CHAPTER

6

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Teacher-Directed Instruction

Key Topics

- Teacher Effectiveness Variables
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- Implications for Culturally and/or Linguistically Diverse Students
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Teachers' teaching styles often vary as greatly as their personalities differ. Some teachers are characterized as flamboyant and exuberant. Others are more reserved. Some teachers use their creative powers in all of their teaching methods. Other teachers are more precise and systematic in the way they approach instruction. Although teacher style may vary based on personality and preference, there are instructional methods that are more effective than others in achieving positive student outcomes. Teacher-directed instruction is one of those.

Teacher-directed instruction includes methodologies in which the teacher is the primary deliverer of instruction, in contrast to student-mediated instruction, in which students take more responsibility for their own learning and the learning of their peers. This chapter focuses on teacher behaviors that lead to higher student achievement, based on the teacher effectiveness literature. Included are direct instruction, lesson planning, and technological tools that support teacher-directed instruction, as well as implications for teaching culturally diverse students. Consider the information presented in this chapter as laying the foundation for teaching students with high-incidence disabilities (HID).

Learning Objectives

- Explain why and provide examples of how teachers can influence student learning by improving allocated and student-engaged learning time.
- Describe the prescribed format teachers should use in lesson presentations. Explain why each element is important and provide examples of objectives, lesson introduction, instruction and modeling, guided practice, independent practice, and closure.
- Discuss the importance of understanding students' culture in context of teacher-directed instruction. Defend whether teacher-directed instruction is culturally responsive.

Teacher Effectiveness Variables

Mr. Ettington is concerned about Josef who comes from a home with one parent and seven other children. Their home is very small and he shares a bedroom with three of his brothers. He comes to school without his homework completed and doesn't appear motivated to do his work even at school. He has made little to no progress in 2 months. Mr. Ettington concludes that Josef isn't doing well in school because of his home environment. After all, his mother works full time to keep the family going. And Josef doesn't get any help at home with his homework.

Student achievement results from the influence and interaction of several factors, including characteristics of the student, the teacher, the school system, and the home. All teachers need to be aware of these factors in their students' lives. Teachers also need to recognize and admit that they are one of these influential factors, and the only factor over which they have direct control. In fact, research indicates that regardless of whether students are rich or poor, male or female, academically gifted or challenged, teachers can make a difference in their academic achievement (Adams & Englemann, 1996).

Although Mr. Ettington cannot change Josef's home life, there are things he can do to improve his school performance. He should reexamine his teaching practices and look for ways to help Josef succeed. Teachers can make a difference in student learning often regardless of the teaching method used or the home or social issues impacting the

classroom. For example, research has shown that effective elementary special educators distinguish themselves from less effective ones in the following ways: They conduct activities in the class; they ask questions frequently; they limit independent seatwork (especially silent reading); and they allow time for social interaction with students (Sindelar, Espin, Smith, & Harriman, 1990).

Effective instructional techniques in special education are not very distinct from those that are effective in general education. Instructional principles demonstrated to be effective with students with disabilities are effective whether students are educated in self-contained classrooms, in resource rooms, or in general education classes. On nearly 100 occasions, the author has asked large groups of educators, administrators, and university students to brainstorm a list of characteristics of effective teachers. In every instance, the groups have generated a very long list without my being asked, "What kind of a teacher?" "A teacher of what kind of students?" "What content is the teacher teaching?" or "In what kind of setting is the teacher teaching?" Principles of good teaching apply regardless of the type of students being taught or the setting in which they are being taught (Bost & Riccomini, 2006). Teachers who work with students requiring special education services need, however, to be particularly aware of effective instructional methods in order to be the most effective and efficient teachers possible. Three categories of teacher behaviors that impact student learning are (a) content selected for instruction, (b) amount of time spent in instruction, and (c) amount of active participation by students. Table 6.1 outlines some of the principles of effective instruction.

Content

Mrs. Forum is starting her first year as a special educator. She will be working in a resource room with upper elementary students. Each student has an IEP with reading and math goals. Mrs. Forum has a strong background in science and wants to incorporate some science experiments in the resource rooms to help teach reading and math. She's concerned about whether she can do this since none of the students have science goals on their IEPs.

As discussed in Chapter 1, the majority of states have adopted the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) that define the content to be taught in schools. The CCSS, or other state or district standards, applies to students receiving special education services. Students with disabilities, where possible, should be learning the same content as their typical peers.

Textbooks and other published curricular materials also impact what is taught. Publishers are attending to the CCSS and ensuring that their materials address the standards. Sometimes thick textbooks and massive curricular materials give teachers the impression that they must teach it all. Research indicates, however, that focusing on fewer topics and big ideas results in increased student achievement (McTighe, Seif, & Wiggins, 2004).

In determining instructional content for students with disabilities, special educators need to attend to their locally adopted standards, as well as to the goals prescribed

TABLE 6.1 Principles of Effective Instruction and School Engagement

Principle	Explanation
Active Engagement	Students should be actively engaged in learning tasks that are instructionally appropriate.
Providing the Experience of Success	Students need to experience success early and often.
Content Coverage and Opportunity to Learn	The amount of content covered should be maximized based on student needs.
Grouping for Instruction	Grouping students into smaller groups or providing one-on-one instruction should be determined by lesson objectives and student needs.
Scaffolded Instruction	Teachers should provide a sequenced series of content, materials, tasks, and teacher-supported prompts.
Addressing Forms of Knowledge	All forms of knowledge (e.g., facts, steps to solve problems, when and where to use strategies) should be part of instruction.
Organizing and Activating Knowledge	Connecting and combining prior knowledge to new information increases understanding and application.
Teaching Strategies	Students should be taught "how to learn" as well as "what to learn."
Making Instruction Explicit	Effective teacher-directed instruction includes clearly stating the purpose, providing structured instruction, and presenting content clearly and directly.
Teaching Sameness	Using purposely designed instruction helps students understand patterns and to organize knowledge.

Source: Adapted from L. W. Bost & P. J. Riccomini (2006). Effective instruction. *Remedial and Special Education, 27*(5), pp. 301–311.

on students' Individualized Education Programs (IEPs) (see Chapter 1). IEP goals and state or district standards then should drive the instruction that takes place. Teachers make the ultimate decision about the content taught to their students and often the curricular focus for their students. Special education teachers need to ensure that the content they teach ties directly to the IEP goals, and that these goals are based on their students' needs and the general education curriculum.

The CCSS and other state- or district-adopted standards "specify what students should know and be able to do, but they don't specify how teachers must teach those things" (Barth, 2013, p. 13). The curriculum decisions, or how to teach the content standards, is left to states, districts, school, and teachers to decide.

Mrs. Forum decides that rather than trying to teach the IEP goals using science experiments, she will design a reinforcement system whereby students can participate in the experiments if they achieve prespecified goals in reading and math. She will directly teach reading and math skills and then apply these skills as part of the science experiments at the end of each week.

Time

As a new teacher, Mr. Chapman has been frustrated with the number of interruptions in his classroom. It seems, for example, that he just begins instructing when a note comes from the principal's office or another teacher comes in asking for some assistance. He's not certain what to do about all of these interruptions. Mr. Chapman asks his mentor teacher to observe and collect data on the amount of time Mr. Chapman spends on academic-related tasks in the classroom. He also asks his mentor teacher to provide some suggestions for improving and using his time more directly related to instruction.

Time is a major commodity for schools and teachers. The manner in which teachers organize and utilize time has a direct impact on student learning. School time may be divided into (a) allocated time and (b) engaged learning time.

Allocated Time

Allocated time is defined as the amount of time scheduled for instruction. Research documents that about 50% to 60% of the school day is allocated to academic instruction. The remaining time is consumed by lunch, recesses, announcements, assemblies, housekeeping activities, and so forth. An average school day is about 6 hours; only 3 to 3½ hours a day, then, is allocated to instruction. In one study, special educators were found to spend less than 50% of their school day instructing: 46.0% was spent on instruction, assessment, and discipline; 28.7% on planning, meeting, and paperwork; with the remaining time spent on other school duties or personal time (Vannest, & Hagan-Burke, 2010).

All teachers have generally the same amount of time for instructing students. Yet, as with the content or curriculum covered, teachers vary greatly in their use of time. In one study, the average amount of time allocated to mathematics in general education in second grade varied from 25 to 60 minutes a day. And in fifth grade, reading and reading-related instruction was allocated for 60 to 140 minutes a day (Fisher et al., 2015). If those figures were multiplied by the number of school days in a year, the discrepancies between the teachers would be vast. Great variance also exists among special educators' use of time. In one study, the engaged time in special education classrooms varied from 11 minutes to 3 hours per day (Vaughn, Levy, Coleman, & Bos, 2002).

In a study of second- and fifth-grade general classrooms, researchers discovered that in addition to time allocated to academic instruction, 23% to 24% of the school day is allocated to nonacademic activities such as wait time and transitions; and 17% to 19% of school time is consumed by noninstructional activities (Rosenshine, 2015). In another study, a significant amount of time (17%) in high school was spent waiting for the teacher to start or restart instruction due to housekeeping activities, such as taking attendance or the teacher assisting students individually (Fisher, 2009).

Engaged Learning Time

In a comprehensive review of research that examined variables related to both cognitive and affective school outcomes, Margaret Wang, Geneva Haertel, and Herbert Walberg (1990) concluded that the variables "most important to learning outcomes were those

that were directly tied to students' engagement with the material to be learned" (p. 37). This is referred to as **active engagement**. **Engaged learning time** refers to the time during which students are attending to relevant instructional activities with a high rate of success. "Engaged" implies that students are involved actively in an activity or task that (a) relates directly to the material they are learning, (b) is provided at the appropriate level and stage of learning, and (c) can be completed with a high degree of success. Engaged learning time is also sometimes called academic learning time (Fisher et al., 2015). All three criteria must be met to be considered engaged learning time. If students are working on a set of worksheets at their desk as busy work, the students may be considered on task, but they are not actively engaged in learning. If the work, for example, ties directly to a planned review based on maintenance activities and the students are achieving high levels of accuracy and fluency (to be expected with maintenance activities), then they are participating in engaged learning time.

The amount of time students are actively engaged in learning, not just allocated time, is the ultimate goal of all instructional programs. As engaged learning time increases, so does student achievement (Fisher et al., 2015). Some of the instructional techniques described earlier under time-on-task also apply to engaged learning time. If teachers are asking relevant and appropriate-level questions, for example, students will be working on relevant content, working at the appropriate instructional level, and achieving high rates of success. The pacing of instruction and quick transition times contribute to engaged learning. In addition, Robert Marzano (2007) suggests that students need a certain amount of energy level to stay engaged which can be accomplished through physical activity.

Teachers who keep their students actively engaged or participating in their own learning achieve greater class performance than teachers who do not. Teachers can improve the amount of time students spend engaged by improving their (a) teaching behaviors, (b) instructional management, and/or (c) behavior management.

Teaching behaviors. As discussed earlier, what teachers do in the classroom greatly impacts student learning. Teaching behaviors during instruction that make a difference in student achievement include such things as questioning strategies, pacing, and monitoring of student progress.

Questions and responses. Regardless of the content being presented or the type of students being taught, teacher questioning consumes a large portion of group instruction. The way in which teachers ask questions and the type of questions asked are both critical variables that impact student achievement. During group instruction, effective teachers use appropriate questioning techniques. For example, they ask a question, then call on a student to answer (e.g., "What is the capital of Maine?" "David?"), rather than the teacher calling on the student first and then asking the question (e.g., "David, what is the capital of Maine?"). If teachers address questions to a specific student prior to stating the question, other students do not need to pay attention. Effective teachers also avoid using a set order, such as going down a row of desks, for students to read aloud or provide answers. Using such an order gives students time to determine when it will be their turn and to not pay attention until then. For example, a student may notice that she is the fifth student in the row, so she counts to the fifth paragraph (knowing that each student is reading orally one paragraph) and rehearses it until it is her turn.

Also, teachers using effective teaching practices ask students to respond at least sometimes to questions as a group in a choral fashion and other times to answer questions individually. Choral or group responding can be a very effective practice activity when students are in the fluency-building stage of learning. Group responses, however, can get out of control if students do not respond together. The use of verbal signals, such as "What word?" or "Ready, read" or hand signals such as snapping fingers, touching the problem on the board, or clapping hands helps keep group responses together. Choral responding can only be effective with factual information that has only one correct answer and requires a concise response (e.g., one to three words). Also, choral responding may be difficult in large group instruction to ensure full student participation and to identify student errors (Blackwell & McLaughlin, 2005). Choral responding can be helpful when students are at different learning levels because they can learn from one another without being embarrassed for responding incorrectly. In a review of research, choral responding was found to be more effective than individual responding on increasing student time-on-task. These results were particularly true for students with emotional and behavioral disorders, autism, and moderate cognitive disabilities (Haydon, Marsicano, & Scott, 2013).

Response cards are a method of ensuring active student involvement that can also be used to check for student understanding. They can take the form of (a) preprinted materials (e.g., cards with preprinted answers, movable hands on sample analog clock) or (b) write-on materials (chalkboards, dry erase boards, or scrap paper). Response cards are generally easy to prepare and use and they provide students with a large number of opportunities to respond. Response cards, when compared with choral responding or hand-raising, was found in one study to be the most effective responding technique for young children with attention problems (Godfrey, Grisham-Brown, Schuster, & Hemmeter, 2003).

Effective teachers ask more than factual questions. They ask questions that require higher level thinking as well. Reading comprehension questions are often labeled as literal (factual), inferential (interpretative), or evaluative (critical). Effective teachers incorporate all three levels as part of their instruction. Inferential or evaluative questions are often raised as points of discussion. When teachers discuss with students what they have read, inferential and evaluative comprehension increases.

Teachers' presentation style for higher level thinking skills differs from the factual rapid-fire questioning method. If students are engaged in fluency-building activities based on factual information, the latency, or the time between the question being raised and the response of the student is critical. That is, students need to respond quickly in order to demonstrate they know the answer automatically. Some skills should be developed at this level. Higher level thinking skills, however, need think-time. That is, after asking a question, teachers should allow the student some time to think before responding (Freiberg, 2002). Most teachers wait 0.7 to 1.4 seconds for students to respond to a question, when they should wait at least 3 seconds (Marzano, 2007). Students with processing difficulties may require even longer time. Teachers can use a strategy to remind them to provide think-time by saying silently and slowly, "think-time 1-2-3" after asking a question. Research indicates that when teachers allow time for students to formulate their higher level responses, the length of student responses, the number of correct responses, and the quality of student responses improves. In addition, students are more likely

TABLE 6.2 Words Commonly Associated With Comprehension Levels

Literal	Inferential	Evaluative
Define	*Compare*	*Appraise*
Identify	*Contrast*	*Argue*
List	*How*	*Assess*
Recite	*Predict*	*Critique*
What	*Relate*	*Decide*
When	*Speculate*	*Defend*
Where	*Support*	*Judge*
Who	*Why*	*Prioritize*

to contribute to another students' response, creating more student–student discussions as opposed to only teacher–student exchanges (Pagliaro, 2011).

When asking questions, other factors are also important. For example, teachers should ensure that the questions asked are clear and succinct and that only one question at a time is asked. Teachers should also distribute their questions so that all students have a chance to participate, including calling on both volunteers and nonvolunteers to answer questions (Pagliaro, 2011).

TEACHER TIP #6.1

ADDITIONAL QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES

Try these additional questioning techniques:

- After placing students in pairs, model the question (e.g., *Ask your partner to list the 4 parts of speech.*), then have them question their partner (McConnell, Ryser, & Higgins, 2000).
- Give one or more tickets to each student. Each time the student answers a question, have them hand you a ticket back. When all their tickets are gone, they cannot respond until everyone's tickets are gone. This will help ensure all students are given an opportunity to respond and no one monopolizes the discussion (McConnell et al., 2000).
- Use both "thick" and "thin" questions. Thick questions are open-ended big idea questions (e.g., *Why? What if?*). Closed-ended single answers are thin (e.g., *Who?*) (Bintz & Williams, 2005).
- Use questions to solicit students' insights and interpretations. For example, after reading a story ask students to draw a representation of what they learned based on an open-ended question such as, *How did the story make you feel?* (Bintz & Williams, 2005).

Pacing. The teacher's pace is another critical time factor. Individuals who enter the special education profession often have the misconception that special education students need a slower pace of instruction than their typically achieving counterparts. This is not true. Effective teachers, including special educators, maintain a brisk pace through the curriculum, as represented by the amount of content covered in a day, week, month, or year. Teachers who present new information and ask questions at a brisk pace maintain student interest and attention, but do not lose the students by moving too quickly. While moving briskly through the curriculum, effective teachers also maintain high levels of accuracy and fluency (Englert, Tarrant, & Mariage, 1992).

Well-established procedures for daily routine activities, such as handing in assignments and distributing materials, can enhance the pace of a lesson. Instead of the teacher providing directions each time one of these activities takes place, students know what is expected of them. Similarly, transitioning from one part of a lesson (e.g., instruction) to the next (e.g., practice) should be smooth (Marzano, 2007). For example, starting a lesson with the children sitting on the reading rug and then having them move to their tables to practice, then back to the rug for closure requires much unnecessary movement and slows the pace of the lesson.

TEACHER TIP #6.2

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING TIME-ON-TASK

To improve time-on-task, try the following ideas:

- Veer between quickly paced question-and-answer discussion and quiet time for silent reading or journaling.
- Use unique ways to introduce new content, such as dramatic footage from a video.
- Invite guest speakers to discuss content of interest to students.
- Share your personal stories, passions, vulnerabilities, and love of learning.
- Connect content being learned with students' personal experiences. (Intrator, 2004)

Monitoring student behavior. Another critical element of effective teaching is frequent and active monitoring of student behavior. Teachers monitor student behavior in a variety of ways and on different levels. When it comes to monitoring student behavior, keep in mind that students spend less time actively involved during seat work than when receiving group instruction. Effective teachers are particularly alert to students during seat work. They move around the classroom monitoring work for completeness and accuracy. If the seat work has been assigned at an appropriate level, the help students need should be brief (30 to 40 seconds), and most of the students should not need much assistance.

Monitoring students is also demonstrated through *with-it-ness*—defined as the teacher's awareness of what is going on the classroom, communication of that awareness to the students, and the teacher's attending to two or more events at one time. Eye contact and visual scanning are two strategies that have been found to increase student

on-task behavior. Even if eye contact cannot be made at all times, teachers should position themselves and their students so that all students are in the teacher's eyesight at all times.

Instructional management. In addition to teaching behaviors, the second category that affects student on-task behavior is instructional management, or the manner in which teachers design their classroom to enhance the learning process. Several ideas for setting up an effective classroom environment were already addressed in Chapter 3. Instructional management also includes the group structures used in the classroom, such as peer tutoring and cooperative learning groups. Both are discussed at length in Chapter 7 on Student-Mediated Learning.

Elementary-level teachers should set up routines for activities at the beginning of the day such as taking attendance, collecting lunch money, and acknowledging special occasions (such as a student's birthday). Similarly, secondary-level teachers need set routines for taking attendance, dealing with tardy students, and addressing students who missed class the day before. Routines at the end of the day or class period should also be established (e.g., communicating clear expectations for homework, putting materials away, cleaning the room) (Marzano, 2007). Teachers who use effective instructional management also set up routines for students to use if, for example, they are confused about specific seat-work problems, what to do next, or what to do if they complete work early. Students should be taught these routines explicitly. Effective teachers outline the steps and practice them with the students. Teachers may wish to display these steps on a poster and write them on the chalkboard as well.

Effective teachers also set up routines for transitions such as getting materials ready, collecting homework, and preparing to board the bus. A considerable amount of time can be wasted by transition time. In fact, major transitions have been found to constitute about 15% of classroom time in general education (Rosenshine, 2015) and special education (Vaughn et al., 2002) classrooms. Students receiving special education services, in particular, require structure and need to be reinforced for following the routines provided.

Effective teachers also involve students in correcting papers and other housekeeping tasks. Students can, for example, correct their own or another's homework. This can be done with self-correcting materials or keys with the correct responses. Or answers can be corrected orally. Rather than the teacher calling out the answers one student can give the answer, and a second can confirm if the answer is correct. If there is a discrepancy, you can review the item with the class. Other housekeeping jobs can teach responsibility or be used as reinforcers for students' improved behavior. Students often enjoy erasing the chalkboard, delivering messages to the office, or feeding the classroom pet. Teachers can assign these housekeeping needs as jobs or as activities to be earned by students.

Students of effective teachers rarely have to wait for the teacher's help. "Wait time" is a major contributor to the amount of time students spend off task. Teachers should design creative ways for their students to stay on task while waiting for assistance. If appropriate, students can be encouraged to assist one another. A student who needs the teacher or paraeducator's help could place a flag or a card on her desk indicating the need for help. Students should also be encouraged and reinforced for moving on to other seat work, projects, or silent reading, rather than just waiting for help. These instructional management strategies can increase greatly student time-on-task.

Behavior management. Effective teachers are also effective behavior managers. Effective behavior management is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for student learning to occur. That is, effective teacher management sets the stage or provides the opportunity for other variables to influence student achievement.

As discussed in Chapter 3, well-managed classrooms have well-defined rules for appropriate behaviors. The rules are expressed in positive terms and posted in words that the students understand. The rules are explained, discussed, role-played, and the rationale is provided for each rule. In addition, the rules are applied to stop inappropriate behavior promptly. Effective teachers anticipate problem behaviors, communicate their expectations clearly, watch the students closely, intervene promptly and invoke prespecified consequences for behavior. In addition, effective teachers do not attend just to the "rule breaker"; they also attend to the students who are keeping the rules, providing positive attention. More specific information and examples may be found in Chapter 3.

TEACHER TIP # 6.3

MANAGING REQUESTS TO LEAVE CLASS

Some students love to leave the classroom and may make excuses to do so. Occasional trips to the restroom or drinking fountain are not disruptive but can become out of hand. At the beginning of each grading period (e.g., 6 weeks), give students two "Get Out of Class Free" cards with their names written in ink (or have them write their own names). Explain that when they need to leave the room they will give you the card, but that since they have only two cards, only two trips per grading period are allowed. In addition, explain that for each card not used, the student can add points to his or her final grade or drop a homework assignment. (McConnell et al., 2000)

In summary, research documents that the amount of time teachers allocate to instruction in a content area is positively associated with the amount of learning in that area. In addition, the more time students spend engaged in learning, the more they will achieve. Teachers can increase student-engaged learning by improving teaching behaviors, instructional management, and behavior management. In these ways, teachers can control much of their students' learning as well as their success rate (Fisher et al., 2015).

Classrooms should be structured so that students are engaged actively in their own learning, whether the specific task is an individual or group undertaking. Organizing students into cooperative learning or pairs for peer tutoring can increase active participation. Self-management strategies, as well, can have powerful effects on students' on-task behavior and academic achievement. With self-management strategies, students are taught ways for monitoring their own behavior and/or academic learning; cooperative learning and peer tutoring are discussed in Chapter 8 and self-management in Chapter 13.

Direct Teaching

Teachers play several roles in the classroom. They may be a classroom manager, facilitator, or instructor, among other roles. As a manager, they arrange the classroom environment and materials to meet their and the students' needs. As facilitators, they help students access information. And as instructors, they directly teach content. This section is devoted to what effective teachers do when they directly teach content. Research has identified the teacher behaviors that lead to effective student learning outcomes in the context of teacher-directed instruction, particularly for the acquisition stage of learning. In fact, direct or explicit instruction has been identified as one of two of the field's most significant advancements for students with HID. "Time and again, studies have shown that while explicit instruction is helpful for typically achieving students, it is essential for students who struggle in learning" (Deshler, 2014, para. 6). A brief description of *Direct Instruction* precedes the discussion on direct teaching principles subtitled *Direct Instruction Lesson Planning.*

Direct Instruction

When individuals use the term **direct instruction,** they may be referring to generic effective teaching principles or *Direct Instruction* principles and commercially produced instructional programs developed by Siegfried Englemann and associates at the University of Oregon (Goeke, 2009). These two interpretations, however, are not mutually exclusive. There are many instructional techniques that overlap (e.g., high rates of responding, brisk pacing, systematic error correction procedures). In order to avoid confusion in this text, *Direct Instruction*, capitalized and italicized, refers to the commercially produced materials, and the lower case designation direct instruction applies to the generic principles.

Direct Instruction encompasses both the delivery of instruction and curriculum design (Tarver, 2000). Although initially designed and evaluated for use with disadvantaged populations, *Direct Instruction* has also been tested and found to be effective with special populations (Adams & Carnine, 2003; Barbash, 2012). The overall goal is to "accelerate learning by maximizing efficiency in the design and delivery of instruction" (Tarver, 2000, p. 201).

> A guiding principle of Direct Instruction is that students can learn what the teacher can teach, and that if students aren't learning, the teacher isn't teaching. In other words, neither race, family background, social class, nor other factors are used to explain low achievement. Either the curriculum is ill-designed (which is unlikely because Direct Instruction curricula are extensively field tested); or the teacher is not following the curriculum exactly (generally because she has not received sufficient prior training or is not receiving timely coaching), or the teacher has not adapted the curriculum (e.g., provided extra practice) based on students' needs revealed by periodic curriculum-based measures ("mastery test"). (Kozioff, LaNunziata, Cowardin & Bessellieu, 2000, p. 59)

Direct Instruction curriculum materials provide explicit step-by-step lesson scripts, error correction procedures, gradual fading from teacher-directed activities to independent work, cumulative reviews, and continuous progress tests to monitor student progress through the curriculum. Concepts are often taught using both positive and negative examples (Tarver, 2000), an important instructional component for conceptual understanding (Prater, 1998). The typical *Direct Instruction* materials contain about 180 lessons for each grade level. A typical lesson can be presented in approximately 45 minutes (Tarver, 2000). Published *Direct Instruction* curricular materials are available in reading (Prekindergarten–adulthood) and math (Prekindergarten–Grade 8) through Science Research Associates (SRA), McGraw Hill Publishing Company.

The *Direct Instruction* approach to teaching has not been without its critics (Adams & Carnine, 2003; Barbash, 2012). The usual criticisms are that *Direct Instruction* stifles students and that the effects dissipate over time. Research has demonstrated, however, that *Direct Instruction* is an effective model of instruction, particularly for students with special needs. For example, *Direct Instruction* was one of nine different instructional approaches implemented in Project Follow Through, an extension of Head Start. Data collected from nearly 100,000 low-income kindergarten through third-grade children showed that the *Direct Instruction* was the only procedure in which these students consistently outperformed their comparison groups (for a discussion of this research see Stein, Kinder, Silbert, & Carnine, 2006).

Other research also supports the effectiveness of *Direct Instruction.* W. A. T. White (1988) conducted an analysis of 25 studies that compared *Direct Instruction* with other instructional procedures using as participants students who receive special education services. Not one of the studies showed results favoring the compared procedures. A review of 34 studies also indicated that *Direct Instruction* showed larger gains than other methods for general and special education studies at both elementary and secondary levels (Adams & Engelmann, 1996). A second review of 17 studies in which students with learning disabilities were taught using *Direct Instruction* received similar results (Adams & Carnine, 2003).

Direct Instruction Lesson Planning

The *Direct Instruction* curriculum materials are based on generic effective teaching principles. The remainder of this chapter is devoted to these teaching principles. The principles are presented within the context of lesson planning. Beginning teachers need a firm foundation in lesson planning. Therefore, a lot of detail in how to write lesson plans and many examples of lesson plans are included throughout the textbook. Once teachers have experienced writing and implementing detailed lesson plans, they will begin to internalize the steps and sequences, requiring them to write less detail in their lesson plans.

A comprehensive overview of the elements of effective teacher-directed lessons may be found in Table 6.3. Based on this list, teachers must include elements such as reviewing, stating the purpose of the lesson, introducing the topic, modeling the expected behavior, providing guided and independent practice, and summarizing, among others.

Table 6.4 provides lesson plan skeletons in two content areas: reading (words with specific syllables) and science (the water cycle). Later, a scripted writing lesson plan (using transition words in writing) provides each step in more detail (see Appendix A).

TABLE 6.3 Effective Teacher-Directed Lesson Presentation

Components of Effective Teacher-Directed Lessons
1. Obtains student attention prior to beginning lesson.
2. Provides a review of the previous day's concepts at the beginning of the lesson.
3. Actively assesses students' understanding and retention of previously learned material.
4. Provides a clear overview of the lesson.
5. States or elicits the purpose of the lesson and enlists students' commitments to learn.
6. Familiarizes students with what they will be accountable for knowing and/or doing.
7. Introduces the topic activating prior experiences and knowledge relevant to the information or skills to be learned.
8. Relates lesson topics to existing knowledge.
9. Provides an organizational framework to assist students in organizing the lesson information.
10. Instructs in a clear, concise, and sequential manner.
11. Models the expected behavior of the student as part of instruction.
12. Models self-talk that will help students achieve (e.g., strategies for recall).
13. Provides frequent questions to evaluate student understanding.
14. Requires overt and active participation.
15. Maintains a brisk pace during the lesson.
16. Uses instructional cues and prompts to maintain high accurate responding.
17. Maintains high success rate in teacher-led activities (70% to 90% accuracy).
18. Provides guided practice opportunities only after students demonstrate appropriate levels of understanding.
19. Assists students with guided practice opportunities by monitoring student work, giving feedback, and applying error correction procedures.
20. Provides independent practice opportunities only after students have achieved a high rate of success (90% to 100%) in guided practice.
21. Gives summary of the lesson content and integrates with content of other lessons or experiences.
22. Provides daily, weekly, and monthly reviews.
23. Maintains continuous records and graphs of students' performance and communicates results of evaluation activities to students.
24. Instructs students to generalize and apply knowledge across settings, situations, and conditions.

Source: Adapted from Englert, C. S., (1984). Measuring teacher effectiveness from the teacher's point of view. Focus on Exceptional Children, (12), 17–15.

TABLE 6.4 Sample Teacher-Directed Lesson Plan Skeletons

Objectives	Anticipatory Set/Purpose	Review	Modeling/Guided Practice–Task Analysis Dialogue	Independent Practice	Data Collection
Given 20 two-syllable words with *-tion*, *-ture* and *-ly* suffixes, the students will orally read the words with 90% accuracy.	Hold up a chapter book. Explain that in chapter books there are many two-syllable words. In this lesson, the students will learn skills that will enable them to read two-syllable words.	Flash card review of suffixes (*-tion*, *-ture*, *-ly*, *-ing*, *-ed*, *-ment*) Flash card review of CVC pattern words.	Teacher uses an overhead projector to model and to guide students in using the following process: 1. Underline and read the first syllable. 2. Circle and read the suffix. 3. Touch and read the word.	Students practice reading lists of 10 words to a partner.	Students orally read a list of 20 words to the teacher. Teacher records data.
Given a graphic organizer that depicts the water cycle, students will write the key words that describe the various aspects of the water cycle with 100% accuracy as measured by the teacher's example.	The teacher walks around the class and sprays water in the air. The teacher asks the class if they know how water cycles through the environment. In this lesson, the students will learn how water cycles through the environment and they will learn vocabulary words that describe the water cycle.	Review names for different bodies of water: *lakes*, *oceans*, *rivers*, *streams,* and *ponds*.	Teacher uses an overhead transparency for modeling and guided practice. 1. Water is in lakes, oceans, rivers, streams, and ponds. Water from bodies of water evaporates into the air. (Teacher writes *evaporates* above the picture of the lake and explains the meaning of evaporation). 2. Water in the air condenses to form clouds. (Teacher writes *condenses* next to the picture of the cloud and explains term). 3. Water is released into the air. This is called precipitation. (Teacher writes *precipitation* next to the picture of the rain and explains the terms as meaning rain, sleet, and snow).	Students are given a graphic organizer that depicts the water cycle. Students write the key words that describe the water cycle next to the graphic representation of the word.	Teacher collects the completed organizers and records whether students met the objective.

Special educators design their instruction based on students' needs as described in their Individualized Education Plans (IEPs). The first place to start then is to examine students' goals on their IEPs. Teachers must also take into consideration the general education curriculum and the state or district standards. Based on these pieces of information, instructional units can be planned. From each instructional unit, individual lessons can be created. The focus of the discussion in this chapter is the individual lesson. Unit planning is discussed in Chapter 12.

Behavioral Objectives

Each teacher-directed lesson should include an anticipated student outcome. Outcomes are usually written as behavioral objectives that describe what the student should be able to do following completion of the lesson. In order to determine lesson objectives, the general education curriculum (or the state, district, or core standards) and the student's IEPs goals must be taken in consideration. For example, Steven is a 10th-grade student who is receiving special education services. The general education life skills curriculum includes this goal: *Students will use money to purchase goods.* And one of Steven's annual goals is this: *When given 10 opportunities, Steven will identify coins matching the amount of a purchase price under $1 with 100% accuracy.*

Based on this information, Steven's teacher develops a unit plan on money (see Chapter 12), which she further subdivides into lesson objectives. One of the first skills Steven will need to learn is how to identify the value of each coin. Therefore, one of the lesson objectives is this: *Given four pennies and a numeral under five, Steven will move the correct number of pennies represented by the numeral 5 out of 5 trials.* This objective provides the basis for designing a teacher-directed lesson for Steven acquiring this skill.

Stages of learning. One of the considerations in developing lesson objectives is the students' stage of learning. The first stage of learning is **acquisition**. During this stage, students first learn the knowledge or skill being taught. The goal for acquisition learning is accuracy or frequency of response. Once the skill or knowledge has been acquired, instruction can focus on the second stage of learning, **fluency** or the rate at which the student responds. Fluency is important because some academic and life skills need to be built to the level of automaticity. For example, a fluent reader decodes words without having to stop and sound them out. The last two stages of learning are **maintenance**, the ability to retain the knowledge or skill over time without being retaught, and **generalization** or the ability to apply the knowledge or skill to different conditions, such as materials (e.g., from a worksheet to a textbook), individuals (e.g., different teachers), or settings (e.g., school to home). Table 6.5 lists these stages with the type of instruction and measurement used for each.

After considering the stage of learning, teachers are prepared to write lesson objectives. Lesson objectives must have the following elements: (a) observable and measurable behavior, (b) condition(s) under which the behavior will occur, and (c) criteria for acceptable performance of the behavior. Another consideration for lesson objectives is the students' stage of learning.

Behavior. The lesson objective must describe the behavior to be exhibited by the student, not the teacher, upon completion of the lesson. The student will be observed

TABLE 6.5 Stages of Learning

Stage of Learning	Instruction	Measurement	Example
Acquisition	Explicit instruction with feedback and error correction	• Accuracy • Frequency	• 90% accuracy • 6 times during one hour; 5 out of 5 trials
Fluency	Accurate practice while building rate	• Time with accuracy	• 70 in 1 minute with no more than two errors
Maintenance	Periodic review	• Measured after instruction is completed and time has passed	• Same as above
Generalization	Provide wide range of examples and practice experiences during instruction	• Measured in a different context	• Same as above except new context is added

exhibiting the behavior, and how well the student performed will be measured. Teachers often include activities within a lesson that go beyond or supplement the ultimate objective. These are activities that enhance the lesson; they need not be written as objectives. If the answers to the following questions are no, then the activity should not be listed as a lesson objective:

- Will I as a teacher model the behavior and require that the student practice it?
- Will I as the teacher record (e.g., grade) the student's performance on this objective?

Generally, lessons will contain no more than two objectives. Two objectives may be written in instances where students are working on behavioral-social goals and academic-functional goals simultaneously. Sometimes students who are English learners (ELs) will also need a language goal. Given the difficulty of effectively integrating more than two goals within one lesson, the author recommends that lessons involving EL students integrate behavior-social goals with language goals OR academic-functional goals with language goals.

The behavioral component of the lesson objective must be a verb that is observable. *To know, to understand,* or *to appreciate* are not observable. Teachers often use verbs such as *calculate, read, list,* or *explain*. One cannot visualize, however, what students will be doing when *calculating, reading, listing, or explaining*. Will students be doing the calculations in their heads, or will they be writing the answers on paper? Examples of unobservable, observable but unclear, and observable and clear verbs are listed in Table 6.6.

TABLE 6.6 Verbs for Behavioral Objectives

Unobservable	Observable but Unclear	Observable and Clear
to know	*to calculate*	*to write*
to learn	*to construct*	*to physically build*
to master	*to compare*	*to compare verbally*
to appreciate	*to list*	*to list in writing*
to understand	*to read*	*to read orally*
to realize	*to explain*	*to explain verbally*
to like	*to classify*	*to point to*
to master	*to identify*	*to circle in writing*

Conditions. The conditions under which the student will perform the behavior must also be stated in the objective. Conditions typically include materials, prompts, and instructions. This component of the behavioral objective is often overlooked because the conditions may appear obvious. However, there are special conditions for certain behaviors that must be applied. Suppose the behavior is to write the answers to math problems; some students may require special conditions under which the behavior will be accomplished, perhaps use of compensatory skills such as a number line, times table chart, or calculator. Those items would be written as part of the condition: for example, "Whitney will write the answers to three-digit multiplication problems at 100% accuracy using a calculator."

Criteria. Teachers must also establish the criteria for acceptable performance of the behavior. These are often written in percentages (e.g., 80% or 100% correct). As discussed previously, the criteria should reflect the stage of learning at which the student is expected to perform. If the student is expected to demonstrate only acquisition, then percentages or ratio of items correct (10 out of 10 words) would be appropriate. Sometimes, depending upon the behavior, a percentage or ratio is not appropriate. The student may be expected to demonstrate the behavior a number of times during a specified time period. For example, the objective may be that the student will initiate a conversation four times during the school day. Another approach that is often taken is with the number of trials. The example presented earlier with Steven's objectives includes this type of criterion. He will be asked to move the correct number of pennies represented by the numeral presented five times (five trials) and will be expected to be correct all five times. If the student is demonstrating fluency, time limits and accuracy should be included among the criteria.

Another possibility is the use of specific statements of criteria. This is important, for example, in handwriting skills. It would be impossible to assess *writing her name at 100% accuracy* without knowing what 100% accuracy means. Is the inclusion of every letter the most important criterion? Or does every letter need to be in order? Or is the

goal to write the first letter capitalized and remaining letters in lower case? Or is the placement on the paper important, such as having all the letters written on the line? Or is having all letters of proportionate size important? Rather than use an accuracy level, the intended outcomes (e.g., all letters in order and of proportionate size) should be written as the criteria. Examples of objectives using various conditions and criteria for accuracy and for fluency appear in Table 6.7.

Mr. Young, a new student teacher, has developed a well-designed lesson plan. His cooperating teacher and university supervisor are both observing him today so he is nervous. As he begins his lesson, he forgets to obtain student attention before starting. As he proceeds through the lesson, the students are talking, texting, and otherwise not paying attention to Mr. Young at all.

Attending Cues

Prior to initiating the lesson, teachers must gain student attention through the use of attending cues. Acquiring student attention means that students are not engaged in verbal or motor behavior that may inhibit learning. That is, the students are looking at, listening to, or otherwise focused on the teacher and the lesson content. Teachers can

TABLE 6.7 Examples of Lesson Objectives

Stage of Learning	Sample Objective
Acquisition	*Given teacher recitation*, Brent will **write** 10 spelling words 100% accurately.
	When presented with coins from a purchase, Yvonne will **count the change** and **state verbally** the total amount accurately in 4 out of 5 trials.
	On every written assignment given, Jacob will **write** his name in the upper right-hand corner using a capital *J* and lower case *a, c, o,* and *b*.
	Following completion of a social skills lesson, Nelson will **role-play** accepting negative feedback and score 90% on the observer checklist.
Fluency	*Given a list of survival words*, Winston will **read** them **orally** at a rate of 60 correct with no more than 2 errors in 1 minute.
	When asked, Tommy will **recite verbally** his home address correctly and within 15 seconds.
	Following his tutoring session, Kalei will **write the answers** to mixed facts with 80 digits correct and no more than 2 errors in 1 minute.

Key:
italics = *condition*
underline = criteria
bold = **behavior**

establish routine signals to cue students to know what the signal implies and behave in the prescribed and pretaught manner (Archer & Hughes, 2011). Teachers who can apply less involved and drastic signals will conserve effort and energy and will maintain greater control of student behavior. One high school special education teacher was observed using a color-coded system. Following the meaning of traffic light colors, when a yellow piece of construction paper was displayed on the front chalkboard, students knew to anticipate the beginning of a lesson. When the teacher changed the yellow paper to a red paper, students had been taught to stop what they were doing immediately and to give attention to the teacher at the front. When a green paper was displayed, students knew they could continue with their small-group and individual work. Other attending cues may be simple verbal statements by the teacher, such as "Get ready," "Look," or "Let's start." Other teachers, particularly with younger children, may teach them a short song or rhyme and when the students hear the teacher start, they join in and know that once it is over, they are to attend to the teacher. Teachers select attending cues based on what is being taught and on the students' age, abilities, experiences, and attending behaviors.

Anticipatory Set

Successful lessons begin with an anticipatory set. **Anticipatory sets** may be viewed as the introduction to the lesson. If designed and implemented well, anticipatory sets take the students' minds off other things and focus their attention on today's lesson. An anticipatory set also can hook into students' past knowledge and trigger a memory or some practice which will facilitate the new lesson (Hunter, 2004). The anticipatory set should be short and consume little of the instructional time. When teaching how and when to dial 911, one teacher set up some scenarios describing "What if?" to motivate the students to learn how to acquire help. Another teacher used similar scenarios with older students to get them motivated to learn to use spell-check on their laptops. A third teacher read a story about a woman who put tomatoes in her fruit salad as an introduction to a lesson about what defines fruits versus vegetables. In a large-group setting, another teacher asked the students, "Imagine seeing a volcano erupt. Write down five things you might see."

When designing anticipatory sets, teachers should ask themselves these questions:

- Is the anticipatory set relevant to the lesson?
- Does it require active participation?
- Does it link past information with new information to be learned?
- Will it motivate students to learn the new material?

Mrs. Osborne is an exceptional special educator. The school district often sends new teachers to observe her. On this particular day, she has three new teachers watching. After observing for about an hour, they meet with Mrs. Osborne for 10 minutes to ask her questions. One of the teachers mentions that she was surprised to see Mrs. Osborne spend so much time talking about the material before even

(Continued)

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starting the lesson. She wonders why. Mrs. Osborne explains that what she was doing was making certain the students remembered the previously learned material. She also needs to make certain they have the skills necessary to move to this new material. She also explains how important it is for students to "buy-into" the lesson. In other words, if students don't know why they are learning or should learn this new content, why would they want to learn it? So she spends time asking students how learning this will help them in their lives. If they can't generate ideas, she prompts and gives them ideas.

Review, Prerequisite Checks, and Purpose

Effective teachers review previously learned material, engage in some form of prerequisite check, and state or elicit purposes for learning the current day's content. These three components may fall in differing order and sometimes are similar or overlap. Mrs. Osborne ensures that she includes these elements in each of her lesson presentations.

Reviews are important to tie current information or skills to what has been previously learned. They also provide an opportunity to maintain previously learned information or skills (Goeke, 2009). Reviews are not reteaching or asking students if they remember how to do something. Reviews are intended to ensure that all students recall information or can perform the previously learned task before moving on (Archer & Hughes, 2011). Students' current knowledge needs to be assessed to ensure they are ready to learn the new content. The prerequisite check may be accomplished through the review. In this way, students might be asked a series of questions relating to previously taught information that ties to the current lesson.

Purpose statements are also a critical component of lessons. The purpose of the lesson may be stated by the teacher directly, or it may be elicited from the students. The statement of purpose serves as motivation and may be used to elicit commitment from the students to participate and learn. A teacher who was teaching a learning strategy shared the success of previous students in using this strategy in improving their grades in their general education classes. She then asked the students if they too would like to improve their grades; if so, they were invited to participate in the lesson. The teacher then asked how this learning strategy could be used beyond improving grades in school. The students decided it could be used in specific ways at home or on the job. Thus the teacher elicited responses from the students to identify reasons for acquiring this skill.

Purpose statements can also provide an overview to the lesson which gives students a "mental set" to assist them in anticipating what they will be learning. The purpose statement also provides an organizational framework for students so they are better prepared to integrate, associate, and organize information. Another function of the purpose statement is to inform students what they will be accountable for knowing and/or doing based on this lesson. And possibly the most important reason is to help students connect what they are going to learn to their lives (Hunter, 2004).

One of the other new teachers observing Mrs. Osborne asked why she demonstrates for the students so often. In this lesson she was teaching how to read a graph. Mrs. Osborne presented steps to follow then demonstrated the steps in front of the students using a graph from the computer projector and talking out loud as she completed the steps. The teacher asking the question wondered if this was actually necessary. Mrs. Osborne explained that modeling is a critical element in showing students how to complete the task. Teachers cannot assume that just telling them how to do something is sufficient. Students need to see the actual skill modeled.

Instruction and Modeling

As part of delivering instruction, **modeling** the behavior required in the instructional objective must be included. Modeling may be done by the teacher, a paraeducator, a peer, a parent, a job coach, an employer or anyone who has mastered the skill. Modeling involves *behavioral modeling* and *cognitive modeling*. **Behavioral modeling** includes actual demonstration of the skill. **Cognitive modeling** involves self-talk that assists students in understanding the thought processes of the person modeling (Goeke, 2009). In providing self-talk, teachers state overtly what they are thinking as they are accomplishing the task. This allows the teacher to model not only the task, but the strategies that are used to accomplish the task. For example, a teacher modeling addition with regrouping would self-talk the process of the steps required as she completes the problem. This modeling example is outlined in Table 6.8.

Within teacher-directed lessons, modeling of the skill increases the likelihood of student success. In addition to modeling, teachers should deliver instruction in a manner that is clear, complete, and coherent. They should ask for student responses using prompts and feedback, as needed. Of course, the amount of repetition in instruction will vary and depend on the needs of the individual students and the complexity of the task. In almost all cases, multiple demonstrations are necessary (Archer & Hughes, 2011; Test, Browder, Karvonen, Wood, & Algozzine, 2002).

TEACHER TIP #6.4

REMEMBERING EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION ELEMENTS

Teachers can use the acronym SCREAM to recall elements of effective delivery of instruction:

- S **S**tructure
- C **C**larity
- R **R**edundancy
- E **E**nthusiasm
- A **A**ppropriate Rate
- M **M**aximum Engagement

Source: Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2002)

[del x 2]

.

TABLE 6.8 An Example of Modeling Addition With Regrouping With Sample Problem

163
235
+ 542

Teacher Verbalizes	Teacher Behaves
• "When I'm working an addition problem with regrouping, I first make certain I write my numbers in columns and they are all lined up properly."	• Writes numbers on chalkboard or projector
• "Let me check that the numbers are lined up properly. Yes, they appear to be lined up."	• Scans number columns
• "Now I want to make certain that I draw the addition and equal signs."	• Draws addition and equal signs
• "The next thing I do is add up all the numbers in the ones column. 3 plus 5 equals 8 plus 2 equals 10. Since this number is greater than 9, I need to regroup to the tens column. Therefore, I place the 0, representing zero ones in the ones column and write the 1, representing one ten in the tens column."	• Points to each number while adding; writes 0 under the equal sign in the ones column; writes 1 in the tens column above the other numbers
• "Now I need to add all the numbers in the tens column. 1, which I regrouped, plus 6 equals 7 plus 3 equals 10 plus 4 equals 14. Since this number is greater than 9, I need to regroup to the hundreds column. Therefore, I place the 4, representing four tens in the tens column and write the 1, representing one hundred in the hundreds column."	• Points to each number while adding; writes 4 under the equal sign in the tens column; writes 1 in the hundreds column above the other numbers
• "Next I add all the numbers in the hundreds column. 1, which I regrouped, plus 1 equals 2 plus 2 equals 4 plus 5 equals 9."	• Points to each number while adding; writes 9 under the equal sign in the hundreds column
• "I have now completed my problem."	

Another aspect of Mrs. Osborne's teaching that caught the attention of the new teachers was her use of practice. They asked her to explain why she started helping the students with their assignment and then stopped. Mrs. Osborne explained that after she'd taught and modeled the skill, she worked through three of the problems as a class, asking and answering questions, and making certain every student understood how to do the problems. Once they'd demonstrated they could do it, she allowed them to work the remaining problems alone.

Guided Practice

Once the teacher has modeled the behavior (i.e., the lesson's behavioral objective), the student is given an opportunity to practice the lesson objective under direct supervision. **Guided practice,** therefore, is a strategy where students practice with someone who has mastered the skill (e.g., teacher, paraeducator, peer tutor) readily available to assist them by answering questions, ensuring that errors are not being practiced, correcting errors and re-teaching, if necessary. Mrs. Osborne and the class working together on several problems before asking the students to work independently is a form of guided practice. If guided practice opportunities are provided during group instruction, all students need to be given an opportunity to practice. The major purpose of guided practice is to correct inaccurate responses so that students don't practice errors. A piano teacher once told the author that if a note was misplayed three times, the error was learned. Practice does not make perfect. Only perfect or accurate practice makes perfect. Guided practice involves

- all students practicing alone, but under the intense supervision of someone who has mastered the skill (e.g., teacher, paraeducator, peer tutor).
- students answering in choral responding and individually.
- students practicing in pairs with intense supervision.

Guided practice is not

- only one or two students answering the question or working the problem.
- assignments sent home as homework.

Teachers sometimes do not apply guided practice appropriately. For example, some teachers call on individual students to work math problems or spell a word at the chalkboard. Teachers who apply the principle of guided practice would ask ALL students to work the problem or write the word at their desks and compare their processes and answers with those written by the student on the chalkboard. The teacher would monitor each student's work and provide feedback.

Another excellent strategy for guided practice is to allow students to work in pairs while the teacher monitors each pair. Depending on the characteristics of the students and the skill being developed, students may need to be broken into small groups and assigned a *master* to monitor each group's guided practice. One Head Start teacher, for example, who was teaching the stop/drop/roll procedure for avoiding burns during a fire, divided the class into groups of four and assigned a teacher, the paraeducator, and volunteers to each group. The students practiced stopping/dropping/rolling in their small groups under direct guidance of an adult.

Prompts. **Prompts** are assistance provided to increase the likelihood of the student responding correctly. Prompts should be used only if students have difficulty responding or if the teacher anticipates students will have problems responding correctly. Types of prompts include (a) verbal directions, (b) modeling, (c) physical guidance, and (d) stimulus

prompts. Verbal direction prompts may be a sound, a word, or several sentences in length. For example, if a student is reading orally and becomes "stuck," the teacher might assist the student by suggesting he "sound it out" or the teacher might start sounding it out. The teacher might also ask the student "What word do you think it is?"

With modeling prompts, usually the teacher demonstrates the desired behavior so that the student can imitate it. However, modeling prompts are not limited to the teacher or to a human. The model may be presented, for example, through visual illustration, such as a word printed on a card or a drawing of an action to be imitated. Physical guidance prompts involve bodily assistance with an action. A physical education teacher, for example, may guide a student's arm in executing a tennis serve, or a student with fine motor difficulty may require physical guidance in learning to use scissors or write with a pencil. The last type of prompt, stimulus prompts, are used in conjunction with the instructional materials: for example, drawing attention to important points in reading materials by using arrows, bold print, highlighting, color change, and such. Prompts should focus students' attention on the relevant material, not distract from it, and teachers should use the weakest prompt possible that is still effective.

Fading. Prompts are provided when students have difficulty responding correctly. Teachers' use of prompts should be faded until prompts are removed totally. Fading usually involves moving from most to least (e.g., physical guidance to visual prompt to verbal directions) or least to most (verbal prompts to gestures to physical prompts); fading may be in the form of graduated guidance (using physical prompts only when necessary), time delay (delaying the time between presentation of the stimulus and the delivery of the prompt), or fading the stimulus (highlighting or exaggerating a physical aspect of the stimulus, through color, size, and position, and gradually fading that highlighting or exaggeration). Another example of fading is moving from telling the student what to do, to asking the student what she should do, to reminding the student to follow the steps learned (Archer & Hughes, 2011). Teachers should fade prompts as quickly as possible and avoid using unplanned prompts, such as vocal intonation giving away the answer (Alberto & Troutman, 2012). Fading prompts is necessary for students to be prepared for independent practice.

Independent Practice

Independent practice differs from guided practice in that students are expected to perform the task independent of the teacher or with no prompts, and teacher feedback is not provided as quickly as during guided practice. In some respects, independent practice can be equated with "testing" the students' individual performance. Sometimes in traditional instruction, independent practice takes the form of homework. Independent practice should not commence until students have obtained high rates (90% to 100%) of success in guided practice (Englert et al., 1992). This is particularly critical when assigning homework. Teachers who appropriately use homework as independent practice schedule time for guided practice in the classroom. Effective teachers do not assign the homework until students have demonstrated their ability to accomplish the lesson objective at high rates of success. Once students in Mrs. Osborne's class demonstrated they were able to complete the problems accurately with minimal assistance, she allowed them to work the problems independently.

Independent practice does not always take the form of written work. In the previous Head Start example, the teacher "tested" students' recall of the stop/drop/roll procedure the next day by having the students perform it without adult assistance. Those who had difficulty were retaught and given additional opportunities to practice under guidance.

Checking for Understanding

Checking for understanding involves posing questions and checking students' work during group and individual practice. Choral responses and response cards, discussed earlier, are two ways in which teachers can involve all students more actively, as well as checking for all students' understanding of the content simultaneously (Cavanaugh, 1994). Teachers need to determine specific ways in which they will check for understanding and include that information in their lesson plans.

TEACHER TIP #6.5

DOs AND DON'Ts IN CHECKING FOR UNDERSTANDING

When designing and implementing checking for understanding throughout the lesson, remember these tips:

DO

- Use group signals (e.g., thumbs up or down).
- Use choral responding.
- Ask whole group question, then call on a representative sample of students.
- Ask students to answer your question in writing. Circulate among students to check answers.
- Use electronic devices that allow individual responses but aggregate the results, which can be displayed in front of the classroom through a computer and projector.
- Use short quizzes, papers, or performances of the skills.
- Use a variety of techniques.

DON'T

- Ask, "Does anyone not understand?" or "Everyone understands, right?"
- Use the ubiquitous okay? (e.g., "I think we're ready to move on, okay?")
- Assume students understand when they don't ask any questions. (Goeke, 2009)

Error Correction

Error correction procedures vary according to the type of practice (guided vs. independent). During guided practice, students require explicit explanation of why their response is incorrect, as well as additional modeling, more examples, and/or reteaching of the skill. In order to be effective, teacher feedback must be as immediate as possible, thus keeping the students from practicing errors.

During independent practice, error correction consists of calling to a student's attention that an error has been made, but additional explanations or reteaching should rarely

be necessary since the student has already demonstrated high levels of success during guided practice before moving to the independent practice phase. Teachers need to anticipate the types of errors students will make and build error correction procedures into the lesson planning process.

One of the most important things a teacher can do is provide students with feedback on how well they are doing and how they can improve. Teachers should use corrective feedback by giving students an explanation as to why their response was correct or incorrect. Feedback should be provided in a timely manner with immediate feedback being the most effective. Summative feedback should tell students where they stand in relation to specific skills, not to other students. Teachers can also teach students to effectively monitor their own progress, thus providing some of their own feedback (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001).

Closure

Effective teachers provide closure to their lessons by summarizing or reviewing the content and integrating it with previously learned content or experiences. To demonstrate the importance of closure, the author has played a short song on the piano and stopped before the last few bars. Listeners become discontent wanting the song to finish on a dominant chord. Teachers who do not use closure can leave students feeling unsettled similar to the uncompleted song. Teachers also often provide an anticipatory set for the next lesson as part of the closure. For example, students may be told that what they learned today has prepared them for what they will experience the rest of the week. This can be particularly motivating if students are learning small portions of content and need motivation to continue by seeing the ultimate larger outcome. As part of closure, teachers may ask, "What did we learn today?" "Why is this information or skill important, relevant, or helpful?" or "How does what we learned today relate to the larger unit of study?" The latter two questions are particularly important for older students (Goeke, 2009).

Oftentimes, closure doesn't happen because teachers fail to watch the time or misjudge the amount of time needed to complete the lesson. Teachers in secondary classrooms, for example, may be interrupted by the bell ringing while the students are still in guided practice. One teacher used an electronic timer and set it for 45 minutes at the beginning of each class period. When the timer rang, the teacher knew she had 5 minutes to provide lesson closure and to prepare students for transitioning to their next class.

Monitoring Progress

Monitoring student progress is another instructional principle used by effective teachers. Monitoring progress in this context refers to evaluating and recording students' performance on the lesson's behavioral objective. As mentioned previously, one of the criteria for determining whether to include a lesson activity as a behavioral objective is whether the teacher would assess and record student performance. Specific ways of recording student performance were discussed in Chapter 5.

Depending upon the behavioral objective, student performance may be recorded (a) while students are engaged in independent practice, such as the stop/drop/roll example or (b) after the student has submitted a permanent product, such as the worksheet Mrs. Osborne assigned.

In Appendix A, a scripted lesson plan is presented. This lesson plan includes the identified critical elements and a script of what the teacher should say and do, as well as anticipated student responses. A checklist for scripted lesson plans is provided in Table 6.9. This checklist can be used to ensure that all of the critical elements are included. Additional scripted lesson plans are also provided in Chapters 10 through 14.

TABLE 6.9 Scripted Lesson Plan Checklist

Lesson Component	Items to Be Included
Objectives	1. The students' IEP short-term objective from which this lesson was created is included. 2. No more than two behavioral objectives for this lesson are listed. 3. Each lesson objective includes an appropriate condition; observable, measurable behavior; and criteria for acceptable behavior. 4. The criterion makes sense given the behavior and the condition. 5. Student performance of the lesson objective will be recorded because it is useful information and provides documentation regarding progress toward the IEP objective.
Lesson Introduction	6. The anticipatory set will spark the interest of the student and relates directly to the lesson content. 7. Review of previously taught information is included. 8. A prerequisite check has been included to ensure students have the necessary background for this lesson. 9. The purpose(s) for the lesson are stated by the teacher or elicited from the students. 10. Expected student performance following completion of this lesson is stated.
Instruction and Modeling	11. The instructions relate directly to the lesson objective. 12. The instructions are accurate, clear, complete, concise, and sequential. 13. The teacher (or a "master") models the lesson objective. 14. Students are asked frequent and appropriate questions to evaluate their understanding. 15. Anticipated correct and incorrect student responses are included. 16. Appropriate error correction techniques are included in anticipation of incorrect responses.
Guided Practice	17. All students are provided guided practice opportunities that relate directly to the lesson objective. 18. Monitoring of student performance is included.

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TABLE 6.9 (Continued)

Lesson Component	Items to Be Included
	19. Anticipated correct and incorrect student responses are included. 20. Appropriate error correction techniques are included in anticipation of incorrect responses.
Independent Practice	21. All students are provided independent-practice opportunities that relate directly to the lesson objective.
Closure	22. A summary and review of the lesson are included. 23. The content of this lesson is tied to previously learned information.

TEACHER TIP #6.6

SELF-ASSESS YOUR TEACHING

Teachers rarely receive enough ongoing feedback about their teaching to be helpful. One strategy teachers can use is self-assessment. Audio or video record your instruction and then analyze the lesson. One first-year high school teacher did so and set the following goals:

- When asking higher level questions, allow more wait time for student responses.
- Ask a question, wait, and then call on a student.
- Allow students to ask more questions and receive more feedback.
- Narrow the topic.
- Make certain previous concepts are fully reviewed and tied to this new lesson.
- Use more specific praise.
- Quit saying "OK" and "all right."
- Conduct this self-evaluation frequently. (Freiberg, 2002)

Technology Spotlight #6.1

Flipped Classrooms

A recent trend of blending technology with in-person instruction is the use of flipped classrooms. Typically teachers instruct in their classrooms and assign homework for students to practice the skills at home. In a flipped classroom model, the activities are inverted. Students participate in teacher

instruction at home, and practice the new skills learned during class time. Teachers convert their instruction to video or audio lessons that can be accessed by students at home. One rule of thumb is to make videos no longer than 60 to 90 seconds per grade level. So a video for seventh grade would be 7 to 9 minutes long (7 x 60 seconds to 7 x 90 seconds) (Bergmann & Sams, 2014). Flipped learning is most effective when teaching knowledge that is procedural (i.e., knowledge about how to do something) (Milman, 2014).

In the context of this chapter, a flipped classroom would consist of the teacher recording the instructional portion of the lesson using all of the effective teaching elements. If guided practice is included on the video, it would consist of the teacher asking the student to complete the tasks along with the teacher. The instructional portion would be recorded and placed on the Internet, CDs, DVDs, or flash drives. Other materials accessed through the Internet (such as science simulations) can be included in the lessons.

Using the elements of effective instruction, students would view the teacher's instruction at home and then complete guided practice opportunities in the classroom. Following the principles of effective instruction, once students have demonstrated high levels of understanding, they can move on to independent practice. Opportunities for higher level application of the skills learned can also occur during class time given the presence of the teacher to facilitate these activities.

Flipped classrooms for students allow them to move at their own pace, have access to instruction all hours of every day, and be better prepared for anticipated 21st century learning. Also, if multiple teachers make videos addressing the same concepts and students are given access to them, the student can view more than one teacher's instruction to better understand the concepts being taught (Fulton, 2012).

One set of teachers merged flipped learning and mastery learning. Students in their classrooms learned course content through videoed direct instruction and at an individualized pace. When each completed a unit, he or she demonstrated mastery of the learning objective before moving to the next unit. Students with special needs required more time than other students to complete the units. These teachers "front-loaded" the essential concepts and left the "nice to know" lessons to the end of the school year to ensure all students learned what was essential (Bergmann & Sams, 2014).

Advantages of flipped learning for teachers include better understanding of student difficulties, using class time more effectively, and learning from viewing each other's instruction. In addition, family members have access to the instruction (Fulton, 2012). Flipped learning also has disadvantages. For example, teachers need time to create the videos and the quality may not be the best. Students may not have access to the technology necessary to view the lessons at home and may encounter a lot of distractions in that environment. They may also not watch the video or not understand the concept being taught and thus are unprepared for the classroom practice and enrichment (Milman, 2014).

Limited research has been conducted on flipped learning in K–12 schools (Milman, 2014). Some teachers report

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that students improve their academic skills (e.g., LaFee, 2013), particularly when compared with a traditional mode of instruction (e.g., Fulton, 2012). Although no research was located in which students receiving special education services were specifically targeted, the advantages of flipped learning (e.g., moving at individual pace, more supervision of practice) indicate there may be promise for this population.

Implications for Culturally and/or Linguistically Diverse Students

Historically, students representing cultural groups outside of the European American middle-class majority have failed to thrive in school. Issues regarding culturally sensitive instruction have arisen as our community and school populations have become less European American, with more emphasis being placed on maintaining cultural identity rather than assimilating diverse individuals into a *melting pot* (Jones, 2004).

As discussed in previous chapters, today's school culture usually reflects European American culture. Thus, schools expect students to be competitive, independent, focused on academics and accomplishments, and future oriented. These values often conflict with those of other cultures, as well as differing abilities of students who represent those cultures. Teachers need to recognize and embrace the cultural and linguistic resources students from culturally and/or linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds bring.

Within this section and throughout the book, the characteristics of specific groups are stated as generalizations. These generalizations are provided only to demonstrate the contrast among cultural groups. Teachers must always remember there can be wide variations in characteristics within the same cultural group. No two students or families from the same cultural group will exhibit the same exact beliefs or behaviors. Therefore, teachers need to be careful not to stereotype or make assumptions about students or their families based on cultural group. In order to better understand values and beliefs, teachers need to become acquainted with individual students and their families.

Cultural Differences Impacting Instruction

Cultural backgrounds vary across many dimensions, two of which have particular influence on teacher-directed instruction, namely efficiency and independence. The focus on efficiency is tied directly to cultural perceptions of time. European-based cultures place a great deal of emphasis on using time wisely (e.g., *Time is money*). Other cultures are less time conscience. Teachers should not assume that students who hesitate before answering a question in class do not have the correct answer or are unsure of themselves. Additional think-time, particularly for higher level questions may be needed. For example, Native Americans are taught not only to think before they speak but to be patient and allow others to go first (Nel, 1993). Their culture emphasizes performing correctly. As a result, Native Americans may be reluctant to respond to questions if they feel uncertain about their answer (Morgan, 2010).

Cultural differences impact teachers' perceptions of the students, as well as students' performance in the classroom. Teachers, therefore, need to be aware of potential cultural differences and adjust teaching procedures as appropriate. Teachers who lack sensitivity to cultural values of efficiency may perceive the child as "wasting time." Hispanic students, for example, may focus more on doing a job well than on finishing rapidly so they can move on to the next task (Grossman, 1995). At times, it is appropriate to allow downtime or time off task or to slow down the pace of a lesson to accommodate students' cultural styles.

Although some cultures place less emphasis on time than others, some elements of time may need to be taught and reinforced in schools. In a large-scale survey of Hispanic and non-Hispanic educators examining their beliefs regarding Hispanic students and culture, a very high percentage of these teachers believed that Hispanic students should learn to function in the time frame of the classroom. At the same time, the majority felt that Hispanic students should not be rushed, but that they should also not be allowed as much time as they wanted. Some suggestions for teacher-directed instruction for Hispanic students include the following:

- Require daily assignments while teaching students to plan and organize to complete longer term assignments.
- Adjust pace to allow time to respond and finish, but do not provide all the time they want.
- Provide students with immediate, not delayed, feedback.
- Integrate Hispanic culture and language into the lessons, including Hispanic contributions to society.
- Hold high expectations, especially for students who are academically oriented. (Grossman, 1995)

Some cultures are also more present- than future-oriented. Hispanic, African American, and Pacific Island cultures often value the present more than the future. Students may need daily rather than long-term assignments while teachers assist them in organizing and planning their time to complete long-term assignments.

European Americans value independence and individual autonomy while other cultures rely more on group processes. Students from other cultures, therefore, often benefit from cooperative rather than competitive environments and enjoy learning in groups and from their peers. For example, in Hawaiian and Vietnamese cultures, older siblings often take over the parenting role, making younger children more receptive to an older peer, rather than an adult authority (Cheng, Ima, & Labovitz, 1994). On the other hand, Native American children are considered "autonomous, equal individuals, responsible for their own choices" (Nel, 1993, p. 22). The impact of cultural roles on independence and the issue of competitiveness versus collaboration are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 8.

Direct Teaching Techniques

Even though cultural differences exist which may impact the effectiveness of teacher-directed instruction, most cultural learning styles in some way support the teacher effectiveness principles discussed in this chapter. For example, Asian cultures

(e.g., Japanese, Korean, Chinese) value schooling and have high regard for teachers. Students from these cultures are taught to work hard, behave well, obtain good grades, and excel in their schooling (Cheng et al., 1994). In fact, Asian cultures are often similar to European American cultures when it comes to reinforcing high achievement.

Other cultures in their unique ways support the principles of direct instruction. Even though some aspects of African American culture may appear to conflict with the traditional teacher-directed instructional model (Townsend, 2000), these students also come from high-energy and fast-paced home environments with a multitude of simultaneous stimulation and, according to Mary Franklin (1992), find "low-energy, monolithic environments (as seen in many traditional school environments) as less stimulating" (p. 118). Thus, fast-paced instruction supports African American learning style. In addition, many African American students prefer varied instructional presentation formats, particularly techniques that incorporate body movements (Franklin, 1992).

In Hawaiian culture, children are expected to watch and memorize in order to learn how to do something (*By observing, one learns.*) This cultural practice supports the principle of modeling. One teacher learning to adapt to teaching students of Hawaiian and Pacific Island descent stated, "I began to think that anything I could model had a better chance of being learned. So I looked for ways to model more complex and abstract processes . . . . I would think aloud, write aloud, and work aloud" (Tepper, 1992, p. 5). In addition, this teacher learned the importance of repetition and practice for the learner. "Rehearsal became an understood and comfortable mode for all sorts of learning work" (p. 6).

Research supports the effectiveness of teacher-directed instruction with CLD students. For example, in several studies examining the impact of *Direct Instruction* curriculum (i.e., *Reading Mastery* and *Corrective Reading*) as supplemental reading instruction in English, Hispanic students benefitted as much or more than the non-Hispanic students (Gunn, Biglan, Smolkowki, & Ary, 2000; Gunn, Smolkowski, Biglan, Black, & Blair, 2005). Effective teachers apply teacher-directed instruction in the manner described in this chapter. Modest variations may be needed to ensure that students from culturally diverse populations are given opportunities to maximize their potential in a manner to which they are accustomed.

TEACHER TIP #6.7

TEACHING ENGLISH LEARNERS

The number of English learners (ELs) is increasing in both special education and general education. Try these strategies when teaching ELs:

- Allow students who collectively speak a language other than English (e.g., Spanish), to use their language among themselves in pairs or cooperative learning groups. Allow students to interpret for one another when necessary and appropriate.
- Incorporate as many visual aids as possible (e.g., pictures, graphs, videos).

- Be aware of students' body language and facial expressions as nonverbal feedback. A questioning look speaks volumes.
- When ELs use English to express their thoughts, assess their understanding, not their language. Do not interrupt them to correct language mistakes. Address common language errors through writing or one-on-one sessions. (Rolon, 2002–2003)

Culturally Responsive Teaching

Culturally responsive teaching refers to methods that support CLD students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds integrated with evidence-based instructional practices (Aceves & Orosco, 2014). The primary goal of culturally responsive teaching and curriculum is to infuse students' prior knowledge and language with learning to build rich cultural and linguistic backgrounds within families and communities (Utley, Obiakor, & Bakken, 2011). **Evidence-based interventions and practices** are instructional practices that have been documented through research to be effective in improving student outcomes. In the context of this chapter, the previously discussed elements of teacher-directed instruction are evidence-based practices. A body of literature is emerging demonstrating the positive impact that culturally responsive teaching coupled with evidence-based practices can have on CLD students.

In a review of literature, Therese Aceves and Michael Orosco (2014) identified relevant themes of culturally responsive teaching to be the following: instructional engagement; culture, language, and racial identity; multicultural awareness; high expectations; critical thinking; and social justice. They also identified emerging evidence-based culturally responsive teaching practices. These practices included modeling, responsive feedback, collaborative teaching, and instructional scaffolding. Then in terms of methods of instruction, teachers who implement culturally responsive teaching engage students in instruction; communicate clear and specific expectations; model skills and strategies; and provide feedback that is supportive, critical, ongoing, and immediate. These elements have been discussed previously in this chapter with the exception of instructional scaffolding.

As with scaffolds used when constructing buildings, instructional scaffolds provide temporary supports while students are learning new content or skills. Teachers who scaffold their instruction break large tasks into smaller tasks and teach to those smaller units providing students with the necessary guided practice providing assistance and praise throughout the process. They may use concrete materials during initial instruction and vary the materials used (Vaughn & Bos, 2012). When teaching CLD students, instructional scaffolding occurs when "teachers control for task difficulty and promote a deeper level of understanding using students' contributions and their cultural and linguistic backgrounds" (Aceves & Orosco, 2014, p. 16). Teachers who scaffold their instruction reference students' culture or primary language while asking different types of questions, providing appropriate wait time, and using supportive instructional materials such as graphic organizers and guided notes. Other recommended culturally responsive strategies include providing visual representations, allowing frequent interactions in pairs, small groups, and whole class, as well as using study guides, taped text and jigsaw reading, concept maps, and other effective teaching strategies (Ford, Stuart, & Vakil, 2014).

Culturally responsive teaching goes beyond using effective teaching practices and ensuring CLD students' culture and language are represented. Culturally responsive teachers "(a) build trust among their students, (b) become culturally literate, (c) use appropriate diagnostic and assessment approaches, (d) use culturally sound questioning techniques, (e) provide effective feedback, (f) analyze content in instructional materials, and (g) establish positive home-school-community relationships." (Utley et al., 2011, p. 9).

SUMMARY

Although student achievement is influenced by many factors, teachers can positively influence student learning, regardless of the characteristics students bring to the classroom. Effective teachers use methods and strategies that research has documented to make a difference. Although effective instructional techniques in special education are not very distinct from those that are effective in general education, teachers who work with students with HID need to be particularly aware of evidence-based practices in order to teach as effectively and efficiently as possible.

Teachers can impact learning in three general ways. First, by selecting appropriate content to be taught. Instructional content should be determined by individual students' IEPs and state or district standards. Second, by maximizing the amount of time spent instructing. Typically, about 50% to 60% of the school day is allocated as instructional time. Teachers can increase this time by decreasing or eliminating noninstructional activities such as transition time and housekeeping efforts. And third, by increasing student engaged learning time. During engaged learning, students are attending to relevant instructional activities with a high rate of success. Teachers influence student engagement through teacher behaviors (e.g., questioning, pacing), instructional management (e.g., establishing routines), and behavior management (e.g., creating class rules). Research shows an association between the amount of time students spend in engaged learning and their academic achievement.

Teacher-directed instruction includes the commercial materials labeled, *Direct Instruction*, which are based on generic effective teaching principles documented through research to be effective. These principles should be used when teachers design their own lesson plans. Basic lesson plan elements include lesson objectives, anticipatory set/purpose statement, review, modeling, instruction, guided practice, independent practice, and closure. When writing lesson objectives, teachers should consider the stage of learning and include an observable behavior, a condition for acceptable performance, and a criterion. Modeling of the desired behavior is a critical element of effective teaching, which is often neglected in the lesson sequence. During modeling, a master of the skill (usually the teacher) demonstrates completion of the task as students observe. Self-talk is used to verbalize thought processes. Students should be provided an opportunity to practice the behavior under guided conditions (guided practice) prior to being required to perform it independently (independent practice). Effective teachers monitor student performance throughout to check for understanding, reteach, and correct errors.

Teachers need to be aware of and sensitive to the cultural backgrounds they bring to the classroom and equally sensitive to the cultures of their students. For example, some differences may be observed regarding the importance of efficiency and independence. Although students from culturally diverse groups often benefit from cooperative, rather than competitive environments, many of these cultures also directly reinforce the teacher effectiveness principles discussed in this chapter. Research has shown, for example, that CLD students benefit from direct instruction to at least the same degree as non-CLD students. Culturally responsive teachers embed their students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds within evidence-based teaching practices. In addition, they build trust among their students and establish positive home-school-community relationships, among other practices.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Why is it important to use both state and district standards and the individual students' IEP goals in determining content to be taught?
2. Explain the difference between allocated and engaged learning time. Why should teachers be concerned about increasing allocated or engaged learning time in the classroom?
3. Provide five examples of how teachers can increase allocated or engaged learning time.
4. What is the overall goal of the *Direct Instruction* model? What assumptions underlie the *Direct Instruction* model?
5. Differentiate between *Direct Instruction* and direct instruction.
6. Why is the stage of learning an important consideration when writing lesson objectives?
7. Rewrite the following to include all elements of a behavior objective: *Angela will read a list of 10 CVC (consonant, vowel, consonant) words correctly.*
8. Outline the major elements of an effective lesson plan. Explain the purpose of each element.
9. What are your attitudes about the use of time and independence? How might your attitudes conflict with the culture of your students? How could these conflicts be managed in the classroom?
10. Define culturally responsive teaching and describe how teacher-directed instruction may be considered culturally responsive.

ACTIVITIES

1. Select five tasks you complete on a daily basis (e.g., brushing teeth, putting on your shoes, making breakfast). Write dialogue for modeling how to complete each task.
2. Locate a lesson plan on the Internet. Evaluate the lesson as compared to the elements of a teacher-directed lesson. What elements are the same, and what elements are different? Redesign the Internet lesson to include all the elements discussed in this chapter.
3. Evaluate a peer's scripted lesson plan. Describe the strengths and weaknesses of the plan. Write at least one suggestion for how the lesson could be improved.
4. Write a scripted lesson plan using all of the necessary elements. In small groups, present the lesson to your peers.

Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) Standards

The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) is a premiere national professional organization comprised of special educators, paraeducators, relative service personnel, parents, and others interested in individuals with disabilities and/or those with gifts and talents. This organization has generated 10 standards for the preparation of special educators. These standards are listed in each chapter as they relate to the content within the chapter. The standard that applies to Chapter 6 is Standard #5.

CEC Initial Preparation Standard #5: Instructional Planning and Strategies (partial)

Beginning special education professionals select, adapt, and use a repertoire of evidence-based instructional strategies to advance learning of individuals with exceptionalities.

5.1 Beginning special education professionals consider an individual's abilities, interests, learning environments, and cultural and linguistic factors in the selection, development, and adaptation of learning experiences for individuals with exceptionalities.

5.6 Beginning special education professionals teach to mastery and promote generalization of learning.

5.7 Beginning special education professionals teach cross-disciplinary knowledge and skills such as critical thinking and problem solving to individuals with exceptionalities.

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