



CORE FUNCTION

Student and School Success Principle 4: Rigorous, aligned instruction Strengthening the school's instructional program based on student needs and ensuring that the instructional program is researchbased, rigorous, and aligned with State academic content standards

EFFECTIVE PRACTICE

INDICATOR

Students are engaged and on task. (144)

Student engagement "refers to students being actively involved in their learning tasks and activities" (Lei et al., 2018, p. 517). Evidence-based instructional practices are more likely to focus students' attention to learning tasks by engaging them actively within the learning process, thus promoting the learning and achievement of students of various ages and abilities (Dotterer & Lowe, 2011; Ladd & Dinella, 2009). Engagement has been considered to be a multidimensional construct consisting of behavioral (students' direct actions and participation within learning environments), emotional (students' affective responses to peers and teachers, and feelings of connection within the school context) and cognitive engagement (students' levels of effort and willingness to use cognitive learning strategies towards mastery) (Fredericks, 2014; Fredericks et al., 2004). Each of these components makes up a dynamic process that impacts student learning and academic achievement (Wang & Holcombe, 2010). A large body of research demonstrates that higher levels of engagement are connected with short-term academic outcomes such as grades, standardized test scores, and attendance, as well as long-term outcomes such as high school completion (Harbour et al., 2015).

Research has most often addressed behavioral engagement, measuring observable behaviors such as paying attention and responding to the teacher, raising one's hand, and paying attention to the assignment. Behavioral engagement shows the strongest link to academic achievement (Dotterer & Lowe, 2011; Ladd & Dinella, 2009; Lei et al., 2018), and is a key condition that supports academic achievement (Gregory et al., 2014). Teacher support is a crucial factor for student engagement (Klem & Connell, 2004), and certain teaching behaviors that occur within high quality instruction can lead to increased engagement and performance (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Harbour, et al., 2015). Harbour and colleagues identified three teaching behaviors that effectively promote student engagement: modeling, opportunities to respond, and feedback.

Modeling

Teacher modeling has been defined as "a twofold process that includes demonstrating a desired skill or behavior while simultaneously describing the actions and decisions being made throughout the process" (Harbour et al., p. 6). Teacher modeling reduces student confusion and enhances understanding (Sandholtz, 2011), and has been shown to foster positive student outcomes (Rosenshine, 2012). Effective instructional sequences include teachers first modeling a skill, then gradually incorporating guided practice as modeling is faded, and eventually shifting responsibility to students by providing opportunities for independent practice (Rosenshine & Meister, 1992). Modeling is an interactive process that can increase the accessibility of difficult concepts for learners, and increase on-task behavior and engagement, which in turn lead to collateral benefits such as improved capacity for self-regulated learning, and increased performance on higher order thinking questions and tasks (Housand & Reis, 2008; Methe & Hintze, 2003). High quality teacher modeling includes the most important points of the skills and behaviors to be learned (Scott et al., 2012), is clear, consistent, and concise, includes more than one demonstration (depending on complexity of skills/content), and involves students in the process through questioning strategies that prompt and activate students' background knowledge (Archer & Hughes, 2011). Think-alouds, in which the teacher explains his/her thinking as they model desired strategies, give students the opportunity to see the expert thinking that is often otherwise inaccessible (VanDeWeghe, 2006). Using think-alouds during



instruction has been shown to increase reading comprehension skills and reading achievement (Fisher et al., 2011), and students' capacity for summarizing read text (Silven & Vaurus, 1992).

Opportunity to Respond

Research shows that when teachers provide an abundance of opportunities for students to respond to instruction, active engagement and, subsequently, learning increase (Hattie, 2012; Tincani & Twyman, 2016; Twyman & Heward, 2018). Active student response (ASR) or opportunities to respond (OTR) techniques have been used successfully with students from preschool through secondary grades (Twyman & Heward, 2018), and with both general education students (e.g., Christle & Schuster, 2003), and students with disabilities (e.g., Didion et al., 2018). ASR occurs when a student responds to ongoing instruction by providing a detectable response, such as hand-raising, providing a written or verbal answer, or some other detectable response following a teacher posed question or other instructional cue (Tincani & Twyman, 2016). ASRs are alterable variables (within the teachers' control) that offer the benefits of providing access for students with disabilities (Didion, et al., 2018), and that are easily integrated within a school-wide system such SWPBS¹ (Bradshaw et al., 2015; Tincani & Twyman, 2016). Tincani & Twyman (2016) describe several high-ASRs strategies that have been shown to invoke high rates of engagement during small- or whole-group instruction.

Response Cards. Student response cards encourage active participation by increasing attention and reducing disruptive and off-task behavior for students with and without disabilities (Didion et al., 2018; Horn, 2010; Randolph, 2007; Schnorr et al., 2015). In traditional instruction teachers can only call on one student at a time, thus leaving most students passive as they wait to be called upon to answer questions or respond to the teacher. Response cards (e.g., white tile boards for students to write their response, premade cards, electronic responders or clickers) can be held up by individual students simultaneously as they respond to the questions or problems posed, allowing the teacher to gauge learning in less time (Tincani & Twyman, 2016). Response cards can be used with both small group and whole class instruction, and with a variety of curricular topics (Tincani, 2011). Response cards should be used with brisk instructional pacing, with "the teacher moving through question-response-feedback sequences as quickly as possible without hurrying the students" (Tincani & Tywman, 2016, p. 6). This brisk pacing allows teachers to be more efficient, increasing both the number of opportunities for student practice and reducing down time which can lead to increased student disruptions (Lambert et al., 2006).

<u>Choral Response.</u> Choral response involves students verbally responding in unison to teacher questions that have only one right answer and that require only a brief oral response (Tincani, 2011; Twyman & Heward, 2018). Choral response has been shown to be more effective than hand raising in terms of decreasing disruptive behavior and increasing engagement (Haydon et al., 2013). Similar to response cards, choral response requires brisk instructional pacing, with the teacher providing majority group feedback, but interspersing this feedback with calls on individual students who may be hesitant to respond or who have offered an incorrect response (Tincani et al., 2005; Tincani & Twyman, 2016). Choral response can also be used "to prime students' background knowledge when introducing new content…interspersed in brief doses throughout a lesson…provide a brief end-of-lesson review [and,] improve transitions from one classroom activity or location while providing practice on academic and social skills" (Twyman & Heward, 2018, p. 3).

Guided Notes. Note taking is an increasingly important skill as students progress from elementary school into secondary school and college, when they are expected to listen carefully and take accurate and complete notes. Many students are poor note takers (Boyle & Forchelli, 2014), and guided notes can both increase ASR and improve students' academic performance (Haydon et al., 2011; Konrad et al., 2009). Heward (1994) describes guided notes as "teacher-prepared handouts that guide a student through a lecture with standard cues and prepared space in which to write the key facts, concepts, and/or relationships" (p. 304). Guided notes have been shown to be more effective than traditional note taking in terms of student test scores, the accuracy of the notes taken, and increased student responses and engagement during lectures (Haydon et al., 2011). The teacher should first make a lecture outline using a slide preparation program, using consistent typographical cues (e.g., bullets) to draw students' attention to the lecture's salient points. This outline is then modified for students by creating blank spaces for them to write the missing information as they listen (Tincani & Twyman, 2016). Guided notes can include graphic organizers and can allow for different kinds of student responses such as drawing pictures, and can be used with portable technology such as tablet computers or laptops (Tincani & Twyman, 2016).

1 School-wide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports



Feedback

Feedback from teachers improves student achievement, reduces disruptive behaviors, and increases time on-task (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Apter et al., 2010), and is considered a best practice in classroom management (Harbour, et al., 2015). Teacher feedback in the form of verbal and nonverbal responses guides students in their development of skills and knowledge by providing them with information about their academic or behavioral performance (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Feedback helps students build on learned concepts and corrects misconceptions or errors that arise during learning. Teachers who use high levels of positive feedback have more highly engaged students, and those who increase their levels experience greater levels of student engagement (Apter, et al., 2010). Other demonstrated benefits of positive feedback include increases to students' intrinsic motivation, enjoyment of classwork, and self-efficacy (Chalk & Bizo, 2004), and fewer disruptive behaviors (Pisacreta et al., 2011). Effective positive feedback must be contingent (only given when appropriate response or behavior is produced), consistent, frequent, and specifically related to the student's task performance rather than vague praise for general behaviors (Harbour et al., 2015; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Corrective feedback, which includes specific information on what the student is doing wrong and how they can fix it, also improves academic and behavioral outcomes when it is used in conjunction with higher rates of positive feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Research suggests that positive feedback should occur at approximately four times the rate of negative feedback (e.g., Trussell, 2008); however, it is frequently used less often within classrooms (Harbour et al., 2015), and has been the subject of professional development interventions designed to increase the practice (e.g., Reinke et al., 2007).

Connecting the Research to Our Practice: Assessing Your School's Needs Related to This Indicator

Assessing your school's needs is a critical first step in identifying evidence-based practices appropriate for your school and planning for improvement. The suggested needs assessment questions below encompass two areas: data review and implementation of programs, policies and procedures. You can adapt the questions to fit your school's context as need-ed, and/or add or remove questions as desired.



I. What Data are Currently Being Provided?					
Questions to Consider	Discussion of Data/Responses				
1. To what extent do classroom observation data indi- cate that most students are actively engaged and on-task during most instructional time?					
2. What do school disciplinary or other data show regard- ing the level of classroom disruptions and off-task behav- ior at the school?					
3. What do teacher survey or focus group data say about the level of student engagement and on-task behavior? By grade and or subject area?					
What needs can you identify based on the responses?					

II. What Programs, Policies, and Procedures Are Already Being Implemented? How Well Are They Being Implement ed?				
Questions to Consider	Responses			
1. Does a review of lesson plans suggest that teachers are making consistent use of opportunities to respond/active student responding techniques? Do classroom obser- vation data provide evidence that all teachers regularly incorporate these techniques?				
2. Which engagement techniques do teachers at each grade level use most frequently?				
3. Are teachers of older students providing guided notes to enable their engagement, note taking ability, and learn-ing?				
4. How does the rate of positive feedback compare with the rate of negative feedback in classrooms? Are most teachers using positive feedback methods that are contin- gent, consistent, and specifically related to students' task performance?				



5. What if any professional development do teachers need to support their ability to enhance student engagement and time on task?

Consider the data and needs identified from Tables I and II, and responses to these questions. What is needed to foster this effective practice? What gaps (if any) can be identified between what we're implementing and evidence-based practice?

What actions, customized for your school's needs, will ensure that this Success Indicator will be fully met? How will the team monitor implementation and success?

Begin Date	End Date	Action	Monitoring Process/Data Collected	Desired Outcome/Need Met?

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