# Providing and Communication Clear Learning Goals

**Teacher Scale for Providing Scales and Rubrics**

I can write a learning goal and develop a proficiency scale

I provide scales and rubrics, and I monitor the extent to which my actions affect students' performance – learning goal is posted so all students can see it, it is a clear statement of knowledge not just an assignment, and students can explain the goal for the lesson. The teacher designs lessons directly related to the learning goals. Students can describe what proficient performance looks like for each learning goal.

*I adapt behaviors and create new strategies for unique student needs and situations.*

***Teacher Scale for Tracking Student Progress***

*I track student progress, and I monitor the extent to which my actions affect student learning. Formative scores are used throughout a unit to help teachers and students monitor progress. Teacher crease assessment tasks for different levels of content using proficiency scales. Teacher helps students track their individual progress and uses formative data to chart progress of individual and entire class progress on learning goals. The teacher administers individual score-level assessments to the entire class, only moving up to the next level once the majority of students in the class have mastered the content at the current level.*

*I adapt behaviors and create new strategies for unique student needs and situations.*

***Teacher Scale for Celebrating Success***

*I celebrate success, and I monitor the extent to which my actions affect students. The teacher celebrates each student's final status or summative score at the end of each unit. (round of applause, peer compliments, poster display, parent communication. Certificates, snack parties, success banners, student honor roll, field trip, Friday Fun Club once a month, film club to film that relates to the content covered in class, use class website to post examples of high quality student work, student work board, class progress goals, verbal feedback*

***Scale for Informal Assessment of the Whole Class***

*I use informal assessments of the whole class to determine students' proficiency with specific content, and I monitor the extent to which students respond to assessment guided feedback and instruction.*

*Establish a rating system for students to rate how confident they are in their understanding. Hand signals, polling technology, color coded cards, ask questions that students can respond with voting formats, vote with feet – move to corner you think is the answer, write response on erasable response boards or cards – list missing information, key words, procedural clues, justification. Let students score on tests that are not recorded but used for data to track how well class is doing*

***Scale for Formal Assessments of Individual Students***

*I use formal assessments of individual students to determine students' proficiency with specific content and I monitor the extent to which students respond to assessment guided feedback and instruction. Work with other teachers who teach the same content to design common assessments. Design assessment questions from each section of the proficiency scale based on depth of knowledge.*

*Types of Formal Assessments: Multiple choice, true/false. Constructed response require students to generate a correct answer. Student demonstrations – usually used with skills, strategies or processes. Student interviews, observations of students, student generated assessments, examine response patterns of students*

*Establishing Rules and Procedures*

***Using a Small Set of Rules and Procedures (pg. 5,6)***

*Classroom rules and procedures are fundamental to building a productive learning community. However, students are more likely to understand and adhere to rules if a teacher prioritizes rules and procedures by restricting them to five to eight per class. Generally, a teacher should begin the year by establishing general classroom rules, then work toward procedures for more specific areas such as the beginning and end of the school day or period, transitions, and the efficient use of materials and equipment.*

***Explaining Rules and Procedures to Students (Pg. 8)***

*At the beginning of the school year or term, as a teacher presents the rules he or she has established for the classroom, the teacher can also take time to explain each of the rules and why he or she chose them. Because rules often can be quite general, the teacher's explanation should focus on exemplifying situations in which a rule applies and describing specific behaviors that demonstrate adherence to the rules. The teacher and students might make rules more explicit by creating procedures (how-to steps) for them. These how-to steps are often referred to as standard operating procedures or SOPs. When presenting rules and procedures to students, the teacher should also explain the reasons behind each—why it is important.*

***Generating Rules and Procedures With Students***

*Clearly, rules and procedures do not have to be generated by the teacher. Another option is to devote class time to designing rules and procedures from the ground up. In other words, the teacher shifts responsibility to the entire class for crafting the classroom rules and the specific procedures associated with them. While this takes more time, generating rules and procedures as a class can increase student ownership of the classroom.*

***Modifying Rules and Procedures With Students***

*One way to involve students in the process of creating rules and procedures is to present general rules to the class and ask students to operationalize them by coming up with specific behaviors or procedures for each rule. These student-generated procedures would be listed underneath the general rule and prominently posted in the classroom for future reference. A second approach is to present students with general rules and specific procedures but then invite them to modify those rules and procedures as they see fit. Students might be organized into small groups and asked to suggest changes. Each group's suggestions would be listed on the board, and all the suggestions would be discussed by the class. Suggested changes that gain consensus would be added to the original set of rules and procedures.*

***Reviewing Rules and Procedures With Students***

*Even when rules and procedures are well designed initially, they must be reviewed and adapted as time goes by. Periodic reviews of rules and procedures can prove extraordinarily useful in promoting students' ownership of their behavior. If students seem to systematically violate or ignore rules and procedures, the teacher calls the lapse to students' attention and reviews and models the rule or procedure as necessary. The teacher might also ask for suggestions about how to get behavior back on track. If students need clarification on a rule or procedure, the teacher can lead a discussion about the need for the rule—on occasion, this discussion might lead to a rule or procedure being changed or dropped altogether. For example, consider a classroom that requires students to raise their hands and obtain permission from the teacher to get up during seatwork. Over time, the teacher and students recognize that this procedure simply does not work well—at times, the teacher is occupied and does not notice a student's raised hand for quite a while. Additionally, students assert that they can be trusted to leave their seats without disrupting the class. After the discussion, the teacher and students agree to suspend the rule.*

### *Language of Responsibility and Statements of School Beliefs*

*Establishing a language of responsibility is important in helping students develop responsibility for their own behavior—if they have no language to talk about responsibility, they have few tools with which to explore the concept. To create a language of responsibility in the classroom, the teacher can lead a discussion about concepts like freedom, equality, responsibility, threats, opinions, and rights. After these and other relevant terms have been introduced, defined, and discussed, the teacher should use the terms consistently to describe and discuss classroom behavior. The teacher can then facilitate a discussion about how the key concepts apply to students during school hours and relate them to rules and procedures.*

### *Posting Rules Around the Room*

*Posting rules around the classroom can be helpful as both a visual reminder for students and as a way for teachers to hold students accountable for their behavior. General classroom rules should be posted in a prominent location where students can frequently and easily see them, whereas rules and procedures for specific areas or activities should be posted near their relevant locations. For example, a teacher might post the general classroom rules by the doorway leading into the classroom, whereas the teacher would post the rules related to appropriate computer use by the classroom computers.*

### *Class Pledge or Classroom Constitution*

*A class pledge or constitution serves as a way to help students buy into and take responsibility for the classroom rules and procedures. It is an informal contract—when students sign it, they are promising to follow the rules that the teacher and the class have set. Students should be directly involved in writing the class pledge or constitution based on the classroom rules and procedures. This document describes what the ideal classroom looks like and what behaviors are necessary to achieve that ideal. All students sign the final copy, and the teacher displays it in the classroom.*

### *Posters and Graphics*

*Using posters and graphics to display rules, procedures, and character traits helps students better remember them while simultaneously decorating the classroom. These posters and graphics emphasize the importance of specific rules and procedures or specific character traits important to proper classroom functioning (integrity, emotional control, and so on). For example, if a teacher's signal for students to be quiet and pay attention is to raise his or her hand in the air, a graphic to emphasize this procedure could be a drawing of a hand with the class's five steps for good listening written on each finger. Students can*

*also create these posters and graphics as a class activity, which adds another element of buy-in and responsibility for appropriate behavior.*

### *Gestures and Symbols*

*Within the classroom, there are some messages that need to be communicated frequently, such as "quiet down" or "I need help with this assignment." It is often more efficient to use gestures and symbols to communicate these messages. The teacher and students collaborate to establish gestures or symbols that communicate common messages. For example, a raised hand might indicate a need for quiet or attention, turning the lights off and on could signal that group work has become too noisy, a raised book or pencil could show that a student needs help from the teacher, and words or phrases such as groups might be used to send students to preassigned work areas or groups.*

### *Vignettes and Role-Playing*

*Students need a clear understanding of what the teacher means when he or she says that rules and procedures help create a focused, respectful atmosphere for learning. A fun way to show examples and nonexamples of appropriate behavior is to have students model them through roleplaying. A teacher might divide the class into small groups and assign two groups to each classroom rule or procedure. One group would create a skit that demonstrates a nonexample of a rule or procedure—that is, they would intentionally act out breaking the rule, often in a humorous manner. The second group would act out correct adherence to the rule. Students can also write short stories or vignettes that exemplify classroom rules and procedures if a less theatrical version of this strategy is desired.*

### *Classroom Meetings (pg. 27)*

*Classroom meetings are a time for students and a teacher to discuss how the classroom is functioning and identify it might run more smoothly. In these meetings, the teacher and students bring up issues relative to classroom management including rules and procedures. Issues for discussion might be raised verbally by students during this time, or if students do not feel comfortable volunteering issues, then the teacher might ask students to suggest issues to the teacher beforehand or submit them in a suggestion box for discussion during classroom meetings. For example, a teacher might call a classroom meeting upon noticing that specific rules and procedures are not being adhered to by students or after a specific incident (for example, a physical or verbal altercation between multiple students might warrant a classroom meeting). The teacher leads the meeting and ensures it is orderly and respectful but also lets all students have a chance to voice their questions, comments, and concerns.*

### *Student Self-Assessment*

*To implement student self-assessment, the teacher periodically asks students to assess their own level of adherence to classroom rules and procedures. To do so, the teacher simply presents students with rules or procedures and asks them to rate their adherence to those rules and procedures on a scale of 0 (not adhering) to 4 (exemplary adherence). A teacher might choose to have students assess their own behavior relative to general classroom rules or the rules and procedures for a specific activity, such as working in groups. Students should be given the opportunity to self-assess on a fairly regular basis so that they can see their own progress. For general classroom rules and procedures, this might occur once a week or every other week. For specific activities, this might occur after each instance of the activity or after every third instance, depending on how frequently students engage in that activity.*

*Organizing the Physical Layout of the Classroom*

### *Classroom Décor (pg. 6,7)*

*When considering the classroom décor, a teacher should aim to create a welcoming and functional learning environment. The teacher can post pictures, posters, and "homey" touches (such as curtains) or use themes relevant to the season or upcoming events to make the classroom feel friendly. The teacher should also align the classroom décor with learning goals and instructional priorities, so that it enforces the value and relevance of what students are learning. To this end, the teacher may leave empty spaces on the walls at the beginning of the year and post student work later on. Bulletin boards might display learning goals, classroom rules and procedures, assignments, school announcements, or school spirit paraphernalia, and calendars might display daily schedules or assignment timelines. Other learning resources on the walls could include the alphabet (in elementary classrooms), poems, vocabulary lists, historical timelines, information on current topics of study, the correct format for assignments (headings, page numbers, and so on), or exemplars and prototypes for assignments. In general, the emphasis in classroom decoration and use of wall space should be on functionality.*

### *Displaying Student Work*

*It is important for students to see themselves represented in the classroom and to benefit from samples of effective student work and other relevant visual artifacts. As such, a teacher should consider how students' work will be displayed within the classroom and how such displays reinforce learning. A teacher can either post the same assignment from all members of the class or post particularly noteworthy assignments from individual students. If a teacher chooses the latter, the teacher should regularly switch out displayed student work when possible to give more students the opportunity to have their work posted. Furthermore, the teacher should be able to explain why he or she thought any posted work is exemplary.*

### *Classroom Materials (pg. 10)*

*When a teacher monitors his or her learning materials and ensures that they are easily accessed and organized, the teacher facilitates a classroom environment that runs smoothly and efficiently. The teacher should consider the placement and organization of various classroom materials as well as the frequency of their use. As such, frequently used materials should be placed in a location that allows for easy access and should be organized and labeled in such a way that students can find what they need quickly and independently. Materials that are less frequently used may be stored in a less accessible space and brought out for students when necessary. The teacher should also plan ahead to consider the classroom materials needed for specific lessons and units and take care to acquire them in a prompt manner to ensure their availability at the proper times.*

### *Teacher's Desk*

*When placing his or her desk in the classroom, a teacher should consider how he or she plans to use the desk during class time and when he or she is alone. Ideally, a teacher's desk should be placed so that it allows the teacher to monitor the class during seatwork and can be easily accessed during whole-group instruction. Often, a teacher will either place his or her desk in the front or the back of the room. When a teacher's desk is placed in the front of the room, it allows the teacher to easily make direct eye contact with students during independent seat work, while placing a teacher's desk in the back of the room allows the teacher to monitor the class without students knowing which part of the room is being observed. Regardless of its position, the teacher should be able to see and hear all parts of the classroom when seated, and the desk should be in an easily accessible location.*

### *Student Desks*

*The organization of student desks and chairs can either inhibit or facilitate student learning. When considering the placement of student desks, the teacher should consider how students may use them during whole-class, small-group, and individual instruction. The arrangement of students' desks should allow students to hear directions, watch instruction, access necessary materials, and move quickly and safely around the classroom. A teacher should also be able to see and make eye contact with all students from various locations in the classroom. If needed, a teacher might also seating charts that ensure that students stay on task and are not distracted by their neighbors.*

### *Areas for Whole-Group Instruction*

*When designing a classroom's layout, a teacher should consider how the class interacts with the space during whole-group instruction. A teacher may consider the ease of access to materials frequently used during whole-group instruction, the teacher's ability to instruct and monitor the class, and students' ability to hear the teacher and see the board. First, the teacher must decide where whole-group instruction will take place, and this is generally informed by the placement of the black- or whiteboard or projector (which teachers often have little control over). After deciding where the whole-group instruction will take place, the teacher can consider the layout of the desks, the placement of materials, and how both facilitate easeful learning and an orderly classroom.*

### *Areas for Group Work*

*To facilitate differentiated instruction and productive interaction among students, the classroom should include areas for small-group instruction in addition to the area for whole-class instruction. The teacher should consider where small groups of students can meet and how easy this is considering the placement of students' desks. The teacher may also want to create a space where he or she can meet with a small group of students while the rest of the class completes individual seatwork; this is often accomplished by placing a table off to the side of the classroom or through the use of learning centers or labs. In all cases, areas for small-group instruction should provide easy access to related materials (for example, chart paper and markers) and be out of the way so as not to block traffic patterns.*

### *Learning Centers*

*When designing the physical layout of the classroom, a teacher should consider the location of learning centers, if necessary. This is most often a concern for elementary school teachers, and typically, the teacher will want to place learning centers away from major traffic patterns. A learning center should be easily monitored from all parts of the room and should be close to books, resources, and other materials that may be required to complete tasks at the center. Furthermore, the learning centers should be isolated enough that students can work within the learning centers and focus on the task at hand without being distracted by other students.*

### *Computers and Technology Equipment*

*In most classrooms in the 21st century, computers and technology are integral parts of the learning environment. Most classrooms have an overhead projector or interactive whiteboard for whole-class instruction. Many classrooms have their own computer or computer stations to which students have access. When designing the physical layout of a classroom, the teacher should consider the various technologies in his or her classroom, their purposes, and how students make use of them. A teacher can then use these considerations to inform the placement of computers and technology equipment. For example, a teacher who regularly uses an overhead projector might place it so that it can be easily*

*accessed for whole-class instruction, while the same teacher might place the classroom printer off to the side of the room, as it is less frequently used.*

### *Lab Equipment and Supplies*

*Though this may not be relevant to all educators, most science teachers will have to consider effective storage and use of lab equipment and supplies. When making these decisions, the teacher should consider student safety, protection for the equipment, and ease of access and use for students. In particular, often lab equipment and supplies—such as living and preserved animal and plant specimens, chemicals, glassware, and so on—require special considerations, especially around safety. Furthermore, many science classrooms are designed as a laboratory, which limits the teacher in terms of the locations of specialized equipment and spaces for instruction. If this is the case, the teacher should create a separate lecture area so that students are not near the laboratory equipment unnecessarily if possible.*

### *Classroom Libraries*

*The purpose of classroom libraries is to support student learning; therefore, they should be easily accessible to students. The teacher should place libraries where they will provide support for individual, small-group, and whole-group learning activities. The primary concern with regard to bookshelves is that their location provides easy access but does not cause traffic jams. Additionally, bookshelves should not create blind spots where students can be out of view of the teacher. The teacher can also consider the contents of his or her classroom library, the way in which the books are organized, and systems for ensuring that books return to the bookshelves.*

### *Involving Students in the Design Process*

*Although many teachers arrange the classroom before students arrive for the first day of class, asking students to be involved in the design process can help them feel invested and comfortable as they work in and move around the classroom. The teacher may informally poll students to solicit their feedback about the classroom décor and the organization of the room or formally survey them. If a teacher does choose to involve students in the design process, he or she should use their input to make changes—a teacher who asks for student input but then ignores it may make students feel as though he or she does not care about their opinions.*

## *Demonstrating Withitness*

### *Being Proactive (pg. 9)*

*Many behavioral issues can be resolved with careful planning and proactive steps on the part of the teacher. To become proactive, a teacher is aware of what could potentially go wrong or cause disruption in class and preemptively takes actions to avoid such scenarios from occurring. For example, a proactive teacher might confer privately with potentially disruptive students to review classroom expectations, create contingency plans for various behavior scenarios that might be likely to arise throughout the day, or seek out information regarding incidents that have occurred outside of class that may affect student behavior. A proactive teacher might also create prearranged cues that signal inappropriate behavior. For example, the teacher might make a small mark on a notepad on the student's desk or tap twice on the desktop if the student's behavior is becoming disruptive or unacceptable.*

### *Occupying the Whole Room Physically and Visually (pg. 8,9)*

*The teacher is aware of what occurs in the classroom and notes the behavior of individual and groups of students. The teacher makes eye contact regularly with each student to let them know he or she is aware*

*of their actions and is monitoring the classroom. Furthermore, the teacher spends time in each quadrant of the room on a regular basis and physically moves through the classroom during instruction and individual seatwork.*

### *Noticing Potential Problems (pg. 11)*

*The teacher should be alert throughout lessons so that he or she can identify and pre-emptively address situations that could develop into larger disruptive behaviors. The teacher watches for small groups of students huddled together talking intensely; one or more students not engaging in a class activity for an extended period of time; students in a specific area looking at each other and smiling; members of the class looking at a specific location and smiling; students giggling or smiling whenever the teacher looks at or walks near a particular part of the room; or whispering, giggling, or unusual noises when the teacher's back is to the class. The teacher would then take appropriate actions to diffuse the potentially disruptive behavior before it escalates.*

### *Series of Graduated Actions*

*A teacher who uses a series of graduated actions assesses each disruptive behavior in class and tailors his or her reactions to the disruption at hand. If the distraction persists, the teacher can continue to escalate his or her reactions. For example, when noticing disruptive behavior, the teacher makes eye contact with those students involved in the incident or who exhibit the behavior. If the problem persists, the teacher might stand right next to the offending student or students and use nonverbal cues to communicate that they need to stop their inappropriate behavior and join in what the class is doing. If the behavior still persists, the teacher could talk to the offending students quietly and privately and request (not demand), in a positive way, that they reengage with what the class is doing and reiterate that their participation is welcome and needed. Finally, if the behavior does not stop, the teacher would stop the class and calmly and politely state the consequences that will ensue if the students continue their current behavior, while communicating that the students have a decision to make.*

## *Acknowledging Adherence to Rules and Procedures*

### *Verbal Affirmations (pg 6)*

*The teacher uses short verbal affirmations such as "thank you," good job," "that's great," or "very good." The teacher might also have short conversations or write notes to students to acknowledge their adherence to rules and procedures. The teacher should describe what the student did that constituted adhering to a rule or procedure and how the behavior contributed to the proper functioning of the class. For example, a teacher might say, "Thank you for pushing in your chair when you got up. You're helping keep our classroom clean and safe." This aspect of verbal affirmations is essential to helping students behave well habitually. The teacher might also contrast the student's current behavior with past behavior that failed to adhere to a rule or procedure.*

### *Nonverbal Affirmations*

*The teacher uses a smile, a wink, a nod of the head, a thumbs-up sign, an OK sign (thumb and forefinger loop), a pantomimed tip of the hat, a pat on the back, or a high five to acknowledge students' adherence to rules and procedures. For example, when the class lines up for recess quickly and quietly, the teacher might high five each student on the way out of the room.*

### *Tangible Recognition*

*The teacher uses privileges, activities, or items as rewards for positive behavior. For example, a teacher could reward students who stayed focused during independent work time by allowing them a few minutes to talk to friends at the end of class. Any use of tangible recognition should be accompanied by a thorough class discussion of the rationale behind the system to ensure it is not perceived as a type of bribe or form of coercion.* ***Friday Fun Club: This is usually used at the elementary level. Students who have earned membership in the club get to play a fun, educational game for the last hour of school on Friday. • Reward field trips: These are usually used at the secondary level, but also work well in lower grades. Students who have no or few discipline referrals are allowed to go on a special field trip. • Public recognition: Teachers might display a class poster with the names of students who have met a certain standard of excellence, or students might post thank-you messages to each other or to teachers on a common bulletin board. • Eating lunch in the classroom: A well-behaved student or group of students gets to eat lunch in the classroom with the teacher. • Snack parties: Students who exhibit exemplary behavior over a certain period of time (for example, one month) get to attend a popcorn, pizza, ice cream, or other snack party during lunch, recess, or after school. • Attire rewards: Students earn the privilege of wearing typically off-limits clothing such as pajamas or hats to school. At schools where students are required to wear uniforms, students could earn a free-dress day. • Citizen of the Month: The teacher selects one student each month to be recognized for going above and beyond behavioral expectations. The student is then recognized in front of the class—the teacher might describe to the class what the student did to earn recognition or use a bulletin board to post the student's picture and a written description of their behavior.***

### *Token Economies*

*The teacher uses a system in which students receive a token, chit, or points when they meet expectations. They can then exchange these tokens, chits, or points for privileges, activities, or items. For example, a teacher might hand out a plastic poker chip for behaviors such as raising one's hand to ask a question. Students could then purchase rewards, such as a no homework pass, when they have accumulated enough chips.*

### *Daily Recognition Forms (pg. 13)*

*The teacher awards each student a starting score at the beginning of class (for example, 20 points) for a prearranged set of expectations (for example, 4 points for punctuality, 4 points for preparation, 4 points for on-task behavior, 4 points for respectfulness, and 4 points for work completion). If a student fails to meet a particular expectation, some or all of the points associated with that expectation are taken away. In other words, if a student meets all expectations throughout the day, his ending score would be 20 points. A student who comes to class without a pencil and paper might lose some of her points in the preparation category. The teacher can use a tracking sheet placed on each student's desk to keep track of points throughout the day or class period. At the end of the period or day, students tally their total points, and the teacher records daily totals in a ledger. Students who achieve certain point levels earn privileges, activities, or items.*

### *Color-Coded Behavior*

*The teacher gives each student three cards (red card = unacceptable behavior, yellow card = acceptable behavior with room for improvement, green card = exceptional adherence to rules and procedures) to keep on his or her desktop. All students begin the day or period with the green card on top. If a student's behavior warrants it, the teacher changes the exposed card to indicate the level of behavior being exhibited. For example, a student who speaks out of turn once or twice might have his color changed to yellow. If he continues to call out repeatedly, the teacher would switch his card to red. Students whose*

*behavior has warranted a change to yellow or red may work to have the green card reinstated by displaying appropriate behavior.*

*Many elementary teachers use a variation of this strategy involving a poster that shows a color (red, yellow, or green) for each student. Students each begin the day on green, and the teacher asks them to change their color if their behavior warrants it.*

### *Certificates*

*The teacher uses reward certificates to increase parental involvement and awareness of behavior at school. For example, a student who helps another student with her work could receive a certificate as a special recognition of his helpfulness. Blank certificates can be personalized with a student's name and the reason for the reward, while preprinted certificates that correspond to specific desired behaviors can be used to quickly reward positive behavior.*

### *Phone Calls, Emails, and Notes*

*The teacher makes phone calls and sends emails or notes to a student's parents or guardians to recognize positive behavior. This affirmation can do wonders for the self-confidence and future behavior of students, and it can be very uplifting for a teacher to hear the sense of pride in a family member's voice. Particularly for students who have frequent behavior issues at school, a teacher or family member's acknowledgment of even one good day can make a huge impact. The teacher might make a goal of one positive phone call every afternoon. The teacher can also compose individual or group emails and notes to the parents or guardians of students who behaved appropriately during a particular week. All communication should be specific about how positive behavior reinforced a positive classroom environment and climate. For example, a teacher could send an email to a student's parents telling them that she did an excellent job as the facilitator of a group discussion.*

## *Acknowledging Lack of Adherence to Rules & Procedures*

### *Verbal Cues (Pg. 6)*

*The teacher says a student's name, quietly reminds a student that he or she is not following a rule or procedure, quietly states the expected appropriate behavior, or simply tells a student to stop the current behavior. The teacher might also use comments such as, "Bill, think about what you are doing right now" or "Mary, is what you are doing helping you focus your attention?"*

### *Pregnant Pause (pg. 8)*

*The teacher stops teaching in response to recurring disruptive behavior, creating an uncomfortable silence that will direct the attention in the room toward the misbehaving student. This can be a powerful motivator for a student to adjust his or her behavior. For example, if a student is talking to his neighbor during teacher-led instruction, the teacher might stop speaking until the student realizes the class is waiting on him. However, if the student's goal in misbehaving was to attract attention, this strategy can backfire. The teacher should be prepared to verbally confront the student in front of the group if necessary.*

### *Nonverbal Cues*

*The teacher uses eye contact, proximity, subtle gestures (such as shaking the head "no," putting a finger on the lips, tapping a student's desk, giving a thumbs-down, or raising eyebrows) to signal to students that their behavior is inappropriate. For example, if a student is being disruptive during silent reading*

*time, the teacher might make eye contact with that student, raise his eyebrows in a disapproving manner, and shake his head "no."*

### *Time-Out*

*The teacher asks an offending student to go to a designated place (inside or outside the classroom) until the student is ready to resume regular classroom activities. The teacher might use a graduated process for sending students to time-out: (1) warning; (2) time-out inside the classroom, where the student can continue to attend to the academic activities that are occurring; and (3) time-out outside the classroom. To illustrate, imagine a student who gets up and wanders the room, bothering other students. After the first one or two times this happens, the teacher might give him a warning. If the behavior continues, the student is placed in a time-out chair away from other students but still within the classroom. If an in-class time-out fails to change the student's behavior, he is given a time-out outside the classroom. If the student leaves the classroom for a time-out, the teacher must ensure that the student is still supervised. Finally, the student should develop a concrete action plan specifying what he or she will do differently upon returning to the classroom.*

### *Overcorrection (pg. 13)*

*The teacher requires a student who has behaved destructively to make things better than they were before the student acted to destroy them. For example, if a student destroyed class property, the student would need to repair what was destroyed and then improve additional class property. If a student interrupted the class's opportunity to learn, the student would need to learn the material independently and then assist the rest of the class in learning the material. An important step in this strategy is closely monitoring students while they complete overcorrection tasks.*

### *Interdependent Group Contingency*

*The teacher gives the entire class positive consequences only if every student in the class meets a certain behavioral standard. This type of group contingency can be used to reinforce positive group behavior and extinguish negative group behaviors, but should be used carefully, especially at the secondary level where students have a well-developed sense of fairness. Combat this perception by preemptively explaining to students that during the learning process, a class succeeds and fails as a team. Marble jar: Usually used at the elementary level, the teacher adds a marble to a jar for good class behavior and removes a marble from the jar for inappropriate class behavior. When the jar is full, the class earns a tangible reward or privilege. • Tally marks: The teacher puts a tally mark on the board when the class behaves appropriately. Alternatively, the teacher might give a tally mark to individual groups or teams that display appropriate behavior. When either the class or an individual team has received a previously agreed-upon number of tally marks, they earn a tangible reward or privilege. • Countdown: The teacher and students identify a certain number of "slips in protocol" considered acceptable during a specific time interval (such as a class period or day). The teacher makes a mark on the board every time a student fails to follow the target behavior. If fewer marks are tallied than the prearranged number, the whole class retains a privilege or earns a reward. • Group grades: The teacher and students agree that every student in a group will be assigned the group's grade as their individual grade. When using this strategy, the teacher should ensure that each member of the group contributes equally to the final outcome or product. • Mystery motivator: The teacher writes down a reward, places it in a sealed envelope, and displays the envelope at the front of the classroom. The teacher then identifies a number of points the class must earn and the timeframe in which they must earn them to receive the reward. The class earns a point for each instance of positive behavior and loses a point for each instance of inappropriate behavior.*

*If, at the end of the specified timeframe, the class has reached the required number of points, the teacher reveals the reward that the class will receive.*

### *Home Contingency*

*To help an individual student perceive that his or her teacher and parents or guardians are unified in their attempt to help the student control his or her classroom behavior, the teacher meets with the student and parents or guardians to identify and discuss the student's use of inappropriate behavior in class. With input from the teacher and parents or guardians, the student should identify positive and negative consequences associated with his or her behavior in class. The consequences the student identifies can then be implemented both in the classroom and at home. For example, the student might be allowed to play a video game after school if he behaved in class, but have that privilege taken away if he misbehaves. The teacher should communicate with the student's parents or guardians about the student's daily behavior.*

### *Planning for High-Intensity Situations (pg. 21,22)*

*Although effective classroom and behavior management strategies can prevent many situations from escalating, most—if not all—teachers will eventually face a situation in which a student becomes out of control. Planning for these situations can prevent emotional reactions on the part of the teacher and allow the teacher to handle the situation efficiently and effectively. The basic outline of a plan for high-intensity situations should include the following considerations: (1) assessing the severity of the situation; (2) remaining calm; (3) actively listening to the student's concerns; and (4) removing the student from the situation once he or she has regained some control.*

### *Overall Disciplinary Plan (pg. 21)*

*The teacher creates an overall plan for dealing with disciplinary situations. It might include developing relationships with students, exhibiting withitness, articulating positive and negative consequences for behavior, and creating guidelines for dealing with high-intensity situations. The teacher's disciplinary plan might include considerations such as those in the following table. Seek to improve relationships with all students. List typical responses to student misbehavior and analyze why responses are effective or not. Develop an action plan to respond to high intensity situations.*

*Relationships*

*Using Verbal and Nonverbal Behaviors that Indicate Affection for Students*

### *Greeting Students at the Classroom Door – (pg. 6)*

*At the beginning of a period, the teacher makes an effort to greet students at the door. The teacher uses each student's first name when they enter to show that the teacher values them and is aware of when they are or are not there. The teacher might also ask students how they are feeling and make positive comments about their learning or achievements. For example, the day after a student is absent, as the student walks in the classroom, the teacher might say, "We missed you yesterday!" to acknowledge the student was not in class. The teacher might then encourage the student to find a time to meet with the teacher to go over what he or she missed while out.*

### *Informal Conferences (pg. 8)*

*Informal conferences, unlike more formal academic conferences, allow teachers to chat with students without students projecting expectations onto the meeting. During informal conferences, a teacher might give compliments, ask for student opinions, mention student successes, and pass on positive comments from other teachers. In order to schedule informal conferences, teachers can plan a time in between classes, before or after school, or during lunch or other breaks to check in. Alternatively, informal conferences can be spur-of-the-moment and fairly short. For example, a teacher might stop a student on the way out of class and say something along the lines of "Kara, what did you think of the homework assignment last night?" or "Josh, I was so impressed by your performance in the school musical yesterday—you ought to be really proud of that!"*

### *Attending After-School Functions*

*The teacher shows affection for and interest in students, particularly students who may feel alienated, by attending their after-school activities. If attending, the teacher should let the student know ahead of time and then make an effort to connect with the student at the event, if possible. While this takes time from the teacher's life outside work, it can be helpful in future interactions with the student. Furthermore, teachers can also make an effort to go to popular school events such as sports games, band and orchestra concerts, or school plays and musicals, even if the teacher does not have specific students in mind to reach out to. Attending such events often shows that a teacher cares about the school community as a whole and provides an opportunity to connect with previous, current, or potential students as well as their parents and other faculty members.*

### *Greeting Students by Name Outside of School*

*During the school day, it is it crucial that teachers build relationships with students to facilitate a safe and productive learning environment. However, it is also likely that teachers will run into students or their parents outside of school hours in neighborhood venues such as the grocery store, movie theater, or shopping mall. When this occurs, teachers should make sure to greet students by name and interact in a friendly demeanor. This interaction need not be lengthy and can be as simple as saying, "Hi, Emily. It's good to see you. Have a good day!"*

### *Giving Students Special Responsibilities or Leadership Roles in the Classroom (pg. 13)*

*One way to indicate affection for students is to assign them specific tasks or responsibilities in the classroom. Specific tasks or responsibilities for students might include being a line leader on the way to lunch, taking care of a class pet, handing out materials, or collecting assignments. Furthermore, if a student's previous actions have warranted it, the teacher might give the student a leadership role in the classroom, which can further demonstrate the teacher both cares for and trusts the student. For example, to give a student a leadership role in the classroom, a teacher could ask a student to lead a project or be responsible for completing a specific task in the classroom or on a field trip.*

### *Scheduled Interaction*

*The teacher creates a schedule that ensures regular interaction with each student by selecting a few students each day to seek out and talk to. The teacher might interact with students in the lunchroom, during breaks between classes, or right after school. During these personalized encounters, the teacher can talk about academic or nonacademic things, so long as the teacher makes the student feel as though he or she is on the teacher's radar. For example, a teacher might divide the students in his or her class into about ten pairs or small groups, then reach out to the students in one group or pair each day. At the end of two weeks, the teacher begins the cycle again to ensure regular interactions with all students.*

### *Photo Bulletin Board*

*The teacher creates a bulletin board that displays students' photos, personal goals, hobbies, interests, and other fun facts. The content of photo bulletin boards can change from time to time based on the unit or can highlight students who have performed well on assignments, shown dramatic improvement on a learning goal, or enacted classroom values outside of class. Teachers can also coordinate the photo bulletin board with student interest surveys to help students in the class get to know one another. For example, the teacher could ask students to bring in photographs of themselves and to complete a personal survey. The teacher would attach students' photographs to their surveys and post them at the beginning of the year so that students can get to know each other.*

### *Physical Behaviors (pg. 17, 18)*

*The teacher monitors his or her physical behaviors and gestures to ensure that they signal affection and encouragement for students. For example, a teacher might use smiles and high fives to communicate affection for students, while patting a student on the back or putting a hand on a student's shoulder could be used to communicate interest or concern for a student. While talking to a student, the teacher makes eye contact, stands close to the student (enough to communicate concern or interest without invading their personal space), or looks interested in what they have to say. Smiling: Smiling is a universal symbol of happiness and indicates a pleasant mindset. When teachers encounter students and want to show that they care for them, even just a smile in acknowledgment of their presence can go a long way toward building amicable classroom relationships. • Eye contact: When talking with students, teachers can hold eye contact to demonstrate engagement in the conversation. However, teachers should monitor the length of time they hold eye contact with students to ensure that it does not verge of the brink of staring. Using Verbal and Nonverbal Behaviors that Indicate Affection for Students MARZANO COMPENDIUM OF INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES 19 • Mirroring actions of students: Mirroring, also called isopraxism, is a subconscious way that humans and other animals show a connection to one another. Teachers can subtly mirror students' physical gestures, such as by crossing their legs when a student does. • Standing close to students: Teachers can stand in the physical proximity of students to show their interest in and affection for students. Not only does being near a student open up opportunities for interaction between a student and a teacher, but it also shows a fondness for and comfort around that student. • Leaning forward while sitting: If a teacher is sitting down and talking to a student or small group of students, the teacher can indicate interest in what is being said by leaning forward in his or her chair toward the speaker. • Shaking hands: Shaking hands is often used as a sign of respect. Teachers may shake students' hands as a greeting or goodbye in and out of class or ask to shake students hands after they turn in an assessment to indicate that the teacher trusts the students. • High fives: High fives are an energetic way to show students that you appreciate them or their actions. High fives can be given as a reward when students do a good job on something or to acknowledge students' presence in a fun way. • Pats on the back: Teachers can pat students on the back to show appreciation for the student. Pats on the back can also be a sympathetic gesture for teachers to use with students who seem upset. • Head nods: While students are speaking, teachers can use head nods to indicate agreement or that they are listening to what students are saying. Teachers can also use head nods to acknowledge the presence of a student, particularly if the environment is loud or if the student and teacher are just passing by one another. • Waving: If a student is outside of a comfortable speaking range, a teacher can wave to show that he or she sees the student. Depending on the situation, the teacher can use a wave as a brief acknowledgment of the student or follow up by going over and starting a conversation. • Applauding: By clapping his or her hands, a teacher can show that he or she thinks that students are doing a good job. The teacher should also model intensity and enthusiasm during this*

*gesture and may accompany the action with verbal recognition, such as by saying "Bravo!" or "Yes, well done!*

### *Humor*

*Humor is a great way for teachers to build relationships with student. When using humor in the classroom, the teacher can use playful banter, jokes, or self-directed humor. The teacher might also use historical and popular sayings to make a point or incorporate cartoons, jokes, puns, and plays on words into instruction. The teacher can also tease students in a lighthearted manner; however, if a teacher does tease students, he or she must consider what is being said, how it might affect the student, and the degree to which it is appropriate. For example, a teacher may tease a student if the student is actively being silly and seems to want attention, whereas the same teacher might not tease a student if the student is reserved and generally shies away from being the center of attention.*

## *Understanding Students' Backgrounds and Interests*

### *Student Background Surveys*

*Teachers should try to get to know a little bit about each student at the beginning of the year to understand the backgrounds students are coming from and to obtain information on which to build relationships with students. One common way of obtaining such information is the student background survey—a questionnaire given at the start of the school year or beginning of a course containing questions relevant to students' lives. The survey could include questions about students' academic interests (favorite and least favorite subject in school), personal interests (hobbies, sports, lessons, art, books, video games, movies, and television shows), dreams, fears, family members, and family activities (traditions, vacations, and gatherings). Teachers can also provide sentence stems for students, such as, "During my free time I like to_____" or "Someday I'd like to be_____." Teachers can then use the information on the background surveys to inform interactions with students throughout the year.*

### *Opinion Questionnaires*

*Opinion questionnaires, like student background surveys, can be used by teachers to better understand students' perspectives and backgrounds. However, opinion questionnaires generally focus on relevant classroom topics rather than more general information about the student. For example, a science teacher might create an opinion questionnaire that asks students the degree to which they find biology interesting, easy, and relevant. The science opinion questionnaire might also subtly gauge students' feelings of competence related to specific tasks by asking questions such as, How comfortable do you feel measuring exact quantities of liquid? How easy do you find memorization of long lists of names? How confident do you feel using a calculator to find the answer to basic algebraic equations?*

### *Individual Student-Teacher Conferences*

*Individual student-teacher conferences provide an opportunity for teachers to meet one-on-one with students and use probing questions to better understand students' backgrounds and interests. In an individual student-teacher conference, the teacher can cover both academic and nonacademic subjects. For example, a teacher may begin a student-teacher conference by asking about the student's previous school experiences and home background. Over the course of the meeting, however, the teacher may transition into asking about the student's interests and perspectives on current issues.*

### *Parent-Teacher Conferences*

*Parent-teacher conferences are a great opportunity for teachers to build relationships with their students' parents or guardians. They also provide a chance for teachers to better understand students, their backgrounds, and their recent life experiences. During parent-teacher conferences, teachers should keep an ear out for events of note—these might include family events or vacations, transition points for parents or siblings (such as births, deaths, graduations, marriages, divorces, or job changes), and plans to move to a new home or a different school.*

### *School Newspaper, Newsletter, or Bulletin*

*Many schools have publications, either for students or for parents, that showcase students' notable achievements. Teachers can read these publications to become aware of students' involvement in athletic events (such as track or swim meets; basketball, baseball, football, or other games; and awards ceremonies), debates, club events, school performances, and volunteer activities. Teachers can also create their own classroom newspapers, newsletters, or bulletins to send home to parents. Teachers could choose to showcase a few students per issue and ask them to volunteer information about their interests, goals, and accomplishments. Once aware of students' achievements, either through reading or compiling newsletters, the teacher can mention them to students to show that they are on a teacher's radar.*

### *Informal Class Interviews*

*Informal class interviews occur when a teacher asks students to share information about what is happening at school or in their lives that the teacher should be aware of. The teacher asks specific questions that prompt students to talk about their lives. For example, before starting direct instruction on a Monday, the teacher might ask the class to share what they did over the weekend. Alternatively, if students seem particularly unsettled or fidgety before a class period, the teacher might ask students directly about their behavior and if there is a root cause for their distraction.*

### *Investigating Student Culture*

*The teacher talks with students and becomes familiar with popular cultural phenomena students are interested in. This may include popular music, movies, television shows, and specific actors, singers, or bands. The teacher can also become familiar with specific local events that draw large student attendance and popular places where students often gather outside of school hours. The teacher can also pay attention to the slang terms and phrases students use, and either look up their meaning on the Internet or directly ask students about their meaning. The teacher may also seek to understand existing social dynamics within the school and how his or her students fit into these dynamics.*

### *Autobiographical Metaphors and Analogies*

*Students construct metaphors that compare academic content with their own lives. These can be simple and concrete, or they can involve more complex patterns and processes. This strategy is helpful, as it provides a teacher with knowledge about students' backgrounds while simultaneously strengthening students' understanding of the content. Students can also construct analogies between the content and their lives. These may or may not accompany nonlinguistic representations. For example, a fifth grade teacher, during a unit on the solar system, might ask students to create metaphors that relate what they have been taught thus far to their own lives. A student might compare members of his family to various celestial bodies (for example, my mother is like the sun because she controls our movement and makes sure everyone gets where they need to go), which strengthens the student's understanding of the unique characteristics of each planet while giving the teacher a glimpse at the student's familial relationships.*

### *Six-Word Autobiographies*

*Students write an autobiography of themselves in exactly six words, and the teacher leads a discussion in which students share and explain their biographies. The six-word autobiographies can be either a disparate list of six words (particularly for younger students) or a functioning sentence. For example, a student in elementary school might create the following six-word biography: silly, nice, loves running and animals. This student might have considered these four characteristics as most important to understand his or her temperament. As students get older, however, the teacher might put a restriction on the assignment so that the autobiographies function more as a sentence. For example, older students might create the following six-word biographies: School is fine; weekends are better or At least I think math's cool. Such autobiographies can show a lot about a student's temperament and give students an opportunity to distinguish themselves from one another.*

### *Independent Investigations*

*Independent investigations allow students to research a topic of interest to them, then report back to the class about what they have found and learned. These investigations can be related to content being taught or driven by students' nonacademic interests. For example, a teacher might ask students to choose one aspect of the content to further research (for homework or during part of a class period), then bring students back together to share what they have learned. During this discussion, the teacher should query students about why they chose their topics and how the topics are relevant to their backgrounds or interests.*

### *Quotes*

*Collecting and sharing quotes can be a fun way to better understand the personalities and interests of students. A teacher can ask students in the class to collect quotes that they feel express their personality traits, interests, or aspirations, then have students share the quotes they have found. When discussing quotes, the teacher should make sure that students connect the reason they chose the quote to the quote itself. A teacher can model this strategy by sharing with the class quotes that he or she finds representative of the class, the content, or the teacher him- or herself.*

### *Commenting on Student Achievement or Areas of Importance*

*Once a teacher has some background knowledge about students' values and interests, he or she can notice and comment on individual accomplishments and important events in their lives. In terms of individual accomplishments, a teacher might point out students' achievements in clubs or athletics, academic recognitions, artistic and dramatic accomplishments, or assignments done well. When commenting on important events in students' lives, the teacher should notice important events—such as weddings, vacations, birthdays, and so on—and changes in students' families—such as a move, birth, death, marriage, divorce, or transition in employment.*

### *Lineups*

*A teacher can use specific questions that ask students to line up or sit in groups in ways that reveal their likes, dislikes, and preferences. Questions can be silly and serve as a fun activity to get to know the personalities of students, academically oriented and help the teacher better understand students' learning preferences, or both. For example, the teacher might ask a silly question in the form of "Would you rather . . . ?" and designate one side of the classroom to represent one answer to the question and the other side of the classroom to represent the other. Following a silly question, the teacher could include a more serious question about learning preferences by reading a statement such as "I prefer to work in groups" and using the four corners of the room to represent the answers I strongly agree, I agree, I disagree, and I strongly disagree.*

### *Individual Student Learning Goals*

*Students identify something that interests them during instruction and create their own personalized learning goals during a unit. The teacher should help students connect their personalized learning goals to teacher-identified learning goals. Students can state their learning goals in the following formats.*

- *When this unit is completed, I will better understand _____.*
- *When this unit is completed, I will be able to _____*

## *Displaying Objectivity and Control*

### *Self-Reflection*

*The teacher self-reflects daily about consistency when enforcing the positive and negative consequences associated with the established rules and procedures. Questions the teacher might consider include the following.*

- *Did I provide proper acknowledgement when students followed the rules and procedures?*
- *Did I use proper consequences when students did not follow rules and procedures?*
- *Did I take every opportunity today to provide positive and negative consequences for student behavior?*
- *Did I strike a nice balance between positive and negative consequences as needed?*

*The teacher should also consider how to progressively increase expectations for students to control their own behavior.*

### *Self-Monitoring*

*The teacher monitors his or her emotions in the classroom to avoid displaying counterproductive emotions such as anger, frustration, or hesitation. Before class each day, the teacher mentally reviews all of his or her students, noting those who might cause problems. The teacher should then identify specific negative thoughts and emotions the teacher might hold toward those students by asking, "How do I feel about [student's name]?" The teacher tries to identify events in the past that may be the source of negative thoughts and feelings toward the specific students by asking, "Why do I feel that way?" Finally, the teacher seeks to reframe negative beliefs about the students. For example, the teacher might recognize that student misbehavior usually has little to do with a specific teacher or identify explicit reasons the student might have misbehaved in the past in a way that does not imply disrespect or aggression toward the teacher.*

### *Identifying Emotional Triggers*

*The teacher considers sources of stress and other emotional triggers that make it hard to maintain emotional objectivity. Such triggers might be personal events, certain times of the school year, or specific student or faculty behaviors that make the teacher feel a certain way. For example, a teacher might become short-tempered toward the end of the semester because he perceives students' inability to concentrate as a sign of disrespect rather than excitement. Alternatively, the teacher may be anxious about his parents-in-law coming to town and allow this anxiety to affect his demeanor with students. Once the teacher identifies these triggers and why they make him feel the way he does, the teacher tries not to let those feelings affect his interactions with students. The teacher might also take extra steps to provide self-care, recognizing that when he or she feels relaxed and in control, he acts in a more objective manner with students.*

### *Self-Care (pg. 12)*

*Self-care can be defined as intentional actions or practices that an individual partakes in to ensure his or her physical, mental, or emotional health. To engage in self-care, the teacher identifies activities that he or she finds to be rewarding and engages in the activities as needed to mitigate negative feelings. Self-care varies greatly between teachers depending on their needs. For example, if a teacher feels overwhelmed during the school day, she might take a moment to sit by herself, gather her thoughts, practice deep breathing, and identify things from her day that she is grateful for. A different teacher in the same situation might feel the need to give himself some type of reward to help maintain a healthy perspective. However, self-care is not just limited to teachers' actions during the school day. Self-care also encompasses activities that teachers may engage in outside of school that ensure they feel good and are optimistic about their lives and their careers. As such, self-care also encompasses getting a good night's sleep, exercising regularly, and partaking in relaxing activities (which could range from watching television, eating out at a nice restaurant, or seeing friends and family on a regular basis). Finally, teachers should also take actions to maintain healthy senses of humor so that they react positively when faced with negative events.*

### *Assertiveness (pg. 14)*

*When considering interactions with students, a teacher may be assertive, passive, or aggressive. Ideally, a teacher should aim to be assertive—able to assert his or her own needs without ignoring or violating the rights of his or her students. As such, an assertive teacher navigates classroom relationships in a way that shows respect for students while still demonstrating that he or she has control. Furthermore, the teacher communicates his or her needs to students and does so in a way that makes it difficult for students to ignore or circumvent. For example, an assertive teacher, upon realizing that students are having a conversation during a lecture, would not ignore the problem. Rather, the teacher would take action to ensure that the students stop, but would do so in such a way that shows that he or she respects and cares for the students.*

### *Maintaining a Cool Exterior (pg. 16)*

*A teacher who maintains a cool exterior remains calm and collected when dealing with conflicts in the classroom. Maintaining a cool exterior includes using assertive body language, self-monitoring facial expressions, speaking in a calm and respectful tone of voice, actively listening to reasonable explanations, and avoiding engagement with students who argue, deny, or blame others for their conduct. For example, if a teacher often reacts poorly to students interrupting him, the teacher makes an active choice to address an interrupting student in a calm and professional manner. The teacher might pay particular attention to his tone, volume, and language; take a deep breath before asking the student to stop the unwanted behavior; and describe the student's actions as inappropriate but not make assumptions about the student based upon the repeated action.*

### *Active Listening and Speaking (pg. 18)*

*The teacher listens to students without agreeing or disagreeing. The teacher should focus on what the student is saying and try to understand the student's viewpoint. The teacher stays neutral in body posture, gestures, and facial expressions. When the student is finished speaking, the teacher acknowledges that he or she heard the student ("I think I understand how you feel") and then prompts them to go on ("What else is bothering you?"). The teacher repeats this process until the student can't think of anything else to say and is calmer. Finally, the teacher summarizes what he or she heard the student say. At the end of the summary, the teacher asks, "Am I right? Did I hear you completely?" The*

*student will either say yes or correct the teacher. If the student corrects the teacher, the teacher should restate the summary with the correction incorporated.*

### *Communication Styles (19-21)*

*There are many different types of communication styles, and the style with which a teacher communicates affects his or her relationships with students as well as his or her ability to manage a classroom effectively. Generally, communication styles fall into the following five categories: (1) assertive connector, (2) apathetic avoider, (3) junior therapist, (4) bulldozer, and (5) hider. Teachers should be aware of various communication styles, determine the communication style he or she uses the most, and assess how this style affects the relationships in the classroom. Generally, the communication style of the assertive connector is favored, as it communicates respect to students while allowing the teacher to remain in control of the classroom. The teacher should also assess the communication styles of students and work to help them communicate assertively and effectively.*

### *Unique Student Needs*

*There are five types of students that may challenge a teacher's ability to remain objective and in control: (1) students who are passive, (2) students who are aggressive, (3) students who have attention problems, (4) perfectionistic students, and (5) students who are socially inept. Teachers should consider students in their classes and identify students who may have unique needs. Once identified, the teacher takes proactive steps in remaining objective and in control during interactions with these students. For example, if a perfectionistic student repeatedly turns in work late, rather than becoming frustrated with the student, the teacher may want to remind himself or herself of the student's unique needs and take steps to help the student overcome his or her anxieties related to perfectionism.*

### *Communicating High Expectations*

*Demonstrating Value and Respect for Reluctant Learners*

### *Identifying Expectation Levels for All Students*

*The first step toward demonstrating equal value and respect for all students is to identify any pre-existing differences in expectations of students. To do this, the teacher identifies the expectation level for each student by imagining that each student has completed a comprehensive assessment that covers some of the more difficult content addressed in class. On a class list, the teacher writes the level at which he or she expects each student to perform on such an assessment: high, average, or low.*

### *Identifying Differential Treatment of Reluctant Learners*

*The teacher tracks his or her behavior for several days to increase awareness of differences in affective tone and quality of interaction with specific students. Using an informal observation form, the teacher keeps track of his or her affective tone and quality of interaction with specific students. Some behaviors associated with each area are identified as follows.*

| ***Affective Tones*** | ***Quality of Interaction*** |
|---|---|
| *Tone of voice*<br>*Proximity*<br>*Gestures* | *Feedback*<br>*Probing for more complex information*<br>*Coaching for an answer* |

| | |
|---|---|
| *Eye contact*<br>*Smiles*<br>*Playful dialogue*<br>*Physical contact*<br>*Range of questions* | *Calling on students*<br>*Level of questions*<br>*Level of response required for a reward (verbal or otherwise)* |

*The teacher then uses the data collected to generate conclusions about differential treatment of reluctant learners. The teacher should identify specific students who seem to be receiving differential treatment. For example, a teacher might notice that he or she uses a distant or annoyed tone of voice with reluctant learners, but a more conversational or engaged tone with high-expectancy students. The teacher might also examine whether he or she has generalized low expectations for certain groups of students because of ethnicity, appearance, verbal patterns, or socioeconomic status. If this is the case, the teacher should actively seek to behave in a manner not controlled by biased patterns of thought. If biased patterns of thought are present, the teacher might try to ascertain the origin of those patterns and seek to suppress the behaviors prompted by them.*

### *Nonverbal and Verbal Indicators of Respect*

*The teacher uses eye contact, smiling, proximity, hand and body gestures, physical contact, and playful dialogue to communicate value and respect for all students. If a teacher recognizes different treatment for reluctant learners, the teacher should make an effort to use both verbal and nonverbal indicators to show respect and value for reluctant learners.*

## *Asking In-Depth Questions of Reluctant Learners*

### *Question Levels*

*The teacher asks questions that require students to analyze information, evaluate conclusions, or make inferences. For example, a teacher might present a short reading and then ask students to determine whether the author has given sufficient evidence for the conclusion. These types of questions are more complex than questions that test recognition or recall of correct answers. Teachers should ensure that they frequently ask reluctant learners complex questions, even if these students may need help or encouragement to respond.*

### *Response Opportunities*

*The teacher reinforces high expectations for all students by giving them equal response opportunities. That is, no student should have significantly more or fewer opportunities to answer a question than any other student. There are many ways to give opportunities to respond and to increase overall response rates; this strategy focuses on equitable distribution of those opportunities.*

### *Follow-Up Questioning*

*If a student is having trouble answering a question, the teacher restates the question, encourages collaboration, or gives hints and cues. For example, if the teacher asks a question about the traits of a character from a story and a student isn't sure of the answer, the teacher might ask the student to think about it in terms of comparing that character to another. Teachers can also let the student opt out*

*temporarily. If the teacher does allow the student to opt out, it is important to follow up with the student using a different question or in a one-on-one conversation at a later time.*

### *Evidence and Support for Student Answers*

*To reinforce high expectations for all students, the teacher requires similar levels of evidence and support for answers from every student. If a student makes a claim, the teacher asks him or her to provide grounds and backing for that claim, regardless of whether the student is a typically reluctant learner. If a student must make inferences in order to answer a question, the teacher asks the student to explain these inferences, even if the teacher has generally low expectations of the student.*

### *Encouragement*

*To encourage participation from all members of the class, the teacher attributes ideas and comments to those who offered them. The teacher also thanks each student who asks a question or provides an answer, even if the answer is incorrect. If a student does answer incorrectly, the teacher acknowledges any correct portions of the response and then explains how the incorrect portion could be altered to make it correct. Alternatively, the teacher states the question that the incorrect response would have answered.*

### *Wait Time*

*The teacher provides appropriate wait time after asking a question and appropriate pause time between student answers to allow all students adequate time to process information and formulate responses. To use wait time, a teacher would pose a question, wait several seconds depending on the complexity of the question, and then call on a student to respond. Wait time also applies when a student pauses to collect his or her thoughts while speaking and between individual answers when multiple students are responding.*

### *Tracking Responses*

*The teacher ensures that all students have fairly equal opportunities to respond by calling on any student instead of only selecting those who raise their hands. The teacher also keeps track of which students have answered or been asked questions, perhaps by placing a checkmark on his or her class chart next to their names. To focus on specific students, the teacher circles those students' names on a list or seating chart and then tracks how often they ask or respond to questions throughout a class period.*

### *Avoiding Inappropriate Reactions*

*The teacher encourages reluctant learners to answer questions and share their thoughts by avoiding inappropriate reactions to student responses. The teacher should avoid any of the following responses.*

- *Telling students they should have known the answer to a question*
- *Ignoring a student's response*
- *Making subjective comments about incorrect answers*
- *Allowing negative comments from other students*

## *Probing Incorrect Answers with Reluctant Learners*

### *Using an Appropriate Response Process*

*The teacher responds appropriately to incorrect or incomplete responses by first demonstrating gratitude for the student's response. Next, the teacher points out what is correct and what is incorrect about the student's response. The teacher should emphasize what was correct and acknowledge that the student was headed in the right direction. If the student's response was completely incorrect, the teacher identifies the question that the incorrect response would have answered. Finally, the teacher helps the student answer correctly or complete his or her previous answer by giving the student more time to think, using hints or cues, modifying or restating the original question, or finding a simpler question within the one initially asked. The teacher might also provide the answer to the student and ask the student to elaborate on it, restate it in his or her own words, or provide an example of the answer.*

### *Letting Students Off The Hook Temporarily*

*If a student becomes flustered, confused, or embarrassed while answering a question, the teacher lets the student pass temporarily. However, the teacher should return to the same student at a later time (in either a whole-class or one-on-one context) and ask this student to answer a different question or think through the initial question when the student feels calmer.*

### *Answer Revision*

*The teacher uses elaborative interrogation techniques to help a student probe his or her answer until the student realizes that it is not defensible. The teacher might respond to a student's incorrect answer with questions such as, How do you know that to be true? and What evidence can you give to support that conclusion?*

### *Think-Pair-Share*

*This strategy was originally developed by Frank Lyman in the article "The Responsive Classroom Discussion: The Inclusion of All Students," which was published in Mainstreaming Digest in 1981.*
*The teacher uses this structure to allow reluctant learners time to rehearse and correct answers before sharing them in front of the class. First, the teacher asks or displays a question and students briefly think about the answer individually. Then, students form pairs and tell their partners their best answers to the question. After two to three minutes of discussion in pairs, the teacher calls on a student. When called on, students can provide their own answer to the question, quote their partner's answer, or ask their partner to give his or her answer.*

***Addressing Content***

***Direct Instruction***

***Chunking -*** *The teacher chunks content into small bites for students. In presenting new declarative knowledge, they put concepts that go together by creating topics or steps. In procedural, the chunks are comprised of steps. Use Pre assessment data to vary the size of the chunk. Move from foundational concepts to more complex that build on each other. Bullet points are a way to chunk, encourage students to take notes and summarize the content being taught, and write down their questions. Check for understanding while presenting.*

***Way to Check for understanding*** *- Group students into threes and assign letter A, B, C. Present a chunk of information and ask student A to summarize and then have student B and C add to A's summary. Teach summarizing strategies, use graphic organizer to find the main idea and key details. Write down important vocabulary of each chunk.*

***Processing Content -*** *During breaks in the presentation of new content, the teacher engages students in actively processing new information.*

***Perspective Analysis***

***The teacher asks students to consider multiple perspectives on new knowledge using perspective analysis. This strategy involves five steps, each with a corresponding question: 1. Identify your own position on a controversial topic—What do I believe about this? 2. Determine the reasoning behind your position—Why do I believe that? 3. Identify an opposing position—What is another way of looking at this? 4. Describe the reasoning behind the opposing position—Why might someone else hold a different opinion? 5. When you are finished, summarize what you have learned—What have I learned? Asking students to state their position, the reasoning behind their position, an opposing position, the reasoning behind the opposing position, and a summary of what they learned about a topic***

***Thinking Hats***

*The teacher asks students to process new information by imagining themselves wearing any one of six different-colored thinking hats. Students should use multiple hats when examining one chunk of new content as a way of developing a more thorough understanding of the information. Depending on the hat they wear, students look at new knowledge in a slightly different way, as follows: • White hat (neutral and objective perspectives)—When wearing the white hat, students examine facts and figures related to the new information without drawing conclusions or interpreting them. • Red hat (emotional perspectives)—When wearing the red hat, students express how they feel about the new information, but should still refrain from judging either the topic or their feelings. • Black hat (cautious or careful perspectives)—When wearing the black hat, students look for weaknesses or risks that stem from new information. • Yellow hat (optimistic perspectives)—When wearing the yellow hat, students look for positive and valuable aspects of new information. • Green hat (creative perspectives)—When wearing the green hat, students use the new knowledge to generate new ideas or create novel solutions to problems using the new information. • Blue hat (organizational perspectives)—When wearing the blue hat, students reflect on their thinking processes and decide what perspectives they would like to take (in other words, what hats they would like to put on) as they interact with new information.*

***Collaborative Processing*** *The teacher asks students to meet in small groups to summarize the information just presented, ask clarifying questions about the information just presented, and make predictions about upcoming information. After allowing the students to interact in small groups, the teacher can lead the whole class in a discussion of their summaries, questions, and predictions.*

***Jigsaw Cooperative Learning -*** *Once students are in their groups, the teacher assigns each student a topic about which he or she will become an "expert*

***Reciprocal Teaching***

***Concept Attainment -*** *The teacher asks students to identify, compare, and contrast examples and nonexamples of a concept*

***Think-Pair-Share -*** *When using the Think-Pair-Share strategy, the teacher asks students to think critically about a question, pair up with another classmate to come to a consensus on their answer to the question, and then share their responses with other groups or the whole class.*

***Scripted Cooperative Dyads -*** *The teacher presents a new chunk of information or asks students to read a short excerpt of a text. As they read or listen, students take notes about the main idea and key details of the content. Then, the teacher breaks students up into groups of two and assigns each student to act either as the "recaller" or the "listener." In their groups, the recaller summarizes the content, without looking at his or her notes, while the listener adds missing information and corrects any errors in the recaller's summary. Students should switch between the roles of recaller and listener after each chunk of information. Make sure to teach students how to take notes, how to summarize using who, what, where, why and how of information. Teach what the role of listener looks like.*

***Recording and Representing Content -*** *Research has shown that representing information linguistically (summaries and notes) and representing information nonlinguistically (models, pictures, mental images) are both associated with gains in student achievement. When information is both linguistic and nonlinguistic, students process information more thoroughly and deeply. Ways to do this:*

- ***Informal Outline -*** *students use indentation to indicate the relative importance of ideas. They write big ideas at the left side of the paper, and indent and list details under the big idea to which they pertain. Students can also use numbering, bullets, or Roman numerals to organize information and display its relative importance.*
- ***Summarization Activities –*** *use graphic organize to show main details, Practice basic summarizing techniques by asking students to describe the plot of a familiar movie or story in one to two sentences. Remind students that it is not necessary to retell the whole plot*
- *Pictorial Notes and Pictograph*
- *Combination Notes, Pictures, and Summary*
- *Graphic Organizers*
- *Free Flowing Web*
- *Cornell Notes*
- *Dramatic Enactments- students role-play characters or act out scenes, processes, or events. They can also use their bodies to create symbols for concepts such as radius, diameter, and circumference. While dramatic enactments can be highly engaging for students, they can be superficial if handled incorrectly. Teachers must budget time in class for students to explain the explicit connections between their enactments and the content they represent.*
- *Mnemonic devices*

***<u>Practicing and Deepening Lessons</u>***

***Structured Practice Sessions -*** *When the content involves a skill, strategy, or process, the teacher engages students in practice activities that help them develop fluency.*

*Modeling -When any skill, strategy, or process is presented to students, it should first be modeled for them. This involves the teacher walking through the steps involved in the skill, strategy, or process. Teachers often use "think-aloud" techniques to model.*

*Guided Practice - Guided practice involves well-structured opportunities for students to engage in new skills, strategies, or processes. During these opportunities, activities move from very simple to more complex versions of the skill, strategy, or process.*

*Close Monitoring - When students are learning a new skill, the teacher provides a highly structured environment and monitors students' actions very closely to correct early errors or misunderstandings. As students become more adept with a skill, strategy, or process, the teacher encourages them to monitor their own progress and evaluate their own performances. Break procedures or processes into steps or chunks so that students can easily practice each piece. Watch students as they practice each step.*

*Frequent Structured Practice - When students are learning a new skill or process, the teacher first provides a clear demonstration of the skill or process. After this demonstration, students should have frequent opportunities to practice discrete elements of the skill or process and the process as a whole in situations where they have a high probability of success. Students should experience success multiple times before moving away from this type of practice.*

*Varied Practice - Once students have engaged in frequent structured practice, they should begin practicing a skill or process in more challenging situations. Students should still experience success, but they might be required to work a bit harder than was necessary during frequent structured practice. During this type of practice, the teacher should encourage students to monitor their progress with the skill or process and identify their strengths or weaknesses.*

*Fluency Practice - Once students are comfortable with a skill or process and have experienced success with it in a wide range of situations, they engage in independent practice in which they focus on performing the skill or process skillfully, accurately, quickly, and automatically. The teacher can assign this type of practice with a skill or process as homework. Students can track their progress over time by keeping self-monitoring charts.*

*Worked Examples - While students are practicing skills and processes, the teacher provides them with problems or examples that have already been worked out so they receive a clear image of the correct procedure.*

*Practice Sessions Prior to Testing - The teacher sets up a practice schedule to ensure that students each have a chance to review and practice skills and processes before they are tested or retested on them.*

***Examining Similarities and Differences** - When content is informational, the teacher helps students deepen their knowledge by examining similarities and differences.*

*Sentence Stem Comparisons- Students complete sentence stems that ask them to compare and contrast various people, places, events, concepts, or processes. These comparisons can be general or specific, as shown by the following examples.*

*Summarizers A summarizer is a simple graphic organizer that students can use to examine the similarities and differences between two items.*

*Constructed Response Comparisons A constructed response comparison is a student-generated written response that describes the similarities and differences between two items or ideas. This strategy begins with a simple request by the teacher: "How is similar to and different from*

*Venn Diagrams - Students use these visual tools to compare and contrast two or three people, places, events, concepts, or processes. Students write similarities where circles intersect, and they write characteristics unique to the comparison items where the circles do not intersect. Venn diagrams can be used for specific, general, abstract, or concrete comparisons.*

*T Charts Students can use T charts to compare two objects, ideas, events, or people. Students fill in a T-shaped graphic organizer by writing two topics across the top and details that describe each on either side of a dividing line.*

*Comparison Matrices Students identify elements they wish to compare and write them at the top of each column in a grid.*

*Classification Charts The teacher creates a chart with several categories listed across the top and asks students to fill in examples that fit in each category*

*Sorting, Matching, and Categorizing The teacher asks students to participate in activities that require them to sort, match, and categorize content. When sorting, students should place items into specific, predetermined categories. When matching, students should match two things that are equivalent to one another. For example, they might match a picture or symbol with a word, a definition with a term, two mathematical equations with the same solution, or a synonym with a word. When categorizing, students should group elements into two or more categories and explain the reasoning behind their categorization.*

*Similes Students state comparisons using like or as. Students can generate similes to help them understand how new knowledge relates to previous knowledge*

*Metaphors Students state comparisons using metaphors. In a metaphor, comparisons are stated as direct relationships—one thing is another—for example, life is a journey.*

*Examining **Errors in Reasoning -** When content is informational, the teacher helps students deepen their knowledge by examining their own reasoning or the logic of the information as presented to them*

*Anticipating Student Errors - When presenting content, teachers can prevent confusion or missteps by pre-emptively addressing common errors. When planning a lesson or assignment, the teacher identifies errors that students are likely to make. Then, during the presentation of content, the teacher alerts students to the potential problems*

*Avoiding Unproductive Habits of Mind-Habits of mind are ways we regularly approach situations. Unproductive habits of mind are those that hinder us from completing complex tasks. Conversely, productive habits of mind are those that help us complete complex tasks. Productive habits of mind include the following.*

1. *Staying focused when answers and solutions are not immediately apparent*

2. *Pushing the limits of your knowledge and skills*
3. *Generating and pursuing your own standards of excellence*
4. *Seeking incremental steps*
5. *Seeking accuracy*
6. *Seeking clarity*
7. *Resisting impulsivity*
8. *Seeking cohesion and coherence*

*Identifying Errors of Faulty Logic - Students find and analyze errors of faulty logic. Errors of faulty logic refer to situations in which a conclusion is not supported by sound reasons. Specific types of errors in this category include contradiction, accident, false cause, begging the question, evading the issue, arguing from ignorance, composition, and division.*

*Identifying Errors of Misinformation Students find and analyze errors of misinformation. Errors of misinformation occur when a person uses incorrect information in support of an argument. Two types of misinformation errors are confusing the facts and misapplying a concept or generalization.*

*Finding Errors in the Media The teacher provides students with footage of political debates, televised interviews, commercials, advertisements, newspaper articles, blogs, and other sources and asks them to find and analyze errors in reasoning that underlie the messages therein.*

*Examining Support for Claims Students examine the support provided for a claim by analyzing the grounds, backing, and qualifiers that support it. Grounds are the reasons given to support a claim and backing is the evidence, facts, or data that support the grounds, while qualifiers address exceptions or objections to the claim. Defining the structure of the argument and identifying how the support presented for a claim relates to that claim can help students determine whether the claim is valid.*

***Strategies That Appear in All Types of Lessons***

***Previewing Same as Activating Background Knowledge***

***Strategies***

***Informational Hooks***

*The teacher uses activities designed to stimulate interest in the content of a lesson. These activities might include anecdotes, video clips, audio clips, newspaper headlines, and other short attention-grabbing media to spark students' attention. The teacher might also present unusual information or personal stories related to the lesson topic. Hooks typically occur at the beginning of class. Example: What is the most interesting aspect of that content, anecdotes or personal stories, video clips, audio clips, unusual information about this content.*

***Bell-Ringers***

*As their name implies, bell-ringers are activities at the very beginning of a class period that students are to engage in as soon as, or even before, the bell rings. For example, a teacher might have his or her students answer a quiz question written on the board. Bell-ringers are commonly used with content that students need to practice or review as a way to activate background knowledge before a new lesson. Samples: Quick quiz, group quiz, discussion questions, summarization of previously learned material, student questions about previously learned material*

### *What Do You Think You Know?*

*The simplest way to preview new content is to ask students what they think they know about a topic. The teacher asks students to individually write down what they already know about an upcoming topic. After each student has created an individual list, the teacher asks students to pair up and discuss their previous knowledge and ideas. Each pair creates a list of its most original or most important knowledge and ideas, using examples where appropriate. Finally, each pair shares its list, and the teacher creates a whole-class list of what is already known about upcoming content. For example, prior to a lesson on tidal waves, a teacher asks students what they think they know about tidal waves. She emphasizes the fact that students do not have to be sure about their information. All that is required is to share what they think they know.*

### *Overt Linkages*

*The teacher helps students make overt links between content they have previously studied in class and new content being presented by simply explaining the connections. For example, the teacher might say, "When you read the section in the chapter about percolation, keep in mind that it is similar to what happened in our last experiment when the soil acted as a filter as the water seeped through it."*

### *Preview Questions*

*The teacher asks questions about upcoming content to pique students' curiosity and activate their prior knowledge. Although students may not know the answers to the questions because they have not yet learned the new content, the questions help signal what information they should be listening for as the teacher presents new content.*

### *Brief Teacher Summary*

*The teacher provides students with an oral or written summary of content that is about to be presented. He or she also links upcoming content to past content. This helps students see key ideas and patterns and follow those ideas as the teacher presents more detailed information.*

### *Skimming*

*The teacher helps students skim written information on an upcoming topic by teaching them to look at major section headings and subheadings and asking them to analyze those headings to pick out main ideas and important concepts in the passage. The teacher might also ask students to try to summarize a passage after skimming it, record how well they think they already understand the new content, and predict what they will learn during an upcoming presentation of the new content.*

### *Teacher-Prepared Notes*

*The teacher provides an outline of the content to students before presenting new information. The teacher should allow students to ask questions after the teacher presents new information and reviews the outline. This can help clear up initial confusion or misconceptions that students have about new content.*

### *K-W-L Strategy*

*The teacher uses a K-W-L strategy before presenting new content. The letters of K-W-L stand for "Know," "Want to know," and "Learned." First, students identify what they know about the topic and the teacher records this information under K on a chart. Then students list what they want to know about a topic, and the teacher records this information under W on a chart. Finally, after a lesson, students identify and*

*list things they have learned, which are recorded under L. At this point, the teacher and students examine what was written in the K column in an attempt to identify initial misconceptions about the content.*

### *Advance Organizers*

*The teacher creates a visual representation or graphic organizer showing the structure and organization of new content and illustrating how new content connects to information previously learned in class. Students can use this organizer to ask questions before the presentation of new content, to identify what they already know about new content, and to connect new content to their personal interests. Topic or detail chart, description chart, comparison chart, sequence chart, causation chart, free-flowing web.*

### *Anticipation Guides*

*Before presenting new content, the teacher has students respond to a series of statements that relate to upcoming information. After students respond to the statements, the teacher leads the class in a discussion about how students responded. This activates students' prior knowledge about a topic and helps them consider issues and ideas associated with new content.*

### *Word Splash Activity – Teach Vocabulary*

*The teacher uses this strategy to help students preview vocabulary terms and concepts associated with new content. The teacher prepares a number of words and descriptions of those words associated with the new content and presents them to students. Students try to sort the terms into categories that make sense to them. The teacher then allows students to share their categories and sorting strategies and leads the class in a discussion of how the terms and concepts relate to each other and to students' prior knowledge and individual interests.*

### *Preassessment*

*The teacher administers a preassessment to students before presenting new content. This strategy exposes students to the most important information in an upcoming presentation, and the teacher can use preassessment results to gain an understanding of which students have a lot of prior knowledge about upcoming content and which do not. Preassessments used as preview activities should involve going over each question and allowing students to identify what they are confused and need to learn more about.*

## ***Highlighting Critical Information***

### *Strategies*

### *Repeating the Most Important Content*

*One way to highlight critical information is for the teacher to continually repeat the information that is important to the lesson or unit when opportunities present themselves. Repeating not only identifies which information is critical, but helps students remember that information for later recall. For example, repetition of the Pythagorean Theorem not only alerts students to the importance of the theorem, but can help them to more easily recall it when solving problems involving right triangles. Ask students to repeat information, repeat a student;s answers, repeat information to strengthen connections.*

### *Questions That Focus on Critical Information*

*Questioning is a common method of highlighting critical information. Beyond merely reminding students of previous information, questions prompt students to understand the importance of information by*

*highlighting connections to current content. These connections demonstrate the critical nature of important information. Strategies: Ask narrow questions that focus on a specific component and highlight the importance of that information. Ask multipart questions that require several steps to be completed, ask students to explain why information is important, ask students to relate current information to previous content.*

### *Visual Activities*

*Visual activities or presentations of content can greatly enhance student learning. Using storyboards, graphic organizers, and pictures to highlight critical information can help students create mental pictures of the information and promote comprehension and recall. For example, illustrating a sentence with a storyboard can help students identify the parts of the sentence, such as the subject, verb, and object.*

### *Narrative Activities*

*Stories are a powerful way to introduce new content. Stories can be used by a teacher to anchor information in memory and signal to students that certain information is important. The narrative structure of a story is also particularly useful for highlighting important relationships between different events or pieces of information.*

### *Tone of Voice, Gestures, and Body Position*

*Nonverbal communication is extremely important in the classroom. Students' level of interest in the content can be strongly influenced by the level of interest displayed by the teacher. Tone of voice, gestures, and body position are all important when presenting content, though teachers should be aware that overuse may lessen their effect.*

### *Pause Time*

*Pausing during the presentation of new content can signal its importance. This creates a sense of anticipation about what will occur next. The use of pause time when presenting information is also useful for making sure that students have sufficient opportunity to take in and process the content. Used in this manner, pause time gives students time to organize their thoughts and prepare questions.*

### *Identifying Critical-Input Experiences – Before you say it, tell them how important this information is*

*Critical-input experiences introduce important new content to students and are vital to enhancing student learning. It is vital that a teacher recognize which activities that have been designed for students are the most important. Visual, dramatic, and narrative activities in particular help students to visualize and understand new content, and to store it effectively for later recall. Choosing two to three well-structured input experiences per learning goal and identifying them clearly not only provides focus for the teacher, but signals to students that the information being presented is critical to their understanding of the content.*

### *Using Explicit Instruction to Convey Critical Content*

*Explicit instruction is one of the most powerful and essential means of introducing critical content. It is especially important if students seem to be struggling with the content area, or when the information itself is foundational or leaves no room for errors. Teachers should use plain, clear language to identify and convey critical content, and should pace the delivery of content so that students have plenty of time to process the information. Organize the information (manageable chunks), get the class's attention,*

*identify the information as critical, speak clearly and plainly, move slower pace, monitor class engagement, don't be afraid to repeat, check for comprehension, ask for questions*

### *Using Dramatic Instruction to Convey Critical Content*

*The teacher ask students to participate in a dramatic activity that conveys the critical content. Dramatic activities can range from skits and role playing to hand gestures and other body movements. It is important that the teacher asks students to link dramatic instruction to the critical content being conveyed. Dramatic instruction should also include all students, as merely observing the dramatic activity does not convey the critical information as effectively as participating.*

### *Providing Advance Organizers to Cue Critical Content*

*The teacher designs advance organizers that identify and preview critical content for students. Advance organizers can be anything from a simple verbal cue to a classroom chart to a descriptive metaphor for the content. The purpose of an advance organizer is to provide students with a clear identification of upcoming critical information and of how that information fits into the larger unit or content area. (pg 26)*

### *Using What Students Already Know to Cue Critical Content*

*The teacher uses* what students already know to identify and explain critical content. As students learn new information, they situate it within and connect it to their understanding of previous content. The teacher should first assess students' current understanding of basic vocabulary and facts, as well as their proficiency in key skills or processes. He or she can then identify and highlight ways in which information students already possess relates to upcoming critical content. (Relationship Card Activity – pg. 27)

## Reviewing Content

### Cumulative Review

The most powerful form of review is cumulative review. The teacher not only reviews content from the current unit but helps students relate it to learning or content from previous units. For example, the teacher might have students review the process of evaporation from a unit on the water cycle, and then identify how the same process is present in the current lesson on the regulation of body temperature by warm-blooded animals. Cumulative review also involves students identifying misconceptions they held previously and creating new generalizations.

### Cloze Activities

The teacher presents previously learned information to students with pieces missing and asks them to fill in the missing pieces. For example, the teacher might give a partial description of the process of long division and then ask students to identify and describe the missing steps.

### Summaries

To review previously learned content, the class briefly discusses what information it remembers or found important using short summaries. Teachers can either create summaries for students to review or ask students to prepare their own summaries. The latter option requires teaching students how to create succinct, personalized records of the information they have learned from a new lesson.

### Presented Problems

The teacher presents students with a problem that requires them to use previously learned information in order to solve it. For example, the teacher might ask students to solve a math problem involving exponents that requires them to review previously learned multiplication and division skills.

### Demonstrations

The teacher asks students to demonstrate a skill or process that requires them to use previously learned information or a previously learned procedure. For example, a teacher might have students demonstrate how to find the distance between two points on a graph in order to review the distance formula.

### Brief Practice Test or Exercise

The teacher asks students to complete an exercise that prompts them to remember and apply previously learned information. For example, a teacher might ask students to draw a diagram of a cell or take a short math quiz that incorporates content from previous units. After the test or exercise, students should review any information they remembered or applied incorrectly.

### Questioning

The teacher asks questions that require students to recall, recognize, or apply previously learned information. These questions might also ask students to make inferences or decisions based on the previously learned information.

### Give One, Get One

After locating information on a specific topic in their academic notebooks, students stand up and move to find a partner, carrying their notebooks with them. The pair compares what each student has recorded in his or her academic notebook. Students each share at least one piece of information they recorded that the other student did not. Based on this information, students add to or revise the entries in their notebooks. As time allows, students can find a different partner and repeat the process. The teacher leads a discussion afterward in which students share new information they collected or how they revised their notebooks to make them more accurate or complete. In addition to providing a review of the content, this strategy can also be used as a form of physical movement.

Revising Knowledge - Students make corrections to information previously recorded about content

### Academic Notebook Entries

The teacher asks students to make new entries in their academic notebooks after a critical-input experience, after group work or processing, or after reviewing and correcting homework. Over the course of a unit, and during related units, students re-examine their notebooks to correct inaccuracies or incomplete information.

### Academic Notebook Review

Students use their academic notebooks to identify important vocabulary terms, big ideas and concepts, generalizations, and other information they should study for an exam or quiz. Students can also use their academic notebooks to generate questions.

### Peer Feedback

Students trade academic notebooks and respond in writing to each other's entries. Students should ask questions about the content, quality, and thoroughness of their peers' entries, and make suggestions for improvement. They should also look for ways to improve the entries in their own notebooks.

### Assignment Revision

The teacher invites students to revise assignments. When returning the assignment to students, the teacher can offer students the opportunity to revise their assignments according to the feedback given and resubmit it to try to obtain a higher score. Students who choose not to resubmit the assignment can simply accept their initial score, but students who resubmit a revised assignment should have their score for the revised assignment recorded. Check for errors, clarity, organization, thoroughness.

### Revising Knowledge Using the Five Basic Processes

The teacher directs students in using the five basic processes to revise their knowledge of the content. The five basic processes are (1) reviewing prior understanding of the content, (2) identifying and correcting mistakes, (3) identifying gaps in knowledge and filling them in, (4) deciding where to amend prior knowledge, and (5) explaining the reasoning behind the revisions.

### Revising Knowledge Using Visual Symbols

Teachers direct students in the use of visual symbols to revise their knowledge of the content. Visual symbols are shorthand ways of highlighting information and changes in understanding when revising academic notes.

### Revising Knowledge Using Writing Tools

The teacher directs students to revise their knowledge through the use of writing tools. This does not mean that students revise pre-existing work, but rather that students use a variety of writing tools to revise and deepen their understanding of the content. These tools involve such as exercises as summarizing, concluding, quick-writes, sentence stems, and student-generated assessments.

## Reflecting on Learning

### Reflective Journals

Students use a portion of their academic notebooks to respond to reflection questions. Questions might prompt students to reflect on what predictions they made about the day's lesson that were correct or incorrect, what information in the lesson was easy or difficult to understand, how well they understand the major material the class is studying, how well they think they did during the day, or what they think they could have done better during the day. Reflective journals are not intended to be complete, finished products; instead, they are living documents that give students the freedom to change, revise, and restructure their understanding.

### Think Logs

Students reflect on specific cognitive skills (for example, classification, drawing inferences, decision making, creative thinking, or self-regulation) that were emphasized during a lesson. Prompts might include asking students how they would explain classification to a friend, asking them to describe an inference they drew during the day, or asking them how comfortable (or uncomfortable) they are with the decision-making process.

### Exit Slips

At the end of a lesson, students respond to specific reflective questions on an "exit slip" that they fill out before leaving the room. Exit slip questions might include:

- What are the main ideas of today's lesson?
- What do you feel most and least sure about?
- Do you have specific questions about today's lesson?
- With which aspects of today's class work were you successful?

### Knowledge Comparison

Students compare their current level of knowledge on a topic, or level of competence with a procedure, to their previous levels of knowledge or competence. Students can use diagrams or flowcharts to show the progression of their knowledge gain. For example, students might create a chart showing the increase in the number of vocabulary terms they have learned.

### Two-Column Notes

Students use two-column notes as an extended reflection activity at the end of a lesson. In the left-hand column, students record facts or other information that they found interesting from the lesson. In the right-hand column, they record their reactions, questions, and extended ideas related to the facts or information in the left-hand column.

**Purposeful Homework -** This element involves the teacher designing homework to help students deepen their knowledge of informational content or practice a skill, strategy, or process. Homework is an effective tool for increasing student achievement when used correctly. It should be assigned appropriately (not simply as a matter of routine), have a clear purpose, be designed so that students can reasonably complete it, and not be onerous to students or parents

### Preview Homework

The teacher asks students to read a passage of text or view media that introduces a concept or idea they will study in class. The teacher might ask students to keep a list of their questions, observations, or connections as they read or view the content. In class, the teacher might have students share their lists and discuss each other's ideas.

### Homework to Deepen Knowledge

The teacher asks students to complete an assignment that helps them compare, contrast, or classify specific aspects of the content. The teacher might also have students create analogies or metaphors involving specific aspects of the content. If using this homework strategy, the teacher should ensure that students each have a thorough understanding of the concepts they are being asked to work with. Pg 8)

### Homework to Practice a Process or Skill

The teacher asks students who have demonstrated the ability to independently perform a process or skill in class to practice that process or skill independently in order to increase their fluency, speed, and accuracy with the process or skill. For example, the teacher might have students practice the process of solving quadratic equations or ask them to use the scientific method to investigate something outside of class.

### Parent-Assisted Homework

To assist students with homework, parents or family members ask reflective questions or listen to students give an oral summary of material they read. To help students develop fluency with skills or procedures, parents might also time them in executing a specific skill or process. Parents should act as supporters, not teachers, when assisting with homework, and should have a clear idea of their role and what is expected of them.

**Elaborating on Information – QUESTIONING -** This element and its associated strategies help teachers to stimulate analytical thought processes that improve student achievement.

### General Inferential Questions

The teacher uses two kinds of general inferential questions: (1) default questions and (2) reasoned inference questions. *Default questions* ask students to use their background knowledge to answer questions. In short, students "default" to what they already know to come up with an answer. *Reasoned inference questions* require students to reason and draw conclusions or make predictions about information presented. The teacher presents explicit information that the students use as the premise from which they draw conclusions. (PG 6,7) I.E. What can you predict, what do we know has happened, explain why you are sure of that, explain the reasoning behind your conclusions.

### Elaborative Interrogation

The teacher probes a student's answer by asking elaborative questions which prompt the student to reflect on the nature of and justifications for their response. The teacher might ask "Why do you believe that to be true?" in order to stimulate a student to provide evidence to support his or her conclusion. Based on the student's response, the teacher asks the student to generate an if-then statement. After an if-then statement has been generated, the teacher asks the student if he or she might think differently about the original conclusion.

### Questioning Sequences

The teacher asks a sequence of detail questions, category questions, elaboration questions, and evidence questions to promote deep understanding and cognition. Detail questions should identify and build a base of factual information that students can subsequently use to answer deeper and more complex questions. Category questions should prompt students to generate lists of examples and identify important characteristics of a category. Elaboration questions should encourage students to use these lists to form claims and conclusions. Evidence questions should engage students in argumentation and evaluation as they find evidence to support their claims and revise their conclusions to exclude misconceptions or errors in reasoning.

## Organizing Students to Interact

### Grouping for Active Processing

The teacher assigns students to groups of two to five members for processing new information. Groups can be assigned for a specific purpose (ad hoc groups) or formed as long-term partnerships. In either case, groups should have operating rules of behavior and interaction. The teacher might place students in groups randomly, group them based on current levels of understanding, or even mix students who appear to understand something quite well with those who don't. When students process new information in groups, they are exposed to the ways other students process information, some of which might enhance their own understanding. Try grouping students at the beginning of the lesson so they can process information collectively throughout. Pause during the presentation of new content and prompt students to discuss, ask each other questions, and formulate questions to ask the whole class.

Allow each group to present to the whole class, then lead a whole-class discussion on the similarities and differences in the groups' findings

### Group Norms

In order to ensure that student groups (especially long-term groups) function smoothly, the teacher asks students to create a list of norms (collective attitudes and behaviors) to govern the group's functioning. Norms provide a set of expectations regarding students' behavior within a group. For example, a group might have the norm "We listen attentively when others are talking," which conveys that students expect each other to be respectful and avoid side conversations. To help groups create a set of norms, the teacher might give each team member several index cards and ask them to write down the norms that are most important to them. Students can then aggregate and classify the norms to create a list of the beliefs and attitudes that will help guide the behavior of group members.

### Fishbowl Demonstration

The teacher gives students a visual representation of what effective group work looks like by asking students to form a circle ("fishbowl") around a group that demonstrates what effective group work looks like. The demonstration group might model behaviors such as paraphrasing, pausing, clarifying, questioning, brainstorming, and using respectful language. (pg. 9)

### Job Cards

The teacher uses job cards to designate specific roles that students take within their groups. Examples of different jobs include facilitator, summarizer, questioner, and note-taker. This strategy can also help equalize participation when students work in groups. (pg 11)

### Predetermined Buddies To Help Form Ad Hoc Groups (13)

The teacher gives students a blank chart showing a clock (with twelve blanks, one for each hour), the seasons (with four blanks), or another theme-based graphic with blanks. Before enacting this strategy, the teacher provides time for students to find a partner for each blank and fill the partner's name in on their chart. For example, if Maddie and John agree to be "summer" partners, Maddie signs the summer blank on John's chart and John signs the summer blank on Maddie's chart. When the teacher wants to form quick, ad hoc groups, he or she asks students to find their summer (or, for example, "two o'clock") buddies and students quickly pair up.

### Contingency Plan for Ungrouped Students

The teacher designates a meeting spot for students who don't have a group and can then help those students pair up or join existing groups. For example, ungrouped students might gather in front of the teacher's desk or at the blackboard. This helps avoid some students being left ungrouped when groups are student selected.

### Grouping Students Using Preassessment Information

After administering a preassessment, the teacher uses the information gained about individual students' prior knowledge to assign students to groups. In some cases, the teacher might want to mix students with high prior knowledge and students with low prior knowledge together. In other cases, the teacher might want to differentiate by grouping students with high prior knowledge together and creating separate groups of students with medium and low prior knowledge. (pg. 18)

### Pair-Check

Within groups of four, students form pairs (two pairs per group) and designate who will be partner A and who will be partner B. Using a set of exercises, problems, or questions, partner A works on the first exercise, problem, or question while partner B coaches when necessary and praises partner A's work when complete. For the second exercise, problem, or question, the partners reverse roles. Then, the pair checks their answers with the other pair in their group. The goal is for all four group members to reach consensus about each solution. If solutions do not match, group members discuss and coach each other until they reach a common solution. They repeat the process, with consensus achieved after every two exercises, problems, or questions.

### Think-Pair-Share and Think-Pair-Square (pg. 22)

This strategy was originally developed by Frank Lyman in the article "The Responsive Classroom Discussion: The Inclusion of All Students," which was published in *Mainstreaming Digest* in 1981.
After grouping students in pairs, the teacher presents a problem. Students think about the problem individually for a predetermined amount of time. Then, students each share their thoughts, ideas, and possible solutions with their partners. Pairs discuss and come to a consensus about their solution. The teacher then asks pairs to share what they decided with the class. In a variation (think-pair-square), pairs confer with another pair (making a group of four) and come to a consensus in that group as well before sharing with the whole class.  Instruct students on coaching one another, monitor student pairs.

### Student Tournaments – (pg. 24)

The teacher organizes students into teams that then compete in various academic games. The teacher might keep track of each team's points over the course of a unit and provide a tangible reward or recognition to the top one or two teams. Team members should be remixed after each unit to ensure that students have the opportunity to work with a variety of other students.

### Inside-Outside Circle

This strategy was originally developed by Spencer Kagan and Miguel Kagan in the book *Kagan Cooperative Learning* (2009).
Students form two concentric circles with an equal number of students in each circle. Students forming the inner circle stand facing outward, and students forming the outward circle stand facing inward (so that each person in the inner circle faces a person in the outer circle). The teacher asks a question or presents a problem, and students discuss their thoughts, answers, and solutions with the person facing them. On a signal from the teacher, each person in the inner circle takes one step to the left, so that everyone now faces a new partner. Partners again compare answers and solutions, after which the teacher asks individuals to share answers or solutions with the group. The teacher might also ask students to share what they discussed with their partners and how it changed (or didn't change) their thinking.

### Cooperative Learning – (28)

The teacher appropriately structures and governs the use of cooperative learning during cognitively complex tasks. This involves (1) designing structures for group and individual accountability, (2) providing ongoing coaching of students' interpersonal and group skills, (3) specifying clear roles and responsibilities for all group members, and (4) using a variety of grouping criteria and grouping structures that make sense in the larger scheme of classroom activities and instructional segments.

### Peer Response Groups

Students work with peers to give and receive feedback on their cognitively complex tasks. To ensure equal participation and consistent feedback, the teacher assigns roles to students and uses scoring scales or checklists to ensure similar standards for each member of the group.

### Peer Tutoring

Advanced students volunteer to help students who need just a little assistance to move up to the next level. Advanced students should probably not tutor severely struggling students (who need intensive help from the teacher); rather the teacher pairs advanced students with students who need only a small amount of help or guidance to achieve competence or proficiency.

### Structured Grouping

The teacher designs and implements structured group activities that feature both individual and group accountability. Individual group members carry out specific tasks and responsibilities while working together on the final product. Structured group activities are designed to deepen and extend students' understanding of a topic, as opposed to introducing new content.

### Group Reflecting on Learning

The teacher organizes students into groups to reflect on their learning progress, on activities they have participated in with their peers, or on a piece of work they have produced. Groups can be as small as two students, but the teacher should make a plan so that groups can be formed quickly and regularly. The reflection process should be structured to guide students in sharing their reflections, encouraging each other, and identifying ways to grow in their learning.

## Engagement

## Noticing When Students Are Not Engaged and Reacting

### Monitoring Individual Student Engagement

Teachers can scan the room and identify specific students who appear to be disengaged to ensure high levels of classroom engagement. The teacher can do this during whole-class or small-group instruction as well as during individual seatwork. Once a student is identified, the teacher should use specific interventions to re-engage the student. For example, if a teacher notices a student gazing out the window for extended periods of time during whole-class instruction, the teacher might decide to physically move him- or herself between the unfocused student and the window as a means to draw the student's attention back to the lesson being taught. Signs during whole class instruction: notetaking, direct eye contact, reacting to content like laughing or looking surprised, following directions, asking questions, responding, working quietly. Pg. 6)

### Monitoring Overall Class Engagement – Pg. 8

To ensure class engagement, the teacher monitors levels of engagement exhibited by the class as a whole. When monitoring class engagement, a teacher can assess the degree to which the entirety of the class seems to be interested in the work at hand. For example, in a class with low engagement, when

the teacher asks a question, students may not volunteer to answer the question (with the exception of a few of the same students). In a class with high engagement, students seem authentically interested in the material and eager to deepen their knowledge about the content.

### Self-Reported Student Engagement Data

The teacher periodically asks students to signal their level of engagement. The teacher could ask students to self-report their engagement levels informally throughout a class or unit by asking students to raise their hands if they feel their energy levels dropping or create a system to let students consistently report their engagement. For example, each student might have three cards—a white card that signifies high engagement, a gray card that signifies medium engagement, and a black card that signifies "need help." Students each display the card that represents their level of engagement at a particular time.

### Re-Engaging Individual Students

Once a teacher identifies a student who is not engaged or reacting to the content being presented, the teacher should take action to re-engage the student. There are a variety of actions that teachers can take to re-engage students who are not paying attention. For example, if a teacher notices that a student is doodling rather than taking notes, the teacher can call on that specific student and ask him or her for input related to the content being taught.

• Incorporate movement: If energy levels in the class seem low, the teacher can ask all the students in the class to stand up and stretch for a few minutes. This will break up the content and allow students to burn off extra pent-up physical energy which, when built up, can sometimes cause anxiousness.

• Take a break: The teacher announces to the class that he or she recognizes that the class's energy seems low. The teacher then asks whether or not a quick break from the material (no more than five minutes) would be helpful, but the teacher only grants this break with the understanding that the students will come back and focus on the material at hand.

• Incorporate student participation: If student engagement seems low, the teacher can find ways to get students to participate. For example, rather than calling on students to respond to questions, the teacher might use a ball or other object to determine who answers a given question. The teacher then throws the ball to a student and has that student pass the item to a student of his or her choice.

• Adapt the lesson: If a teacher notices that students seem to be bored by the content being taught, the teacher may want to find a way to tailor the lesson to be more engaging. For example, if students seem to have low energy during a direct instruction lesson, the teacher might ask students to get into small groups and discuss the content that was just presented. The teacher can then go around to groups, identify areas of confusion, and correct misconceptions.

• Incorporate competition: If energy levels seem low, the teacher can use the prospect of an academic game to help students focus. For example, if the teacher senses the class seems to have low energy, the teacher might hint that at the end of the period, the class is going to play a game that relies on knowledge of the content being presented.

• Increase enthusiasm: If the teacher senses that the class is bored, he or she may make an active choice to become especially enthusiastic about the content being presented. By modeling enthusiasm, some students may find the material to be more engaging.

### Boosting Overall Class Energy Levels

If a teacher notices that the energy levels in the classroom are low or that more than a few students are disengaged, the teacher can use specific activities to re-engage a group of students or the entire class. For example, a teacher might notice halfway through a lecture that a group of students in the back of the classroom do not seem engaged. The teacher might pause his or her lecture and ask all students to pull out their journals and to write a few comments and questions about the content thus far. After giving a few minutes of working time, the teacher might choose a student from the initially disengaged group to share what he or she has written.

## Increasing Response Rates

### Random Names

The teacher writes each student's name on a separate slip of paper or popsicle stick and keeps them in a jar or other container. After asking a question, the teacher selects a name at random from the jar and calls on that students to answer. The teacher should put the selected name back into the jar once the student has answered so that every student always has the same odds of being chosen.

### Hand Signals

In this strategy, students respond nonverbally to a question that has a limited number of possible responses. For example, students use a thumbs-up to indicate they understand the content being addressed, a thumbs-down to indicate they do not understand, and a flat palm to indicate they understand some of the content but are also confused about some of the content. Students can also use hand signals to indicate responses to multiple-choice questions: one finger indicates that response A is correct, two fingers indicate response B, three fingers indicate response C, and four fingers indicate response D.

### Response Cards

Students write their answers on small (for example, 12 × 12–inch) whiteboards or chalkboards and reveal them to the teacher simultaneously. This strategy works best with questions that have brief answers with little or no variability in what would be considered correct. For example, questions that require students to write down vocabulary words or the answer to a short math problem would work well with response cards.

### Response Chaining

After a student responds to a question, the teacher asks a second student to explain why the initial student's answer was correct, partially correct, or incorrect. The teacher might also ask the second student to paraphrase the initial answer before responding. The teacher can call on a third student to respond to the second student's response.

### Paired Response (pg. 12)

Students confer in pairs to answer a question. The teacher then calls on a pair. One student can verbalize the answer for the pair, or both can contribute.

### Choral Response

The teacher presents target information in a clear and concise statement and asks the class to repeat the information as a group. The goal is to form an "imprint" of important information. For example, the teacher would say, "The organ system that allows blood to move throughout the body is called the cardiovascular system. What is it called?" The class would then response, "The cardiovascular system."

### Wait Time

The purpose of this strategy is to give students time to think and compose their answers after a question has been asked. The teacher therefore pauses for at least three seconds after posing a question. The teacher also allows for a pause of at least three seconds if a student stops speaking in the middle of an answer and teaches students to allow a three-second pause between student answers. (pg. 16)

### Elaborative Interrogation (pg. 18)

After a student answers a question, the teacher probes the answer by asking, "How do you know that to be true?" or "Why is that so?" The teacher might also ask the student to provide evidence to support his or her conclusions. To ensure that elaborative interrogation increases response rates, multiple students must be involved in each answer. One way to do this is to have students work in pairs or threes as the teacher moves through the elaborative interrogation process.

### Multiple Types of Questions

The teacher uses a combination of types of questions such as the following:

- **Retrieval questions**—These require students to recognize, recall, and execute knowledge that was directly taught.
- **Analytical questions**—These require students to take information apart and determine how the parts relate to the whole.
- **Predictive questions**—These require students to form conjectures and hypotheses about what will happen next in a narrative or sequence of information or actions.
- **Interpretive questions**—These require students to make and defend inferences about the intentions of an author.
- **Evaluative questions**—These require students to use criteria to make judgments and assessments of something.

To ensure that multiple types of questions increase response rates, multiple students must be involved in each answer. One way to do this is to organize students into pairs or threes and assign different question types to each group.

## Using Physical Movement

### Stand Up and Stretch

Periodically, the teacher asks students to stand up and stretch. This is especially useful when students need to change focus, concentration, or engagement, because such activity causes more blood and oxygen to flow to the brain. Teachers can also instruct students to stretch in their seats if they feel tired or unfocused during class. • Side stretch: Stand with feet slightly more than hip-width apart. Raise one arm above head and place other hand on hip. Lean torso toward the side where the hand is on the hip. • Hamstring stretch: Stand with feet about six inches apart. Bend forward and reach arms down toward toes. Make sure head and neck are relaxed; look down toward toes or back through legs. • Quad stretch: Place one hand on desk for balance. Stand on one leg and bend other leg at knee to raise the

foot behind the body. Use hand to grasp top of foot or ankle and pull gently up and forward to increase stretch. Be sure to stand up straight throughout; do not bend at waist or hips. • Whole-body stretch: Stand with feet hip-width apart. Raise both arms above head. Stand on tiptoes and try to touch the ceiling. • Lunge: Stand with feet hip-width apart. Take a medium to large step forward with one foot. Forward leg should bend at the knee, keeping the shin vertical, while the back leg stays straight. Keep the torso upright and place hands on hips or raise arms above head. • Triceps stretch: Raise one arm above head. Bend arm at elbow so that the hand touches the back of the same shoulder. Use the opposite hand to grasp the elbow and gently push back to increase the stretch. • Deltoid stretch: With arm straight at shoulder level, reach across body so that the upper arm touches the chest. Use opposite hand to grasp elbow and pull toward body to increase the stretch. • Neck stretch: Stand or sit with good posture (back straight, not supported by chair). Tilt head slowly to each side. Nod head forward as if touching chin to chest.

### Vote With Your Feet

The teacher posts a sign in each corner of the room identifying responses to a true/false or multiple-choice question or reactions to answers to a question (incorrect, partially correct, totally correct). For example, if the question is multiple choice, the teacher would post signs reading A, B, C, and D in various parts of the room. Choices might also be statements of various opinions or perspectives on a topic. Students move to the corner that has the sign with the answer they think is correct. Before discussing the correct answer, the teacher asks one student under each option to explain why he or she believes that answer is correct.

### Corners Activities

The teacher splits the class into four groups, which then rotate to each of the four corners of the classroom to examine four different questions related to key content. The teacher assigns a recorder to stay in each corner to summarize students' comments about that corner's question. At the end, each recorder reads the summary from that corner.

### Stand and Be Counted

After a lesson, students stand up based on their self-assessment of how well they understood the key ideas and concepts presented in the lesson. The teacher presents a self-assessment scale, gives students a moment to think, and then prompts students at each level of the scale to stand. For example, a teacher might present a 1–4 scale in which 1 indicates "I didn't understand any of the concepts presented in this lesson" and 4 indicates "I clearly understand all the concepts presented in this lesson." After giving students time to reflect and rate themselves, the teacher would say, "Okay, stand up if you gave yourself a 1 on the scale." When students stand for a particular level, the teacher makes note of how many there are, asks them to sit back down, and then prompts students at the next level of the scale to stand up.

### Body Representations

Students create body representations in which they act out important content or critical aspects of a topic (for example, forming cause-and-effect chains, physically acting out key sequence elements, or representing vocabulary terms). Designate gestures or movements that correspond with key vocabulary terms for a lesson or unit. These might be related fairly literally to the definition of the word—for example, the word obliterate could be associated with a gesture that looks like erasing or wiping away to remind students of its meaning

### Drama-Related Activities

Students act out an event being studied, taking the roles of various participants in the event. This works especially well with historical situations, current events, and events in literature.

## Maintaining a Lively Pace

### Instructional Segments

The teacher ensures that each of the following aspects of management and instruction are well planned and occur in a brisk, but not hurried, fashion:

- **Administrative tasks**—These include handing in assignments, distributing materials, and storing materials after an activity.
- **Presentation of new content**—This requires the teacher to switch back and forth between presenting new content in small chunks and allowing time for students to process newly presented chunks of information.
- **Practicing and deepening understanding of key knowledge and skills**—These activities involves students in practicing processes, examining similarities and differences, and examining errors in reasoning to come to a deeper understanding of the content.
- **Application of knowledge to new situations**—Through complex reasoning processes, this requires students to interact with the content using problem-solving, decision-making, investigation, experimental-inquiry, systems analysis, and hypothesis-testing processes.
- **Getting organized into groups**—This involves students knowing where to look to find out what group they are in, where to meet with their group, and where to find supplies.
- **Seat work**—This requires students to complete work or activities independently. Students should know which activities they are allowed to engage in once they have completed their seat work, such as helping other students, beginning to work on more advanced content, beginning to work on an activity that addresses the content from another perspective, or studying a topic of their own choice.
- **Transitions**—These require students to end one activity and begin the next. The teacher must signal the end of the previous activity, announce the next activity (including when it will start, how long it will take, and when it will end), and cue students to move quickly to the next activity.

Establishing procedures for each of these activities can help students understand what is expected during different parts of a lesson.

Creating and Teaching Procedures To help students conduct common activities and transitions efficiently, teachers can and should pre-emptively teach procedures for those instructional segments. To set students up for success, teachers should: 1. Identify events that require procedures. This list might include events such as turning in homework, going to the restroom, lining up for recess, completing individual seat work, asking for help, transitioning between various activities, and so on. 2. Identify a goal or desired outcome for each event. This step helps define what successful execution of the procedure will look like. For example, the goal of asking for help might be to get one's questions answered quickly without disrupting other students. 3. Write a series of steps for each event. Each procedure should provide enough detail that students know exactly what to do but not so much that the procedure becomes impossible to remember. For example, the procedure for going to the restroom might consist of the following steps: (1) raise your hand and, when called on by the teacher, ask to use the restroom; (2) if granted permission, go to the sign-out sheet by the door; (3) write down your name and the time you are leaving; (4) take the hall pass and go quickly and directly to the bathroom; (5) upon your return, replace the hall pass and write the time of your return on the sign-out sheet. 4. Have

students practice the procedures until they can do them independently. Typically, this involves the teacher demonstrating the procedure first, then guiding students through it, then watching them complete the steps on their own to ensure proficiency.

### Pace Modulation

The teacher speeds up or slows down the pace of the lesson to meet the engagement needs of students. • Processing time: To slow down the pace of content delivery, give students more processing time between chunks. To speed up the pace, give less processing time. • Group interaction: Providing more opportunities for students to interact with partners and groups will slow the pace of a class, while fewer group activities will speed it up. • Individual responses: Using mostly individual response strategies will increase pacing. • Formative assessment: If students seem either bored or overwhelmed, using quick informal assessment strategies can help determine (a) what students already know, and what can therefore be skipped to speed up the pace; or (b) what students are missing or confused about that needs to be revisited to slow the pace. • Types of lessons: A fast-paced lesson might consist of a brief period of direct instruction and several practicing and deepening or knowledge application lesson. A lesson with a slower pace will spend the majority of the time on direct instruction. • Pace of speech: Simply talk more quickly or more slowly to adjust the pace of the lesson. • Number of gestures: Use fewer gestures to increase the pace of a lesson or more gestures to decrease the pace. • Writing on the board: Slow down the pace by writing most of the content on the board; speed up the class by only presenting it orally. • Visual aids: Using visual aids such as pictures and graphic organizers to reinforce content slows down the pace, while using few or no visual aids speeds it up.

### The Parking Lot

If the teacher or students get stuck or bogged down on the answer to a specific question or a specific issue, the teacher writes the issue in a space on the board called the “parking lot.” The teacher and students come back to the issue the next day after everyone has had time to think about it and gather information about it. Another version of the parking lot creates space for tangentially related or off-topic questions. If a student thinks of a question, but realizes that it’s not appropriate to ask at the time, he or she can write it on a sticky note and post it in the parking lot.

### Motivational Hooks

The teacher uses anecdotes, video clips, audio clips, newspaper headlines, and other short attention-grabbing media to spark students’ attention. The teacher might also present unusual information or personal stories related to the lesson topic.

## Demonstrating Intensity and Enthusiasm

### Direct Statements About the Importance of Content

Students frequently become more engaged during class if they understand the relevance of the lesson as it applies to their own lives. To help students understand why content is being taught, a teacher can incorporate direct statements about the importance of specific content into his or her lessons. Often, these statements depend on real-world examples of content knowledge being used outside of a classroom setting. For example, before a unit on geometry, a teacher might explain how geometry plays a role in various professions such as fashion design and architecture.

### Explicit Connections

A teacher may draw explicit connections between content and the real world in order to make the content more exciting or relevant for students. When making explicit connections, the teacher may choose to relate the content to a student's life or to current events. Creating explicit connections between content and students' interests requires a teacher to know a little bit about each student's interests, hobbies, or previous life experiences. For example, when teaching about organic molecules, a science teacher might relate consumption of carbohydrates, proteins, and fats to sports and discuss ways a student's diet can maximize his or her athletic performance (like eating extra carbohydrates two days before a marathon). However, this would be most effective in boosting engagement if multiple student athletes are present in class. When connecting content to a current event, teachers should assess students' familiarity with local, national, or global events and the degree to which they find specific events relevant to their lives.

### Nonlinguistic Representations

Nonlinguistic representations commonly take the form of graphic organizers, pictographs, flow charts, or diagrams. A teacher can use these visual elements to increase students' interest in the material and help them visualize connections or patterns in the content they might not have recognized previously. Nonlinguistic representations also provide a teacher with an opportunity to model his or her own interest in the content and to make relevant real-world connections. For example, during a math lesson on triangulation, the teacher might provide images of navigational tools and maps that ancient mariners might have used to plot courses in open water, then explain why he or she finds these tools to be fascinating.

### Personal Stories

The teacher tells personal stories about the content to make it more accessible to students. The teacher might recall and retell his or her own reactions to the content, identify content that was difficult to understand at first, or explain why content provided important personal insights. The teacher might also invite students to tell stories about their personal connections to content. For example, a teacher might talk about his or her feelings upon finishing reading the short story "The Lottery" by Shirley Jackson and relate the story to other instances that have evoked similar feelings.

### Verbal and Nonverbal Signals

The teacher uses verbal signals such as the volume and tone of voice, verbal emphasis on specific words or phrases, pausing to build anticipation and excitement, and the rate of speech to communicate intensity and enthusiasm to students. The teacher can also communicate intensity and enthusiasm nonverbally by smiling, gesturing, making eye contact, and moving around the room while teaching.

### Humor

Depending on a teacher's personality and instructional style, he or she might show a funny political cartoon or video, direct jokes at him- or herself, use silly quotes or voices, or point out absurdities in a textbook, film, or article to demonstrate enthusiasm for a topic. To avoid unnecessary theatrics, teachers should take care to use humor appropriately, strategically, and in moderation. For example, when teaching grammar, a teacher might find humorous examples of misspelled words or instances when incorrect grammar changes the meaning of phrases. The teacher would present these examples before or after the lesson as a way to emphasize the importance of the content while simultaneously creating a lighthearted classroom atmosphere.

### Quotations

The teacher uses quotations to add context to the content being presented. For quotations that are relevant to content, teachers might search for quotations by relevant historical figures or about the topic being taught. The teacher may also choose to incorporate quotations related to specific qualities or dispositions he or she wants students have such as determination, inspiration, curiosity, or respect. For example, before an assessment on the American Civil War, the teacher might present a quote by Abraham Lincoln that she finds either inspiring or relevant to the content on the test.

### Movie and Film Clips

Teachers can use video clips of movies, documentaries, and news stories to help students gain new perspectives on content and connect content to real-world events and situations. For example, when teaching *The Odyssey*, an English instructor might play clips from *O Brother, Where Art Thou?* at the beginning of the unit and have students jot down their thoughts. After finishing *The Odyssey*, the teacher could play the same clips (or the entirety of the film) and facilitate a class discussion about how the movie relates to different parts of Homer's epic poem. Additionally, students could also make their own movies and broadcasts that connect the content to their lives.

## Presenting Unusual Information

### Teacher-Presented Information

The teacher presents unusual or intriguing information to capture students' attention. Facts related to the content are preferred, but any unusual information can attract students' attention and help them feel interested in what the teacher is about to say.

### Webquests

Students explore the Internet and find a range of obscure but interesting facts and ideas associated with the content being studied. Typically, webquests involve a teacher-designed learning path. That is, students visit specific links or websites provided by the teacher to answer a set of questions. Older students may use a more open-ended approach, but teachers of any age group should be careful to ensure that students stay on task when using the Internet. A webquest, as it will be presented to students, typically has six components: 1. Introduction: Explains general information about the webquest and its purpose, or sets up an imaginary situation as a frame for the webquest to capture students' interest 2. Task: Presents the ultimate goal of the webquest 3. Sources: Lists links to online resources where students can find the information needed to complete the task 4. Process: Describes a clear set of steps that students should follow to complete the task 5. Guidance: Provides students with a structure, such as a set of questions or a graphic organizer, for organizing the information they find 6. Conclusion: Concludes the webquest by reminding students what they have learned and prompting them to reflect or make connections to other knowledge

### Fast Facts

Students quickly share the most unusual (but factual) information they have discovered about a particular topic. To use this strategy, time must be provided for students to research information about the topic being addressed.

### Believe It or Not

Students create an electronic database of unusual or little-known information about the content being studied. This can be preserved from one year to the next, with each class reading previous contributions, correcting misconceptions where appropriate, and adding their own unusual information.

### History Files

Students research different historical perceptions in the content areas being studied. For example, medical facts have changed a great deal since the time of Hippocrates, and comparing one fact (such as the role of blood in the body) throughout history can yield new insights for students.

### Guest Speakers and First-Hand Consultants

Students understand real-world applications of the content being learned by listening to guests share experiences from their careers.

Using Friendly Controversy - The teacher uses friendly controversy techniques to maintain student engagement. Research has shown that mild controversy and mild competition have a positive influence on students' learning.

### Friendly Controversy

Students explain and defend their positions on topics about which they disagree. The teacher asks students to follow specific guidelines when engaging in friendly controversy. Guidelines should be designed to ensure that students feel free to disagree with others but do so respectfully and allow for everyone to express their opinions. It's okay to disagree with your friends and classmates sometimes, as long as you are polite about it. Remember the following guidelines when engaging in friendly controversy. y You may criticize ideas but not people. y When you state your opinion, try to provide evidence or reasons for it. y Even if you are anxious to say something, give others the chance to finish speaking. y As others speak, listen with the intent to understand why they think their opinion is accurate, rather than just waiting for your turn to talk. y Speak calmly and respectfully. Avoid raising your voice or using a rude tone. y Ask questions if you do not understand another person's point. y Disagree using respectful language and explain why you disagree. y Be willing to take responsibility for your interactions.

### Class Vote

Students vote on a particular issue. Before and after the vote, students discuss the merits of various positions. The teacher might ask students to vote again after the final discussion. To incorporate movement, the teacher might ask students to stand on a particular side of the classroom to represent their initial vote. Undecided students stand in the middle of the room. After each side presents arguments for their point of view, students have the opportunity to switch sides, and the teacher asks undecided students to make a decision.

### Seminars (pg 10)

In groups, students explore a text, video, or other resource that expresses highly opinionated perspectives about a key issue or topic related to the curriculum content. Groups contain three to five members with specific roles, such as moderator, recorder, time keeper, synthesizer, and group representative. After discussion in small groups, the whole class joins together to discuss. All groups might explore the same resource or each group might investigate a different perspective on the same topic.

### Expert Opinions

Students research the opinions of experts who hold contrasting perspectives and points of view about a particular issue or topic. The teacher might use this strategy in a cooperative jigsaw where students each research a particular researcher or thought leader and then report back to the whole group about what they discovered. The class then discusses the merits of the various perspectives and the validity (or lack thereof) of a particular thinker's ideas, positions, and evidence.

### Opposite Point of View

Students defend the opposite point of view from the one they agree with or support. This can help students with overly dogmatic or rigid attitudes toward a topic explore the nuances of a particular topic or issue and can reinforce the process of providing evidence to support a claim.

### Diagramming Perspectives (pg. 16)

Students use a Venn diagram to compare various points of view. The diagram might highlight areas of congruence and areas of disagreement between two or three ideas.

### Lincoln-Douglas Debate

Students practice assuming affirmative or negative positions on an issue and giving supporting evidence for their position. The teacher chooses two teams to debate opposing sides of a specific policy or issue. One side argues in favor of the policy or issue (affirmative team) and the other side argues against it (negative team). Each side gets the opportunity to make an opening argument, cross-examine the opposing side, and present a rebuttal. After the debate, each team evaluates their performance as a group, and students self-evaluate their own performance as a member of the team.

### Town Hall Meeting

This strategy was originally developed by Diana Hess in the book *Controversy in the Classroom: The Democratic Power of Discussion* (2009).

To help students see a complex issue from multiple perspectives, the teacher facilitates a discussion among several parties with varying perspectives, as might be seen in a local town hall meeting. First, designate specific roles that students assume during a town hall meeting. Roles can be based on the people or groups most likely to have strong opinions about an issue or most likely to be affected by a new policy or change in existing policy. The students participate in an open discussion while the teacher mediates. Students stay in character for their respective roles and argue from that point of view for the duration of the discussion. The students then participate in a debriefing in which they evaluate their own performances and the discussion as a whole.

### Legal Model

This strategy was originally developed by Diana Hess in the book *Controversy in the Classroom: The Democratic Power of Discussion* (2009).

Students critically examine how Supreme Court decisions affect policy as they form their opinions and arguments based on textual evidence from past Supreme Court cases. Each student completes a "ticket" or outline of the essential arguments that each Supreme Court justice made in the case being studied. Students must complete their tickets in order to participate in the discussion and may use them throughout the discussion as a reference guide. The teacher leads a discussion of the case being studied. Using questions that focus on the facts, opinions, and ideas of the case, the teacher helps students

articulate their arguments based on the textual evidence they have read. At the end, students participate in a debriefing to evaluate their individual and group performance.

## Using Academic Games

### What Is The Question?

The teacher creates and displays a matrix with content-based categories across the top and point categories (generally 100, 200, 300, 400, and 500) down the side. This can be done using a bulletin board, an overhead transparency, or PowerPoint. The teacher also creates clues (words, pictures, or a combination of the two) and puts one in each matrix cell, with more difficult clues corresponding to higher point values.

A student or team selects a category and point value. The teacher reveals the corresponding clue. The student answering must state a question for which the clue would be the answer. The teacher decides if a student's question represents an adequate understanding of the concept or term. If the student answers correctly, his or her team gets the points for the question and the same student picks the next category and level. If the student answers incorrectly, a student on the other team gets a chance to answer. If he or she answers correctly, that team gets the points and the next pick; if incorrect, no points are awarded and the original team picks next.

### Name That Category

The teacher creates a game board that looks like a pyramid divided into sections with various categories and point values. The teacher organizes students into teams with one clue giver and one or more guessers. Teams sit so that clue givers face the game board and guessers face the opposite direction. The teacher reveals one category on the game board (the rest remain covered). Clue givers must list words that fit in that category until guessers on their team correctly identify the category name. As soon as one team has correctly identified the first category, the teacher reveals the next one.

### Talk a Mile a Minute

The teacher prepares a set of cards, each with a category and list of items that fit in that category (for example, the shapes category card might have square, circle, rectangle, triangle, right triangle, oval, and diamond listed as words). The teacher organizes students into teams and each team designates one team member as the talker. The teacher gives a card to each talker. The talker tries to get his or her team to say each of the words on the card by quickly describing them. The talker cannot use any of the words in the category title or any rhyming words. The talker keeps talking until the team members identify all of the terms on the card. If team members are having trouble with a particular term, the talker can skip it and come back to it later. The first few teams to identify all the terms receive points. Afterward, the teacher might lead a discussion of which words were hard to guess and how the successful talkers represented those words.

### Classroom Feud

The teacher constructs at least one question for every student in the class. Questions can be multiple choice, fill-in-the-blank, or short answer. The teacher organizes students into teams, and they take turns being the responder for their team. The teacher presents a question to a responder who has fifteen seconds to confer with team members and identify the team's answer. The responder tells the team's answer to the teacher. If correct, that team receives a point. If incorrect, the opposing team has the opportunity to answer. That team's most recent responder acts as responder for his or her group and

has fifteen seconds to confer and answer the question. If correct, that team receives a point. If incorrect, no point is awarded. When every student on both teams has functioned as the responder, the team with the most points wins.

### Which One Doesn't Belong?

The teacher creates word groups containing three terms that are similar and one term that is different. Students work independently or in groups. The teacher displays one word group at a time. Students have a set amount of time to pick out the term that does not belong and write down why they think that term is different. This game can be played formally (keeping track of points) or informally (the teacher stopping during a presentation to offer four words to the class and asking them to identify which one doesn't belong).

### Inconsequential Competition

The teacher uses any type of inconsequential competition (including academic games like those previously described) to increase student engagement. The teacher should clearly delineate roles in student groups and change group membership systematically (for example, after each unit) so that students with a high degree of content mastery are regularly paired with those who have lower content mastery. In this way, all students can experience winning and losing. The teacher might consider giving a tangible reward to the top two or more teams at the end of a unit. This strategy can be used to review vocabulary terms, spelling words, literary terms and elements, historical facts, and dates. It can also be used to highlight different perspectives and points of view, key content, competing theories and hypotheses, and different approaches to mathematical problem solving.

### Turning Questions Into Games

The teacher turns questions into impromptu games by forming students into four equally sized groups before asking a series of questions during a lesson. Each group can name itself, if desired. After the teacher asks a question, group members talk together for one minute and record their answer on a response card. On the teacher's signal, each group holds up its answer. The teacher keeps a record on the board of the groups that selected the correct answer. After the series of questions, the teacher acknowledges the team with the highest point total.

### Vocabulary Review Games

The teacher uses games to review vocabulary with students. Games are an important element to a vocabulary program, as they help students solidify and apply their understanding of terms. Many of the games described in this folio can be used for the purpose of vocabulary review. One resource for further game structures is the book *Vocabulary Games for the Classroom* by Lindsay Carleton and Robert J. Marzano (2010), which contains thirteen games for vocabulary development. Teachers can also find many vocabulary games online.

## Providing Opportunities for Students to Talk About Themselves

### Interest Surveys

At the beginning of the school year or the beginning of a unit, a teacher should take time to reach out to students and get to know them better. One highly practical method for gathering information about students is an interest survey. Such surveys can cover a range of topics such as interests, goals, personal or family history, existing knowledge about the content area, or expectations and desires for class. The

teacher might administer an interest survey on the first day of class, then review the survey throughout the year as needed.

### Student Learning Profiles

The teacher uses student learning profiles to collect self-reported information from students about their preferred learning activities and styles (such as visual, auditory, kinesthetic, analytical, or practical), the circumstances and conditions under which they learn best, and ways in which they prefer to express themselves (for example, writing, oral communication, physical expression, artistic media, and others). The teacher might create student learning profiles using formal inventories or informal discussions and surveys. After a teacher has gathered data using student learning profiles, he or she should use the information to inform his or her interactions with students.

### Life Connections

Effective teachers intentionally plan breaks during instructional time so that students can identify and discuss links between the content being studied and their own personal experiences, hobbies, and interests. Students can look for and explain similarities and differences between their interests and experiences and the content being studied. Students might also complete analogies comparing aspects of their experiences and interests to elements of the content. Lastly, students can create nonlinguistic representations (such as graphic organizers, pictographs, or figures) that express relationships between the content being studied and their personal interests and experiences.

### Informal Linkages During Class Discussion

To create informal linkages between the content and students' lives, teachers should become familiar with the interests and personal experiences of students in the class. As topics are discussed in class, the teacher can relate the content being discussed to existing knowledge about students' lives. However, teachers can also refer to a previously complied list of students' interests if necessary. Once a link is established between the content and a student, the teacher verbally notes this link. For example, a teacher might say, "Robert, you're interested in astronomy, aren't you? What do you think about the information we just read and the new information about Pluto?" during a science unit on the solar system.

## Motivating and Inspiring Students

### Academic Goalsetting

The teacher helps students identify long-term academic goals to be accomplished over the course of a unit, semester, or year. The teacher then works with students to help them identify specific actions and smaller, short-term goals that, if completed, will help them accomplish their long-term goals. For example, a teacher might set long-term goals with students at the beginning of the semester. In order to do this, the teacher asks students to identify individual goals as well as three or four actionable steps that they can take to achieve such goals. The teacher reviews students' plans, then sets aside one class period to meet with students briefly to review their goals, ensure that they are realistic, and discuss their actionable steps and short-term goals.

### Encouraging A Growth Mindset

The concept of the growth mindset, championed by Carol Dweck (2006), refers to the idea that what we think of as intelligence is actually a learnable skill. In other words, people with growth mindsets believe that they can increase their intelligence or abilities through hard work. On the other hand, those with a

fixed mindset feel that intelligence is innate and cannot be changed, regardless of effort. Within the classroom, it is important for a teacher to inspire growth mindsets in students, as students with growth mindsets are more likely to develop new skills and remain optimistic about challenging tasks, while students with fixed mindsets tend to choose activities that play to their existing strengths and are more likely to give up when faced with a challenging problem.

### Possible Selves Activities

A teacher can use possible selves activities to help students imagine what they could develop into later in life. Without such considerations, students may not be cognizant of the full range of possibilities available to them nor recognize that certain possible selves could be achieved that previously seemed off-limits or unattainable. Once students have an idea of the range of directions their lives could take, they may be more able and motivated to develop skills and acquire knowledge necessary to achieve specific goals. For example, a student may decide that he or she wants to become an astronaut after a possible selves activity, though previously he or she had never considered this as a possibility. This student may dislike math, but really enjoy science classes. After recognizing the possibility of becoming an astronaut, the student researches the education, background, knowledge, and skills necessary to enter the space program. With this knowledge, the student may begin to try harder at math, as he or she recognizes that competence with mathematics is a skill required of astronauts.

### Personal Projects

The teacher can use personal projects—projects that require students to select a personally relevant goal and work toward it—to encourage students' desire for personal growth. In order for personal projects to be successful, however, students must select topics they are truly interested in and excited about. Personal projects are often related to broader life or long-term goals rather than academic content. The teacher should have students consider the following seven questions at various stages of the personal project to help students remain focused throughout their project.

1. What do I want to accomplish?
2. Who else has accomplished the same goal, and who will support me?
3. What skills and resources will I need to accomplish my goal?
4. What will I have to change in order to achieve my goal?
5. What is my plan for achieving my goal, and how hard will I have to work?
6. What small step can I take right now?
7. How have I been doing? What have I learned about myself?

To further motivate a class, the teacher can choose his or her own personal project and model appropriate behaviors, such as researching, setting smaller goals, and re-evaluating timelines.

### Altruism Projects

Altruism projects encourage students to connect to something greater than themselves. The teacher should have students brainstorm aspects of their community that they are interested in getting involved with. Once a list is generated, the teacher can either group students interested in similar things together or have the whole class decide on one topic from the list to address. The class or groups brainstorm potential ways to help and create action plans with specific steps for setting their altruism projects in motion. The teacher should provide help but take care not to lead the project, as this takes ownership away from the students. The teacher may also want to reach out to parents for their assistance if specific altruism projects require time or resources outside of class for execution.

### Gratitude Journals

The teacher can use gratitude journals to help students feel connected to something greater than themselves. When introducing gratitude journals, the teacher should first model the behavior by listing a few things that he or she is grateful for and recording them somewhere visible in the room or in his or her own personal gratitude journal. Students then brainstorm a few things they are grateful for individually, in small groups, or as a class and record their items in their own gratitude journals. Students might also be asked to explain why they are grateful for an item or items on their list. Students add new entries to their gratitude journals daily or weekly. At the end of the week, month, unit, or semester, the teacher can lead students in a review of their gratitude journals and facilitate a discussion about how their entries have changed and how students feel about the practice.

### Encouraging Mindfulness

Mindfulness is the practice of being aware of thoughts, feelings, and one's internal and external world. The practice of mindfulness has been linked to positive increases in attention, behavior, academic performance, and physical health. Furthermore, teachers can encourage mindfulness in students by engaging them in various activities that take up relatively little time in the schedule but can facilitate great gains for students. For example, a teacher might ask students at the beginning of each class period to write down their intention for the class at the top of their notes. Students might write such intentions as "Today, I want to challenge myself to stay engaged all class," "I'm going to be less critical of my mistakes," or "I'm going to turn something negative into a positive." The teacher may sporadically ask students to recall their intention. A teacher, if sensing that students seem restless, may also engage students in deep breathing, quick guided meditation, or other soothing practices to help them refocus their thoughts.

### Inspirational Media

Inspiration occurs when a person sees evidence that one of their ideals—a belief that represents how an individual would like the world to be—is true. Inspirational media can take many forms, including movies, books, quotes, internet clips, newspaper articles, anecdotes, stories, and pictures. A teacher can expose students to an inspirational story and then have students discuss why the example was powerful. A teacher can also have students discuss their own ideals and ways in which the media reinforces specific ideals as true or false. For example, if a student holds the ideal that underdogs can win and he or she sees an underdog win in a tangible way, that student will become inspired. The student might explain that this is inspiring to him or her because the student considers himself or herself an underdog in these specific areas of life and that he or she rarely sees evidence that the underdog often wins.