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ABSTRACT

The professional development resources annotated in this document were selected as the core resources available for the first five functions of the North Carolina Teacher Performance Appraisal Instrument (TPAI). The list is designed to include the most practical, up-to-date research associated with the 28 practices listed under the five functions. Most of the references are from periodicals or books with some video and audio cassettes being used when appropriate. The intent of the work is to give principals, supervisors, mentors, and others working with professional development of classroom teachers examples of research that may be used to support remediation or growth efforts by teachers. The five effective teacher functions under which the resources are listed are: (1) management of instructional time; (2) management of student behavior; (3) instructional presentation; (4) instructional monitoring of student performance; and (5) instructional feedback. (JD)

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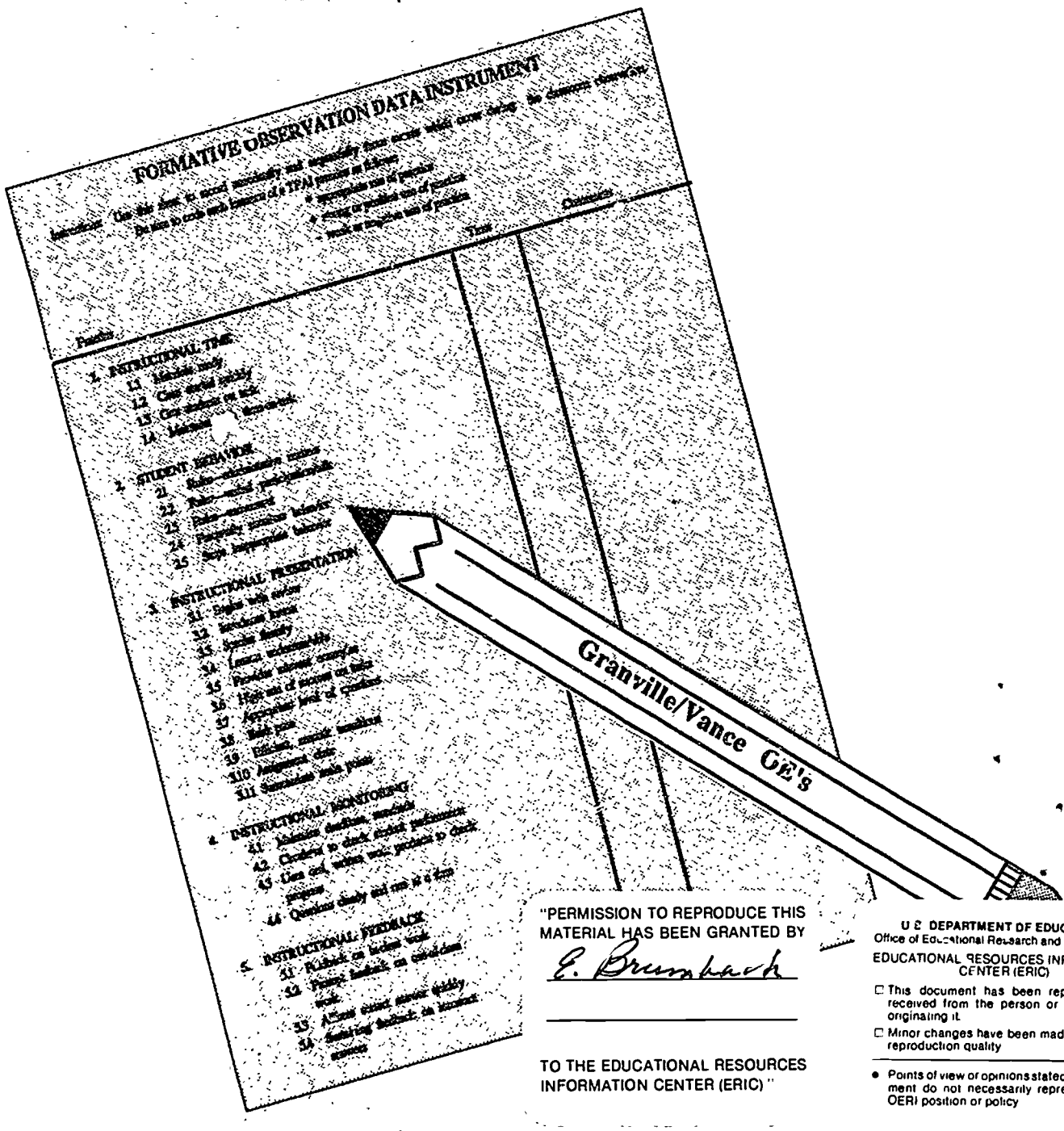

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT RESOURCES

An Annotated Bibliography for Five TPAI Functions

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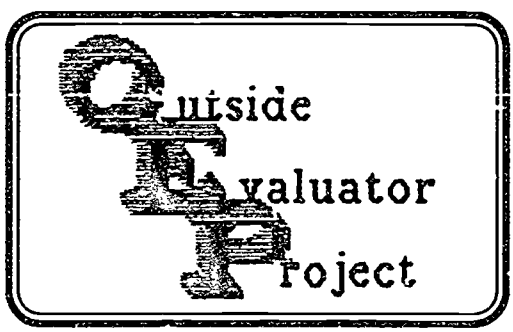

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Introduction

The professional development resources within this document were selected as the core resources available for the first five functions of the North Carolina Teacher Performance Appraisal Instrument. The list is not intended to be all inclusive but is designed to include the most practical, up-to-date research associated with the twenty-eight practices listed under the five functions. Most of the references are from periodicals or books with some video and audio cassettes being used when appropriate.

The intent of this work is to give principals, supervisors, mentors, and others working with professional development of classroom teachers examples of research that may be used to support remediation or growth efforts by teachers.

The annotation method was used to allow those responsible for designing professional growth an opportunity to review research and identify specific articles without having to do a complete search of all related articles. We have also attempted to specify our reference by identifying pages, checklists, or appendices rather than referring to articles or books in general. Our thought was that teachers also would be more receptive and would respond to reading and applying 1-10 pages as compared to reading the entire book.

A brief descriptor precedes each function to relate its significance to effective teaching and to give a flavor of the research. Sources are referenced to individual practices rather than overall functions to match specific sources for specific needs.

Contents

The selection of these resources and the annotations for each source was the work of the Granville/Vance Outside Observer/Evaluators. Each of the O./E.'s has between nine and twenty years of educational experience in kindergarten through the twelfth grade and has worked collectively in sixteen different school districts. Using their practical experiences and the documented research on effective teaching, they selected the articles considered most valuable to the professional growth of classroom teachers. We hope you find their resources beneficial as you map out plans for professional development.

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1.0 MANAGEMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL TIME

The relationship between time and learning has been the focus of educational research for the past two decades. A model of school learning by John B. Carroll (1963) has proved to be a catalyst for subsequent research in the area of time and achievement. Stated simply, Carroll's formula illustrates that the degree of learning equals the time actually spent learning divided by the amount of time needed to learn.

For the classroom educator, this emphasis on time and achievement can be enhanced by efficient management of instructional time. Annegret Harnischfeger and David E. Wiley in "Origins of Active Learning Time" (1976) suggest that the following approaches should result in increased student achievement:

1. Increase the total amount of time that is allocated to learning.

2. Increase the portion of that allocated time that is actually allowed for learning.

3. Increase the amount of this allowed time that students actively devote to learning.

Efficient and effective use of materials provides an observable indicator of teacher preparation and provides an environment for successful classroom instruction. Getting the class started quickly provides for allocation of as much time as possible for instruction. Allocated time refers to the total amount of time provided for instruction in a selected curricular area (Shockley, 1985). Actively involving students on tasks appropriate to the lesson and maintaining high time-on-task provides a positive relationship to the degree of learning. The Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES, 1978) designates Academic Learning Time as "an observable measure of ongoing student learning in the classroom" while Student Engaged Time is "the amount of time that an average student is actively engaged in or attending to academic instruction or tasks" (Berliner, 1979).

1.1 Teacher has materials, supplies, and equipment ready at the start of the lesson or instructional activity.

a. _____. Time-on-Task. Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1982.

"Organizing the Classroom May Be a Key" offers a checklist on pages 36-37 of questions for classroom organization.

b. Berliner, David, and Rosenshine, Barak. ed. Talks to Teachers. New York: Random House, 1987.

"Use of Space (Readying the Classroom)" offers a checklist for elementary classroom procedures and suggestions for secondary classroom arrangements.

c. Emmer, Edmund T.; Evertson, Carolyn M.; Sanford, Julie P.; Clements, Barbara S.; and Worsham, Murray E. Organizing and Managing the Junior High Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1982.

Suggestions and checklists are given on pages 11-21 for arrangement of classroom materials and equipment.

d. Loughlin, Catherine E., and Suina, Joseph H. The Learning Environment: An Instructional Strategy. New York: Teachers College Press, 1982.

Chapters one, two, and three offer charts/diagrams for organization of classroom space (i.e., seating arrangements).

Chapter six offers suggestions/diagrams for arrangement and display of materials.

Chapter seven offers patterns/diagrams for material distribution.

e. Paine, Stan C.; Radicchi, Jo Ann; Deutchman, Leslie; Rosellini, Lynne C.; and Darch, Craig B. Structuring Your Classroom for Academic Success. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press Co., 1983.

"Managing Materials in the Classroom" in chapter seven suggests techniques for preparing, storing, distributing, and collecting materials, and provides an implementation checklist.

1.2 Teacher gets the class started quickly.

a. Berliner, David, and Rosenshine, Barak. ed. Talks to Teachers. New York: Random House, 1987.

"Getting Started on the First Day of School" offers activities on page 69 for opening/beginning class in an elementary or secondary classroom.

b. Brooks, Douglas M. "The First Day of School." Educational Leadership 42 (May 1985): 76-78.

Specific activities are listed for beginning class quickly at the opening of the school year or the lesson.

c. Collins, Cathy. Time Management for Teachers. New York: Parker Publishing Co., 1987.

"Become a Time-Saver Tips Scavenger" in chapter four cites suggestions to enable class to start quickly. (List also includes other techniques for time use during the school day.)

"Spending Less Time on Paperwork" in chapter ten shows how this practice can result in getting class started more quickly. "Opening Activities..." gives ideas to use at the beginning and closing of classes and suggests an opening class procedure.

d. Emmer, Edmund T.; Evertson, Carolyn M.; Sanford, Julie P.; Clements, Barbara S.; and Worsham, Murray E. Organizing and Managing the Junior High Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1982.

Sample procedures for beginning class are presented in chart form on pages 24, 77, 124, and 131.

1.3 Teacher gets students on task quickly at the beginning of each lesson or instructional activity.

a. Collins, Cathy. Time Management for Teachers. New York: Parker Publishing Co., 1987.

Collins cites six activities to get students on task quickly on pages 83-84.

She lists nine approaches on pages 146-51 to get students on task.

b. Evertson, Carolyn M.; Emmer, Edmund T.; Clements, Barbara S.; Sanford, Julie P.; Worsham, Murray E.; and Williams, Ellen L. Organizing and Managing the Elementary School Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1981.

Evertson cites two examples to get students on task.

c. Hunter, Madeline. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, California: Theory Introduction Practice Publications, 1984.

"Getting Set to Learn" provides examples on pages 27-30 to get students on task especially at the beginning of a period.

"Using Time to Achieve More Learning" offers two specific ways on pages 93-95 to change waiting time into learning time and focus students on task.

c. Lasley, Thomas J., and Walker, Ronald. "Time-on-Task: How Teachers Can Use Class Time More Effectively." NASSP Bulletin 70 (May 1986): 59-64.

Eight methods to eliminate needless wasted time and to increase learning time are outlined.

d. Shockley, Robert. "A Few Instructional Practices You Can Trust." Middle School Journal. Vol. XVII (August 1986): 18-20.

Shockley provides seven procedures to ensure students maintain maximum time-on-task and offers suggestions for peer interaction in an on-task setting. "Engaged Time," "Academic Learning Time," and "Allocated Time" are defined.

e. Strother, Deborah. "Another Look at Time-on-Task." Phi Delta Kappan 65 (June 1984): 714-17.

Strother cites research data on classroom techniques that yield increased time-on-task.

f. Wilson, Rich. "Direct Observation of Academic Learning Time." Teaching Exceptional Children 19 (Winter 1987): 13-17.

Wilson offers forms and guidelines for evaluating Academic Learning Time using direct classroom observation techniques. (Especially note samples of observation forms.)

2.0 MANAGEMENT OF STUDENT BEHAVIOR

It is generally believed that a well-designed curriculum combined with creative instruction can serve to eliminate many classroom discipline problems. Various approaches have been developed to establish and maintain good student behavior in those classrooms where curriculum and instruction are not effective or where other factors have served to undermine effective classroom control. Some behavior management models speak to curriculum while others do not; strategies range from those that are strictly teacher-centered to those that are more student-oriented.

Several general guidelines should be kept in mind in the formulation of rules for the classroom: (1) Limit the number of rules. Most authors suggest using four to six. (2) Rules should be specific. Terms such as "be a good citizen" or "respect others" should be avoided. (3) Rules should be stated in positive terms such as "walk in the hall" rather than "don't run in the hall." (4) Rules and consequences should be reasonable. (5) Whenever possible, students should help in the process of establishing rules, and they should always know the reasons for rules. (6) Rules should be reviewed with students as needed. Younger students will need more frequent review than older students. (7) Generally, rules should be posted. (8) Rules should be enforced, and the consequences for breaking a rule should be clear.

When implementing a particular behavior plan or strategy, the teacher will want to be consistent or students will soon perceive that he does not mean what he says. Students must also perceive the teacher as being fair when consequences for rule breaking are applied. Finally, the teacher must remember that he wishes to maintain a climate of mutual respect; it is the offense that he is seeking to punish and not the student.

2.1 Teacher has established a set of rules and procedures that govern the handling of routine administrative matters.

2.2 Teacher has established a set of rules and procedures that govern the student verbal participation and talk during different types of activities--whole-class instruction, small-group instruction, and so forth.

2.3 Teacher has established a set of rules and procedures that govern student movement in the classroom during different types of instructional and non-instructional activities.

a. Canter, Lee, and Canter, Marlene. Assertive Discipline: A Take Charge Approach for Today's Educator. Santa Monica: Canter and Associates, 1984.

Chapters four, five, and six deal particularly with the establishment of rules and consequences. Accompanying videotapes and resource materials enhance the effectiveness of the book.

b. Emmer, Edmund T.; Evertson, Carolyn M.; Sanford, Julie P.; Clements, Barbara S.; and Worsham, Murray E. Organizing and Managing the Junior High Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1982.

Chapter two deals with rules; chapter four discusses consequences when rules are broken.

c. Evertson, Carolyn M.; Emmer, Edmund T.; Clements, Barbara S.; Sanford, Julie P.; Worsham, Murray E.; and Williams, Ellen L. Organizing and Managing the Elementary School Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1981.

Prescriptions two, three, and four provide an extensive discussion of rules and consequences.

d. McDaniel, Thomas R. "How to be an Effective Authoritarian...." The Clearing House 56 (February 1983): 245-47.

This article outlines three basic principles to guide the teacher who feels most comfortable using an authoritarian style.

e. Paine, Stan C.; Radicchi, Jo Ann; Deutchman, Leslie; Rosellini, Lynne C.; and Darch, Craig B. Structuring Your Classroom for Academic Success. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press Co., 1983.

Chapter five deals with the establishment and implementation of classroom rules. A sample script for the teacher to use when introducing and reviewing rules is included as well as a schedule/checklist for rule implementation.

2.4 Teacher frequently monitors the behavior of all students during whole-class, small group, and seatwork activities and during transitions between instructional activities.

2.5 Teacher stops inappropriate behavior promptly and consistently, yet maintains the dignity of the student.

a. Batesky, James A. "Twelve Tips For Better Discipline." Contemporary Education, Winter, 1986, pp. 98-99.

The article offers twelve practical tips to maintain a positive learning environment. Acting responsibly and good human relations are stressed. Principles of assertive discipline are included.

b. Bordeaux, Darlene B. "How to Get Kids to Do What's Expected of Them in the Classroom." The Clearing House 56 (February 1983): 273-78.

The author is an advocate of home visits and offers a guide for conducting them. Mixed messages that adults give children are discussed along with rules and consequences.

c. Canter, Lee, and Canter, Marlene. Assertive Discipline: A Take Charge Approach for Today's Educator. Santa Monica, California: Canter and Associates, 1984.

The authors outline a comprehensive take-charge approach for the establishment of firm consistent limits for students while being mindful of their need for warmth and positive support.

d. Cornell, Nancy. "Encouraging Responsibility - A Discipline Plan That Works." Learning 15 (September 1986): 46-49.

The article contains a brief outline of Glasser's reality therapy, and describes how it was applied at Lincoln School. The process whereby students recognize their improper behavior and then make specific plans to solve the problem is illustrated.

e. Donavel, David F. "Discipline Through Success: The Point System." Curriculum Review 26 (September/October 1986): 6-7.

The article provides a description of an individualized instruction plan involving the earning of points for completed work. The system makes students responsible for their own learning and takes the teacher out of a confrontational position. The author's address is included for more information.

f. Emmer, Edmund T.; Evertson, Carolyn M.; Sanford, Julie P.; Clements, Barbara S.; and Worsham, Murray E. Organizing and Managing the Junior High Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1982.

Chapter six deals with monitoring and stopping inappropriate behavior.

g. Evertson, Carolyn M.; Emmer, Edmund T.; Clements, Barbara S.; Sanford, Julie P.; Worsham, Murray E.; and Williams, Ellen L. Organizing and Managing the Elementary School Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1981.

Prescriptions six, seven, and eight deal with potential problems, monitoring behavior, and stopping inappropriate behavior.

h. Gartell, Dan. "Punishment or Guidance?" Young Children 43 (March 1987): 55-61.

The author advocates the guiding of young children toward self-discipline by means of positive helping interactions. The article provides insight into the developmental levels of children and how those levels, as well as other factors, influence behavior.

i. Gilstrap, Robert. Toward Self - Discipline. Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood International, 1981.

Chapter two offers guidelines for beginning teachers. Suggestions are offered to help instill self-discipline in students and maintain a positive learning environment.

Chapter three suggests sixteen guidelines for experienced teachers who are concerned about their effectiveness and want to change their classrooms.

j. Glasser, William. "A New Look at Discipline." Learning 3 (December 1974): 6-11.

William Glasser outlines his reality therapy approach in which students are responsible for their own behavior.

k. Johnson, Simon O. Better Discipline - A Practical Approach. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1980.

Chapter three outlines twenty-one tips for better discipline.

l. McLoughlin, Caven S. "Positive Discipline: A Compendium of More than 250 Aphorisms." The Clearing House 57 (February 1984): 273-80.

The two hundred and fifty positive management techniques deal with every phase of the teacher-student relationship. The article is aimed at the teacher of children in the early years; however, most of the suggestions may be applied at the upper grades as well.

m. N.C. Department of Public Instruction. Discipline in Schools A Source Book: Raleigh, State Department of Public Instruction, n.d.

Part II, "Preventing Discipline Problems," and Part III, "Dealing with Discipline Problems," have strong classroom application.

n. Paine, Stan C.; Radicchi, Jo Ann; Deutchman, Leslie; Rosellini, Lynne C.; and Darch, Craig B. Structuring Your Classroom for Academic Success. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press Company, 1983.

Chapter four, "Using Your Attention to Manage Student Behavior," discusses four component skills involving the use of attention to improve students' behavior: moving, scanning, praising, and following up on previous efforts.

o. Rakow, Steven J., and Krustchinsky, Rick. "Discipline - Some Guiding Principles." Kappa Delta Pi Record 22 (Summer 1986): 125-28.

The authors outline six prevention techniques and five remediation techniques (reactions to behavior) to help teachers establish a classroom that is comfortable and productive. The student's responsibility for his own behavior is emphasized; ideas of reality therapy are incorporated.

p. Weber-Schwartz, Nancy. "Patience or Understanding?" Young Children 43 (March 1987): 52-54.

The author maintains that the understanding teacher can guide students toward desirable behavior; whereas, the patient teacher is more enduring of inappropriate behavior and less directing. The article is aimed toward early childhood teachers.

q. Wilcox, Ray T. "Discipline Made Gentle." The Clearing House 56 (September 1983): 30-35.

The author suggests steps ranging from most gentle to most severe to improve behavior.

r. Wilde, John, and Sommers, Peggy. "Disruption in High Schools: Could it Simply be a Disfunction of Classroom Structure?" The High School Journal 63 (February 1980): 191-94.

The authors stress that adult behavior in school influences student behavior.

The article suggests that teachers shift their focus from eliminating inappropriate behavior to preventing it; four strategies are outlined to meet this objective.

3.0 INSTRUCTIONAL PRESENTATION

Student achievement is improved not only by increases in the quantity of instructional time (Function 1), but also by increases in the quality of time. Instructional Presentation includes those practices that research shows lead to increases in quality of learning time and, thereby, to increases in student achievement. (QAP)

3.1 Teacher begins lesson or instructional activity with a review of previous materials.

a. Fleming, Malcolm. "Characteristics of Effective Instructional Presentation: What We Know and What We Need to Know." Educational Technology 21 (July 1981): 33-38.

This article examines the relationship between instruction (attributes of presentation) and the learner (responses to presentation). Attention is given to lesson introduction and cognitive processes.

b. Hunter, Madeline. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, California: Theory Introduction Practice Publications, 1984.

Chapter two addresses the anticipatory set and the students' entry behavior.

c. Rosenshine, Barak V. "Synthesis of Research on Explicit Teaching." Educational Leadership 44 (April 1986): 60-69.

This article reviews a decade of research on the effectiveness of systematic, step-by-step instruction, information processing research, as well as information relating to six teaching functions (daily review, presenting new materials, conducting guided practice, providing feedback and correctives, conducting independent practice, weekly and monthly review).

3.2 Teacher introduces the lesson or instructional activity and specifies learning objectives when appropriate.

a. Abshire, Gary M. "The Best Teaching: Intuition Isn't Enough." Clearing House 60 (October 1986): 59-61.

The article discusses factors such as organization and objectives that make for the best teaching.

b. Bloom, Benjamin S. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. New York: David McCoy, 1956.

Chapter five provides resources for writing objectives or stating objectives during presentation.

c. Jacobsen, David; Eggen, Donald K.; and Dulaney, Carole. Methods for Teaching: A Skills Approach. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1985.

Chapter five addresses the focusing event as a tool for introducing a lesson. Examples and purposes of focusing events are given.

d. Sullivan, Howard, and Higgins, Norman. Teaching for Competence. New York, New York: Teachers College Press, 1983.

Chapter three, "Effective Instruction," provides a section on introducing learning activities. The chapter also presents self-help activities as aids for developing effective instruction.

3.3 Teacher speaks fluently and precisely.

a. Cruickshank, Donald R. "Applying Research on Teacher Clarity." Journal of Teacher Education 36 (March/April 1985): 45-48.

This article highlights selected findings from the research on teacher clarity.

b. Harris, Paulette P., and Swick, Keven J. "Improving Teacher Communications." Clearing House 59 (September 1985): 13-15.

This article lists and defines "vagueness" terms and also provides research findings on clarity.

c. Hunter, Madeline. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, California: Theory Introduction Practice Publications. 1984.

Chapter three addresses the presentation of information in the clearest and simplest form.

d. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow, Shirley B. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Research Foundation, 1984.

This manual reviews research on teacher clarity.

e. Smith, Lyle R., and Bramblett, Grace H. "The Effect of Teacher Vagueness Terms on Student Performance in High School Biology." Journal of Research in Science Teaching 18 (July 1981): 353-60.

Article presents the findings of a research study on the relationship between students' retention of material and teachers' use of "vagueness" terms.

3.4 Teacher presents the lesson or instructional activity using concepts and language understandable to the students.

a. Duffy, Gerald G.; Roehler, Laura R.; and Rackliffe, Gary. "How Teachers' Instructional Talk Influences Students' Understanding of Lesson Content." The Elementary School Journal 86 (September 1986): 3-16.

This study describes three pairs of lessons in which the same skill taught to the same levels of students by identically trained teachers resulted in noticeable differences in what students remembered following instructions. It focuses on how student understanding of lesson content is influenced by relatively subtle differences in what a teacher says.

b. Duffy, Gerald G., and Roehler Laura R. "The Subtleties of Instructional Mediation." Educational Leadership 44 (April 1986): 23-26.

This article discusses the implications of the research on how teacher talk influences students' understanding of lesson content.

c. Jacobsen, David; Eggen, Donald K.; and Dulaney, Carole. Methods of Teaching: A Skills Approach. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1985.

Pages 60-62 and 139-40 discuss sequencing and formative checks as means of assuring that the lesson is understood.

d. Manatt, Richard P, and Stow, Shirley B. Clinical Manual for Teacher Evaluation. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Research Foundation, 1984.

This manual contains a compilation and discussion of research evidence in support of advance organizers as well as other structuring techniques.

3.5 Teacher provides relevant examples and demonstrations to illustrate concepts and skills.

a. Ausubel, David P., and Robinson, Floyd G. School Learning. New York: Holt, Rhinehart & Winston, Inc., 1969.

Effective communication ideas using examples and illustrations in instructional presentation are given on pages 321-22.

b. Cruickshank, Donald R., and Kennedy, John J. "Teacher Clarity." Teaching and Teacher Education 2: 43-67.

Five studies cited provide characteristics of clear teachers. Results emphasize use of examples and demonstrations.

c. Hunter, Madeline. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, California: Theory Introduction Practice Publications, 1982.

Chapter seven describes a model as one kind of example which may take various forms and identifies four characteristics of an effective model on pages 43-47. Chapter eight explains the use of examples from students' past experience by following six basic principles outlined on pages 49-55. The use of mnemonic devices as an alternative approach is also discussed.

d. Kim, Eugene C., and Kellough, Richard D. A Resource Guide for Secondary School Teaching. New York: MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1978.

In chapter twelve, under "Presentation Skills," five points are made about use of examples.

e. McCaleb, Joseph L., and Rosenthal, Barbara G. "Relationships in Teacher Clarity Between Students' Perceptions and Observers' Ratings." Journal of Classroom Interaction 19: 15-21.

Two tables report research findings indicating the importance of providing examples. The questions listed could be asked for self-analysis.

f. Merrill, M. David, and Tennyson, Robert D. Teaching Concepts: An Instructional Design Guide. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1977.

An eight-step format for designing concept lessons is given. Step three is explained in chapter four "Collect an Instance Pool," pages 31-45. The emphasis is on using examples. This book uses a practical "how to" instructional approach.

g. Raths, Louis E. Teaching for Learning. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1969.

The author classifies the major functions of teaching calling them the "ten components of teaching." Component one, informing and explaining, relates to the use of providing relevant examples. In component two, showing how, the importance of the use of demonstrations is emphasized. These components are discussed on pages 34-37.

3.6 Teacher assigns tasks that students handle with a high rate of success.

a. Dunn, Rita, and Dunn, Kenneth. Teaching Students Through Their Individual Learning Styles: A Practical Approach. Reston, Virginia: Reston Publishing Company, Inc., 1978.

This book discusses matching instruction to learning styles to promote higher rates of student success. The chart on page 23 lists five methods or resources used and identifies characteristics to which each responds or does not respond.

b. Evertson, Carolyn M.; Emmer, Edmund T.; Clements, Barbara S.; Sanford, Julie P.; Worsham, Murray E.; and Williams, Ellen L. Organizing and Managing the Elementary School Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1981.

The charts on pages 120-21 contain lists that report research findings on what will help and will not help low academic level students achieve basic skills. Case studies on pages 123-25 provide small group techniques for low academic level students which enable them to achieve a high rate of success.

c. Fisher, Charles; Marliave, Richard; and Filby, Nikola N. "Improving Teaching by Increasing 'Academic Learning Time'." Educational Leadership 36 (October 1979): 52-54.

This article is based on some of the findings of the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study of 1978 in California. Student success rate is discussed as one of the components of Academic Learning Time.

d. Garger, Stephen, and Guild, Pat. "Learning Styles: The Crucial Difference." Curriculum Review 23 (February 1984): 9-12.

Field dependency/independency as related to learning and teaching are explained. Instruments for diagnosing students' learning styles are suggested. A chart identifies characteristics and expectations of field dependent/independent persons.

e. Hunter, Madeline. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, California: Theory Introduction Practice Publications, 1982.

Three principles which increase the effectiveness of instructional presentation are identified on pages 31-36 of chapter five. Chapter six outlines on pages 37-42 four principles of chalkboard use to facilitate integrated hemispheric processing of information.

f. Hunter, Madeline, and Breit, Sally. Aide-ing in Education. El Segundo, California: Theory Introduction Practice Publications, 1976.

This booklet, the activity guide, and the videotapes are used in training sessions for volunteers in classrooms. The content is applicable to teachers, aides, and volunteers since all are working for increased rates of student success. Three sessions provide suggestions pertaining to the instructional presentation function:

Session 6: "Extending Students' Thinking"
Session 8: "Practice"
Session 12: "Retention"

g. Kibler, Robert J.; Parks, Arlie Muller; and Spell, Robert G. Objectives for Instruction and Evaluation. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1981.

Table 7-2 on pages 180-81 is a chart contrasting selected characteristic assumptions of the Traditional Education Systems and the Mastery-Learning System. Awareness of the differences in these systems will be useful for the teacher concerned with increasing rates of student success on tasks.

h. Powell, Marjorie. "New Evidence for Old Truths." Educational Leadership 36 (October 1979): 49-51.

A six-year study of how teachers affect learning of reading and mathematics provides research evidence to support some old truths about schools and teaching. The findings reported relate to six topics: student attention to task, student success rate, instructional time, content coverage, academic focus, and cooperative atmosphere.

i. Schneider, E. Joseph. "Degree of Success While Learning and Academic Achievement." The Education Digest 46 (January 1980): 21-23.

This article reviews Charles Fisher's measure of student learning called Academic Learning Time. Experiencing a high degree of success while learning is described as a major factor in the teaching-learning process. Schneider concludes that more time should be spent on high success tasks.

j. Slavin, Robert E. What Research Says to the Teacher - Cooperative Learning: Student Teams. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1982.

This booklet defines cooperative learning, explains how to use six of the methods, and identifies the specific results of using these techniques as reported in the research.

k. Wilson, Rich. "Direct Observation of Academic Learning Time." Teaching Exceptional Children 19 (Winter 1987): 13-17.

Student success rate is discussed as one of three observable components of Academic Learning Time. A form for gathering information on success rate is given in figure three. Categories of success rate based on the percentage of correct student answers are explained.

3.7 Teacher asks appropriate levels of questions which students handle with a high rate of success.

a. Blosser, Patricia E. Handbook of Effective Questioning Techniques. Worthington, Ohio: Education Associates, Inc., 1973.

This resource contains the following topics: the role of questions in the classroom, classification, strategies, implementation of questioning techniques in the science classroom, and procedures for improving questioning techniques. Appendices on pages 76-81 provide a mini-text resource on questioning.

b. Dean, Dale. "Questioning Techniques for Teachers: A Closer Look at the Process." Contemporary Education 57 (Summer 1986): 184-85.

This article reviews the research on the percent of the school day occupied by teacher questions, percent of questions per minute, number of questions per class period, and type of questions most often asked. The author addresses raising the level of students' responses by raising the level of questions. Selective verb usage of key active words is suggested, and a list of these terms is provided.

c. Hunkins, Francis P. Involving Students in Questioning. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1976.

This is the "everything you needed to know about questioning" book. Hunkins defines, gives examples, lists activities, and provides concluding notes in questioning techniques. Chapter two provides the strategies for working with questions in the cognitive domain. Chapter three emphasizes questioning techniques in the affective domain.

d. Kim, Eugene C., and Kellough, Richard D. A Resource Guide for Secondary School Teaching. New York: MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1978.

In chapter thirteen characteristics of good and poor questions are identified, in addition to levels of and strategies for questioning. Several types of questioning charts are included. Activity pages provide the opportunity for practice and self-testing.

e. Partin, Ronald L. "How Effective Are Your Questions?" The Clearing House 52 (February 1979): 254-56.

Arthur Carin's seven purposes in asking questions are discussed, response techniques are suggested, and five questioning behaviors to avoid are identified.

f. Sanders, Norris M. Classroom Questions: What Kinds? New York: Harper & Row, 1966.

Excerpts from this book include charts and lists of questioning classifications according to Bloom's Taxonomy. Several charts, inventories, and checklists are provided for self-evaluation.

g. Wilen, William W. What Research Says to the Teacher: Questioning Skills for Teachers. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1982.

This booklet is a concise guide to developing effective questioning techniques and strategies. Three tables found on pages 10-11 and 14-15 summarize suggestions and provide specific examples.

3.8 Teacher conducts lesson at a brisk pace, slowing presentations when necessary for student understanding but avoiding unnecessary slowdowns.

a. Alcorn, Marvin; Kinder, James; and Schunert, Jim. "Daily Planning." Better Teaching in Secondary Schools. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1964.

Chapter six, pages 121-33, stresses the importance of timing the lesson and provides a sample lesson plan.

b. Barr, Rebecca. "Instructional Pace Differences and Their Effect on Reading Acquisition." Reading Research Quarterly 9 (1973-1974): 526-54.

This article presents and discusses findings from research on the effect of grouping and pace on reading acquisition.

c. Cosley, W.W., and Leinhardt, G. "The Instructional Dimensions Study: The Search for Effective Classroom Processes - Final Report." Pittsburg: University of Pittsburg, Learning Research and Development Center, 1978.

The section on sequencing and pacing, pages 70-72, points out that sequencing is related to pacing. The clearer the sequence, the easier it is for pacing to take place at different rates.

d. Emmer, Edmund T.; Evertson, Carolyn M.; Sanford, Julie P.; Clements, Barbara S.; and Worsham, Murray E. Organizing and Managing the Junior High Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1982.

A section of chapter eight, pages 133-34, addresses the aspects of pacing and transitions. It defines pacing as the rate of movement through a lesson or the time allotted to activities.

e. Grobe, Robert P., and Pettibone, Timothy J. "Effect of Instructional Pace on Student Attentiveness." The Journal of Educational Research 6 (December 1975): 131-34.

This study investigates the effects of varying instructional pace on six dimensions of student behavior.

f. Weber, Ken. "Slower Learners Need a Slower and Steady Pace." Forum 12 (September/October 1986): 32-36.

This article addresses the need for educators to acknowledge the learning styles of slower learners and teach in a way (at a slower pace) that they can learn.

3.9 Teacher makes transitions between lessons and between instructional activities within lessons efficiently and smoothly.

a. Alger, Harriet A. "Transitions: Alternatives to Manipulative Management Techniques." Young Children 39 (September 1984): 16-25.

This article addresses the need for good program planning. At transitions, problems may become more evident in children's behavior, therefore, it examines the entire day.

b. Emmer, Edmund T.; Evertson, Carolyn M.; Sanford, Julie P.; Clements, Barbara S.; and Worsham, Murray E. Organizing and Managing the Junior High Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1982.

A section of chapter eight, pages 129-32, addresses the aspects of pacing and transitions. It defines transitions as periods of time between activities and points out some problems that occur during transitions.

c. Marshall, Arlin. "Teaching Transitions Can Disrupt Time Flow in Classrooms." American Educational Research Journal 16 (Winter 1979): 42-56.

This study confirms that transitions disrupt time flow and disruptive pupil behavior increases during unstructured transitions. Procedures for structuring transitions are described.

d. Smith, Howard A. "The Marking of Transitions by More and Less Effective Teachers." Theory into Practice 24 (Winter 1985): 57-62.

This study investigates how transitions are achieved by three differently effective teachers and describes the characteristics and durations of transitions between units of classroom activity or segments.

e. Vartuli, Sue, and Phelps, Carol. "Effective Transitions Between Classroom Activities." Childhood Education 57 (November/December 1980): 94-96.

This article identifies transition techniques to limit pupil stress and disruption.

3.10 Teacher makes sure that the assignment is clear.

a. Al-Rubaiy, Kathleen. "And Now for Your Homework Assignment." Directive Teacher 7 (Summer/Fall 1985): 2-5.

This article defines homework and provides tips for homework assignments in the elementary and secondary grades.

b. Denton, Jon J., and Matheny, Connie. "Making Instructional Assignments: How Easy, Yet How Hard!" The Clearing House 53 (March 1980): 327-30.

This article lists four criteria for making and clarifying assignments.

c. Emmer, Edmund T.; Evertson, Carolyn M.; Sanford, Julie P.; Clements, Barbara S., and Worsham, Murray E. Organizing and Managing the Junior High Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1982.

Pages 46-49 describe procedures for work relevant behavior such as giving and collecting assignments, evaluating student work, establishing a guiding system and providing feedback.

d. Hunter, Madeline. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, California: Theory Introduction Practice Publications, 1984.

Chapter ten, pages 65-68, focuses on four critical questions to guide the teacher in providing student practice to increase learning and to improve performance.

Chapter eleven, pages 71-75, lists and explains four techniques for guiding initial practice: guiding the group through practice steps, monitoring group responses and giving feedback, sampling group understanding through an individual's response, and monitoring each individual's written response.

e. La Conte, Ronald T. Homework as a Learning Experience. Washington, D.C.: A National Education Publication, 1981.

Three basic categories of homework assignments are discussed: practice, preparation, and extension.

f. Lee, Jackson F., and Pruitt, K.W. "Homework Assignments: Classroom Games or Teaching Tools?" The Clearing House 53 (September 1979): 31-35.

This article describes four types of assignments and provides criteria for a well prepared classroom assignment.

g. Rupley, William H., and Blair, Timothy R. "Assignment and Supervision of Reading Seatwork: Looking in on 12 Primary Teachers." The Reading Teacher 40 (January 1987): 391-93.

Procedures for providing quality seatwork and maintaining student engagement are recommended.

h. Russell, Doug, and Hunter, Madeline. "Planning for Effective Instruction." Instructor 87 (September 1977): 1-6.

This article addresses seven elements to be considered when planning a lesson. The last two elements, guided practice and independent practice, can be applied when considering assignment clarity.

i. Weaver, Gilbert. "The Teacher as a Planner." Applied Teaching Techniques. New York: Pitman Publishing, 1960.

In this chapter, pages 42-53, lesson planning is discussed. Weaver defines meaningful assignments and makes suggestions for their implementation.

3.11 Teacher summarizes the main point(s) of the lesson at the end of the lesson or instructional activity.

a. Bean, Thomas W., and Stunwyk, Fern L. "The Effect of Three Forms of Summarization Instruction on Sixth Graders' Summary Writing and Comprehension." Journal of Reading Behavior 16 (1984): 297-307.

Three forms of summarization techniques include the following: a rule-governed approach, an intuitive approach, and find the main ideas approach.

b. Brown, Ann L.; Campione, Joseph C.; and Day, Jeanne D. "Learning to Learn: On Training Students to Learn from Texts." Educational Researcher 10 (February 1981): 14-21.

This article identifies six basic rules essential to summarization.

c. Phillips, LuOuida Vinson. "Closure: The Fine Art of Making Learning Stick." Instructor 87 (October 1987): 36-38.

In this article, Phillips explains five common methods of closure. For more effective means of closure, these methods may be incorporated into the lesson planning and presentation.

d. Rinehart, Steven D.; Stahal, Steven A.; and Erikson, Lawrence G. "Some Effects of Summarization Training on Reading and Studying." Reading Research Quarterly 21 (Fall 1986): 422-38.

Direct and indirect effects of a summarization training program are discussed. Ways to improve summarization instruction are suggested.

e. Shumsky, Abraham. In Search of Teaching Styles. New York: Meredith Corporation, 1977.

This chapter, pages 137-41, discusses the main steps a teacher may move through in organizing ideas into a lesson.

f. Wright, Clifford J., and Nuthall, Graham. "Relationships Between Teacher Behavior and Pupil Achievement in Three Experimental Elementary Science Lessons." American Educational Research Journal 7 (November 1970): 477-91.

This study identifies the relationship between teacher behavior and pupil performance on achievement tests.

4.0 INSTRUCTIONAL MONITORING OF STUDENT PERFORMANCE

Monitoring is the key process that creates and sustains classroom activities in time and space. Teachers monitor the pace, rhythm, and duration of classroom events. The content of monitoring includes an individual and group focus. (Clark, Yinger, 1979; Kounin, 1970). Processes of turn allocation in group lessons, multiple attending of individuals in seatwork and small group segments, and transition management are orchestrated and communicated to the student.

Monitoring techniques are implemented in the collection of information about what the student knows before instruction, how the student is progressing during instruction, and what he has learned as a result. Central components of this process are the "withitness" and "overlapping" behaviors which have been found to be positively associated with student achievement (Brophy and Evertson, 1976). Eye contact and group scanning increase work involvement (Emmer, et al., 1980). Teachers attend to what is happening in the entire room but this does not preclude attention to individuals. Localized attending is integrated in the broader framework of the group. This demands a high degree of information processing and an ability to make decisions rapidly (Doyle, 1979).

4.1 Teacher maintains clear, firm, and reasonable work standards and due dates.

a. Duke, Daniel Linden, and Meckel, Adrienne Maravich. Teacher Guide to Classroom Management. New York: Random House, 1984.

Suggestions are given on pages 60-71 for resolving the problem of incomplete classwork and homework assignments by applying teacher effectiveness training and behavior modification techniques.

b. Emmer, Edmund T., and Evertson, Carolyn. "Synthesis of Research on Classroom Management." Educational Leadership 38 (January 1981): 342-47.

This article contains a synthesis of research regarding the importance of establishing academic work standards, and explains procedures for seeking assistance and for contacting the teacher. Evidence is cited to support the effectiveness of providing incentives for work completion and acceptable performance.

c. Emmer, Edmund T.; Evertson, Carolyn M.; Sanford, Julie P.; Clements, Barbara S.; and Worsham, Murray E. Organizing and Managing the Junior High Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1982.

Chapter three discusses accountability procedures, facets of accountability, work requirements, communication of work requirements, steps for monitoring seatwork, and routines for checking work. Pages 57, 59, and 61 contain sample accountability checklists. Pages 63-71 discuss consequences for lack of established procedures.

Article contains information regarding low ability students for assessing entering achievement, adjusting instruction, and monitoring whole group and small group differences. Guidelines are given for monitoring student progress. Pages 137-51 examine student accountability in lower ability classes. Suggestions are given for monitoring daily class assignments and class participation.

d. Evertson, Carolyn M., and Emmer, Edmund T. Helping Teachers Manage Classrooms. Edited by Daniel L. Duke. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1982.

In "Preventive Classroom Management," pages 2-31, elementary school studies emphasize the importance of developing student accountability for work. Suggestions are given for communicating assignments, for monitoring student work, and for checking student products. A chart is included for the development of expectations and procedures in both the elementary and junior high/middle school classroom.

e. Evertson, Carolyn M.; Emmer, Edmund T.; Clements, Barbara S.; Sanford, Julie P.; Worsham, Murray E.; and Williams, Ellen L. Organizing and Managing the Elementary School Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1981.

Pages 127-36 explain effective accountability systems, and strategies for communicating assignments and instructions. The establishment of routines for collecting, checking, and returning papers is discussed.

f. Levin, Tamar, and Long, Ruth. Effective Instruction. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981.

Studies reveal the importance of considering individual differences in establishing work standards.

g. Raschke, Donna; Cedrick, Charles; and Thompson, Marion. "Reluctant Learners: Innovative Contingency Packages." Teaching Exceptional Children 19 (Winter 1987): 18-21.

This article explains a contingency contract approach for helping students who are experiencing academic failure. Suggestions are given for using contracts with elementary and adolescent learners.

h. Sanford, Julie P; Emmer, Edmund T.; and Clements, Barbara S. "Improving Classroom Management." Educational Leadership 40 (April 1983): 56-59.

This research stresses the importance of establishing standards and procedures for work and for communicating this to the student at the beginning of the school year. Simple lesson formats and assignments are used to introduce students to classroom routines.

i. Williams, Robert L., and Anandam, Kamala. Cooperative Classroom Management. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1973.

Chapter two describes contingency contracting and gives suggestions for application of the technique.

4.2 Teacher circulates during classwork to check all students' performance.

a. Berliner, David C. "The Half-Full Glass: A Review of Research on Teaching." Using What We Know About Teaching Edited by Philip L. Hosford. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1984.

This chapter, pages 51-75, discusses recent research on structuring, monitoring, and questioning.

b. Crocker, Robert K., and Booker, Gwen M. "Classroom Control and Student Outcomes in Grades 2 and 5." American Educational Research Journal 23 (Spring 1986): 1-11.

This study explores the relationship between dimensions of control and cognitive and affective outcomes. Research reveals the importance of monitoring the progress of all students and of the need for continual direction by the teacher of student independent work.

c. Evertson, Carolyn M.; Emmer, Edmund T.; Clements, Barbara S.; Sanford, Julie P.; Worsham, Murray E.; and Williams, Ellen L. Organizing and Managing the Elementary School Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1981.

This section, pages 103-105, discusses seven practices for improving monitoring. Suggestions are also given for improving room arrangement to facilitate monitoring.

d. Hensley, Robert B., and Taylor, Pamela K. "Nonverbal Behavior Analysis Instrument." The Clearing House 60 (January 1987): 199-201.

The article discusses the importance of facial expression and physical proximity. Nonverbal Behavior Analysis Instrument is included. Instructions are given for instrument use.

e. Kounin, Jacob S. Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc. 1970.

Kounin's analysis of a large number of videotaped lessons reveals that successful teachers are able to handle two or more simultaneous events. Kounin's study identifies accountability techniques to activate and to monitor student performance.

f. Rinne, Carl H. The Fundamentals of Classroom Control. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1984.

Chapter describes, pages 110-21, classroom arrangements that can enhance or detract from instruction. Suggestions and diagrams are given for arranging the room for seatwork, small groups, lecture, recitation, all-class discussion, and learning centers.

Suggestions are given on pages 174-78 for teacher movement during discussion and small group work. Methods of pointing, touching, gesturing and changing location are discussed.

4.3 Teacher routinely uses oral, written, and other work products to check student progress.

a. Dubert, Lee Ann. "Two Ideas for Grading Simulations and Higher Level Thinking Activities." The Clearing House 60 (February, 1987): 226-69.

Instructions are given for preparing checksheets and response tickets for grading the process of learning rather than the product.

b. Emmer, Edmund T.; Evertson, Carolyn M.; Sanford, Julie P.; Clements, Barbara S.; and Worsham, Murray E. Organizing and Managing the Junior High Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research and Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1982.

Article contains information regarding low ability students for assessing entering achievement, adjusting instruction, and monitoring whole group and small group differences. Guidelines are given for monitoring student progress. Pages 137-51 examine student accountability in lower ability classes. Suggestions are given for monitoring daily class assignments and class participation.

c. Hunter, Madeline. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, California: Theory Introduction Practice Publications, 1982.

Chapter nine, pages 57-62, contains suggestions for checking students' understanding during the teaching process. Suggestions are given for signaled answers, choral responses, and sample individual responses.

Pages 69-75 contain articles on monitoring group response and composite responses, sampling group response, and monitoring written response.

d. Kierstead, Janet. "How Teachers Manage Individual and Small-Group Work in Active Classrooms." Educational Leadership 44 (October 1986): 22-25.

This article identifies techniques for managing small group and individual instruction.

e. Laska, John A. "Mastery Teaching: The Basic Principles." The Clearing House 58 (March 1985): 307-309.

Article contains information about two basic principles of mastery teaching and a general approach to this type of instruction.

f. Lemlech, Johanna Kasin. Classroom Management. New York: Harper and Row, 1979.

Pages 71-91 contain suggestions for checklists, teacher observation, anecdotal records, conferences, diaries or logs, peer tutoring, teacher made tests and other techniques for gathering data about student progress.

g. Levin, Tamar, and Long, Ruth. Effective Instruction. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Department, 1981.

Formal and informal methods for assessing student progress are discussed. Rating scales and questionnaires are included. Suggestions for teachers' self-evaluation regarding corrective procedures and instructional cues are given.

h. Rinne, Carl H. The Fundamentals of Classroom Control. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1984.

Skills and techniques for monitoring student progress and for evaluation of learning are discussed on pages 78-95. The most common techniques of monitoring are classified in terms of their probable effectiveness in inducing student learning.

i. Squires, David A.; Huitt, William G.; and Segars, John K. Effective Schools and Classrooms: A Research-Based Perspective. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1983, pp. 113-24, Appendix I.

Suggestions are given for monitoring student involvement by keeping records of student engaged time (chart on page 119). Changes in the use of class time are monitored by using a graph (page 120). Examples are given for monitoring student success through daily work, both new and review, and through unit tests.

4.4 The teacher poses questions clearly and one at a time.

a. Barell, John. "You ask the Wrong Questions." Educational Leadership 42 (May 1985): 18-23.

Barell uses examples of a second grade class and a fifth grade class to demonstrate levels of cognitive skills and cognitive thinking.

b. Dillon, J.T. Teaching and the Art of Questioning. Fastback Series #194, Phi Delta Kappa.

Differences between recitation and discussion questions are explained, and sample questions are given. Suggestions are made for the use of declarative and reflective statements as a monitoring technique.

c. Evertson, Carolyn M.; Emmer, Edmund T.; Clements, Barbara S.; Sanford, Julie P.; Worsham, Murray E.; and Williams, Ellen L. Organizing and Managing the Elementary School Classroom. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, The Research Developmental Center for Teacher Education, COET Project, 1981.

Prescription 11, pages 137-44, provides a rationale for instructional clarity. Daily monitoring of instruction through work products and questioning is discussed.

d. Perez, Samuel A. "Improving Learning through Student Questioning." The Clearing House 60 (October 1986): 63-65.

This article discusses prior knowledge questions, prediction questions, and postreading questions and explains how each of these can be used by both the teacher and the student.

e. Rinne, Carl H. The Fundamentals of Classroom Control. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1984.

This chapter, pages 236-45, contains practical suggestions for utilizing various types of questions and for determining questioning styles. Suggestions are given for treatment of student answers and for diagnosing learning problems and needs.

f. Tobin, Kenneth. "The Role of Wait-Time in Higher Cognitive Level Learning." Review of Educational Research 57 (Spring 1987): 69-95.

The article reviews studies involving wait-time in a range of subject areas and grade levels. Four types of wait-time are discussed and suggestions are given for occasions when shorter wait-time may be best.

g. What Works: Research About Teaching and Learning. United States Department of Education, William J. Bennett, Secretary, 1986.

Research findings about the effectiveness of various levels of questions are discussed on page 38. Emphasis is placed on thoughtful answers and the importance of "wait" time.

5.0 INSTRUCTIONAL FEEDBACK

Feedback, as defined by Raymond Wlodkowski, is information that a student receives about the quality of his/her performance on a given task. Wlodkowski's book, Motivation, provides beneficial ideas and techniques that enhance motivation with an informative section on feedback. Cited in this section are seven strong guidelines for teachers in providing feedback. They are as follows:

1. **Provide feedback frequently and efficiently.** Some moderate delay may, in fact, allow students to forget incorrect responses, and excessive delay decreases student motivation and feedback loses its effectiveness.

2. **Whenever appropriate, let students control feedback.** Formative tests, fill-in workbooks, and answer sheets can be self-evaluated for immediate reinforcement and strengthening of the student's personal awareness of responsibility and of internal locus of control.

3. **When applicable, make comments specific and suggest correction.** Students cannot correct mistakes unless they are informed concretely of their errors and, in most cases, are directed toward more appropriate responses.

4. **Avoid sarcasm and personal criticism.** Without constructive alternatives, negative or critical remarks usually lower interest and increase student avoidance of further effort.

5. **Allow students to revise their incorrect responses.** When feedback comments are specific and positive, students can hand in the corrected task with a sense of achievement, and motivation for mastery is further enhanced.

6. **At times, have students chart their progress toward individual learning goals.** Progress toward each student's learning goals can be recorded on goal cards, learning ladders, checklists, and graphs. This visual evidence of progress can reinforce persistence and effort.

7. **Use oral as well as written feedback.** Both appear helpful and sometimes one may be more efficient than the other in terms of teacher time and student availability.

5.1 Teacher provides feedback on the correctness or incorrectness of in-class work to encourage student growth.

a. Good, Thomas L., and Brophy, Jere E. Looking In Classrooms. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1978.

Throughout the book, case study techniques, classroom research, suggested activities, and questions are used to help the reader utilize information as a tool to provide feedback to students.

b. Hunter, Madeline. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, California: Theory Introduction Practice Publications, 1984.

Hunter, in chapter thirteen, shares ways of productively responding to student answers in their simplest and most complex forms, by providing examples. A videotape is available.

In chapter three, Hunter strongly supports the significance of specific feedback, by giving models that prompt effective feedback. A videotape is available.

Chapter eleven gives examples of monitoring group responses and giving feedback. Samples of feedback are given for the following: choral responses, signaled responses, composite responses, sampling, group understanding, and monitoring written responses. A videotape is available.

c. The Kentucky School Counselor Association. "65 Ways to Say Good for You." Working To Generate Positive Support for Students. February [1985].

Samples given on this page provide a variety of ways to give feedback.

d. Klausmeir; Schwenn; and Lamal. A System of Individual Guided Motivation. Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Research and Development Center. Paper 9, 1970.

This paper describes a system of individually guided motivation. Chapter two summarizes the importance of feedback, listing various examples of meaningful feedback.

e. Madsen, Charles H., and Madsen, Clifford K. Teaching Discipline: A Positive Approach for Educational Development. Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn, 1980.

Part three in this book shares lists of various reinforcer models for the teacher.

f. Marinick, Maria Harper, and Gerlach, Vernon. "Designing Interactive Responsive Instruction." Educational Technology 26 (November 1964): 36-38.

This article emphasizes the need for a well designed, effective instructional program. It provides twelve steps involved in interactive responding.

g. Meyer, Linda A. "Strategies for Correcting Students' Wrong Responses." The Elementary School Journal 87 (November 1986): 227-40.

This paper reviews research on teacher feedback to students' wrong responses and describes ways of providing meaningful feedback. It classifies wrong responses into four categories, and gives examples of correction procedures.

h. 99 Ways to Say "Very Good." [Available through Granville/Vance Outside Evaluator Project, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction]

This paper lists ninety-nine effective ways to respond to correct answers.

i. Smith, Bruce D. "Responding Effectively to Incorrect Answers." The Social Studies 75 (March/April): 56-60.

Correction techniques are described along with research about feedback.

j. Smith, Donald E.P., and Smith, Judith M. Classroom Management. New York: Learning Research Association, 1970.

Smith describes feedback in chapter five and provides models.

k. Story, Naomi O. "Factors that Influence Continuing Motivation." Journal of Educational Research 80 (November/December 1986): 86-91.

This study examines the following factors affecting motivation: students' performance, students' gender, and teachers' strategies. It shares comments to promote student achievement.

l. Wlodkowski, Raymond J. Motivation. Washington, D.C., 1982.

Wlodkowski, in the section on "Teacher Expectations," gives results of research on teacher oral response toward high and low achievers. Specific guidelines for giving feedback are listed.

5.2 Teacher regularly provides prompt feedback on assigned out-of-class work.

a. The Kentucky School Counselor Association. "65 Ways to Say Good for You." Working to Generate Positive Support for Students. February [1985].

Samples provide a variety of ways to share feedback on out-of-class assignments.

b. La Conte, Ronald T. Homework. Washington, D.C.: A National Education Publication, 1981.

This twenty-eigh page booklet describes the purposes of homework and strategies in providing homework. It provides guidelines to help the classroom teacher with homework policies.

c. Meyer, Linda. "Strategies for Correcting Students' Wrong Responses " The Elementary School Journal 87 (November 1986): 27-40.

This article reviews research on teacher feedback to students' wrong responses and describes ways to provide feedback. It classifies wrong responses into four categories that may be used when correcting out-of-class assignments.

d. 99 Ways to Say "Very Good." [Available through Granville/Vance Outside Evaluator Project, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction]

This is a listing of ninety-nine ways of saying "very good" that could be used to write feedback on out-of-class assignments.

e. Smith, Bruce. "Responding Effectively to Incorrect Answers." The Social Studies 75 (March/April): 56-60.

Correction techniques are described along with research findings about feedback which may be applied to written out-of-class assignments.

f. Smith, Donald E.P., and Smith, Judith M. Classroom Management. New York: Learning Research Association, 1970.

Chapter five describes ways to provide feedback and gives examples that may be used for writing comments on out-of-class assignments.

g. Walberg, Herbert J; Paschal, Rosanne A.; and Weinsteim, Thomas. "Homework's Powerful Effects on Learning." Educational Leadership 42 (April 1985): 76-79.

Research reveals the relationship between homework and students' performance on standardized tests.

5.3 Teacher affirms a correct oral answer appropriately and moves on.

a. Good, Thomas L., and Brophy, Jere E. Looking In Classrooms. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1978.

Throughout the book, case study techniques, classroom research, suggested activities, and questions are used to help the reader utilize information as a tool to provide feedback to students.

b. Hunter, Madeline. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, California: Theory Introduction Practice Productions, 1984.

Hunter gives specific examples of ways to respond to student answers. Samples of feedback are given for the following: choral responses, signaled responses, composite responses, sampling group understanding, and monitoring written responses. A videotape is available.

c. Madsen, Charles H., and Madsen, Clifford K. Teaching Discipline: A Positive Approach for Educational Development. Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn, 1980.

Part three of chapter seven shares lists of various reinforcer models for the teacher.

d. 99 Ways to Say "Very Good." [Available through Granville/Vance Outside Evaluator Project, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction]

This paper lists ninety-nine ways to say "very good" that may be used during class for feedback.

e. Tobin, Kenneth. "Effects of Teacher Wait-Time on Discourse Characteristics in Mathematics and Language Arts Classes." American Educational Research Journal 23 (Summer 1986): 191-200.

The results of this study reveal a number of benefits of extending teacher wait-time in class settings.

f. Tobin, Kenneth. "The Role of Wait-Time in Higher Cognitive Level Learning." Review of Educational Research 57 (Spring 1987): 69-95.

Studies show in this paper that wait-time facilitates higher cognitive learning.

g. Wlodkowski, Raymond J. Motivation. Washington, D.C., 1982.

Wlodkowski, in the section on "Teacher Expectations," gives results of research on teacher response toward high and low achievers. Specific guidelines for providing feedback are listed.

5.4 Teacher provides sustaining feedback after an incorrect response or no response by probing, repeating the question, giving a clue, or simply allowing more time.

a. Collins, Cathy. Time Management for Teachers. New York: Parker Publishing Company, 1987.

Collins shares, in chapter seven, strategies to use when a wrong answer is given followed by a complete explanation of each strategy with added key response phrases.

b. Good, Thomas L., and Brophy, Jere E. Looking In Classrooms. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1978.

Throughout the book, case study techniques, classroom research, suggested activities, and questions are used to help the reader utilize information as a tool to provide feedback to students.

c. Hollingsworth, Paul M. "Questioning: The Heart of Teaching." The Clearing House 55 (April 1982): 350-52.

This article addresses techniques of asking questions and responding to answers. It illustrates an example of probing.

d. Hunter, Madeline. Improving Instruction. El Segundo, California: Theory Introduction Practice Publications, 1984.

Hunter, in chapter thirteen, shares ways of correcting errors with examples. A videotape is available.

In chapter three, Hunter stresses the importance of specific feedback and offers an example for providing sustaining feedback. A videotape is available.

e. The Kentucky School Counselor Association. "65 Ways to Say Good for You." Working To Generate Positive Support for Students. February [1985].

This paper states sixty-five ways to provide feedback in a variety of settings.

f. Meyer, Linda. "Strategies for Correcting Students' Wrong Responses." The Elementary School Journal 87 (November 1986): 227-40.

This paper reviews research on teacher feedback to students' wrong responses and describes ways of providing sustained feedback. It classifies wrong responses into four categories and provides examples of correction procedures.

g. Rowe, Mary Budd. "Relation of Wait-Time and Rewards to the Development of Language, Logic, and Fate Control: Part II Rewards." Journal of Research in Science Teaching 11 (1974): 291-304.

This article describes a model of inquiry behaviors and reports findings to indicate that impulsive students can be converted to reflective pupils by allowing wait-time.

h. Rowe, Mary Budd. "Wait, Wait, Wait..." School Science and Mathematics 78 (March, 1978): 207-16.

"Wait-Times," the pauses between a teacher's question, a student's answer, and a teacher's response are investigated in elementary science classes. Findings indicate that longer "wait-times" promote increased student participation.

i. Smith, Bruce. "Responding Effectively to Incorrect Answers." The Social Studies 75 (March/April 1984): 56-60.

Smith describes correction techniques. Research provides and gives examples of sustained feedback.

j. Story, Naomi O. "Factors That Influence Continuing Motivation." Journal of Educational Research 80 (November/December 1986): 86-91.

This study examines the following factors affecting motivation: students' performance, students' gender, and teachers' strategies. It shares comments to promote student achievement.

k. Tobin, Kenneth. "Effects of Teacher Wait-Time on Discourse Characteristics in Mathematics and Language Arts Classes." American Educational Research Journal 23 (Summer 1986): 191-200.

The results of this study reveal the benefits of extending teacher wait-time in class settings.

l. Tobin, Kenneth. "The Role of Wait-Time in Higher Cognitive Level Learning." Review of Educational Research 57 (Spring 1987): 69-95.

Studies show that wait-time facilitates higher cognitive learning.

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This article lists four ways to sharpen questioning skills. It emphasizes probing to expand answers after an incorrect response.