, however, also plays a part in the origin and development of many symbols. There is a correlation between sense perception, imagination, and the work of the intellect. Symbols in the religious consciousness The formation of religious symbols that occur when unconscious ideas are aroused or when a process of consciousness occurs is principally a matter of religious experience. Such symbols usually become intellectual acquisitions, and, as religious concepts are further elaborated upon, the symbols may even finally become subjects of major theological questions. In Christian theology, for example, summaries of dogmatic statements of faith are called symbols e. This particular use of the term symbol is exceptional, however. In the development of the symbol, religious experience, understanding, and logic are all connected, but each places different accents on the individual categories and species of symbol. Occasionally, religion is regarded as the origin and the product of certain established or fundamental symbols. In such cases the outcome of the process of the structuralization of religious consciousness would then be the establishment of a symbol that is generally applicable to a particular historical species of religion. Conversely, one could ask whether the experience and establishment of an individual or collective symbol by a creative personality or a

community is not itself the establishment of a religion. If so, the classical symbol that was developed at the time of the foundation of any one particular religion would then be constitutive for its origin and further development e. It plays a fundamental and continual part in the further growing of such religions and in the mental horizons of their followers. The relation of the symbol and the sacred Symbols as the incarnate presence of the sacred or holy Whatever the experience of reality that lies behind the religious symbol may be, it is above all the experience of the sacred or holy, which belongs essentially to any concept of religion. The historical study of religions has shown that it is fundamentally the symbol that mediates and forms for the religious consciousness the reality and the claim of the holy. Religion is a system of relationships, a system of reciprocal challenges and responses, the principal correspondents of which are the sacred or holy and humanity. Though there are many forms of experience in which the sacred or holy is distinctly known and felt, the experience is often acquired in worship , in which this system of relationships is realized and continually renewed and in which the sacred or holy supposedly makes itself present. The details of worship serve to objectify and regulate in a perceptual and material manner the presupposed presence of the sacred or holy, of which the symbol and the picture are intended to be its materialization. In its material manifestation the sacred or holy is adapted to the perceptual and conceptual faculties of human beings. Viewed from the aspect of its holiness, the symbol originates in a process of mediation and revelation , and every encounter with it is supposed to bring about a renewed actualization and a continual remembrance of this revelation. The actualization of the presence of the holy by means of symbolic representation can, in extreme cases, lead to an identification of the physical manifestations with the spiritual power symbolized in them. The symbol, or at least an aspect of it, is then viewed as the incarnated presence of the holy. The sacred stone, animal, plant, and drum and the totem symbol or the picture of ancestors all represent the sacred or holy and guarantee its presence and efficacy. The origin of many such symbols clearly indicates the identity that was presumed to have existed between the symbol and the sacred or holy. The Greek god Dionysus as a bull, the Greek goddess Demeter as an ear of corn, the Roman god Jupiter as a stone, the Syrian god Tammuz-Adonis as a plant, and the Egyptian god Horus as a falcon all are viewed as manifestations of the deities that were originally identified with these respective objects of nature. Symbols as indicators of the sacred or holy The symbol is understood to have a referential character. It refers to the reality of the sacred or holy that is somewhat and somehow present. When the symbol is an indicator of the sacred or holy, a certain distance exists between them, and there is no claim that the two are identical. Short of actual identification, various degrees of intensity exist between the symbol and the spiritual reality of the sacred or holy. The symbol is a transparency, a signal, and a sign leading to the sacred or holy. Symbols of sacred time and space The symbolical forms of representation of the sacred or holy are to be understood as references to or transparencies of the sacred or holy. The sacred manifests itself in time and space, so that time and space themselves become diaphanous indications of the holy. The holy place—a shrine, forest grove, temple, church, or other area of worship—is symbolically marked off as a sacred area. The signs, such as a stake, post, or pillar, that delimit the area themselves are endowed with sacred symbolic meanings, which often can be noted by their particular designs. The ground plan of the sacred building and its orientation, walls, roof, and arches are all utilized to symbolize the sacred or holy. Prehistoric places of worship—e. Sacred places are often pictorial reflections of the universe and its design and partake of its holiness. In many instances shoes may not be worn on holy ground e. Time as a transparent symbol of the sacred may be represented by means of the cycle of the sacred year and its high points—e. Or the lapse of time may be represented in signs and pictures. Time itself, its course, division, and fixed points, is both an allusion and the bearer and mediator of the sacred or holy. Collection of The Newark Museum, purchase Ceremonial and ritualistic objects as indicators or bearers of the sacred or holy Liturgical and ceremonial objects can also indicate or lead to the sacred or holy. Not only holy pictures and symbols e. Liturgical vestments and masks are intended to transform the wearer, to remove him from the realm of the this-worldly, and to adapt him to the sphere of the sacred or holy; they help him to come into contact with the divine—for example, by obscuring his sexual characteristics.

Chapter 6 : Rhetoric and Composition/Rhetorical Analysis - Wikibooks, open books for an open world

Objectives content and intended outcomes of learning activities Essay Sample. Explain the objectives, content and intended outcomes of learning activities as agreed with the teacher In order to fulfil my role in supporting the teacher and learning activities I need to be clear on what learning objective is and how the teacher would like this to be achieved.

We will continue to offer our regular programs and services from our temporary offices and workshop locations. This tip sheet outlines key principles to consider when creating learning outcomes and includes a variety of examples. Present various human resource challenges and explore the implications for business decisions Offer students the opportunity to participate in open dialog about the impact of technology on society Cover the following topics: They can prompt us to ask, "What assignment or learning activity will help my students reach the intended learning outcomes of the course? Characteristics of effective learning outcomes To make your assessment decisions easier, ensure that these three principles are represented in the outcomes for your course. Specificity There is a fine balance between too generic and overly specific. Consider an outcome related to writing: At the same time, it is possible to be too specific: Again, what do you actually want students to be able to do? Could they achieve the intended outcome if the essay were based on a different book? Is the 5-page essay a critical component of assessment? Are there other ways to accomplish the writing task other than through an essay? To improve this outcome statement, consider what your students need to achieve in the course. Are they expected to simply comprehend the text or do they need to analyze it? Perhaps the focus is on the skill of developing an argument in an essay and the text to be analysed is a secondary component. Here is a more specific outcome that emphasises analysis rather than writing: Specific learning outcomes help students to make sense of the kinds of learning they need to demonstrate in a course as well as help you to streamline your course design. Attainability An attainable outcome describes a realistic expectation of your students. For example, first-year accounting students would not be required to analyze a complex tax case study because they would not have the needed prerequisite knowledge. Similarly, engineering or math students would not study differential equations before they have completed first-year calculus. In other disciplines, the content might not change as much as the required learning activity. It is valuable to understand where your course fits into the broader curriculum to assist with identifying what your students can reasonably achieve. Bloom and his colleagues divided learning into three domains: Today, we expand psychomotor to include a broad range of skills e. In the cognitive domain, for example, there are six levels: The resulting cognitive domain hierarchy is presented in Table 1.

The final domain of measurement is the evaluation of the outcomes that occur as a result of your training program. This level of measurement determines the training program's effectiveness, that is, it answers the.

Background[edit] As part of the "First New Deal," the NRA was based on the premise that the Great Depression was caused by market instability and that government intervention was necessary to balance the interests of farmers, business and labor. The NIRA, which created the NRA, declared that codes of fair competition should be developed through public hearings, and gave the Administration the power to develop voluntary agreements with industries regarding work hours, pay rates, and price fixing. New Dealers who were part of the administration of President Franklin D. Roosevelt saw the close analogy with the earlier crisis handling the economics of World War I. They brought ideas and experience from the government controls and spending of â€" The challenge of this law is whether we can sink selfish interest and present a solid front against a common peril. Johnson on the cover of Time Magazine in Johnson , a retired United States Army general and a successful businessman. Johnson saw the NRA as a national crusade designed to restore employment and regenerate industry. Johnson called on every business establishment in the nation to accept a stopgap "blanket code": Johnson and Roosevelt contended that the "blanket code" would raise consumer purchasing power and increase employment. To mobilize political support for the NRA, Johnson launched the "NRA Blue Eagle " publicity campaign to boost his bargaining strength to negotiate the codes with business and labor. At this moment in time from the early days of the New Deal, it is difficult to recapture, even in imagination, the heady enthusiasm among a goodly number of intellectuals for a government planned economy. So far as can now be told, they believed that a bright new day was dawning, that national planning would result in an organically integrated economy in which everyone would joyfully work for the common good, and that American society would be freed at last from those antagonisms arising, as General Hugh Johnson put it, from "the murderous doctrine of savage and wolfish individualism, looking to dog-eat-dog and devil take the hindmost. Lewis and an unstable truce in the Pennsylvania coal fields. The NRA tried to get the principals to compromise with a national code for a decentralized industry in which many companies were anti-union, sought to keep wage differentials, and tried to escape the collective bargaining provisions of section 7A. Agreement among the parties was finally reached only after the NRA threatened that it would impose a code. The code did not establish price stabilization, nor did it resolve questions of industrial self-government versus governmental supervision or of centralization versus local autonomy, but it made dramatic changes in abolishing child labor, eliminating the compulsory scrip wages and company store, and establishing fair trade practices. It paved the way for an important wage settlement. Chairman Williams told them plainly that, unless they could prove it would damage business, NRA was going to put an end to price control. Williams said, "Greater productivity and employment would result if greater price flexibility were attained. A fixed price above cost has proved a lifesaver to more than one inefficient producer. Sloan, head of the Cotton Textile Code Authority: Maximum hours and minimum wage provisions, useful and necessary as they are in themselves, do not prevent price demoralization. While putting the units of an industry on a fair competitive level insofar as labor costs are concerned, they do not prevent destructive price cutting in the sale of commodities produced, any more than a fixed price of material or other element of cost would prevent it. Destructive competition at the expense of employees is lessened, but it is left in full swing against the employer himself and the economic soundness of his enterprise But if the partnership of industry with Government which was invoked by the President were terminated as we believe it will not be , then the spirit of cooperation, which is one of the best fruits of the NRA equipment, could not survive. The board issued three reports highly critical of the NRA from the perspective of small business, charging the NRA with fostering cartels. The Darrow board, influenced by Justice Louis D. Brandeis , wanted instead to promote competitive capitalism. Regarding the controversial NRA, the League was ambivalent. Jouett Shouse , the League president, commented that "the NRA has indulged in unwarranted excesses of attempted regulation"; on the other, he added that "in many regards [the NRA] has served a useful purpose. In a remarkably short

time, the NRA won agreements from almost every major industry in the nation. According to some conservative economists, the NRA increased the cost of doing business by forty percent. There is no choice presented to American business between intelligently planned and uncontrolled industrial operations and a return to the gold-plated anarchy that masqueraded as "rugged individualism. Unless industry is sufficiently socialized by its private owners and managers so that great essential industries are operated under public obligation appropriate to the public interest in them, the advance of political control over private industry is inevitable. Segments of the industry attempted to use the NRA codes to solve these new problems and stabilize the tire market, but the tire manufacturing and tire retailing codes were patent failures. Instead of leading to cartelization and higher prices, which is what most scholars assume the NRA codes did, the tire industry codes led to even more fragmentation and price cutting. The argument boils down to assumptions that progressives at the NRA allowed majority coalitions of small, high-cost firms to impose codes in heterogeneous industries, and that these codes were designed by the high-cost firms under an ultimately erroneous belief that they would be enforced by the NRA. Women activists used the New Deal opportunity to gain a national forum. General Secretary Lucy Randolph Mason and her league relentlessly lobbied the NRA to make its regulatory codes just and fair for all workers and to eliminate explicit and de facto discrimination in pay, working conditions, and opportunities for reasons of sex, race, or union status. Even after the demise of the NRA, the league continued campaigning for collective bargaining rights and fair labor standards at both federal and state levels. However, violations of codes became common and attempts were made to use the courts to enforce the NRA. The NRA included a multitude of regulations imposing the pricing and production standards for all sorts of goods and services. Individuals were arrested for not complying with these codes. Roosevelt critic John T. Flynn , in The Roosevelt Myth , wrote: The NRA was discovering it could not enforce its rules. Black markets grew up. Only the most violent police methods could procure enforcement. They roamed through the garment district like storm troopers. Night work was forbidden. Flying squadrons of these private coat-and-suit police went through the district at night, battering down doors with axes looking for men who were committing the crime of sewing together a pair of pants at night. But without these harsh methods many code authorities said there could be no compliance because the public was not back of it. The NRA was famous for its bureaucracy. Journalist Raymond Clapper reported that between 4, and 5, business practices were prohibited by NRA orders that carried the force of law, which were contained in some 3, administrative orders running to over 10 million pages, and supplemented by what Clapper said were "innumerable opinions and directions from national, regional and code boards interpreting and enforcing provisions of the act. United States , the Supreme Court held the mandatory codes section of NIRA unconstitutional, [20] because it attempted to regulate commerce that was not interstate in character, and that the codes represented an unacceptable delegation of power from the legislature to the executive. Though the raising and sale of poultry was an interstate industry, the Court found that the "stream of interstate commerce" had stopped in this case: Any interstate effect of Schechter was indirect, and therefore beyond federal reach. Subsequent to the decision, the remainder of Title I was extended until April 1, , by joint resolution of Congress 49 Stat.

Chapter 8 : SparkNotes: Harrison Bergeron: Themes

Writing Intended Learning Outcomes Instructors often focus on content when embarking on course design, but it's equally important to think about the net result of a course: student learning. Intended Learning Outcomes (ILOs) focus on just that â€" they articulate what students should be able to know, do, and value by the end of a course.

Written by Michael Angier Michael Angier here with some ideas for you on getting more of what you want. But others have been for all of our subscribers. Before I decide on and plan out a teleseminar, speech or presentation, I spend a fair amount of time getting clear on what I would like to accomplish. What are the outcomes I would like to create? Information is shared, for sure. But without being organized and without good focus, they fall flat and end up being a waste of timeâ€"and money. The same holds true for writing an article. A few minutes of planning will produce a much more effective piece. My four-point teaching format is something I learned from Dale Carnegie Seminars. Premise or Problem The premise I want to teach or the problem I am looking to solve for my audience. Obstacles and Challenges What stands in the way and what needs to be overcome to achieve the objective or solve the problem? Strategies Share the best practices and teach the tactics and strategies to achieve the intended outcome. Commitments Ask the audience to take action and make progress. Here are some more questions that can help you get clear on your intended outcomes: What do you want to teach? What action do you want your audience to take? What resources do you want them to access? What is the premise you want to sell? How will you get and keep their attention? How will you shake up their thinking? How will you get them to remember the most important points? Answering these kinds of questions will enable you to be a better influencer and achieve your objectives. As an example, here is a partial list of our intended outcomes for The SuccessNet Summit being held in Dallas this November. I hope you will join us. Meet our members and subscribers personally and get to know them. Help our members to meet other members and form friendships and alliances. Provide substantial discounts and valuable bonuses on products and services. Teach proven principles and cutting-edge strategies to attendees. Learn more about what our members want and need to be more successful. Share tools and systems to help attendees take their businesses to new levels. Get attendees to meet highly successful experts our speakers and panelists. Help attendees develop more confidence by improving skills, increasing knowledge and developing better attitudes. Brainstorm ways to achieve greater success. Inspire attendees to take action and make progress on their goals. Get people to think much bigger than they normally do. With clear objectives, we can better decisions and create a more successful event for all. Be clear on what you want to say, how you want to say it and what you would like to achieve. Be clear, be succinct, make your point s and ask for what you want.

Chapter 9 : Objectives content and intended outcomes of learning activities | Essay Example

Thank you for taking the time to learn about developing a plan for outcome measurement. Outcome measurement proves correlation, not causation. Keep in mind that outcome measurement explores what your program provides, what its intended impacts are, and whether or not it achieves them.