

# Through the Child's Eyes

Sam Redding  
Academic Development Institute  
2013

For the Principal Leadership Academy  
Bureau of Indian Education

*The most important observation you can make is when you become a glimmer in the child's eyes and he becomes a glimmer in yours.*  
-- Albert Trieschman, quoted in Brendtro, Brokenleg, and Van Bockern (2002)

## Table of Contents

Introduction .....	3
Native American Children and Schools.....	5
The Power of Mindset and Aspiration .....	5
The Impact of the Teacher.....	7
Motivation, Metacognition, and Aspirations.....	8
Personalized Learning .....	10
Personalized Learning Framework and Lesson Plan.....	11
Framework.....	11
Structure of the Lesson Plan .....	11
A. Defining and Aligning the Lesson.....	11
B. Multiple Instructional Modes .....	11
C. Determining Mastery and Recording in Student Portfolio .....	13
D. Engaging the Family .....	13
References .....	14
Appendix: The Contextual Culture and the School Culture .....	16
Culture and Language Indicators .....	16
Social and Emotional Learning.....	17

## Introduction

So far in the Principal Leadership Academy, our attention has been directed largely to leaders, teachers, parents, and community members, but mostly to leaders and teachers. That is fitting because these are the people within our most immediate sphere of influence, and the ones who create the culture of the school and engage with the students. Still, we will miss something important if we don't look at things through the eyes of a student and attempt to understand more about a student's needs and aspirations—personal, emotional, social, spiritual, as well as academic. There is really no separation of these needs and aspirations into such tidy categories. They all merge into the being of the child.

Of course, no two children are alike, but we gain something in understanding the spectrum of childhood needs and aspirations, even as we must consciously accommodate our preconceptions to the idiosyncrasies of the individual. Sometimes our predilection for conceptual frameworks obscures our ability to see the child who stands before us.

The child who stands before us, more often than not, resembles in remarkable ways the child that we once were and the children with whom we grew up. Knowing that is what motivates teachers to reach each student in ways they would have wanted to be reached.

Paradigms and programs that take a whole-child perspective typically cover a wide range of what may be described as non-academic factors in a child's development, even as they are inseparable from the child's academic learning. These factors may be categorized as:

1. Health—physical and emotional
2. Security, safety
3. Social Connection and Belongingness
4. Character
  - a. Resiliency to Overcome Obstacles
  - b. Respect for Self and Others
  - c. Responsibility to Self and Others
5. Motivation to Learn and Persist in School
6. Social Skills and Emotional Stability
7. Happiness or well-being

This array of characteristics and skills fits neatly with Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Programs address these child development factors through interventions at various levels: the classroom, the school, the family, social agencies, youth organizations, and the community.

Martin Brokenleg and his colleagues at Reclaiming Youth International ([www.reclaiming.com](http://www.reclaiming.com)), in their work to reclaim at-risk youth, root their philosophy in Native American tradition and culture. Their Circle of Courage® is a “model of youth empowerment supported by contemporary research, the heritage of

early youth work pioneers and Native philosophies of child care. The model is encompassed in four core values: belonging, mastery, independence, and generosity. The central theme of this model is that a set of shared values must exist in any community to create environments that ultimately benefit all.” (From website.)

The Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) (<http://casel.org>), founded by Daniel Goleman in 1994 and now headed by Roger Weissberg, promotes evidence-based programs for social and emotional learning. “SEL teaches the skills we all need to handle ourselves, our relationships, and our work, effectively and ethically. These skills include recognizing and managing our emotions, developing caring and concern for others, establishing positive relationships, making responsible decisions, and handling challenging situations constructively and ethically. They are the skills that allow children to calm themselves when angry, make friends, resolve conflicts respectfully, and make ethical and safe choices.” (From website.)

The Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) ([www.pbis.org](http://www.pbis.org)) is a collaboration between the U.S. Department of Education and 11 technical assistance units across the United States. The Center is directed by Drs. George Sugai (University of Connecticut, Rob Horner, (University of Oregon) and Tim Lewis (University of Missouri). “The logic for the Center is based on (a) documented need for improving the social behavior of students in U.S. schools, (b) demonstrated success of PBIS to improve both student social behavior and academic performance, (c) demonstrated effectiveness of PBIS as a practical technology that can be implemented at socially important scales by actual implementers, (d) the value of school-wide behavior support systems on the education of children with disabilities, and (e) a current need to extend PBIS practices to a broader range of students, schools, and contexts.” (From website.)

The School Community Network ([www.schoolcommunitynetwork.org](http://www.schoolcommunitynetwork.org)) provides programs to develop a strong community of people intimately associated with the school—students, students’ families, teachers, administrators, school staff, and community volunteers. The Network’s aim for a strong school community is mutually supportive roles in enhancing children’s: (1) literacy, (2) self-directed learning (study skills and habits), (3) respect for self and others, and (4) responsibility to self and others. This approach views these four student attributes as foundational to learning and success in life. (From website.)

The psychologist Martin Seligman (2011) proposes that “well-being” is both the motivational foundation for greater learning outcomes and an end in itself. Well-being, in Seligman’s framework, consists of: 1) positive emotion, 2) engagement, 3) meaning, 4) positive relationships, and 5) accomplishment. This foundation of well-being equips the learner to fully benefit from the instruction provided by the teacher and to find personal happiness in life.

## Native American Children and Schools

Beaulieu (2000), in a study of school improvement efforts in Native American schools, attributes the poor performance of many Native American schools to: (a) the isolation of the schools and communities; (b) the inability of the curricula and instruction to meet diverse student learning needs; and (c) the debilitating effects of cultural diffusion, economic depression, and family and community disengagement on student motivation to learn and persist in school. We may assume these factors as pressures that militate against a child's sense of self-efficacy and that confound a teacher's best intentions. On the other hand, we know that Native American students gain in self-efficacy perception, value for learning, and persistence in school when instruction is individualized and includes content that connects the student to his or her culture, family, and community (Coggins, Radin, & Williams, 1996; Gay, 2000; Huffman, Sill, & Brokenleg, 1986; Sack, Beiser, Clarke, & Redshirt, 1987; Ward, 1994).

So we will light a hundred candles rather than curse the darkness. For every student whose life is burdened and constricted by life circumstances, another student displays a resiliency that overcomes all obstacles. We can learn from the resilient ones and aid the others with what we have learned. Murphy (1987), as cited in Brendtro, Brokenleg, and Van Bockern (2002), characterized a resilient youth as one who:

- Builds bonds with adults and peers based on care and mutual concern
- Thinks for him- or herself and can solve problems creatively
- Can tolerate frustration and manage emotions
- Avoids making other people's problems one's own
- Shows optimism and persistence in the face of failure
- Resists being put down and sheds negative labels
- Has a sense of humor and can "forgive and forget" (p. 106)

Knowing the characteristics of a resilient youth does not automatically translate into a formula for building resiliency in less-resilient youth. These characteristics are laudable aims for all children, and our task is to find pathways to their attainment.

## The Power of Mindset and Aspiration

**Attribution and point of reference.** We sometimes forget that a child's behavior is influenced as much by what the child hopes for as what the child has experienced. Carol Dweck (2000) makes a distinction between a student's assessment of his or her ability to achieve a performance goal based on the student's belief that goal attainment is: (1) a function of "smartness," (2) current level of skill, or (3) ability to improve skill to achieve the goal. Though all students tend to view a learning challenge through the lens of their current level of skill to some extent, more successful students give greater weight to their potential for improving skill, as opposed to their static "smartness" than less successful students. Dweck explains that a teacher's perceptions of a student's ability to achieve a performance goal also

varies according to the teacher's reliance upon the student's past performance as the basis for judgment rather than a forward-looking anticipation that the student will change in a positive way.

Applying this logic to the achievement gap, Dweck describes the burden of "stereotype threat" that members of minority groups carry. Conscious of the low academic achievement ascribed to their "group," they may attribute the cause to fixed qualities. To avoid a confirmation of the stereotype, the students "make low-ability attributions for any difficulty they may be having, create distracting doubts when they are trying to perform intellectually, or foster a defensive withdrawal of effort" (p. 37).

Connecting performance goals (learning tasks) to *personal aspirations* rather than to past performance or group stereotypes frees both the student and the teacher to engage in constructive learning. This appreciation for what Dweck calls "incremental intelligence," the notion that intelligence and the ability to achieve are not fixed but are incrementally improved, contributes to the student's motivation to learn and the teacher's more effective response to the student's learning needs. We tend to place great emphasis on data that demonstrate a student's past learning but give little attention to the power of aspiration to fuel incremental improvement.

Successfully linking academic performance with personal aspirations is more than helping a student envision his or her future; it is connecting that desired future to the tasks at hand. The desired future may be going to college and getting a good job, but the student must see the pathway on which the tiny steps of today's learning tasks lead to the aspirational results. More immediate aspirations are particularly relevant to student motivation to learn. Social and personal goals are as significant as academic goals.

Dweck discredits the "self-esteem" approach that attempts to fuel student motivation to learn with constant praise that weakens the student's resolve in mastering difficult tasks and in meeting life's challenges.

We want our children to have a basic sense of worth and to know that they have our respect and love, but after that self-esteem is not something we give them. It is something that they are in charge of, and we can simply teach them how to live their lives so that they will experience themselves in positive ways.

In this view, self-esteem is not a thing that you have or don't have. It is a way of experiencing yourself when you are using your resources well—to master challenges, to learn, to help others. (p. 128)

Brendtro, Brokenleg, and Van Bockern (2002) put it this way: "When the child's need to be competent is satisfied, motivation for further achievement is enhanced; deprived of opportunities for success, young people express their frustration through troubled behavior or by retreating in helplessness and inferiority" (p. 49). A healthy school culture provides many opportunities for a child to gain competence, to achieve mastery.

## The Impact of the Teacher

**The teacher matters most.** “Teacher effectiveness has the largest impact of school effects on student learning, and research indicates that top-quintile teachers produce learning gains three times that of bottom-quintile teachers” (Hassel & Hassel, 2009). Very simply, the teacher is the prime contributor to all students’ learning, and the teacher exerts an especially powerful influence on students’ motivation to learn and personal development.

The work with Native American schools in the Principal Leadership Academy rests upon the following premises:

1. Comparisons with other subgroups of students may be enlightening, but they may also distract us from a sharp focus on the particular learning needs of our own students and their personal aspirations.
2. While effective school practices are important for all students, they are especially critical for students for whom the school, as opposed to out-of-school influences, contributes disproportionately to academic attainment.
3. Teacher perceptions of a student’s (or group of students’) potential for learning affect their expectations for their students and their behavior in relationship with their students, but of equal (or perhaps greater) importance are the student’s own aspirations and how these aspirations are heightened, clarified, and reinforced by the student’s teachers and families.
4. A student’s motivation to learn, to attempt and persist with a learning task and to persist in school, is a powerful driver of learning outcomes.
5. A student’s metacognitive skills are learned, may be intentionally taught by teachers, and enable a student to self-assess, self-regulate, and self-direct their learning across subject areas and over time.
6. Though the family exerts great influence on a student’s school performance, the teacher and school possess the ability to influence family behaviors and mindsets in positive ways.
7. The environment in which the school has the greatest control and the greatest opportunity to ameliorate out-of-school influences on learning is the classroom.
8. Effective instruction rests upon principles of teaching and learning that are salient for all student groups, and personalization of learning takes into account the multitude of student characteristics that contribute to learning, including the student’s gender, ethnicity, and socio-economic circumstances as well as individual aspirations, work habits, and interests.

In addressing the learning of Native American students, then, we will focus on the student’s: (a) aspirations; (b) motivation to learn; (c) metacognitive skills; (d) malleable family supports; and (d) opportunity to learn from a rich curriculum and personalization of instruction. For all of these influences on learning, we will focus on the teacher as the prime mover.

### **Motivation, Metacognition, and Aspirations**

Carol Dweck (2000) articulates the underlying impact of a student's or teacher's mindset about intelligence and social traits. She explains the detrimental effects of seeing intelligence and social traits as "fixed" rather than malleable. Viewing intelligence and social traits as malleable provides the motivational impetus for a "mastery orientation" that enhances both academic learning and social coping. Jere Brophy (2004) proffers a similar theory in promoting the intrinsic motivation that accrues to a student who derives satisfaction from the mastery of a learning task.

Neil Postman (1996) wrote, "For a student with an adequate *why*, almost any *how* or *what* will do!" Self-efficacy influences academic motivation, learning, and achievement (Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 1995; Schunk & Pajares, 2002). A student's self-efficacy perception, the anticipation of success (Bandura, 1997), is derived from the student's assessment of his or her own level of skill, the relative challenge of the task at hand, and the task's value to the student (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 1993). The body of psychological research provides guidance on how and why appropriate incentives, used to increase and sustain learners' efforts, can foster learning (Hanushek & Jorgenson, 1996; Walberg, in press).

Students far too often do not receive instruction that helps them develop the competence they need to be successful in their work in schools. One informant in Smith and Wilhelm's (2006) study of the literate lives of boys both in school and out put it this way:

I mean you are a teacher and I assume that you teach, I am going to assume. . . obviously you have some amount of homework that, there is going to be some amount of homework involved in teaching no matter what happens. That is a given, but my teachers will just give out thousands and thousands of pages of homework and expect that to teach you. They don't teach. It is just like do chapters, questions 1–5. And then they are going to assume that you know it because you do the questions 1–5 and even if you talk with somebody, you aren't going to know it. But if you actually get up there and teach it to people and ask questions they are going to know it. That is why [this] is stupid. (p. 16)

In short, the patterns of instruction that typify many schools give students little reason either to value the instruction they receive or to develop an expectation for success.

Teachers build students' motivation to learn by celebrating the end result—what the student now knows and can do (Brophy, 2004). Innovative technologies and new forms of measurement, analytics, and instructional methods enable students to track their own mastery and receive continuous reinforcement for it (Campbell, DeBlois, & Oblinger, 2007). Mastery itself can be the fuel of motivation and the goal to be attained. Schools are using student tracking of their own progress on short-cycle (unit) tests, benchmark assessments, and teacher-determined mastery of objectives as a means for helping students set goals and see their progress toward their goals. With graphs that illustrate the



progress, students clearly see the concrete results of their efforts, and this feedback is itself a motivating factor.

Expectancy Value Theory (EVT) is an elegant theory about the conditions that lead to motivation, and it captures what the research cited above asserts. EVT holds that a person's willingness to engage in an activity is a function of how much one values the activity coupled with one's expectation for success in the activity compared with how much one values and expects success in other activities (cf. Eccles et al., 1983).

Value is sometimes understood as the potential for learning to pay off in the future, for making students college- and career-ready. But the nation's alarming dropout statistics strongly suggest that future benefits are not enough. Forty-seven percent (47%) of dropouts report that the reason they left school was that classes were uninteresting (Bridgeland, Dilulio, & Morison, 2006). That is, students forego future benefits because they are not engaged in the here and now (cf. Smith & Wilhelm, 2002). Little wonder: students far too often are cast as passive recipients of knowledge. Throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century, studies documented the persistence of lecture and recitation in American classrooms. Goodlad's (1984) classic study of over a thousand classrooms led him to this conclusion:

The data from our observation in more than a thousand classrooms support the popular image of a teacher standing or sitting in front of a class imparting knowledge to a group of students. Explaining and lecturing constituted the most frequent teaching activities, according to teachers, students, and our observations. Teachers also spent a substantial amount of time observing students at work or monitoring their seat-work. (p. 105)

Teacher–student interaction (both social and academic) contributes to a student's motivation to learn (Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1993). When teachers exhibit the right blend of caring and expectation, showing that the teacher knows the student and thinks there is something special about him or her, students respond positively. Brophy (2004) challenges teachers to not be blinded by social class differences, cultural differences, language differences, and other potential barriers when forming close relationships with at-risk students. Students are motivated by the personal connection they derive from the teachers' devotion to helping them achieve academic success. Helping students articulate their own, personal aspirations can be strongly motivating (Jeynes, 2010).

Metacognition is thinking about thinking—the learner's ability to know what he or she knows and to adapt learning strategies in order to reach desired ends. Teaching and modeling a metacognitive approach to learning benefits students (Wirth & Aziz, 2010). Cognitive research and “mind science” are producing new understandings about how a learner regulates learning activity, adjusts strategies, and solves problems. Samford University's Stephen Chew, a psychologist and expert on metacognition, has created a series of videos to explicitly teach students effective metacognitive skills (Chew, 2011). In 2011, Chew was named U.S. Professor of the Year by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

A teacher models the application of appropriate learning strategies in understanding and mastering new concepts and skills. The teacher is careful to make “attribution statements” that link success to effort and the wise use of learning strategies rather than to “smartness.”

### **Personalized Learning**

Personalized learning is a concept advanced from the concepts of individualization and differentiation. Individualized instruction is paced according to the learning needs of different learners, as in mastery learning (Bloom, 1971). Differentiated instruction is tailored to the learning preferences of different learners and guided by what research shows is best for students like them (Tomlinson, Brimijoin, & Narvaez, 2008). Personalized instruction encompasses both individualization and differentiation, adapting for both pace and preference. Personalized instruction also adapts learning objectives and content as well as method and pace, remaining cognizant of the objectives’ relationship to content standards (U.S. Department of Education, 2012).

Personalized learning, like differentiation and individualization, requires a huge investment in the teacher’s instructional planning, most efficiently achieved in highly functioning teacher instructional teams. This requires significant training for the teachers, time for planning, and rigorous instructional systems and processes. Systematically introducing a set of strategies for personalized learning in each teacher’s instruction, however, will heighten awareness of the possibilities of better instructional practices and directly and immediately impact the learning experience of the students.

## Personalized Learning Framework and Lesson Plan

### Framework

Each personalized lesson will intentionally consider: (1) the implications for Native American students, (2) the Circle of Courage's® core values (belonging, mastery, independence, and generosity), and (3) the following components of the Personalized Learning Framework:

1. Instructional Definition and Alignment
2. Intentionality in Multiple Instructional Modes
  - a. Intentional Motivation
  - b. Intentional Metacognition
  - c. Intentional Connection to Individual Aspirations
3. Immediate Reinforcement and Student Tracking of Mastery
4. Intentional Family Engagement

### Structure of the Lesson Plan

#### A. Defining and Aligning the Lesson

1. Subject and Grade Level
2. Title of the Lesson
3. Duration of Lesson (in minutes)
4. Standard(s) and Grade-Level Benchmark(s) Addressed
5. Core Values Addressed:  
\_\_\_ Belonging \_\_\_ Mastery \_\_\_ Independence \_\_\_ Generosity
6. Measureable Objective
  - a. Objective:
    - i. Essential question:
    - ii. Criteria/Metric to determine student mastery:
    - iii. Graphic demonstration of mastery in student-maintained portfolio (see below):

#### B. Multiple Instructional Modes

1. *Whole-Class Presentation and Engagement* (approximately one-third of class period)

**Behavior Check:** To set the psychological climate in the classroom; cue students to focus in; reinforce attentive behaviors. Be sure homework has been collected. A behavior check may be repeated later in the class time to reinforce engaged learning.

**Review:** To connect prior learning with new learning, briefly review the previous lesson as a bridge to the new lesson.

**Think:** To introduce a new lesson; continue activating prior knowledge; stimulate student cognition relative to the topic through cues, advance organizers, hooks, question sprinkling, stimulate interest in the topic. Consider “hooks” that will especially engage Native American students.

**Know:** To directly teach the new skills or concepts through lecture, demonstration, modeling. The teacher demonstrates metacognitive strategies for mastering the skill or concept by “thinking out loud.”

**Show:** To find out what students have learned and to rehearse their learning through verbal drills, recitations, discussion, quiz games. The teacher reiterates metacognitive strategies.

## 2. *Student-Directed (Heterogeneous) Small Groups* (approximately one-third of class period)

In a Student-Directed Group, the teacher provides the group of students with instructions, and the group does the work. The teacher will establish and explain the group’s goal, and it will include the opportunity for each student to express how the lesson/topic of the day is useful to that student’s personal aspirations. During group time, the teacher moves about the room, reinforcing positive group behaviors, clarifying the goal, but not intruding on the conversation.

It is a good idea to establish group norms with your students for all of your Student-Directed Groups. These norms might be:

- a. Name a group leader for this session.
- b. Group leader reads the instructions to the group. [For non-reading age groups, the teacher does this.]
- c. Think about the end goal or product you are to complete.
- d. Be sure everyone participates.
- e. Always be respectful of each other.
- f. When the group’s goal is met, go to your independent work if time permits.

The teacher’s instructions include the topic and goal, to get started. The topic is related to the objective for the lesson. The goal is what the group is to achieve, together. It is a good idea for the goal to be a work product, such as a drawing or paragraph summary of the group’s conclusions. However, there should be individual accountability determined for completion of the goal. Optimum work and habits are reinforced by the teacher that monitors the progress while offering guidance, corrections, and coaching.

## What are some things to consider when grouping students?

- a. The research suggests a group size of 2 to 5 students, depending upon the complexity of the task presented and the age of the students. It is wise to work with small groups when students are first practicing the collaborative process.
- b. The nature of the task itself will often determine group size, but in general, the larger the group, the more skillful group members must be in positive interaction, fulfilling individual role assignments, and keeping on task toward goal achievement.
- c. The shorter the time available for a task, the smaller the group should be.
- d. Generally, the research recommends heterogeneous groupings of high-medium-low ability students, though there may be exceptions for certain kinds of tasks.
- e. Teacher-designed groups create optimum conditions for long or complex tasks. Random groupings by means of such methods as “counting-off” may provide a good mix of students for short-term or easier projects.

### 3. *Connection to Aspirations* (5 to 10 minutes)

In primary grades, the teacher may ask each student to briefly tell how the lesson/topic is meaningful to them, drawing from their thinking in the small-group setting. In upper grades and high school, the teacher may alternate this reporting-to-the-class with an assignment for each student to write a brief explanation of the aspirational connection in the student portfolio.

### C. Determining Mastery and Recording in Student Portfolio

This is a short, 5-minute exercise. The teacher may provide more formal means for determining mastery, as consistent with the teacher’s practices and grading schemes. For this component of the Personalized Learning lesson, however, the teacher restates the objective and asks each student to record in the Student Portfolio if he/she thinks he/she has mastered the objective. A simple chart to track:

- I got it
- I need to learn more
- I need more help from the teacher

In primary grades, the teacher may assist the student in checking the response on the chart. In upper grades and high school, a more sophisticated charting and graphing of mastery for each of the lessons/objectives may be instituted.

### D. Engaging the Family

The homework assignment for this lesson is interactive with the student and one or more adults in the home. A typical assignment would be to explain to the family member(s) the lesson of the day and the student’s connection to his/her aspirations. The next day, the student briefly notes in the Student Portfolio the name(s) of the family member(s) and a reflection on the conversation. The teacher may, in addition, choose to assign more conventional homework activities related to this lesson. In primary grades, the teacher may ask students to tell about their conversations rather than record them.

## References

- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: Freeman.
- Beaulieu, D. (2000, Winter). Comprehensive reform and American Indian education. *Journal of American Indian Education*, 39(2).
- Bloom, B. S. (1971). Mastery learning. In J. H. Block (Ed.), *Mastery learning: Theory and practice* (pp. 47–63). New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Brendtro, L., Brokenleg, M., & Van Bockern, S. (2002). *Reclaiming youth at risk*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree.
- Bridgeland, J. M., Dilulio, J. J., & Morison, K. B. (2006). *The silent epidemic: Perspectives of high school dropouts*. Washington, DC: Civic Enterprises, LLC.
- Brophy, J. E. (2004). *Motivating students to learn*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Campbell, J. P., DeBlois, P. B., & Oblinger, D. G. (2007). Academic Analytics: A new tool for a new era. *EDUCAUSE Review*, 42(4), 40–57. Retrieved from: <http://www.educause.edu/library/erm0742>
- Chew, S. (2011). How to get the most out of studying [5-part video series]. Birmingham, AL: Samford University. Retrieved from <http://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PL85708E6EA236E3DB&feature=plcp>
- Coggins, K., Radin, N., & Williams, E. (1996). *The traditional Tribal values of Ojibwa parents and the school performance of their children: An exploratory study*. [Technical report]. Ann Arbor, MI: Michigan University.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The psychology of optimal experience*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1993). *The evolving self: A psychology for the third millennium*. New York, NY: Harper Collins.
- Dweck, C. (2000). *Self theories: Their role in motivation, personality, and development*. New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- Eccles, J. S., Adler, T. F., Futterman, R., Goff, S. B., Kaczala, C. M., Meece, J. L., & Midgley, C. (1983). Expectancies, values, and academic behaviors. In J. T. Spence (Ed.), *Achievement and achievement motivation* (pp. 75–146). San Francisco, CA: W. H. Freeman.
- Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, & practice*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Goodlad, J. (1984). *A place called school: Prospects for the future*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Hanushek, E. A., & Jorgenson, D. W. (1996). *Improving America's schools: The role of incentives*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press.
- Hassel B., & Hassel, E. (2009). *3X for all: Extending the reach of education's best*. Chapel Hill, NC: Public Impact.
- Huffman, T. E., Sill, M. L., & Brokenleg, M. (1986). College achievement among Sioux and white South Dakota students. *Journal of American Indian Education*, 25(2), 32–38.
- Jeynes, W. (2010). *Parental involvement and academic success*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Neil Postman (1996)

- Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research*, 66, 543–578.
- Sack, W. H., Beiser, M., Clarke, G., & Redshirt, R. (1987). The high achieving Sioux Indian child: Some preliminary findings from the flower of two soils project. *American Indian and Alaska Native Mental Health Research*, 1, 37-51.
- Schunk, D. H. (1995). Self-efficacy and education and instruction. In J. E. Maddux (Ed.), *Self-efficacy, adaptation, and adjustment: Theory, research, and application* (pp. 281–303). New York, NY: Plenum Press.
- Schunk, D. H., & Pajares, F. (2002). The development of academic self-efficacy. In A. Wigfield & J. Eccles (Eds.), *Development of achievement motivation* (pp. 16–31). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Seligman, M. (2011). *Flourish*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Smith, M. W., & Wilhelm, J. D. (2010). *Fresh takes on teaching literary elements: How to teach what really matters about character, setting, point of view, and theme*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Smith, M. W., & Wilhelm, J. (2002). *“Reading don’t fix no Chevys”: Literacy in the lives of young men*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Smith, M. W., & Wilhelm, J. (2006). *Going with the flow: How to engage boys (and girls) in their literacy learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Tomlinson, C. A., Brimijoin, K., & Narvaez, L. (2008). *The differentiated school: Making revolutionary changes in teaching and learning*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- U. S. Department of Education. (2012). *Learning: Engage and empower*. Retrieved from: <http://www.ed.gov/technology/netp-2010/learning-engage-and-empower>
- Wang, M. C., Haertel, G. D., & Walberg, H. J. (1993). Toward a knowledge base for school learning. *Review of Education Research*, 63(3), 249-294.
- Ward, C. J. (1994). Explaining gender differences in Native American high school dropout rates: A case study of Northern Cheyenne schooling patterns. *Family Perspective*, 27(4), 415–444.
- Wirth, K., & Aziz, F. (2010). Reading, reflecting, and relating: A metacognitive approach to learning. *International Advances in Economic Research*, 16(2), 237–238.

## **Appendix: The Contextual Culture and the School Culture**

Listed below are two sets of indicators of effective practice. The Culture and Language Indicators are especially designed for schools with Native American students. The Social and Emotional Learning Indicators are applicable for any school. The indicators provide a convenient checklist by which a school can assess its current level of implementation of the practices and set objectives and plans for improvement.

### **Culture and Language Indicators**

1. The school provides training for all staff on local tribal history, culture, customs, and values.
2. The school provides tribal mentors for non-Indian staff and others who request it.
3. The physical appearance of the school reflects the tribal culture.
4. The school provides professional development for teachers on how to integrate Native American culture and language into the curriculum.
5. All teachers demonstrate in their lesson plans and materials that they have integrated Native American culture and language into the taught curriculum.
6. The school includes tribal elders, speakers, and leaders in planning and providing school events that feature Native American culture, customs, and values.
7. Tribal elders, speakers, and leaders are engaged as volunteers in the school and classrooms.
8. The school staff includes one or more speakers of the community's prevailing tribal language(s).
9. The curriculum for all grade levels includes lessons on the accomplishments of Native Americans.
10. The Leadership Team plans ways to infuse tribal customs and values into the school's operating procedures, rituals, and activities.
11. The principal and other school leaders demonstrate an understanding of tribal culture, customs, and values and model a respect for them.
12. Parent education programs include Native American and tribal history, customs, values, and language(s).
13. All students receive instruction in the basics of the prevailing tribal language(s) and an opportunity to use the language.
14. The promotion of Native American history, culture, customs, and values is done in a way that engenders respect for the history, culture, customs, and values of other groups.



## Social and Emotional Learning

### **A. Leadership**

**Effective Practice:** The principal and Leadership Team promote, plan, and evaluate social and emotional learning.

#### **Indicators of Effective Practice**

1. The principal and school Leadership Team convey in written materials that promoting the social and emotional learning of all students is a school priority.
2. The principal and school Leadership Team have established a multi-year plan for implementing planned, ongoing, coordinated programming for social and emotional learning.
3. The school Leadership Team regularly looks at multiple measures (e.g., behavior data, aggregated classroom observation data, and school climate surveys of staff, students, and parents) and uses this data to make decisions about student social and emotional learning.
4. The principal acts to ensure that learning outcomes include social and emotional learning objectives.
5. The principal regularly monitors implementation of evidence-based social-emotional programs.
6. The principal celebrates individual, team, and school successes, especially related to student academic and social-emotional learning outcomes.

### **B. Professional Development**

**Effective Practice:** The school provides professional development for staff on social and emotional learning.

#### **Indicators of Effective Practice**

1. Professional development for the school staff includes social and emotional learning objectives, skills, strategies, and conditions for learning.
2. Professional development includes on-site coaching for teachers who implement classroom-based instruction for social and emotional learning.

### **C. Teaching and Learning**

**Effective Practice:** Teachers and teacher teams plan, implement, and assess student mastery of social and emotional learning objectives.

#### **Indicators of Effective Practice**

1. The school has established a formal assessment system to track students' social-emotional skill development over time.
2. Instructional Teams use student data that shows current level of mastery of social-emotional objectives to plan social-emotional skill instruction.
3. All teachers are guided by a document that aligns social-emotional objectives, curriculum, instruction, and assessment.
4. Instructional Teams develop units of instruction that include social and emotional learning objectives at all grade levels.
5. Instructional Teams integrate strategies and materials to enhance social and emotional learning across academic areas of instruction (e.g., language arts, social studies, physical education, arts).

6. All teachers seek student input around their interests in topics as a way to increase motivation to learn.
7. All teachers use learning activities aligned with social and emotional learning objectives to meet the individualized learning needs of all students.
8. All teachers work collaboratively with students to develop and ensure classroom rules and procedures.
9. All teachers use misbehavior as an opportunity to re-teach and reinforce previous social-emotional skill instruction.
10. All teachers model, teach, and reinforce social and emotional competencies.

#### **D. Learning Environment**

**Effective Practice:** The entire school community supports social and emotional learning through communication, education, and association of its members.

#### **Indicators of Effective Practice**

1. The school has a vision or mission statement that supports a learning environment that is emotionally safe and conducive to learning.
2. The principal promotes a sense of community, cooperation, and cohesion among teachers and staff to support the work of learning.
3. Staff interactions in all meetings (staff, problem solving, committees, planning, conferences, etc.) and in the instructional setting reflect a climate of trust, respect, and collaboration that is focused on norms and adult social and emotional competencies.
4. The school's discipline policy outlines developmentally appropriate consequences, endorses positive behavior management strategies, and guides teachers in using misbehavior as an opportunity to reinforce social-emotional learning concepts and skills.
5. The school's Compact outlines the responsibilities/expectations of teachers, parents, and students.
6. All staff members cultivate positive relations among students and teachers to promote student motivation and higher levels of engagement in academics and school life.
7. The student report card shows student progress toward meeting the social-emotional learning objectives.
8. Students are encouraged to apply their social and emotional skills in co-curricular activities.