CHAPTER 1

Motivating Classroom Practices to Support Effective Literacy Instruction

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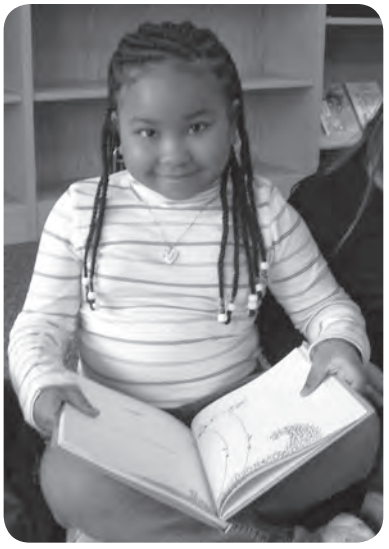
What is *motivation*, and how do we motivate students? We used social networking with friends and colleagues to survey some educators informally about their definitions and methods. They told us that motivation is "when a student wants to do something" (grade 3 English as a second language [ESL] inclusion teacher); when students are "focusing on a task and not stopping until that task is completed" (elementary school principal); and "when they want to complete something for their own satisfaction of being successful" (middle school language arts teacher). One grade 2 general education teacher said, "I motivate my students by *loving* them, *believing* in them, and *igniting* a desire to want to learn more!"



Motivation can also be defined according to various theoretical perspectives (such as the behavioral or cognitive traditions in psychology), yet there are common elements between those and the definitions of teachers (such as learners' interest and engagement). Goals are another common element that

researchers have posited may be important for defining motivation (Schunk, 2008). For example, Pintrich and Schunk (2002) defined motivation as the process of sustaining behavior and cognition in order to reach a goal. Beyond learners' interest and engagement, other factors that have an impact on motivation include variables within a learner (e.g., emotions, values) and students' interactions with the learning environment (e.g., teachers' behavior and affect). Clearly, then, effective literacy instruction practices are implemented in the context of complex, social environments that present multiple moving targets: students with different skills, backgrounds, and needs that may shift with developmental changes.

We believe that all effective teachers want to motivate their students, but, given the complex interaction between teachers and learners in the classroom environment, how do they go about doing this? What specific aspects of their own teaching behaviors, their classroom environment, and the diversity of their students should teachers keep in mind when trying to motivate their students? Although effective teachers are masters at juggling many projects and goals simultaneously, we argue that when teachers have all the elements described in this chapter in place, motivating students is easier and more achievable. In our experience, the motivating practices related to classroom atmosphere, self-regulation (i.e., teachers' monitoring and changing their own responses to try to meet goals), and engaging instructional techniques are interdependent. They reinforce each other, while also supporting classroom management and providing intellectual challenge for all students.

As educators, we seek to promote an environment in the classroom that is conducive to learning for all of our students. Some learners are at a higher risk for learning difficulties, and these "at-risk" learners may or may not have been identified and categorized with one of the following labels: *exceptional student education* (ESE), *English language learner* (ELL), or *low socioeconomic status* (low SES). Students who are identified as belonging to one of these categories are provided with additional academic and financial accommodations mandated by state and federal law. In addition, some students who don't qualify for these labels may also be at risk, perhaps because their own goals and motivations as readers and writers do not match those of mainstream education (Ivey & Broaddus, 2007). These students too may slip through our school system without the additional support that they need. Even with additional support, at-risk students have a high rate of failure throughout their educational careers, which may ultimately end with their dropping out of school. Researchers cited by Ream (2008, p. 110; see the Ream article for references) have identified

> numerous factors that contribute to students' early departure from school, including the demographic characteristics of students and their families (Alexander, Entwisle, & Kabbani, 2001; Hauser, Simmons, & Pager, 2000), parenting practices (McNeal, 1999; Teachman, Paasch, & Carver, 1996), residential and educational mobility (Ream & Stanton-Salazar, 2007; Rumberger & Larson, 1998; Swanson & Schneider, 1999), grade retention (Jimerson, Anderson, & Whipple, 2002; Stearns et al., 2007), school performance and educational aspirations (Bridgeland, Dilulio, & Morison, 2006; Rumberger, 1987), and school and community characteristics (Rumberger, 2004).

Using engaging teaching strategies to motivate and meet the needs of *all* students, regardless of learning challenges or exceptionalities (i.e., giftedness), is the educator's responsibility.

In this chapter, we describe the classroom practices that research evidence suggests support student motivation, and we focus on how to implement and adapt these for all types of learners across the elementary and middle school contexts. In the *Overview of Research* section, we first describe the practices related to classroom atmosphere that we believe are nearly universal for motivating students, emphasizing the importance of genuine concern and high expectations for all students. Goal setting in that context, as well as the context of supporting student autonomy, helps set the stage not only for positive classroom management but for the development of self-regulated learners. We then consider how students' engagement in learning can be enhanced by instructional practices that can further help teachers support students' motivation. In the sections that follow the *Overview of Research*, we consider how teachers and school leaders can work together to support each other in enhancing students' literacy engagement and learning. There we offer suggestions for questions you might want to consider as you read each section of this chapter, as well as a structure for professional learning community sessions you might use to help you implement the practices we describe.

OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH

Creating a Motivating Classroom Atmosphere

No matter the grade or subject taught, a positive classroom environment is often one of the main ingredients for providing an engaging and welcoming learning atmosphere for students. Teachers must provide a caring classroom environment with rules and routines so that all students feel safe. This environment must also meet each student's educational needs. Teachers can provide this engaging environment by promoting high expectations for academics as well as for behavior, so that all students can succeed. Providing a safe haven for students may be accomplished in many ways, such as developing positive rapport with students, having a classroom management system that is fair and consistent, and building a classroom community by establishing expectations that everyone treat one another with respect. In this section, we look at research-based programs and empirically derived techniques to help teachers foster an effective teaching environment that is mutually supportive of positive behavioral classroom management and learning outcomes (Dolezal, Welsh, Pressley, & Vincent, 2003).

Building Relationships

"Effective teaching begins with the establishment of relationships between the teacher and students" (Bondy, Ross, Gallingane, & Hambacher, 2007, p. 331). As part of building a classroom community, teachers must focus on creating relationships with their students that allow teachers to learn about their students as individuals. Knowing about students' instructional and personal needs allows

Community-Building Activities We've Tried

- Play "get to know you" bingo.
- Brainstorm hopes and dreams (goals for year and future).
- Develop classroom rules and guidelines.

For more ideas, see *The First Six Weeks of School* (Denton & Kriete, 2000).

teachers to build curriculum that supports academic achievement (Bondy et al., 2007). Community building is so important that teachers should begin to make this connection with students within the first few hours of the first day of school. Bondy et al. give examples of three teachers (in diverse, urban elementary schools) sharing things about themselves, showing photos, and being candid with their new students on the first day of school to help build a connection with their students. These teachers also provided activities for the students to begin to interact with their peers and the teachers; such interaction is key to beginning to build the classroom community, especially when a class is culturally diverse. (Bondy et al., 2007, focused on the culturally responsive classroom in their study, as do McIntyre & Turner, Chapter 6, this volume.)

Marzano's (2007) Eight Action Steps

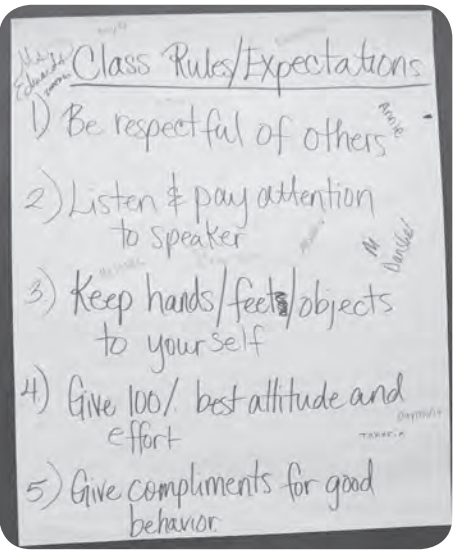
1. Know something about each student.
2. Engage in behaviors that indicate affection for each student.
3. Bring student interests into the content and personalize learning activities.
4. Engage in physical behaviors that communicate interest in students.
5. Use humor when appropriate.
6. Consistently enforce positive and negative consequences.
7. Project a sense of emotional objectivity.
8. Maintain a cool exterior. (pp. 154–161)

Besides starting the school year by making connections with students and building community, Marzano (2007) suggests eight action steps to communicate concern and cooperation in the classroom. These steps are highlighted in the box above. One step Marzano suggests is using physical behavior to communicate interest, which can be useful when teachers are pressed for time or are working with students from different cultures. By using positive physical communication, such as smiling or leaning in when talking with a student, teachers can provide positive feedback to students as they move around the classroom.

By providing nonverbal cues to students, teachers can begin to build a positive rapport with their students through simple daily interactions. "This rapport allows teachers to better use their limited conferencing time with students by being more direct with their verbal feedback and worrying less about how their feedback will impact students' feelings" (Martin & Mottet, 2011, p. 12). For students who are labeled at risk, it is even more important for teachers to create positive relationships with their students and to push them academically. Students who do not feel cared about may be more likely to react negatively to corrective academic feedback. It has been reported that students who believe their teachers care about them are more likely to become engaged and find success in their academics, as well as to spend more time and effort on homework (Wilson & Corbett, 2001).

Managing Behavior

Besides building positive rapport with students, teachers must develop and promote a classroom management system that has well-defined routines, rules, and consequences in order to create a positive classroom community. Establishing procedures on the very first day and reviewing them repeatedly is key for developing an engaging classroom environment. The teachers observed by Bondy and colleagues (2007) established rules and routines in their own unique ways, but all three introduced them within the first 2 hours of the first day. Along with introducing each rule and routine, the teachers gave justification so students would understand why each rule and routine was important for their classroom and learning. In addition, the teachers made sure to set clear expectations by modeling positive examples and frequently reviewing these expectations with their students (Ross, Bondy, Gallingane, & Hambacher, 2008). Overall, effective teachers should strive to provide environments with a strong, proactive classroom management system, which is supported by engaging students in instruction and content (Dolezal et al., 2003). For example, the classroom contract depicted in the photo on the right makes rules and expectations clear.



A research-based elementary school program, which fosters a productive learning environment through daily community-building activities, is the Responsive Classroom (RC) model. This model is designed to "bolster children's academic, social, and emotional growth" (McTigue & Rimm-Kaufman, 2011, p. 6). The RC type of classroom management focuses on the needs of the students and provides an environment that allows students to grow both academically and as individuals. The RC model fosters academic, social, and emotional growth through several daily classroom practices, including the morning meeting (MM), using proactive discipline, and using descriptive language in the classroom. An example of descriptive language use is having students and teachers share specific items during MM. A teacher can welcome a student by saying, "I see John smiling at me. Good morning" (McTigue & Rimm-Kaufman, 2011, p. 16); student might use descriptive language like this when sharing at MM, "My name is Teresa Tiger, which begins with a /t/. One thing I like about tigers is that they have stripes" (p. 16).

One of the ways a teacher can promote student growth is by encouraging students to work independently or in small groups with little direction from the teacher (for more on this topic, see the discussions of student autonomy and cooperative learning in this chapter). This allows the classroom teacher to spend less time dealing with inappropriate behaviors and more time on instruction (Rimm-Kaufman & Chiu, 2007). The focus on how students learn, in the RC model, has a positive impact on students' academic achievement (McTigue & Rimm-Kaufman, 2011). The RC model has also been adapted

for use in middle school with the Circle of Power and Respect. With the Circle of Power and Respect, aspects of the RC model serve the needs and challenges of middle school students. The Circle of Power and Respect also "offers middle school students stability and predictability during a time in life marked by tumultuous emotional, physical, and cognitive change" (Kriete with Bechtel, 2002, p. 105).

Positive relationships between teacher and students can stimulate student academic achievement as well as decrease disruptive classroom behavior (Hamre & Pianta, 2001). Rimm-Kaufman and Chiu (2007) found the use of the RC model effective for building student social skills; not only did students display an increase in positive social behaviors, but teachers described an increase in student assertiveness and autonomy in the classroom. We next describe an MM lesson, which shows how teachers can engage all students academically, socially, and emotionally every morning while also incorporating some literacy instruction, so no extra time is needed or wasted to implement a successful classroom management system! MM includes four components: the greeting, sharing, an activity, and the news and announcements (for MM resources, see Kriete with Bechtel, 2002). In this classroom example, we visit Ms. Johns's grade 3 class in a high-poverty, high-minority elementary school. (To protect students' privacy, all names have been changed.)

CLASSROOM EXAMPLE: MM LESSON

Ms. Johns begins each day with the MM. Students gather in a circle on the carpet at the front of the room. During MM, students start with a greeting by turning to their neighbor on either side and shaking hands while saying "Good morning" and calling the student by name. Following the greeting, Ms. Johns reviews the procedure for "sharing" and chooses the first person to share. The student proceeds to tell two or three sentences about what he or she wants to share, and other students listen attentively. When the student has finished sharing, the student calls on two people to ask questions. This sharing is repeated by another student, and then Ms. Johns leads the class in giving a cheer for those who shared. All of the students clap two times and say "Good job" and the names of the students who shared.

The next event in MM is an activity, and on this day Ms. Johns has chosen "Catch a Horse," an activity she developed with her class. Ms. Johns reviews the procedure for this activity, which involves all of the students pretending to be horses except for one student, who pretends to be the rancher. The rancher attempts to catch the horses by tagging them and sending them to the corral, which is located in a designated area in the room. During the activity, Ms. Johns monitors the students, making comments to individuals such as "Thank you for being honest," when the students move into the corral after being caught. She uses a chime to end the activity. Then Ms. Johns instructs the students to give the cheer: "Yeehaw!"

Students recreate the circle at the front of the room for the final part of MM: news and announcements. Ms. Johns chooses a student's name from a can and calls the student to read the announcement, recreated in the box on the next page, which she has written on a chart. The student reads aloud as others read silently. Following the reading, students applaud the reader, and Ms. Johns asks the class, "Are there any questions about today's message?" She answers any questions, and students return to their seats prepared for their day.

News and Announcements

Good morning, Star Students,

Today is Fabulous Friday! I'm looking forward to our day ahead. We will continue renaming numbers—no worries. It will get easier, I promise! We will also begin the exploration of the continents and oceans found on our globe! Finally, we will explore Dr. Jamie Stevens's [a student in the class who will lead the activity] baking soda and vinegar experiment together!!! Let's have a fabulous day.

♥ Ms. Johns

By using MM to begin each day, Ms. Johns creates an energized learning climate. Students have had the opportunity to continue building a respectful, trusting relationship with their teacher and their peers. At-risk students from low-income households, such as those in Ms. Johns's class, recognize the need to belong to their school community, however, as these students progress through school, they may see belonging to their school community as unrealistic for themselves, due to poor achievement, high-stress households, and poor peer relationships. Often these students try to acquire this sense of belonging by becoming members of other types of groups, such as gangs. Battistich, Solomon, Kim, Watson, and Schaps (1995) suggest that "a way to change this may be to create school communities in which all students feel accepted and valued and to which they feel they are making important contributions" (p. 628). In the RC model, these students become members of the class and develop a sense of community in a safe and caring environment: "Although the deleterious effects of poverty are well known, . . . some of its negative effects can be mitigated if the school is successful in creating a caring community for its members" (Battistich et al., 1995, p. 649).

Focusing on Goals

The use of goals is another way teachers can motivate and engage students. This is exemplified by one grade 4 teacher, who shared the following with us:

> "I usually motivate them by reminding them of their ultimate goal, passing their grade level. But I also remind them of other goals such as TAKS [Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills], weekly tests, and daily assignments. I just think the main part of staying motivated for me and the kids is just being positive. If we're all positive, it makes it a lot easier. Whether a small success or a big one, just seeing them happy is important."

Goal setting in the classroom is a growing practice. Teachers identify the learning objectives and assist students in setting goals for their own learning; by doing this, students become responsible for their personal achievement. Students' identification of the learning goals and the importance of achieving these goals motivates the students to strive for mastery of these goals.

Even in a highly motivating environment, it is possible for some students to remain unengaged, and often the unengaged students are among the at-risk students in the

class. When this happens, one way to motivate such students is by guiding them as they set goals for themselves. Szente (2007) advocates the use of Action Plans, a type of student contract. An Action Plan creates an opportunity for a student to identify personal goals academically, behaviorally, or both, based on self-identified need. A teacher guides the students by reviewing the observable behaviors (or academic issues), followed by a discussion with the student. With the help of the teacher, the student is able to identify a "specific, short-range goal along with certain clear steps that are needed to achieve that specific goal" (Szente, 2007, p. 4). Goal setting (for both academics and behaviors) has supported learners in achieving success and building self-efficacy at all cognitive levels in elementary school and middle school (Williams-Diehm, Palmer, Lee, & Schroer, 2010). In the following examples, the goal-setting routines of two teachers working with students who have special needs are described.

CLASSROOM EXAMPLES: GOAL-SETTING ROUTINES

When asked about her goal-setting practices in her elementary school class for students with multiple disabilities, Ms. Williamson identified strategies that she uses with her students. She began by explaining her behavior chart system, which incorporates the use of picture symbols representing activities during the day on a contract for each individual student. The class rules are listed across the top of the contract in picture format, and students earn smiley faces (and, in turn, earn rewards) by successfully accomplishing appropriate behavior for each event in the day. Before beginning the day, Ms. Williamson meets with each individual student to set a goal for the number of smiley faces that the individual will try to earn for the day. For her students with autism, she provides goal-setting guidance in the form of identifying their goal for each learning activity for each part of the day. This is challenging for the students and time-consuming for Ms. Williamson, but she states that "students are completing each task and following the rules . . . an accomplishment for my students."

Down the hall in the same elementary school is Ms. West's inclusion classroom, which includes students in ESE and those in general education. Her system for setting goals with her students focuses on student mastery of academic benchmarks from state standards. Each Friday, students have a goal-setting time where they review their own achievement for the week in a small-group meeting with the teacher. Ms. West's system provides a tabbed notebook for each student, which includes sections for setting long-term year and life goals, reading and mathematics mastery goals, and process writing goals. During the goal-setting meeting, students graph progress, set goals for their achievement in the following week, examine the progress they are making toward long-term goals, identify the strengths and weaknesses in their learning from the previous week, and decide on strategies for improvement as needed. Doing this supports students' ownership of their progress and control of their learning.

Both teachers give feedback to their students during goal-setting times. Regular feedback reinforces the importance of learning and achieving the goals, and their students are engaged and motivated to meet the goals. All in all, "by learning appropriate goal-setting procedures and receiving continuous feedback and monitoring from adults, most children can take on the academic challenges of today's schools" (Szente, 2007, p. 5).

The idea of goal setting is also related to the goal orientation of the classroom. In the current climate of standards-based testing, there is a risk that students and teachers

will tend to focus more on performance goals (which emphasize scores and grades) than on mastery goals (which focus on learning and mastering content). However, "students who adopt mastery goals have been shown to choose challenging tasks (Ames & Archer, 1988), become involved in the learning process (Nicholls, Cheung, Lauer, & Patashnick, 1989), and use effective study strategies (Nolen & Haladyna, 1990)" (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000, p. 161; see this article for the references cited). Although performance goals are not always associated with negative outcomes (for a review, see Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000), positive effects are most often found for mastery goals or a combination of mastery and performance goals. Students with learning disabilities (LD), however, seem to be more sensitive to the negative potential effects of performance goal structures. When comparing students in grades 4 and 5 with and without LD, Sideridis (2005) found that in classrooms with performance goal structures, the students with LD were less engaged.

Developing Independent Learners

Goals continue to play a vital role in this section, where we describe the context and practices associated with developing independent learners. Students grow into independent learners through a combination of their individual characteristics and qualities of their learning environments. Higher order skills like self-regulation are important in learners' management of goals, cognitions, and behaviors, and so are learners' basic psychological needs (Schunk, 2008). For example, learners need to feel liked, or to sense that they belong, and to feel that they have control over their own learning. Learners also need to feel that they can effectively enact common school behaviors, including (1) engaging in tasks, (2) completing tasks, and (3) performing well in school—all of which contribute to a feeling of success. One of our colleagues aptly described the role of the teacher in fostering independence in learners as "creating an authentic interpersonal academic relationship in which the impetus for personal and academic growth shifts from being primarily teacher-driven to primarily student-driven" (social studies coordinator).

As our colleague suggests, independent learners possess the outstanding quality of self-regulation, which enables them to direct their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors toward the achievement of goals. In order for teachers to develop motivated, independent learners, they must encourage self-regulation in their students. Another hallmark of independent learners is their ability to identify, set, and accomplish their own goals. Learners choose their own goals, apply strategies to accomplish their goals, and possess a metacognitive awareness of the learning process—for instance, by monitoring their own progress toward goals (see Boekaerts, 1999). Self-regulated students evaluate their own learning by asking personally evaluative questions such as "Am I making acceptable progress?"

But how do we explain situations in which learners are able to self-regulate but choose not to do so? Boekaerts (1999) has pointed out that students may be able to plan,

monitor, and evaluate, but they may also perceive that these skills require extra time or energy. Thus it is important that students value learning, which can happen when, as discussed in the previous section, teachers create positive, learning-focused classroom environments. This process involves teacher modeling of enthusiasm and what is valued (see more on modeling under *Promoting Engagement through Instructional Practices*, below). Boekaerts has recommended giving students frequent opportunities in class to reflect on and communicate their personal goals, as well as goals influenced by others (e.g., teachers, parents). Teachers can also model self-regulated thought processes by thinking aloud. For example, teachers can model identifying learning goals for a particular assignment by asking questions like "What different parts of this task should I consider in order to help me complete my goal?" or "What skills and personal qualities do I possess that will help me complete this task?" To provide optimal supports for student motivation to be self-regulated, however, educators should think about how they can support students' basic needs for *autonomy*, *relatedness*, and *competence*. This can be achieved via a combination of all the strategies covered in this chapter.

Basic Needs: Autonomy, Relatedness, and Competence

Autonomy, competence, and relatedness are connected in the learning process, and a great deal of empirical work has led researchers to conclude that all three needs should be met for optimal learning (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999b; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The term *independent learners* can refer to self-regulated learners, but independent learners can also be described as having a strong sense of autonomy. *Autonomy* refers to "the sense that one's actions emanate from one's self" (Reeve & Jang, 2006, p. 209). Students who possess greater self-determination or autonomy believe that they are engaging in a learning task of their own free choice and volition (Deci et al., 1999b). In other words, they feel that they have some control over their own learning and performance.

Students choose to engage in countless behaviors every day in school. The need for *competence* refers to their belief that those behaviors have been enacted effectively; teachers can build competence in their students by providing a learning environment and activities that are optimally challenging (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). An optimal challenge level is neither so difficult that a child cannot successfully complete a task, nor is it so easy that the child becomes bored. Therefore, teachers are challenged to monitor and promote individual students' performance, but also to consider the individual needs of a class full of diverse learners. Supporting students with appropriate feedback can effectively build competence in students (Linnebrink & Pintrich, 2003; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Shute, 2008).

The need for *relatedness* is common to students and teachers alike, who all experience the basic need to belong and to form strong, stable relationships (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Teachers foster the need for relatedness by creating positive classroom environments. The need for relatedness is important in classrooms because it has been linked to the process of internalization of values for learning (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). We have highlighted strategies for supporting relatedness in *Creating a Motivating Classroom Atmosphere*, above, so we focus on autonomy and competence supports in this section after introducing *self-determination theory* (SDT). SDT is based on the three psychological needs of learners (i.e., autonomy, competence, and relatedness), which teachers

can meet with specific practices applicable to learners. It was originally developed to explain relationships among motivation, emotion, and human development (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). In particular, SDT focuses on learning environments (including teachers) and the effects they have on learners.

In SDT, there is an emphasis on the importance of intrinsic motivation in human development—in other words, the "evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioral self-regulation" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 68). This sentiment was captured in some of the educators' definitions of motivation we have shared at the beginning of this chapter. To date, a great deal of empirical research has been conducted on the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation in the context of SDT (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999a). Research in this area of motivation strongly suggests that teachers should not frequently rely on tangible external rewards because they can decrease a student's preexisting intrinsic motivation or interest for a particular activity. Within the context of a positive learning environment, teachers should work to deemphasize or phase out extrinsic rewards. SDT also accounts for how a student's motivation may progress from externally manipulated and controlling sources such as rewards to internalized values that are socially acquired (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Supporting Autonomy for Students

Of particular benefit for teachers, SDT considers both positive and negative aspects of environments or social contexts, providing us with lists of "dos" and "don'ts" (i.e., teacher behaviors that have been theorized and observed to enhance or diminish a student's sense of autonomy). Autonomy-supportive instructional practices include asking students what they want, spending time listening to students as opposed to talking, and providing students with rationale for courses of action. In contrast, some prominent controlling (autonomy-thwarting) instructional practices include frequently using spoken directives or commands, giving solutions or answers rather than letting students come to them on their own, criticizing students, or using praise as a contingent reward to reinforce ability, correct answers, or compliance (Reeve & Jang, 2006). Verbal "praise" in the form of specific instructional feedback about progress or mastery, however, is less controlling. Offering hints when students are stuck, instead of giving answers, and responding to student questions can also support autonomy.

Inevitably, however, teachers must adequately manage their classrooms, so where do they draw the line between behavioral control and control that stifles the autonomy of students? A clear distinction exists between directly controlling teacher behaviors (DCTB) and behavioral control (Assor, Kaplan, Kanat-Maymon, & Roth, 2005; Nie & Lau, 2009). DCTB are "explicit attempts to fully and instantly change the behaviors children presently engage in or the opinions they hold" (Assor et al., 2005, p. 398); these are the "don'ts" that are associated with negative emotions, like anger and anxiety, in students.

Directly Controlling Teacher Behaviors (DCTB or "Don'ts")

- Frequently using directives.
- Preventing students from working at the pace they prefer.
- Prohibiting students from expressing opinions that differ from the expressed opinions of the teacher.
- Criticizing students.
- Providing feedback/praise on ability, correct answers, or compliance.

Behavioral control, in contrast to DCTB, can be narrowly defined as attempts to change or correct misbehavior and sustain desirable behavior. As discussed above, teachers often establish a social structure early in the school year, based on clear rules and expectations; in this case, the environment as a whole, rather than teacher behavior alone, may be said to provide control for students that does not inherently reduce autonomy or, by extension, intrinsic motivation (Nie & Lau, 2009). SDT posits that students internalize social values, and that holding such values represents a type of motivation most closely associated with intrinsic motivation. Thus teachers' attempts to foster classroom community should involve consideration of what values students can glean from the environment. Modifications of autonomy practices also need to be considered by teachers working with at-risk learners. Friend and Bursuck's (2009) book has many strategies for promoting the autonomy of students with special needs across many subject areas and levels of inclusion. Some other suggestions we have found helpful for promoting at-risk learners' autonomy are provided in the box on the right.

Promoting Autonomy for the At-Risk Learner ("Dos")

- Pair the student with a more able peer for cooperative learning activities.
- Practice routines thoroughly and regularly.
- For those who need it, provide high-interest, low-level reading materials.
- Provide recorded directions for students to use as needed.
- Teach students to use graphic organizers.
- Differentiate assignments by using open-ended projects.
- Use a student contract or behavior checklist (see Burke, 2000, Ch. 4, for examples).

Supporting Competence for Students

Motivating students can entail expressing high expectations to students while also drawing upon students' need for competence, as a grade 4 teacher explains:

> "I think motivation is explaining to the kids the feeling they'll have when they see how well they did, whether it's a daily assignment, [a] weekly test, or the state assessment. I let them know how awesome it is to have that feeling of success."

Learners' beliefs about their competence are conceptually very similar to their self-efficacy beliefs. Whereas *competence* refers to students' beliefs that behaviors have been successfully enacted, *self-efficacy* beliefs are larger in scope and future-focused (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 2005, 2008); however, these concepts are often treated as roughly equivalent (e.g., Ryan & Deci, 2000). A student might have higher self-efficacy for math than writing, or for accomplishing learning goals at school than at home. Self-efficacy beliefs have been widely studied along with motivation and self-regulation (Schunk, 2005, 2008). For example, in the literature on goal orientation, self-efficacy is associated with the pursuit of learning or mastery goals (Schunk, 2008). Students' "self-efficacy is substantiated as they work on the task and assess their progress (Wentzel, 1992). Perceived progress in skill-acquisition and self-efficacy for continued learning sustain motivation and enhance skillful performance (Schunk, 1996)" (Schunk, 2008, pp. 487–488; see Schunk's book for the references cited).

Self-efficacy beliefs come into play during the planning and forethought stages of self-regulation. Learners' self-efficacy beliefs are also informed by teacher feedback during engagement in a learning task. Hattie and Timperley (2007) have noted that the most effective teacher feedback provides students with meaningful information about how they are performing on a task and how they can perform more effectively. Effective feedback can apply to information related to (1) the attainment of learning goals, (2) students' progress toward completing goals, and (3) greater possibilities for learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Hattie and Timperley have recommended focusing feedback on tasks or the processes of applying skills and strategies, instead of focusing it on learners. Shute (2008) has also recommended focusing feedback on tasks and suggested using feedback to provide a learning goal orientation. Feedback should be clear and specific, and should not be confused with general praise (e.g., "Good work!"). Deci and colleagues (1999b) have observed that positive feedback can enhance intrinsic motivation to learn.

Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2003) reinforced the relationship among competence, self-efficacy, and feedback. They have summarized the importance of maintaining high expectations, and of making students aware that competence is changeable and within a student's control, not fixed (see the box on the right).

Linnenbrink and Pintrich's (2003) Recommendations for Supporting Positive Motivational Outcomes

1. "Help students maintain relatively high but accurate self-efficacy beliefs" (p. 134) by providing specific feedback to the students about the task and their skills.
2. Give students a chance to be successful on tasks that are slightly above their level by providing "students with challenging academic tasks that most students can reach with effort" (p. 135).
3. "Foster the belief that competence or ability is a changeable, controllable aspect of development" by communicating "positive, high expectations for all students" (p. 135).
4. "Promote students' domain specific self-efficacy beliefs rather than global self-esteem" (p. 135) by providing accurate feedback about performance in the academic domain.

CLASSROOM EXAMPLE: USING DATA NOTEBOOKS WITH A READING INTERVENTION GROUP

Originally used for formative assessment in the field of science, data notebooks for student documentation of progress can be very helpful for motivating students (see Valencia and Hebard, Chapter 5, this volume, for more about ongoing assessments). Nelson (2010) has used science notebooks to help keep her students, who are ELLs, motivated during learning; she commented that "they provide a formative assessment of both writing skills in English and content mastery. We can easily analyze how a student has grasped the language and the lesson topic" (p. 51). Ms. Wood has taken the idea of notebooks a step further by modifying the use of notebooks to support student autonomy during remedial small-group instruction for students receiving ESE in her grade 2 classroom. She recognizes that her students must relate their practice work to their own competence by looking at previous pages and identifying their improvement. She supports students in their efforts by frequently reviewing previous learning and helping her students to make reflective goal statements.

Highlights!

- Data-keeping notebooks for reading
- Self-evaluation
- Reflective thinking
- Relating effort to competence
- Self-identification of strengths and weaknesses
- Specific task-focused feedback from teacher

Ms. Wood's reading intervention group includes five grade 2 students who are working below grade level. As the students gather at the small table at the back of the room, Ms. Wood begins with a review of procedures, distribution of the materials (textbooks, pencils, and data-keeping notebooks for reading), and a greeting. Ms. Wood told us, "The greeting and a minute to share are the most important part of having my students engaged and ready to begin." Students are on task as Ms. Wood greets each student individually and allows the students to share two sentences about what they are thinking about today and how they are feeling. This time of sharing creates a calm and trusting environment where students are ready to learn.

After the sharing, Ms. Wood reviews previous learning by turning to the previous page and eliciting from her students a restatement of the previous lesson, where students made a prediction, recorded new words, wrote clarification questions, and evaluated their previous work. This is the second time that students have read this story, and Ms. Wood focuses the group on the objective question for the day: "What jobs do meerkats have?" (Kovalevs & Dewsbury, 2006, p. 32). Students have the opportunity to review the main idea of the story, write the main idea, and create a "circle map" (Hyerle & Yeager, 2007, p. 7) of the jobs of meerkats, based on the story. After creating their individual graphic organizers, students take turns sharing these jobs as other students give each peer a thumbs-up in agreement, and Ms. Wood adds the job to the group map, which she creates on a dry-erase board. Following the creation of the group circle map, students make reflective comments concerning their own products. One student writes, "I had almost all of the jobs listed, but my writing is hard to read." With this statement, Ms. Wood quietly discusses what he did well and what he could do differently at the next meeting. After putting their notebooks away, students have the opportunity to choose to view a short video about meerkats or to search for additional information on the Internet about meerkats; both of these are learning activities that also act as rewards for students.

Students in Ms. Wood's intervention group stay motivated to learn because of their ability to reflect on their learning and make choices during their day. Her interaction with her small group of students keeps them on task throughout the lesson, and the use of notebooks and reflective thinking helps students to relate their effort to their progress. The relationship that she has built with her students creates an environment where students trust and respect her and each other; because of this ideal learning environment, she is able to motivate low-performing students by providing a safe place to learn, structured, well-planned lessons, and feedback in response to students' reflection on their own notebook entries.

Promoting Engagement through Instructional Practices

In this section, we focus on a few research-based instructional practices for increasing student engagement, including teacher modeling, cooperative learning, and making

interdisciplinary connections. But what is student *engagement*? Engagement is a concept closely tied to motivation. Three types of engagement include positive *behaviors*, *cognitions*, and *motivations* that research shows are associated with better student learning and achievement (for a more detailed discussion of this framework, see Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). *Behavioral engagement* includes the observable student behaviors of expending effort and avoiding distractions, persisting in tasks even when faced with difficulties, and seeking help from others in order to better learn or understand. *Cognitive engagement* is harder to observe, but is important to consider. A student might appear to be on task, but he or she might not be using appropriate cognitive and metacognitive strategies to understand what is read and to self-assess comprehension. Having students talk about what they are thinking while reading, just as teachers can model what they are thinking during strategy use as a form of instruction, is a good way to try to determine whether and how students are cognitively engaged.

We have found indicators of the third type, *motivational engagement*, to be more evident or naturally elicited, as it seems easier for students to express their interests, values, and affect in their language and emotional cues. Emotions and personal interests (see Ainley, 2006) are associated with the use of learning strategies, self-regulation, achievement, and motivation (Pekrun, Goetz, & Titz, 2002). When students are not personally interested in a subject or activity, they may choose to engage behaviorally (and may be more likely to engage cognitively) if they are persuaded that the subject/activity is important or can help them achieve a goal. Teachers should attend to all three types of engagement because it is possible, for example, to appear behaviorally engaged and yet not to be cognitively or motivationally engaged (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003).

CLASSROOM EXAMPLE: AN ENGAGING READING/LANGUAGE ARTS LESSON

The following engaging lesson was recently observed in a colleague's upper elementary classroom, in which indicators of students' behavioral and motivational engagement were seen throughout. In Ms. Long's class, the students' faces were lit up and smiling, with enjoyment further expressed in laughter. The students also displayed eagerness to participate in their body language (e.g., leaning forward on their desks). Not one complaint was heard, and the students even requested favorite activities during this 50-minute writing block in a departmentalized fourth grade at a high-poverty, high-minority elementary school.

On the observation day, Ms. Long began the lesson with review and practice of previously learned skills followed by a process writing mini-lesson, modeling of the writing for the day, and student guided practice. Ms. Long kept student materials systematically organized in folders for efficiency and effective transitions. Students first participated in a poetry warm-up, reading in unison, prior to the assignment of stanzas to each cooperative team. After the students had finished the poetry reading, Ms. Long instructed the students to turn in their folders to the synonym page for the word *big*.

Highlights!

- Clear expectations
- Well-organized materials
- Cooperative groups
- Frequent interaction with students
- Use of voice to create interest
- Active learning
- Teacher modeling

On the page, students had 15 synonyms for the word *big*. During the synonym review, the students repeated after the teacher in a matching voice level and inflection: "Huge! Huge! Large! Large! [shouting] Gigantic! Gigantic! Vast! Vast! [whispering]." The students' engagement never faltered as the lesson moved on to additional guided practice. Ms. Long assigned each student one of the synonyms to say in turn. After this, students and teacher stood on chairs to shout some of the words. Next, students had 2 minutes to review synonyms for *big* (silently or through self-talk) while Ms. Long distributed ruled notecards to the students for a formative assessment. She instructed them to write their names and numbers from 1 to 15 on the cards. The students then had 2 minutes to write the 15 synonyms for *big*. The students had successfully learned these many synonyms! (See more on vocabulary instruction in Kucan, Chapter 11, this volume.)

Ms. Long next reviewed the writing process with the students. They reviewed the introduction, the events and details, and the conclusion paragraph written previously on their planning sheets, which resembled a flow map. On previous days, students had identified their topic, events, and details; composed their introductory paragraphs and conclusion paragraphs; and written their first detail paragraph. On this day, Ms. Long used a think-aloud strategy as she modeled writing her second detail paragraph while speaking aloud her thoughts about her writing. Then it was time for students to write their second detail paragraph as Ms. Long circulated and interacted with her students, giving them feedback during their quiet writing time. Students continued to be on task with the clear purpose of writing the second paragraph in their essay. (For more on written expression, see Troia, Chapter 12, this volume.)

Clearly, Ms. Long motivated her students by modeling enthusiasm as well as thought processes, while incorporating unique engagement strategies and active learning into her lesson. Below, we elaborate on the technique of teacher modeling and introduce other practices demonstrated to enhance students' engagement and learning, including those involving cooperative learning and making interdisciplinary connections.

Teacher Modeling

Teacher modeling of desired behavior and thought processes, as in think-alouds, is a powerful practice for influencing student learning. In fact, modeling and think-alouds undergird much of research-based reading comprehension instruction (Duke & Pearson, 2002; for more on reading comprehension strategies, see Stahl, Chapter 9, this volume).

Although reading researchers continue to debate the effectiveness of using sustained silent reading (SSR) and the appropriate level of teacher involvement in this process, there is growing evidence to support the idea that time spent reading has a positive impact on students' reading achievement (Garan & DeVoogd, 2008). Besides setting aside 15 or more minutes for reading during each day, how can teachers increase students' engagement in SSR? Teacher modeling has been demonstrated to increase students' on-task reading time (Methe & Hintze, 2003). Students in a grade 3 class were observed to spend a greater proportion of the allotted time reading when the teacher modeled. First, she explained how she was going to begin reading her book where she left off. Then, while the students read for SSR, she sat in front of the class reading

silently to herself. Students were less likely to be on task with reading during SSR when there was no modeling (i.e., when the teacher spent the time quietly filing or grading).

Teachers can consciously choose to model particular behaviors and attitudes for their students, but in our experience students are sharp and can pick up on nonauthentic behaviors. If you don't really read or actually enjoy reading, your students might sense this. Furthermore, research and theory suggest that people's attitudes and beliefs have an impact on their behaviors (for a brief review, see McKool & Gespass, 2009). Thus we think it is important for teachers actually to value reading for pleasure and to do it daily. McKool and Gespass found that teachers in grades 4–6, who valued reading and read for pleasure in their own lives (at least 30–45 minutes per day when not at school), were more likely to use a number of effective practices related to motivating reading instruction in their classrooms. They were more likely to talk about what they themselves were learning from their own reading, to provide time for students to talk about what they were reading, to allow students to pick their own texts at an independent reading level for SSR, and to do guided reading lessons and use literature circles. (For more on fostering high-level talk and discussions, see Garas-York, Shanahan, & Almasi, Chapter 10, this volume). Those teachers, who read at least 45 minutes a day, also did not rely on extrinsic rewards to try to motivate reading; such rewards can be counterproductive, especially for students already motivated to read. Instead, they reported using intrinsic motivators such as giving choices in what to read and discussing what students were reading.

The best advice we have from our own experience to help support the positive reading practices and attitudes of teachers has also been suggested by McKool and Gespass (2009), who recommended the following: "As a community of learners, teachers in a school should be encouraged to meet regularly and discuss books they have read, both in professional study groups and in 'Oprah-like' book clubs" (p. 273).

Cooperative Learning

The idea of cooperative or collaborative learning is closely related to the effective practices described previously in this chapter. A well-established classroom community and clear expectations support students' cooperative engagement and can fulfill students' needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence, which then function to motivate learning further. Adding cooperative learning strategies to activities like SSR can make them more powerful. We highly recommend giving students active tasks to do while reading independently (such as identifying the main idea or the characters by using sticky notes), and then following SSR with time for cooperative activities. Pairs or small groups of students can listen to each other read, question each other about what they read, and otherwise practice skills and strategies being covered. In our experience, this can help students stay engaged—in reading during SSR time, while listening to each other read, and in reading discussions with their peers. The Daily Five model (Boushey & Moser, 2006) provides helpful structures for organizing independent reading time and peer reading activities. One of the things we like about the Daily Five model (and what distinguishes it from other models for managing the reading block) is that it focuses on teaching students independence and showing them how to monitor their goals.

Another structure that takes advantage of the benefits of cooperative learning in reading is the research-tested approach called *reciprocal teaching* (RT; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Rosenshine & Meister, 1994), which emphasizes teachers' scaffolding and gradual release of students' application of reading comprehension strategies (usually in small groups). It focuses on strategies for summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting applied during discussions of texts. (For much more on RT and the group processes related to cooperative learning in general, see Webb & Palincsar, 1996.) There is strong evidence of its efficacy in grades 4 and beyond. Much less research has been conducted on the effects of RT on students in ESE or students who are ELLs (for some positive evidence, see Gerston, Fuchs, Williams, & Baker, 2001; Klingner & Vaughn, 1996). More recently, RT has been successfully adapted and enhanced for use with students in ESE and students who are ELLs; this newer approach to improving reading comprehension of expository texts is called *collaborative strategic reading* (Klingner, Vaughn, Arguelles, Hughes, & Ahwee, 2004). (See Stahl, Chapter 9, for more about RT and collaborative strategic reading. See Peterson, Chapter 4, and Duke & Watanabe, Chapter 13, for more on differentiated teaching and literacy in multiple genre.)

Other popular resources for cooperative learning that can be applied to most content areas include those originally developed by Johnson and Johnson (see Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1994), as well as methods called *Kagan structures* (see Kagan & Kagan, 2009). Eight general cooperative learning methods—tested in studies conducted in grades K–12 and beyond—were evaluated by Johnson, Johnson, and Stanne (2000), who found that all these methods had a significant impact on student achievement, but that some were more powerful than others. Those with larger positive effects are listed first in the box below.

Cooperative Learning Methods and Their Researchers-Developers

- Learning Together (Johnson & Johnson)
- Constructive (or Academic) Controversy (Johnson & Johnson)
- Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STADs; Slavin & Associates)
- Teams–Games–Tournaments (TGT; DeVries & Edwards)
- Group Investigation (Sharan & Sharan)
- Jigsaw (Aronson & Associates)
- Team Assisted Individualization (TAI; Slavin & Associates)
- Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC; Stevens, Slavin, & Associates)

In schools that focus on providing the best opportunities for student learning, cooperative learning is often used to enhance student engagement and retention of learning. Cooperative learning with modifications is also recommended for gifted ELL and general education ELL students, students in ESE, and students working below grade level. The emphasis in these groups must be on heterogeneously grouping the more proficient English native speakers with ELLs and the more academically proficient students with those who are at a greater risk for failure. Reducing cooperative group size and varying formal and informal groups is also helpful for these at-risk students. (For more on this topic, see Taylor, Chapter 3, this volume). When cooperative learning strategies are used in classrooms focused on student learning, minority students have been found to be "able to close the performance gap with their non-minority peers" (Salinas & Garr, 2009, p. 235). Cooperative learning groups and collaborative activities are also integrated in the research-based

Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI) program (Wigfield, Guthrie, Tonks, & Perencevich, 2004), which links reading and science and has been found to increase reading comprehension, intrinsic motivation to read, and reading self-efficacy. (For more on integration of literacy and science, see Cervetti, Chapter 14, and our *Interdisciplinary Connections* section below.)

CLASSROOM EXAMPLE: KAGAN STRUCTURES

Although no peer-reviewed research exists on Kagan structures (see the *Looking Forward* section for more on what educators need to know about research), the practices are well aligned with theory, and we have found using them to be helpful in implementing cooperative learning. This classroom example depicts the use of one of the Kagan structures, Numbered Heads Together, in which students begin by sitting in numbered seats in a small group, then get up to confer with one another about the problem, and end with the teacher randomly drawing a number to select a student to share.

Ms. Adams uses cooperative learning activities with all of her grade 5 reading classes. She begins the day with a quick review of story structure elements. Following the review, students correct a previous assignment (which is a flow map of a novel they have been reading) by using Numbered Heads Together to check elements (Kagan & Kagan, 2009). Using cooperative learning strategies such as this, Ms. Adams is able to ensure that all students are participating actively rather than passively because every student is required to participate (as opposed to individuals taking turns). After the story structure elements are reviewed by using Numbered Heads Together, the lesson continues with frequent use of cooperative learning strategies to promote continued engagement and learning.

Numbered Heads Together

1. Teacher poses a problem.
2. Think time.
3. Heads together, bottoms up (students get up to confer).
4. All sit when consensus is reached on answer.
5. Teacher calls on a spokesperson to answer for the group.

Interdisciplinary Connections

The idea of connecting or integrating literacy instruction in content-area instruction is an intuitively attractive mechanism for increasing student engagement in reading. It is more efficient than teaching each domain separately, and it provides a purpose and context for reading and writing, particularly for expository texts. In addition, reframing curriculum as inquiry can support literacy motivation and learning from elementary to high school (Pearson, Moje, & Greenleaf, 2010; Wilhelm & Wilhelm, 2010).

One of the best-researched interdisciplinary curricula is CORI (e.g., Wigfield et al., 2008):

> In CORI, teachers implement the following practices over a 12-week period in language arts blocks of 90–120 minutes per day: (a) using concept goals in a conceptual theme for reading instruction, (b) affording choices and control to students, (c) providing hands-on activities related to the content goals, (d) using interesting texts of diverse genre for instruction, and (e) organizing collaboration for learning from all texts. (Guthrie et al., 2004, pp. 11–12)

Each week, teachers incorporate reading strategy instruction, science inquiry activities, motivational support, and reading–science integration. Evidence from experimental studies supports the claims that CORI increases students' reading engagement, motivation, and comprehension (Guthrie et al., 2004; Wigfield et al., 2008). It is probably such a powerful instructional intervention because it incorporates so many of the key elements for motivating classroom instruction that we have reviewed in this chapter. CORI was primarily developed for and evaluated in upper elementary grades, and it has now been adapted for middle school. (For more about CORI, see Cervetti, Chapter 14.)

There is a huge need to engage middle school students in literacy, as the motivation of students has been found to decline dramatically over these years (Eccles & Midgley, 1989; Unrau & Schlackman, 2006). This may not be due to developmental or biological changes, but rather to the school context and goal structures, which shift from mastery to performance (Haselhuhn, Al-Mabuk, Gabriele, Groen, & Galloway, 2007). As educators, we should be heartened by our potential to control and change the demotivating conditions that tend to persist in middle schools! Consider the differences between elementary and middle school contexts. Middle schools tend to have more whole-class instruction, more public evaluation, and more emphasis on teacher control (and fewer opportunities for student choice), as well as less time for teachers to get to know and build positive, personal relationships with the many students they see each day (Eccles, Wigfield, Midgley, Reuman, & Feldaufer, 1993; Guthrie & Davis, 2003). Guthrie and Davis (2003) suggested six practices teachers can use to support engaged reading for middle school students that align with those in CORI and those we have described throughout this chapter:

> (1) construct rich knowledge goals as the basis of reading instruction, (2) use real-world interactions to connect reading to student experiences, (3) afford students an abundance of interesting books and materials, (4) provide some choice among material to read, (5) give direct instruction for important reading strategies, and (6) encourage collaboration in many aspects of learning. (p. 59)

SUMMARY OF BIG IDEAS FROM RESEARCH

Creating a Motivating Classroom Atmosphere

Motivating teachers create a positive classroom atmosphere by building relationships with students, managing their behavior, and focusing on student goals:

- Effective teachers build relationships within the greater context of developing caring classroom communities in a culturally sensitive manner. The relationships are naturally two-way; that is, the teachers share things about themselves and get to know their students as individuals, including their unique cultural backgrounds. (For example, see Bondy et al., 2007.)
- Motivating teachers understand that managing student behavior is intimately related to building relationships with students. Just as teachers should put effort into getting to know students immediately, they should also establish expectations, rules, and behavioral procedures during the first few hours of the first day of school. (For example, see Bondy et al., 2007.)
- Teachers can simultaneously support multidimensional student growth, including in emotional, academic, and social domains. The research-based RC model includes practices (e.g., the MM) designed to target these different kinds of growth. (For example, see McTigue & Rimm-Kaufman, 2011.)
- Motivating teachers engage students by guiding them in setting personal academic and behavioral goals. (For example, see Szente, 2007.)
- Goal setting can increase self-efficacy (i.e., students' beliefs that they will be successful in their future endeavors) for students of different cognitive levels in both elementary and middle school. (For example, see Williams-Diehm et al., 2010.)

Developing Independent Learners

Interdependent with developing a positive classroom atmosphere, motivating teachers develop independent learners by providing support for students' autonomy and competence:

- Independent learners are able to self-regulate, or direct their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors toward the accomplishment of goals that can be self-chosen and monitored or supported by the teacher via scaffolding. (For example, see Boekaerts, 1999.)
- Motivating teachers understand that students have the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. These needs have been extensively researched and contribute to the body of evidence for SDT, which posits a relationship between learning environments and intrinsic and extrinsic learner motivation.
- Learners' needs for relatedness can be satisfied by using the practices that contribute to a positive classroom atmosphere as described above. (For example, see Niemiec & Ryan, 2009.)
- Teachers can support student competence or self-efficacy through the use of task-focused feedback. Teachers should also set and maintain high expectations for students, as well as communicate to them that competence is changeable (i.e., within their control) rather than fixed. (For examples, see Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Shute, 2008.)
- Teachers can support student autonomy by distinguishing between behavioral control of students and DCTB. Behavioral control draws upon the positive environment that teachers create to prevent misbehavior and encourage positive behavior through social expectations rather than external coercion. (For examples, see Assor et al., 2005; Nie & Lau, 2009.)

Promoting Engagement through Instructional Practices

Motivating teachers foster student engagement through the use of modeling, as well as cooperative and interdisciplinary learning opportunities:

- Effective teachers model behaviors and thought processes for students. Teachers should model authentic behaviors and attitudes, such as daily reading for pleasure. Teachers can use think-alouds to model reading procedures and positive learning experiences that have resulted from their own reading. (For example, see McKool & Gepass, 2009.)
- Teachers can structure cooperative activities into the reading block after independent or SSR reading sessions. For example, students can take turns listening to one another read and engage in discussions about the reading. The Daily Five model focuses on fostering student independence and goal monitoring with lesson structures for both independent and peer reading activities. (For example, see Boushey & Moser, 2006.)
- RT, which involves scaffolding and the gradual release of reading strategies by teachers, is another form of cooperative learning that can be implemented. Comprehension strategies include summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting during discussions of texts. (For examples, see Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Rosenshine & Meister, 1994.)
- Teachers can integrate literacy instruction within content-area instruction. CORI, an interdisciplinary curriculum organized around conceptual themes, has been extensively researched. CORI has been found to increase students' reading comprehension, engagement, and motivation. (For examples, see Guthrie et al., 2004; Wigfield et al., 2008.)

LOOKING FORWARD

In this chapter, we have cited many research-based practices that represent the best of what we have seen exemplary teachers do, and we have tried to provide some background about how and why these practices are effective for motivating students' literacy learning. In some cases, as with the CORI program (Wigfield et al., 2004), the program itself has been experimentally tested (i.e., research-tested). In other cases, as with the Kagan cooperative learning structures (Kagan & Kagan, 2009), the techniques themselves as packaged in the Kagan materials have not been experimentally tested; however, the development of the techniques was informed by a large body of empirical research on cooperative learning (e.g., Johnson et al., 2000). In the *Research-Based Resources* table at the end of the chapter, we refer to programs or techniques such as Kagan structures as *research-informed*. Many of the strategies identified in Marzano's widely implemented professional development materials (e.g., Marzano, 2007) also appear to be informed by research. In both cases, nonetheless, no peer-reviewed studies evaluating the effectiveness of the Marzano or Kagan programs have been published in research journals. This means that well-controlled studies of these research-informed programs are needed to determine whether they also can be characterized as research-tested.

Why does the seemingly subtle distinction between *research-informed* and *research-tested* matter when we are talking about research-based strategies or programs? Some individual strategies have been research-tested in multiple settings and with different populations, which increases our confidence in the conclusion that they have a positive impact on teacher and/or student outcomes; however, the methods/programs by which teachers in the general population then learn to use them may not be so effective. A school district may have bought into a professional development program's package, but the effectiveness of the methods used in teacher training may not have been tested experimentally. Thus it is entirely possible that money is being wasted that could be better spent on a research-tested professional development program. Furthermore, although each strategy implemented independently may have positive effects, the effects of implementing multiple strategies in combination, as packaged in professional development materials, are for the most part unknown. It is possible there could be unanticipated negative or counteracting effects. One clear exception to this is RT, which is a set of reading comprehension instruction strategies (informed by reading research and clearly aligned with motivation research) that has also been extensively research-tested as a package (for a review, see Rosenshine & Meister, 1994). Professional development related to this package, however, has not been tested on a large scale.

The problem is that there are few if any research-tested professional development programs focused specifically on student motivation. One exception is the work of Anderman, Maehr, and Midgley (1999), who worked with schools and teachers to emphasize mastery goal development in several school reform projects (for a brief review of this and related studies, as well as applications of achievement goal orientation theory, see Meece, Anderman, & Anderman, 2006). Anderman et al. and their research team worked closely with numerous instructors and leaders at only a couple of schools; thus we should use caution in extrapolating their findings to other schools. We cannot presume to know what the results would be if efforts like theirs were tested on a larger scale, with many more schools and under much less guidance from the researchers. Clearly, more scale-up research is needed in this area. By contrast, scale-up research demonstrating positive findings for CORI, which incorporates motivational elements with reading and science instruction, has been done (see Brown, McDonald, & Schneider, 2006, for a review of scale-up research projects). We only suggest that more research on CORI be conducted by researchers other than those who developed it.

One of the primary issues associated with scaling up strategies and programs that have evidence to suggest their efficacy in smaller, well-controlled studies is how to facilitate effective professional development—professional development that can be implemented in schools to help teachers learn how to implement the strategies/programs, to motivate teachers to implement them, and to sustain reform efforts. Coaching of teachers is a popular method of professional development, and some promising research findings are beginning to suggest that it may be effective in supporting teachers' learning (see the December 2010 issue of *Elementary School Journal*, which is devoted to studies of coaching). Another up-and-coming approach to professional development is the *professional learning community* (PLC; for more on PLCs, see Peterson, Chapter 21, this volume). Although PLCs are popular, little research has been conducted to test their effects on school personnel learning and student outcomes. We would like to echo the caution of Bausmith and Barry (2011) that while PLCs seem promising, more research

on them is needed, and more of what we know about what expert teachers do should be incorporated into PLC efforts. Furthermore, we hope that our descriptions in this chapter of what effective/expert teachers do to motivate students in the context of literacy content can stimulate PLCs using this book to focus on pedagogical content knowledge (Bausmith & Barry, 2011).

QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION

Motivating Classroom Atmosphere

1. What types of activities do I use to build strong relationships with my students on the first day of school? What activities do I use to establish peer relationships?
2. How can I integrate some of Marzano's (2007) eight action steps for building relationships into a current lesson?
3. What is my description of an ideal, positive teacher–student relationship? What goals can I set for myself to create such relationships with all students?
4. When and how do I establish rules and expectations for positive behavior in my classroom? For each rule or expectation, what justification do I provide for students?
5. To what extent do I balance students' academic, emotional, and social growth? As a teacher, what challenges have I have faced in my attempts to balance these three areas of development? What actions might I take to improve the area(s) that may be weaker than the others?
6. Based on my prior knowledge and experience, what kinds of academic or behavioral objectives do I anticipate may be most appropriate for a goal contract or action plan? How do I plan on scaffolding these goal-setting behaviors for my students? What sort of feedback will I provide for students as they become more competent at setting their own goals?
7. How do I create mastery goal orientation in my classroom? What challenges have I faced in the past, or do I anticipate facing, related to balancing performance and mastery goals?

Developing Independent Learners

1. How do I model self-regulation processes, including planning, monitoring, and evaluating goal progress, for my students? What examples can I provide from my own experiences as a teacher and a learner to help them understand the goal-setting process?
2. What strategies will I use to help students avoid developing the belief/attitude that the goal-setting process requires too much extra time or energy?
3. How do/can I intrinsically motivate my students? What challenges have I experienced with balancing extrinsic and intrinsic motivation during and beyond instruction?
4. How do I distinguish between DCTB and behavioral control in my practice? What are some examples of each, and how can I change practices that are directly controlling in order to better support student autonomy?
5. What practices will I use to support students' perception that they engage in learning tasks of their own choice or volition? What challenges to supporting student autonomy do I anticipate?

Promoting Engagement through Instructional Practices

1. How do/can I assess behavioral and cognitive engagement in my students? How can I restructure my classroom and lessons in order to support engaged reading?
2. Which reading practices and thought processes do I model for my students? Of those, which have my students struggled with in the past (or which do I anticipate my future students to find difficult), and how will I change my practice to meet similar needs?
3. How will I integrate my personal values related to literacy (e.g., reading for pleasure) into my teaching practice?
4. Why is it important for teachers to use cooperative learning methods in the classroom? How can I incorporate cooperative learning methods into a current lesson?
5. How do/can I integrate reading into other subjects, such as science or social studies, in order to help students build self-efficacy and motivation for reading?
6. In what ways does using a program like CORI to integrate subjects help students with their reading skills? How do elements of CORI relate to other aspects of motivating literacy practices discussed in this chapter?

SUGGESTIONS FOR ONGOING PROFESSIONAL LEARNING • • • • • •

If you have picked up this book, then you are likely to be the kind of motivated, reflective practitioner (or prepractitioner) we hope works (or will work) with elementary and middle school students. Although in the past teachers could realistically work independently with their classroom doors closed, the increasing accountability in schools has made this less possible. The nature of educators' work in schools is inherently social; the expectations of colleagues (in grade-level teams) and administrators, as well as of students and parents, must be considered and balanced in the context of the demands of state standards. It is not surprising that teachers, who put their all into what they do, risk burning out and losing their motivation. Recent research provides evidence to support that principals' leadership style is an important predictor of their teachers' motivation (Eyal & Roth, 2011): Principals who supported the autonomy of their teachers (just as we have talked about effective teachers supporting the autonomy of their students in this chapter) were likely to have more motivated and satisfied teachers.

Perhaps you can inspire the other faculty and administrators in your school to do some cooperative learning with you. Read and study this book together, connecting what you read to reflections on practices you have used, new practices you are trying, and observations of one another's teaching. Consider the impact of changes on students' engagement and learning outcomes by collecting and analyzing data. You might do this in the context of a promising mechanism for professional development mentioned earlier: the PLC. The school-level PLC typically includes teachers, support staff, and administrators; some PLCs include faculty from local colleges and universities as well. The following are sessions for use with your PLC to aid you in implementing the practices presented in this chapter. We recommend that you keep a log of your thoughts and experiences during this process.

Creating a Motivating Classroom Atmosphere

Session 1: Where to Begin

- With your PLC, review the *Creating a Motivating Classroom Atmosphere* section in this chapter (we recommend PLC members read the entire chapter beforehand and review relevant portions during sessions). Individually answer these questions:
  - What do you do to motivate all learners?
  - Do students see your classroom as a fair and safe learning environment?
- After answering these questions individually, share your answers with a partner. Discuss changes that you might make based on this chapter to improve the atmosphere in your classroom. Keep a log of the changes that you implement as you strive to improve the atmosphere in your classroom. (For more specific questions to stimulate reflection and discussion within your PLC, you might try using or adapting some of the *Questions for Reflection* that we provide above for this session and those that follow it.)

Session 2: Building Relationships

- As you meet for this session, discuss the notes that you have kept. Share improvements and areas still in need of improvement. (We encourage you to continue to revisit areas of improvement that you set as personal or group goals across subsequent sessions.)
- Students' motivation to learn increases when the students feel safe in the classroom learning environment. It is important that teachers facilitate positive relationships within the classroom. Individually answer the following questions:
  - In what ways do you currently seek to build positive classroom relationships with and among your students?
  - What problems do you perceive currently in classroom relationships?
- With your group, discuss ideas from this chapter that you might use to improve relationships in your classroom. Keep a record of your experiences. (For this session and others, see related *Research-Based Resources* at the end of this chapter.)

Session 3: Managing Behavior

- With a partner, share your experiences as you implemented your ideas for building positive relationships in your classroom.
- Now think about classroom management. Classroom management is challenging for many teachers. Think about your own behavior management plan. Individually answer these questions:
  - What does your current classroom management plan look like?
  - What management issues currently interfere with learning in your classroom?
- Share your answers with a partner. Discuss techniques you might use to improve your behavior management system. Review the ideas in this chapter and keep a record of your experiences as you implement your ideas.

Session 4: Focusing on Goals

- As you meet with your PLC, share your experiences during the past week as you continue to improve your classroom atmosphere.
- As members of a PLC, you and your colleagues are aware of the goals that you have for your school, your instruction, and your students. It is also important for students to understand the purpose for their learning. One way of helping students to know the purpose for their learning is to use the practice of goal setting with students. As you prepare to implement the suggestions in this chapter, answer these questions individually:
  - What do you do currently to help your students with purposeful learning?
  - Do your students know why they are currently studying the topics that you present? How?
- Share your answers with a partner. Discuss the methods for goal setting described in this chapter, and choose an area for goal setting with your students. During the coming week, keep a record of your implementation and your students' responses.

Developing Independent Learners

Session 5: Supporting Autonomy for Students

- Review and discuss your notes related to focusing on goals in your classroom.
- Focusing on learning goals in your classroom increases the independence of your students. Students take responsibility for their learning and feel that they have increased control and autonomy. (Autonomy is one of the three basic needs of learners discussed in this chapter, along with relatedness and competence.) As you consider the autonomy of your students, answer the following questions independently:
  - What current procedures are your students responsible for?
  - How can you improve the autonomy of your students?
- As you review your answers with your group or partner, make a plan for increasing students' autonomy in the classroom. Keep notes about the approaches you use to improve students' autonomy.

Session 6: Supporting Competence for Students

- Take time to discuss your notes from the past week concerning student autonomy in the classroom.
- As you have read in this chapter, another of learners' basic needs in the classroom (in addition to autonomy and relatedness) is competence. Think about the following questions and record your answers:
  - What do you currently do to promote students' perceptions of competence?
  - How do you currently challenge all learners in your classroom?
  - In what areas do you feel that improvement is needed in meeting these needs for your students?
- Discuss your answers and ideas from this chapter that you will implement. Keep a record of your experience.

Promoting Engagement through Instructional Practices

Session 7: Teacher Modeling

- Review your notes about supporting students' competence from the past week, and discuss perceived strengths and weaknesses.
- Students are greatly influenced by their teachers. Teacher modeling of desired behaviors has a positive impact on student learning and attitudes in the classroom. Think about ways that you currently model behaviors for your students, and answer these questions independently:
  - In what ways do you currently think aloud while you are modeling a skill or strategy?
  - What are other areas of instruction in where you can use modeling and/or think-alouds?
- Discuss your answers with your partner. Make a plan to increase your use of modeling and think-alouds during the week. Keep a daily record of your experience and students' reactions.

Session 8: Cooperative Learning

- Discuss your experiences with using modeling and think-alouds during instruction. What worked? What didn't work? How did your students respond?
- Students have the need for autonomy, and one way to promote autonomy is to use cooperative learning strategies. Review the chapter's discussion of cooperative learning and then answer these questions individually:
  - What teaching strategies do you use to promote cooperative learning in your classroom?
  - How can you improve use of cooperative learning strategies during your instruction?
- Discuss your current use of cooperative learning strategies with the group, and then with a partner discuss plans for implementing cooperative learning strategies this week. Keep a record of your experience.

Session 9: Interdisciplinary Connections

- Review your experience with using cooperative learning strategies. What were the strengths and weaknesses you perceived while using these strategies?
- Discuss the content-area topics taught during your school day, and the relationships among them. Brainstorm ways to incorporate reading strategies into other content areas. Answer these questions individually:
  - What are some of the reading strategies you are currently teaching?
  - How can you incorporate these strategies into your content-area instruction this week?
- Discuss your answers with a partner. Record your experiences as you incorporate your reading strategies into your content-area instruction. As you continue to promote motivating classroom practices in your classroom, continue referring to *Research-Based Resources* (see below).

RESEARCH-BASED RESOURCES

Topic	Citation	Empirical study	Empirical review	Research-informed	Research-tested
Creating a Motivating Classroom Atmosphere					
Where to Begin	Dolezal et al. (2003)	×			
Building Relationships	Marzano (2007)			×	
Managing Behavior	Denton & Kriete (2000)				×
	McTigue & Rimm-Kaufman (2011)		×		
	Kriete with Bechtel (2002)				×
Developing Independent Learners					
Focusing on Goals	Szente (2007)		×		
	Niemiec & Ryan (2009)		×		
Supporting Autonomy for Students	Burke (2000, Ch. 4)			×	
Supporting Competence for Students	Linnenbrink & Pintrich (2003)		×		
	Hyerle & Yeager (2007)				×
Promoting Engagement through Instructional Practices					
Teacher Modeling	McKool & Gespass (2009)	×			
Cooperative Learning	Kagan & Kagan (2009)			×	
	Johnson et al. (2000)				×
	Wigfield et al. (2004)	×			
Interdisciplinary Connections	Guthrie & Davis (2003)		×		

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