CASE 6.1
First-Year Teacher, "Good Curriculum Avoids Discipline Problems"

Kelley Dawson learned early that if you don't plan "good curriculum," kids can really get out of control. "I tried everything to get my [fourth grade] students to behave: incentives, threats, punishments, being strict, being friendly, yelling, reasoning, sweet talking, and pleading for sympathy." Kelley was desperate.

Fortunately, after reflection, she realized that she shouldn't have to get the students under control to start teaching. Rather, it was the other way around. "You have to start by teaching interesting, engaging content." She asked herself what she was doing that made students so bored and disruptive and concluded that she was making them plod through poor textbooks and other materials, disconnected from their lives. Consequently, Kelley began to find more interesting materials than the texts (some she made herself) and to relate what was to be learned as much as possible to students' experiences and interests.

Several years later, Kelley still struggles to provide a *curriculum that motivates*. But the struggle seems worthwhile. Beyond fixing disciplinary headaches she notes a good curriculum "gets kids to think deeply, care about our world, and help them to make positive changes in it."

Source: K. Dawson (2002, Fall). Best discipline is good curriculum. *Rethinking Schools Online: An Urban Education Resource, 17* (1).

INVESTIGATING AND SOLVING THE CASE

1. What did Kelley finally do that is consistent with what we know about learning as noted in Chapter 4?
2. What else would you have done?

Article 3 Assignments 3 & 4

WHAT INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES LOOK LIKE

Regardless of whether a course, unit, or lesson is being planned, instructional objectives must be set. An **instructional objective** describes what learners must know and be able to do. Below are five illustrative, *general* objectives teachers may want to accomplish, each with a parallel, *specific* objective in italics.

- You want students to understand that a newspaper contains a number of parts and that each part contains different information:
  Given the daily newspaper, students will correctly list the five sections it contains and the contents of each section.
- You want students to know how waste can be recycled and to have practice using the Internet to find related information:
  Given access to the Internet, students will locate at least three websites related to recycling waste and prepare a list of at least five recycling suggestions.
- You want students to practice calculating percentages:
  Given the results of the NCAA basketball tournament (men's or women's), students will correctly calculate the percentages of made field goals and foul shots for each player on the championship team.
- You want students to be able to appreciate that people have different values and attitudes that affect their behavior:
  Given a Harry Potter book, students will describe different attitudes and values held by three characters, how they are alike and different, and how they affect the characters' behaviors and interactions with other characters.
- You want students to practice their soccer dribbling skills:
  Given a soccer ball, students will practice dribbling by weaving around obstacles without hitting any of them.

6.11

Think of something you would want your learners to know or be able to do. Next, think of a specific instructional objective you could use to determine its acquisition. How do you feel about the process of making objectives more specific and clear?

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES DIFFER IN TWO WAYS

You can readily see the difference between a general instructional objective (a "want") and a specific one. Additionally, you probably noticed the five specific instructional objectives inspire different kinds of learning—cognitive, humanistic,

and behavioral—as noted in Chapter 4. The first several are aimed toward *cognitive learning*, the fourth toward *humanistic learning*, and the last *behavioral learning*. They also differ in terms of the level of thinking or doing required of the learners. For example, the first objective requires learners to engage in basic knowledge acquisition (How is a newspaper divided into parts and what is in each part?). The last asks them not to acquire a skill but to become more skill proficient (Dribble around obstacles). To review, instructional objectives differ in *specificity, kind,* and *level.*

SOME OBJECTIVES ARE GENERAL, OTHERS ARE SPECIFIC

For decades, educators have argued over exactly how precise objectives should be. Early in the twentieth century, teachers were required to write objectives with great detail and specificity. An example might be "Learners will know 6 sevens are 42." You can imagine the results—literally thousands of detailed objectives! By 1930, an overcorrection occurred, and objectives were written very broadly and unclearly. An example of an overly broad and unclear objective might be "Learners will be able to think independently."

Both general and specific objectives are valid and have their place. Since general objectives are more skeletal in nature, they make more sense when people are discussing the broad goals or aims of education or instruction. For example, general objectives are useful at the national and state levels, where the intention is to broadly define what schools should teach. Consider, for example, one of the six educational goals set by state governors and the first President Bush in 1990 for America to attain by the year 2000:

> By the year 2000, American students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 having competency in English, math, science, history, and geography; they will learn to use their minds, will be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment. (National Governors' Association, 1990)

Unfortunately, due to their skeletal nature, general objectives are written using terms that are open to interpretation. In the goal statement above, "having competency" and "being prepared" are examples of general objectives. How will the nation know whether American students are "competent"? Specifically what must they know and be able to do in each subject area? Moreover, how will we determine whether students can "use their minds" and are "prepared for responsible citizenship" and so on?

While such objectives indicate what the learners will do, they do not explicitly indicate what pupils are to learn. This is unfortunate since it focuses attention on the means of instruction (what the teacher or students will do), not on the ends (what learners will learn). Activities are not ends in themselves, but a means to an end. *The real purpose of instruction is to change pupils' behavior and enable them to do things they couldn't do before instruction occurred.* To help keep the real purpose of instruction in mind, teachers should write statements that describe the behaviors instructional activities are intended to help pupils learn (Airasian, 2001).

Again, general objectives are useful when making a skeletal outline of what students are to accomplish. Often teachers write them when engaged in long-range planning for the semester or year or when deciding what to accomplish during a month-long unit of instruction. Following are three more examples of general objectives:

- Students will know what a verb is.
- Students will enjoy music.
- Students will be able to swim.

OBJECTIVES INSPIRE THREE DIFFERENT KINDS OF LEARNING: COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE, PSYCHOMOTOR

Bloom (1989) studied numerous educational objectives and saw that they all fall within "the three schools of thought about learning." However, he referred to the three schools as "three domains of learning" and labeled them synonymously—"cognitive, affective, and psychomotor."

Cognitive Domain Educational objectives in the cognitive domain cause learners to engage in intellectual tasks. Thus, a learner might be expected to *recall* the sum of the angles of a triangle, to *analyze* the events surrounding Columbus's voyage to America in 1492, or to *identify* and discuss the themes found in Jane Austen's novels. Within Bloom's cognitive domain there are six levels of cognitive complexity. They are from simplest to most complex:

1. Knowledge. Learners have knowledge of and the ability to recall or recognize information. Example: The learner can recite multiplication facts.
2. Comprehension. Learners understand and can explain knowledge in their own words. Example: The learner can explain why 6 sevens and 7 sixes are equivalent.
3. Application. Learners apply knowledge, that is they are able to use it in practical situations. Example: The learner can calculate the cost of purchasing six envelopes costing seven cents each.
4. Analysis. Learners are able to break down complex concepts or information into simpler, related parts. Example: The learner can break the numeric statement "6×7" into subparts or possible combinations (for example, $3 \times 2 \times 7$).
5. Synthesis. Learners are able to combine elements to form a new, original entity. Example: The learner can hypothesize that if 6 sevens are 42, 7 sevens can be determined by adding another 7 to 42.
6. Evaluation. Learners are able to make judgments. Example: The learner can devise a strategy for evaluating the accuracy of solutions to multiplication problems with 7 as one integer.

Many educators believe that, unfortunately, teachers require mostly lower-order types of learning (knowledge and comprehension): When did Columbus reach America? Teachers much less frequently seem to prod students to develop higher-level, or higher-order, thinking (application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation): Why did Europeans come to America in 1492? Although low-level knowledge is an essential foundation for higher levels of thinking, it is important that teachers develop objectives and prepare lessons that challenge students to reach all levels of cognitive ability (see Highlight 6.3).

6.12 When might you engage students more in lower-order cognitive activity?

Affective Domain Bloom calls a second type or domain of learning outcomes "affective." The affective domain deals with attitudinal, emotional, and valuing goals for learners. Although teachers most often associate their instructional outcomes with the cognitive domain, almost all teachers try to promote some change in student affect. For example, most teachers hope that their students come to enjoy and value the subject they teach, as well as learning in general.

Bloom organizes the affective domain into five levels of complexity as follows:

1. Receiving or attending. Learners are willing to attend to, concentrate on, and receive information. Example: The learner listens attentively to Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings's story, The Yearling. (The Yearling is a novel about a young boy, Jody, who lives in the scrub and swamp of the hammock country of Florida. To survive, the family depends on a meager crop. Jody becomes attached to a tame fawn, Flag. However, to protect their crop from Flag, his parents are forced to kill the yearling.)

HIGHLIGHT 6.3
Teach to All Four Cognitive Learner Abilities

All learners, to varying degrees, possess four cognitive abilities (Sternberg, 1997). They are the ability *to memorize* or remember information, *to analyze* it, to take information and *to create* something further from it, and *to apply* or put information to use. These four abilities equate to Bloom's knowledge, analysis, synthesis, and application. Sternberg believes that when we teach, unfortunately, we ask students to utilize only the first two—memory and analysis. For example, when teaching social studies, we may ask learners to "remember factors that have led to troubles in the Middle East," and we may then ask them to "analyze how or why different countries chose sides in this conflict."

But what about creativity and application? Sternberg observes that we less often ask learners to use these abilities. In order to help learners reach full intellectual potential, there is a critical need to teach in ways that require them to use all four abilities. "By exposing students to instruction emphasizing each type of ability, we enable them to capitalize on their strengths while developing and improving new skills" (p. 23).

How might learners extend the use of knowledge about the post World War II Middle East into the realms of creativity and application? In the first instance, we might ask them to "consider how the troubles might be resolved." To engage learners in use of their ability to apply information, we might ask them "what lesson nations should learn from conflict."

2. Responding. Learners respond positively to the information by actively engaging with it. Example: The learner participates in a discussion of *The Yearling.*
3. Valuing. Learners express an attitude or belief about the value of something. Example: After reading *The Yearling,* the learner may express the belief that life can be unfair and cruel and that what life is worth is sometimes lessened by unkind circumstances.
4. Organization. Learners compare and integrate the attitude or value they have expressed with attitudes and beliefs they hold, thus internalizing the value. Example: The learner considers whether the attitudes or values they expressed after reading *The Yearling* are consistent with other values they or others hold.
5. Characterization. Learners act out their values. Example: The learner behaves in ways consistent with espoused values. If the learner believes that life is valuable but is often treated as a cheap commodity, he or she may join some group concerned with the preservation of life, such as the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.

Psychomotor Domain According to Bloom, objectives in the third, or psychomotor, domain relate to learning physical skills. Courses in child or adolescent psychology taught you that as children grow, they are able to accomplish successively more complex physical tasks. For example, early on students learn how to hold a large crayon, then to hold a thinner pencil. First, they learn to print, then to write. Later, they learn to type and to use a word processor. Most subjects require some degree of psychomotor learning. In science, students learn how to organize and manipulate laboratory equipment. In music, they may learn how to use their voice or play an instrument.

Seven levels of the psychomotor domain have been identified (Simpson, 1972). Following are illustrations of possible objectives in this domain.

1. Perception. Learners use sensory cues (such as vision) to guide their later attempt to perform a skill. Example: The learner notices how to hold and move a brush to create a particular brushstroke.

6.13 To which school of thought about learning and to which learning domain are you mostly drawn? Why?

2. Set. Learners are ready to perform a skill or an action. Example: The learner is mentally, physically, and emotionally prepared to perform the brushstroke.
3. Guided response. Learners practice the skill under the supervision of an expert. Example: The learner practices while the instructor coaches.
4. Mechanism. Learners become more proficient in the skill through practice. Example: The learner becomes more confident as the skill becomes second-nature or habitual.
5. Complex or overt response. Learners perform the skill with a high degree of proficiency. Example: The learner makes a great number of brushstrokes accurately and quickly.
6. Adaptation. Learners modify previously learned skills to perform related skills. Example: Building on previous skill, the learner creates different kinds of standard brushstrokes.
7. Origination. Learners create new, original performances based on previously learned skills. Example: The learner creates brushstrokes the teacher has not demonstrated or suggested.

Try Activity 6.1

6.14  How valuable do you think it is to prepare instructional objectives in each domain of learning and at various levels?

ANOTHER WAY OF CLASSIFYING LEARNING OUTCOMES

Gagné, Wagner, and Briggs (1992) provide another arrangement for thinking about and classifying learning outcomes, or objectives. Their system contains five groups of learning outcomes compared to Bloom's three:

1. Verbal information. This term is used to describe the vast amount of information obtained and stored in our memory. It is similar to the knowledge level in Bloom's cognitive domain. Example: Pupils learn factual information such as principles of physics or chemistry that they can retrieve as needed. Cognitive scientists refer to this as declarative knowledge.
2. Intellectual skill. This refers to learning how to do something mentally. It encompasses knowing how to do something rather than merely knowing about something. Example: Learners are able to create a balanced menu or devise a scale model based upon what they know about nutrition or about the object the model is based on. Cognitive scientists refer to this as procedural knowledge.
3. Cognitive strategies. This refers to learning ways of thinking and solving problems, including learning how to learn. Example: Learners learn to use an inductive approach to solve problems. Thus, knowledge of how to use induction would be a cognitive strategy. Problem solving usually combines the use of declarative and procedural knowledge.
4. Motor skills. Although Gagné, Wagner, and Briggs do not refer to the Bloom or Simpson designations of psychomotor skills, they seem to be the same type of learning outcome as Gagné, Wagner, and Briggs's motor skills.
5. Attitudes. Gagné, Wagner, and Briggs liken attitudes to Bloom's affective domain.

6.15  Why do you prefer the Bloom or Gagné, Wagner, and Briggs schema for arranging instructional objectives?

Writing Specific Objectives

Another thing you must decide when writing instructional objectives is what information to include in them. Many educators believe that a good objective tells learners exactly what they are expected to know and be able to do. For example, "Given a paragraph, the learner will identify every verb by circling it correctly." This objective does just that: It tells the learners what they are expected to know (what is a verb) and what they are expected to do (find and circle each one correctly in a given paragraph).

A method has been developed to assist beginning teachers in writing such specific objectives. It goes like this:

Every objective should contain an A, B, C, and D where

- A stands for the audience the objective is written for. In the objective above, the audience, A, is the learner.
- B stands for the behavior expected of the learner. In the objective above, the behavior, B, is the learner who will identify every verb. Table 6.2 contains a list of verbs that can be used to attain learning outcomes at various levels of each of Bloom's three instructional domains.
- C stands for the condition under which the learner identifies every verb. In the objective above C is "Given a paragraph."
- D stands for the degree of proficiency or correctness that the learner must display. In the objective above the degree of proficiency, D, is circling each verb correctly.

Thus, if you want to be precise about your instructional objectives and want to write them as specifically as possible, you can follow this method. Here are examples, including the objective used above, of specific objectives coded with A, B, C, and D.

1. When given a paragraph (C), the learner (A) will identify every verb by circling (B) it correctly (D).
2. Given ten sentences containing twenty misspelled words (C), the learner (A) will underline (B) at least sixteen (D) of the misspellings.
3. The learner (A) will solve (B) at least eight of ten (D) binary addition problems (C).
4. Given a 100-word speed test in class (C), the student (A) will type (B) at a rate of no less than thirty words per minute with fewer than four errors (D).
5. When presented flash cards of words containing the letter combination "ph," (C) the student (A) will pronounce (B) the words on at least eighteen of twenty cards (D) correctly.

Try Activity 6.2

Preparing specific instructional objectives, although time-consuming, will cause you to be aware of your learners and able to share with them exactly what you wish them to know and be able to do. Thus, there is little possibility that you and your learners are on "different pages." Additionally, such careful attention to detail will give you greater security, especially in your first teaching situations.

6.16 As a novice, how specific do you think your instructional objectives will be?

Counterpoint Not all educators think teachers should use specific instructional objectives. On the contrary, they believe use of such objectives may be counterproductive. Among potential negative consequences, they cite the following:

- Specific objectives, because they are so precise, are difficult to write. They are easiest to write when the learning outcome is at the lower levels of any of Bloom's three domains of learning. For example, it is easier to write a specific objective in the cognitive domain for "knowledge" than for "synthesis" or "evaluation." Look at the first objective above. You can see it is fairly simple to write an objective that calls for identification or recall of something. Try to write a specific objective that would call for learners to analyze the characteristics of verbs. That's not so easy. The negative consequence of such objectives may be that students are challenged to learn mostly simple and factual information instead of engaging in higher-order thinking.

TABLE 6.2 Verbs to Use When Writing Objectives at Various Levels of Bloom's Three Domains of Learning

1. **Cognitive domain**
   - *a. Knowledge level*
     1. Objective: to know about
     2. Verbs to use: list, tell, define, identify, label, locate, recognize, describe, match, name, outline, reproduce, state
   - *b. Comprehension level*
     1. Objective: to understand
     2. Verbs to use: explain, interpret, illustrate, describe, summarize, expand, convert, measure, defend, paraphrase, rewrite, apprehend, comprehend
   - *c. Application level*
     1. Objective: to use knowledge and understanding
     2. Verbs to use: demonstrate, apply, use, solve, choose appropriate procedures, modify, operate, prepare, produce, construct
   - *d. Analysis level*
     1. Objective: to break down
     2. Verbs to use: analyze, debate, differentiate, generalize, conclude, organize, break down, dissect, diagram, separate, subdivide, relate
   - *e. Synthesis level*
     1. Objective: to combine, to create
     2. Verbs to use: create, combine, plan, design, produce, compile, develop, compose, devise, modify, organize, rearrange, reconstruct
   - *f. Evaluation level*
     1. Objective: to judge
     2. Verbs to use: judge, evaluate, conclude, contrast, develop criteria, appraise, criticize, support, decide, compare
2. **Affective domain**
   - *a. Receiving level*
     1. Objective: to be willing to attend to and to receive information
     2. Verbs to use: listen, be aware of, observe, be conscious of, recognize, realize, be tolerant
   - *b. Responding level*
     1. Objective: to be willing to respond
     2. Verbs to use: respond, cooperate, appreciate, find pleasure in, comply, discuss
   - *c. Valuing level*
     1. Objective: to develop attitudes and beliefs
     2. Verbs to use: value, opine, appraise, estimate, approve, appreciate, assess, believe, size up (See also "Evaluation level" under "Cognitive domain.")
   - *d. Organizational level*
     1. Objective: to act out values
     2. Verbs to use: demonstrate, perform, act out, engage in, uphold
3. **Psychomotor domain**
   - *a. Perception level*
     1. Objective: to notice, recognize, sense
     2. Verbs to use: notice, recognize, sense, perceive, detect
   - *b. Set level*
     1. Objective: to be ready to try
     2. Verbs to use: be ready, be prepared, take steps, make preparation, desire
   - *c. Guided response level*
     1. Objective: to try
     2. Verbs to use: try, perform, practice
   - *d. Mechanism level*
     1. Objective: to improve
     2. Verbs to use: improve, become proficient, change, increase, decrease
   - *e. Complex or overt response level*
     1. Objective: to be proficient
     2. Verbs to use: excel, master, perfect
   - *f. Adaptation level*
     1. Objective: to adapt
     2. Verbs to use: adapt, adjust, accommodate, modify, modulate
   - *g. Organization level*
     1. Objective: to create
     2. Verbs to use: create, originate, produce

- Evidence exists that, in general, when teachers teach to precise objectives learners are more likely to attain the specified knowledge, skills, or attitudes but fail to learn other, worthwhile related material. Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock (2001) note, "This phenomenon might occur because setting a goal focuses students' attention to such a degree that they ignore information not specifically related to the goal" (p. 94). The negative consequence of teaching to set, and especially specific objectives, is that learners may miss something of the bigger picture.
- There are times when students should be given learning situations without predetermined, specific learning objectives. For example, taking a walk through the school neighborhood could be a very different experience for each learner. Why expect each one to concentrate on coming away with similar observations and impressions? Comparing uniquely individual observations and impressions after the walk might lead to knowledge and insights that could not possibly have been forecast. The negative consequence of specific objectives here may be that spontaneity of learning can be lost.
- Experienced teachers seldom write specific instructional objectives. In fact, they seem to do much instructional planning by mentally making only brief notes of the procedures they will follow. The negative consequence of specific objectives in this case may be that time devoted to writing specific objectives might not have much transfer to classroom teaching.

Some additional, related research findings are presented in Spotlight on Research 6.2.

WHEN ARE OBJECTIVES GOOD?

When developing any instructional plan, you prepare a sequence of related instructional objectives. However, it is essential that you also stop and reflect on those objectives to judge their appropriateness to the curriculum and your learners. You can judge instructional objectives by asking yourself the following questions:

- Are the objectives relevant to the curriculum for which students will be held accountable?
- Do the objectives promote learning outcomes across learning domains where appropriate (cognitive, affective, psychomotor)?
- Do the objectives promote a range of levels of understanding or performance (low or high) within each domain?
- Are the objectives written in terms of what learners are expected to know or do? Are they specific enough that students will be aware of exactly what they need to know and do?
- Can this group of students achieve the objectives? Do the objectives correspond to the readiness and ability levels of students? Do the objectives take individual differences into account?

Research findings related to instructional objectives are presented in Spotlight on Research 6.2.

Preparing Instructional Plans of Varying Duration

Once you have decided what to teach and have prepared good instructional objectives, you need to ask yourself, *How much* and *what kind* of instruction do students need to accomplish these objectives? This question could be asked in reverse order as well. For example, do you first decide how learning should take place and then allocate sufficient time as if the latter were variable? Or, conversely, do you decide

SPOTLIGHT ON RESEARCH 6.2
Findings Related to Instructional Objectives

According to Snowman and Biehler (2002), the following conclusions can be drawn from the research on instructional objectives:

1. **Objectives seem to work best when learners are aware of them, when learners treat the objectives as guides to learning specific sections of material, and when learners feel the objectives will aid learning.**
2. **Objectives seem to work best when they are clearly written and when the learning task is neither too difficult nor too easy.**
3. **Students of average ability seem to benefit more when they know what the objectives are than do those of higher or lower ability.**
4. **Objectives improve intentional learning but lead to a decline in unintentional or incidental learning of things that go unstressed. Incidental learning is more likely to occur when general rather than specific objectives are used.**

Slavin (2002), who also reviewed research on instructional objectives, notes that communicating objectives to students has never been found to reduce student achievement and often has been found to increase it. He suggests that objectives communicated to students be general enough to encompass everything the lesson or course is supposed to teach in order to prevent students from focusing too narrowly, thus excluding much important information.

how much time you have as if time were a constant and then decide how much or in what manner you can teach within that time span? Since the allocation of time to instruction or of instruction to time is often a burning issue, you may wish to discuss it in class. Perhaps you recall a course you were enrolled in, or a trip you took that ran out of time and was not completed. Let's turn our attention to the duration or scope of planning.

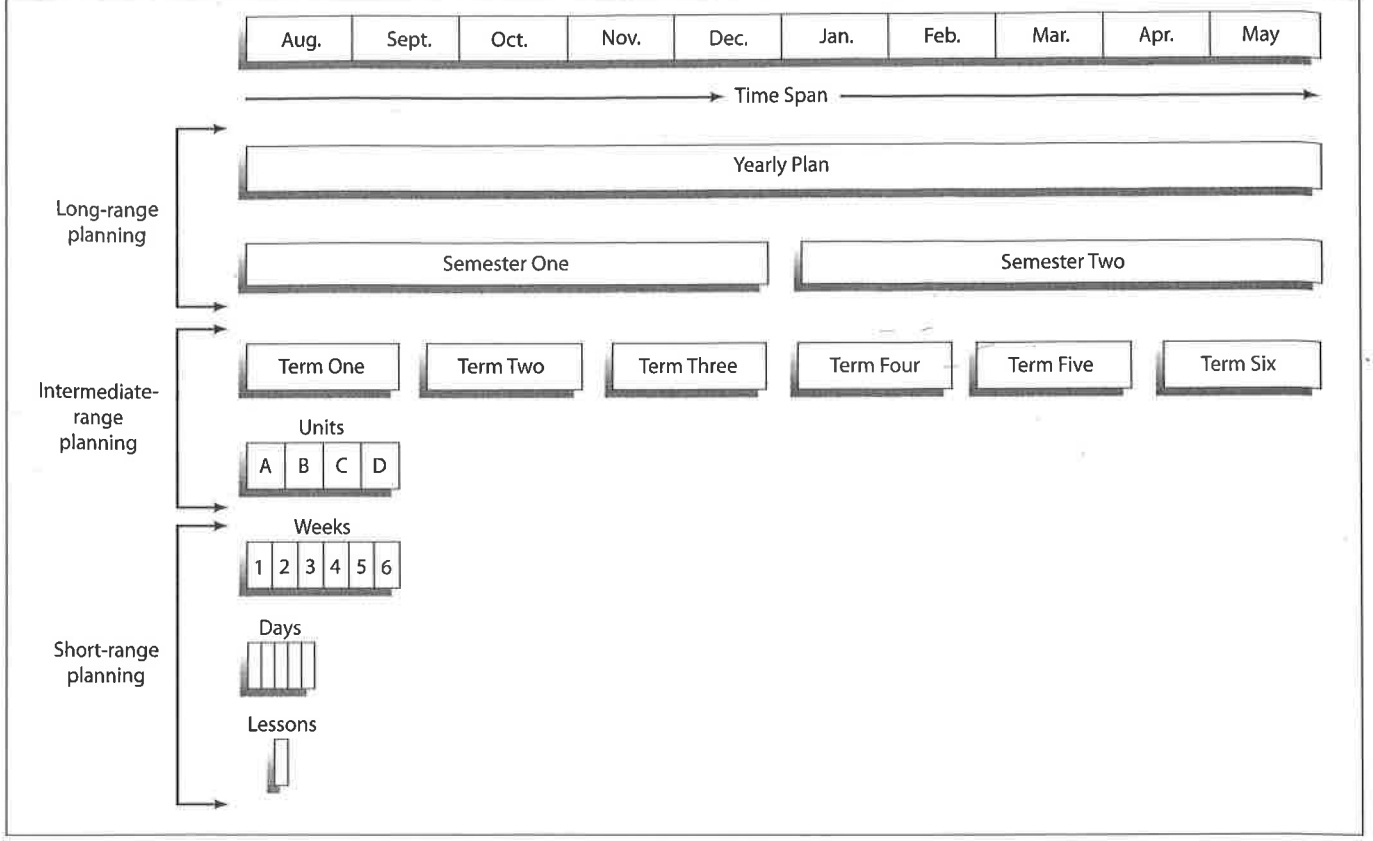
THE "LONG AND SHORT" OF PLANNING

As a teacher, you will regularly engage in long-, intermediate-, and short-range planning. An example can be used to illustrate this. You and your friend plan a vacation to Canada. This was your long-range plan. Then you determine the cities you will visit, the route you will take, and approximately how many days you will spend at various sites. This was the intermediate-range plan. Finally, for each day and site, you decide which specific things you want to do or see. Thus, you are also concerned with the daily and hourly routine. This was your short-term plan. Similarly, as a teacher, you will engage in long-range, intermediate-range, and short-term instructional planning for your students.

When teachers engage in long-range planning, they are deciding how generally to approach teaching either for an entire year or for a semester-long course. Teachers doing long-range planning first must choose a focus. The focus might be local history, American or Canadian literature, or fourth-grade arithmetic. Second, the teacher needs to determine how many weeks, days, or hours are available for instruction. Interruptions such as holidays, vacations, or exam weeks are taken into account. Third, the teacher must select the content of instruction. For example, long-range planning for an American history course involves deciding which topics and information should be included in this course, given the time available.

Intermediate, middle-range, or unit planning involves decisions about how courses can be broken into chunks, parts, or units, each with a particular theme. In intermediate or unit planning, teachers arrange units or topics in a meaningful order, thus determining the sequence of the course. The history course could be broken into historical periods that students can examine chronologically. Arithmetic for fourth graders might be broken into a series of units on arithmetic processes that are sequenced from simple to complex. A university course outline or syllabus provides an example of long-range and intermediate-range planning.

FIGURE 6.2 Plans of Different Duration



6.17 How will you use long-, intermediate-, and short-range plans?

Once intermediate planning is completed, teachers next plan for the short range; that is, for the week and for daily lessons. During short-range planning, you decide in detail what students must learn and how that can most effectively be accomplished. It is at this level of planning that specific instructional objectives are needed.

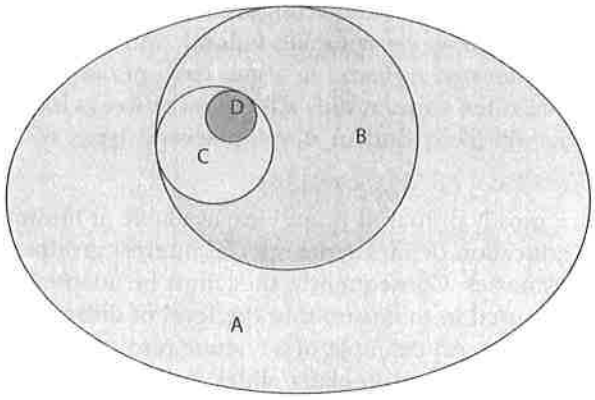
Figure 6.2 depicts plans of different duration (long-range, intermediate-range, and short-range), while Figure 6.3 shows the relationships among subjects, courses, units, and lessons.

PREPARING LONG-RANGE PLANS: YEARLY AND SEMESTER PLANS

As you have learned, teachers do long-range planning to determine what a year-long or semester-long course should include and how it may be taught. As mentioned, developing a long-range plan for teaching a course is similar to developing a vacation plan. Once you have a general vacation destination in mind, you start to collect ideas. Many will come from books and travel brochures. Other ideas may come from talking with people who have taken similar vacations. You use these ideas and materials as resources. You sit down with them and consider things such as

1. *Your objective.* Where specifically do you want to go and what do you want to accomplish? Is your aim to spend considerable time at a few sites, to see all the sites you can, or to experience the local culture?
2. *Your timeline.* How much time can you spend in each place you wish to visit? Where do you want to be by certain dates in order to get everything done?
3. *Needed resources.* What will you need to take along or secure along the way to ensure that the vacation is successful?

FIGURE 6.3 The Relationships among Subject, Course, Unit, and Lesson



- The large ellipse (A) represents a *subject*, such as arithmetic.
- The large circle (B) represents a particular *course* of study, like fourth-grade arithmetic.
- The medium-sized circle (C) represents a segment or *unit* of study therein, such as multiplication of whole numbers.
- The smallest circle (D) represents an element or *lesson* within the unit on multiplication of whole numbers, such as multiplying by a one-digit number.

In other words, you take into account your goals, the order in which you think they can best be achieved, the time required, and the resources needed.

Similarly, when developing a course, you consider what it is your students are expected to know and to be able to do; what activities they might engage in and in what order; how much time is available (weeks, days, hours) to be divided among the various activities; and, finally, what resource materials are at hand. When engaged in long-range planning you should keep in mind that

- The course primarily should be derived from the established, formal curriculum; that is, it should fit into state and school district curriculum plans.
- The course should be developed to reflect what is known about the subject area. Thus, the content of the course should be up to date and reflect what experts in the field think is important.
- The course should be developed to take into account what you know about your learners. To some extent, then, each course you teach will be custom made. There is no one course that is good for all students because of the differences among learners noted in Chapter 3. Unfortunately, since you will not know your new students, plan revisions are necessary.
- Decisions regarding what to teach are value laden. Consequently, you must constantly guard against teaching only personal beliefs or biases about a subject or issue. Likewise, guard against teaching what seems to be "politically correct," that is, presenting a position or information that presents only what special-interest groups regard as true or valid while ignoring or depreciating what others of different persuasions believe or know.

Glatthorn (1987) presents a model to follow when developing a course. At this point, you might try your hand at constructing a long-term plan. If you'd like to do so, turn to Activity 6.3 at the end of this chapter.

Try Activity 6.3

PREPARING UNIT PLANS

Once you have created a long-range plan for the course, the intermediate stage of planning begins. Ultimately you must divide the course into parts, or units; then you must plan the units. A unit or **unit plan** is a more detailed plan for teaching a

major section or topic within a course. At the secondary level, units normally are taught over a period of weeks and are limited to one topic. For example, in an American history course, the content might be divided into topics based on chronological periods such as the colonial, federal, and early industrial eras. Several weeks would be allocated to learning about each period. Units developed for elementary grades are often shorter, only a few days or weeks long.

As a teacher, you will likely find or develop several types of units such as the following:

- *Resource units* are mostly prepared by and are available at minimal or no cost from state education departments, special interest groups, government agencies, and businesses. Consequently, they must be adapted to the particular classroom they are used in to ensure that the level of difficulty and the general appeal are appropriate. An example of a science resource unit is a package that might contain a set of lesson plans, slides, transparencies, student worksheets, and a teacher's guide on natural gas produced by the regional gas company. Of course, resource units are likely to favor the viewpoint of the governmental or commercial group that produced them. They may possess a subtle, "hidden" curriculum bias.
- *Teaching units* are prepared by a teacher or teachers for use with a particular group of learners. Ideas may come from resource units, but they primarily arise from the teachers and from learners who may help develop the unit. Although teaching units, like resource units, are prepared before teaching occurs, they are flexible and often modified in use.
- *Experience units* are more of a "happening" than a preplanned unit. No one defines in advance what students are to learn. Teachers and students merely decide what they will generally do from day to day and from lesson to lesson. The learning experiences evolve. An experience unit might revolve around the theme "Sound Surrounds Us." What the students are experiencing is of the greatest importance, so students keep journals of what they have learned as their adventure with sound unfolds. Experienced teachers are more comfortable and adept with experience units.
- *Integrated units* are especially appropriate at the elementary level. Integrated units combine study from several fields such as social studies, language arts, science, and art around a central theme or topic. For example, an integrated unit on the Crusades might combine a historical and cultural study of that period. Students might also read translated literature from that era, study life and customs during the Crusades, and depict them through art.

Parts of a Unit Plan Although there are many types of units and unit plans, the typical unit plan includes the following parts or sections:

1. The *title* denotes the topic or theme under study, for example, "Sports in America or Canada." The topic usually is one the school district's curriculum or course of study requires. However, it may be one introduced for enrichment.
2. The *introduction* provides the rationale or reason why the unit is important to the course and in its own right. It should explain, in terms meaningful to students, why this unit is important, answering the ubiquitous student question: "Why do *we* have to know this?" The introduction also presents the parameters or scope (breadth) and sequence of the unit. By reading the introduction, one should be able to discern what main ideas or subtopics are addressed in roughly what order. The scope and sequence show how the main ideas build on each other and how the unit flows.
3. The *general objectives and preassessment of student prior knowledge* broadly state the knowledge, skills, or attitudes students will acquire as a result of engaging in

this unit. You need to find out what your students already know about the topic at hand so that the unit is neither too familiar nor unfamiliar, neither too easy nor difficult. Preassessment also enables you to remediate weaknesses or gaps in students' understanding of the topic and to increase the unit's appeal by building it around students' interests and perceived needs. You can preassess students in a number of ways, including informal observations, discussion, or questioning; formal pretesting of skills, knowledge, and attitudes; or examination of the curriculum previously studied by this group of students.

4. The *body* contains the unit's content, activities, and sequence of instruction. Included in the body are a topical outline, activities, resources, and a time frame.
   - The *topical outline* presents the main points and supporting points of the content. A detailed outline can become the wellspring for daily lessons.
   - The *activities* section denotes in general what the class or individuals can do in order to accomplish the unit objectives. What activities might they undertake to engage in learning the skills, knowledge, and attitudes the unit encompasses?
   - Also included in the body is the list of instructional materials and other *resources* that might be useful.
   - A *time frame* describes when the unit will begin and end and when students will undertake particular activities.
5. The *assessment* section describes how learners will be evaluated in terms of achievement and satisfaction. To what extent do they know what they are expected to know? Can they do what they are expected to do?
6. A *bibliography* presents a list of resources useful to teachers in preparing and teaching this unit. A second list of references useful to students also should be prepared. If the unit will likely be revised and used again, it is a good idea to provide complete bibliographic references. In addition, it is helpful to make a note of where you obtained the resource (that is, your personal library, the school library, a friend's collection, or some other source) so that you can find it again.

Highlight 6.4 is of a sample abbreviated unit plan.

Sometimes teachers break down the general information for a unit plan and present it in the form of **block plans** covering several lesson days. A block plan shows general objectives, learning activities, evaluation plans, and resources. Each block plan represents one class and serves as the outline or basis for one lesson plan. Highlight 6.5 shows a sequence of two block plans for a second-grade unit on dinosaurs.

Try Activity 6.4

Benefits of Unit Planning Developing a unit or several unit plans, especially early in your teaching career, can be time consuming. However, it also tends to be an engaging and worthwhile exercise because of the flow of ideas and resources generated. Many benefits result from preparing and using units:

- Once completed, unit plans give clear direction for short-term planning—for a week, day, or lesson. An ounce of unit planning now may save a pound of work and classroom anxiety later.
- Good unit planning makes you more aware of your learners' unique qualities.
- Unit planning causes you to think imaginatively about how to get the job done using a variety of instructional materials and activities. It weans you away from mere textbook teaching.
- Unit planning asks you to consider how to help students study some topic or phenomenon in an *interdisciplinary,* or holistic, way. Through use of units, you can incorporate writing, reading, reporting, and so forth into learning activities.

HIGHLIGHT 6.4
Sample Unit Plan

Title: Explorers of North America

Introduction: Everyone is interested in other people, especially the famous. We find out about them in the news, in movies, and on television. When someone writes about another person's life that is called biography. Biographies sometimes are about good role models such as Anne Frank, Abraham Lincoln, and Martin Luther King. Sometimes they are not. In any case, they increase our knowledge of history.

The biography we will look at in this unit focuses on explorers of North America. They are important to us since they blazed the trails that made settlement of this continent possible. Some explorers were good role models. As you will see, others were not.

Both the study of biography and explorers are important to educated persons and as such are part of the K-12 curriculum.

General objectives: We want you to find out about an explorer of North America, summarize what you found out, and put that information on a trading card that you can share with the class.

Pre-assessment: Find out what students already know about explorers of North America, how to summarize, and how to use the computer to prepare an illustrated trading card.

Outline:

i. Explorers of North America
ii. Locating biographical information
iii. Summarizing
iv. Computer graphics
v. Presentations: PowerPoint for PCs, Presentation for Mac

Activities (others may be necessary)

i. Lesson 1: Explorers of North America. Students will find out who they were and, in general, what each did. Students will choose an explorer to study.
ii. Lesson 2: Locating biographical information. Students will identify information on their target explorer using a variety of library and Internet resources.
iii. Lesson 3: Summarizing. Class will decide what information is of most interest, and students will read and prepare brief summaries.
iv. Lesson 4: Computer graphics. Students will learn to and will create a trading card.
v. Lesson 5: Presentation. Students will learn to and will prepare computer presentations containing the trading card they have developed.

Resources: Librarian and I will identify materials and websites children may use.

Time frame: Project time needed will be five class days plus independent work. Additional time will be needed to share presentations.

Assessment: Valued will be student ability to prepare a biographical summary, to create a computer graphic, and to present the material effectively.

Bibliography (initial): social studies textbooks, library materials, Internet resources will be searched. Initially I have found the following to be potentially very useful:

i. The American Library Association website on children's biography.
ii. Infoplease: Biographies of Notable Explorers.

Other sample units of work can be found at these websites: The Educator's Reference Desk, Learn NC, Beacon Learning Center, Library of Congress, and state education departments.

Web Links

American Library Association—Children's Biographies

Infoplease: Biographies of Notable Explorers

PREPARING LESSON PLANS

To begin, look at Spotlight on Research 6.3 on page 170 to see what makes a good lesson.

A **lesson plan** describes specifically what and how something will be learned within a brief period, usually one or a few class hours. Consider an analogy of vacation planning. The long-range plan is to tour the Eastern United States. The intermediate plan could be to visit Boston and would cover what you want to accomplish only within that part of the trip. The short-term plan is the day-to-day, hour-to-hour, minute-by-minute formulation of what you would do: for example, a daily plan could be to walk the Freedom Trail during the day Monday, attend a Boston Pops Concert Monday evening, shop Tuesday and see a Red Sox game, and so forth.

Lesson planning further defines a daily plan. It is even more detailed. It is an effort to ensure that on that day, every activity will go well.

HIGHLIGHT 6.5
Sample Daily Block Plans for Dinosaur Unit

Day One
Topic: Dinosaur Days

General Objectives

1. The student will define the term *dinosaur.*
2. The student will describe what the earth was like when dinosaurs lived.

Learning Activity

Discussion: What is a dinosaur? What do you know about them?

Independent study: Distribute resource materials on dinosaurs. Have students find out what life on earth was like when dinosaurs lived.

Evaluation

Independent activity: Make a drawing showing what the earth was like when dinosaurs lived.

Resources

W. Lindsay. (1991). *The great dinosaur atlas.* London: Darling Kindersley.

T. Dewon. (1993). *Inside dinosaurs.* New York: Doubleday.

Crayons, paper for each student.

Day Two
Topic: Dinosaur Diets

General Objectives

1. The student will identify things dinosaurs probably ate.
2. The student will differentiate between meat-eating (carnivorous) and plant-eating (herbivorous) dinosaurs.
3. The student will cooperate and contribute while working on a small-group activity.

Learning Activity

Discussion: What do you suppose dinosaurs ate?

Cooperative groups: In groups of three, students classify characteristics of meat-eating versus plant-eating animals using animal pictures; then they decide if dinosaurs ate meat or plants by examining pictures of dinosaurs.

Evaluation

Sort dinosaur pictures into carnivorous and herbivorous dinosaurs and justify their grouping.

Resources

S. Morkle. (2003). *Outside and inside dinosaurs.* New York: Simon & Schuster.

National Geographic. (1993, January). Twelve sets of animal pictures; twelve sets of dinosaur pictures (personal library at home).

Parts of a Lesson Plan Many formats for lesson plans are used. A sampling is shown in Table 6.3. By comparing the formats, it is obvious that they have a lot in common. The lesson plan format we like appears in Table 6.4. Keep in mind that eventually you will need to choose your own lesson plan format unless your school district prescribes one.

Let's consider each part in our recommended lesson plan format:

Try Activity 6.5

1. *Objectives.* The challenge here is to write objectives at the lesson level that meet as many of the criteria for good objectives as possible. Remember, the objectives should be relevant to the curriculum; promote learning outcomes across the cognitive, psychomotor, and affective domains; reasonably promote a range of levels of understanding (low and high) within each domain; be written specifically enough that it is clear what each student must know and be able to do; and be achievable by your students.
2. *Resources.* What is available to assist learners? Assemble all the available human and material resources that might be used to help your learners gain the objectives. Many will be noted later in the section entitled Resources Useful When Planning. In practice, many teachers do this step first, before they write specific objectives. In any case, the lesson plan should specifically denote which resources you and the learners will use in order to accomplish the specific instructional objectives.
3. *Set induction.* How will learner interest be obtained? **Set induction** or **anticipatory set** are terms used to indicate the need to start the lesson by capturing learner

SPOTLIGHT ON RESEARCH 6.3
What Makes a Good Lesson?

Cooper and McIntyre (1994) wanted to find out what a good lesson was like in the eyes of teachers and their students. Thus, they interviewed 13 teachers and 325 students, the latter 11 or 12 years old. Teachers and students generally agreed on what constitutes a good lesson:

- **Specific knowledge or skills are acquired.**
- **Students work on and complete the tasks.**
- **Students engage in deep reflection and produce new insights.**
- **Students are involved in and enjoy the learning activity.**
- **There is a low incidence of disruptive behavior.**
- **There is cooperation and harmony between teacher and student and among students.**
- **Teaching methods are considered effective.**

attention and interest. During this part of lesson planning, we must think of ways to do so. One idea is to relate what is to be learned to what learners are interested in and/or have previous knowledge of. It has long been assumed and has now been confirmed that people work harder on tasks related to their knowledge and interests (Renninger, Hidi, & Krapp, 1992). Interest contributes to learning because, among other things, it stimulates a personal, emotional network of associations. By relating new learning to prior knowledge, associations, and connections also are more apparent. Chapter 11 details how to provide set induction, while Unit 1 (Microteaching Lesson Two) in part IV provides a practice exercise.

4. *Methodology.* How will teaching and learning proceed? Here you describe how learning will take place. Chapters 2 and 3 on student diversity and 4 on learning should be particularly useful in planning your methodology because they describe what is known about students and how they learn. Chapters 7 and 8 on instructional alternatives also are very relevant.
5. *Assessment.* How will learning be determined? This includes two things: how you plan to monitor students' learning during instruction and how you plan to evaluate learning at the lesson's conclusion. While instruction is ongoing, a teacher should "read" the students. To what extent does each one seem interested and engaged? Is the pace of the lesson appropriate? Are students learning? Your plan should include how you will determine such things. Informal indicators of interest and engagement might include facial expression, body language, and verbal responsiveness. Informal assessments can also be made by asking questions that check understanding and by observing how well and how frequently students apply what they have learned. Formal assessments, frequently used at a lesson's conclusion, include worksheets, homework, and quizzes. No matter which assessment technique you use, remember that it must provide evidence of the students' progress toward the lesson's objectives. See Chapter 9 for more help.
6. *Closure.* How will the lesson be concluded? All lessons need a good finish. But what is a good finish? Normally it takes the form of a review that gets students to summarize what they have learned and connect it to prior and future learning. In Chapter 4, you saw that when information is well-organized and connected to students' prior knowledge, it likely enters their long-term memory. You also learned that a review should require learners to think about the new information, to reflect on its application and its personal meaning. Many teachers conduct their review by asking students what they have learned or discovered.
7. *Reflection.* Now it's time to consider the experience you and your students have had and to learn from it. Following teaching, effective teachers ask questions such as

TABLE 6.3 Selected Formats for Lesson Plans Listed by Author or Source

Eby (2000)	El-Tigi (2000)	Hunter (2004)	Jacobson et al. (1985) Moore (2000)	NY Times (nytimes.com/learning/teachers/lessons/archive.html)
1. Title	1. Objectives	1. Objectives	1. Determine content	1. Lesson overview
2. Subject	2. Assess learner preparedness	2. Set induction	2. Objectives	2. Time needed
3. Grade level	3. Resources needed	3. Input and modeling	3. Introduction	3. Objectives
4. Description	4. Lesson description/ procedure	4. Checking for understanding and guided practice	4. Instructional method	4. Learning resources
5. Objectives	5. Closure	5. Independent practice	5. Lesson closure	5. Activities, procedures
6. Materials needed	6. Assessment/evaluation		6. Learner assessment	6. Assessment
7. Procedures				7. Extended activities
8. Evaluation				8. Relationship to other subjects
				9. Relationship to standards

TABLE 6.4 Our Recommended Lesson Plan Format

1. Objectives—Indicate the lesson's objectives
2. Resources—Denote resources and materials to be used
3. Set Induction—Describe how the lesson will be introduced
4. Methodology—Describe how teaching and learning will take place
5. Assessment—Make clear how student learning will be determined
6. Closure—Provide for lesson ending
7. Reflection—Conside the lesson's effectiveness

6.18  "What Format Inspires you? Why?"

- Did the students learn and were they satisfied? What might have been done to increase achievement and satisfaction?
- What are some things I learned from this teaching experience?

Chapter 14 provides considerable help if you wish to become a reflective, thoughtful teacher.

Highlight 6.6 contains an abbreviated lesson plan designed to help learners discriminate between the terms *theme* and *variation*. How would you improve the lesson if you were teaching toward the same objective? Eight more lesson plans are in Chapters 7 and 8. Highlight 6.7 provides another sample.

You eventually need to develop your own style of lesson format unless the school district in which you teach mandates a particular one. Kagan and Tippins (1992) followed elementary and secondary student teachers into their classrooms to find out how they planned. Their study is reported in Spotlight on Research 6.4 on page 174.

EVALUATING LESSON PLANS

An Instrument for Use in Assessing Your Lesson Plan. Given all that has been said in this chapter, here is an instrument that might be useful should you be challenged to prepare a lesson plan and evaluate it.

☐ 1. The lesson plan ties in with the curriculum.
☐ 2. The objectives are clear and measurable.
☐ 3. The objectives promote learning across the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains when appropriate.

Try Activity 6.6

Try Activity 6.7

HIGHLIGHT 6.6

Abbreviated Lesson Plan on the Topics of "Theme" and "Variation"

Objectives

1. Given several objects of a common kind or theme—for example, automobiles or sunglasses—the learner will see likenesses and differences among them.
2. The learner will demonstrate understanding of *theme* by drawing six objects with the same shape.
3. The learner will demonstrate understanding of *variation* by varying characteristics of the objects.

Resources

1. Pictures of a variety of automobiles
2. A variety of sunglasses
3. Paper, crayons, or markers

Set Induction (preparing learners to grasp the concepts *theme* and *variation* by causing them to think of themes and variations within their personal experience)

1. Show pictures of automobiles.
   "What is the same about each object in our pictures?" (all are automobiles)
   "What is different about the automobiles?" (color, shape, size)
2. Show sunglasses
   "What is the same about these objects?" (all are sunglasses)
   "What is different about them?" (color, shape, size)
3. "Can you think of other objects that have something in common yet are somewhat different?" (people, animals, toys)
4. "Today, we are going to learn two new words we can use to describe things that have something in common yet are somewhat different."

Methodology

1. "The two new words we want to explore are *theme* and *variation.* Print words on chalkboard.
2. "If I said that these pictures [hold up automobile pictures] have a common theme, what do you suppose I mean?" (They are alike in some way.) "What is the common theme?" (They are all automobiles.) Underneath the word theme on the chalkboard, write *automobiles.*
3. Repeat steps 1 and 2 with sunglasses.
4. "We know that things with something in common can also be different, or vary, in certain ways. As you said, automobiles and sunglasses have variations." Point to the word *variation* on the chalkboard. "How did you say they vary?" (They vary in size, shape, color.) Write *size, shape, color* underneath the term *variation* on the chalkboard.
5. "Do you think you can show that you understand the words *theme* and *variation?* Draw a group of objects that have a common theme but also show variation. Perhaps you could draw six leaves or six books or anything else that comes to mind."
6. "What ideas do you have for showing *theme* and *variation,* or what we call 'variations of a theme'?"
7. Pass out paper. Instruct students to fold paper into six sections and to draw one object in each section.
8. Circulate to guide, monitor, and assess understanding. Ask individuals, "What theme are you using?" and "What variation?"
9. Ask learners to share their themes and variations.

Assessment

1. See Methodology steps 8 and 9.

Closure

1. "What two new words did you learn today?"
2. "What does each word mean?"
3. "Why do you think these words are important? Why is it important to be able to notice likenesses and differences?"

- ☐ 4. The objectives promote the highest reasonable level of learning in a given domain.
- ☐ 5. The objectives are appropriate to the diversity of learner backgrounds and abilities.
- ☐ 6. There are provisions in the lesson for informing learners of the objectives.
- ☐ 7. Instructional resources are available, appropriate, rich, and varied.
- ☐ 8. Technology resources are appropriate.
- ☐ 9. *Set induction* is provided.
- ☐ 10. The learning activities are clear.

HIGHLIGHT 6.7
A Framework for Use When Planning Lessons on Computer Functions

Here is another lesson plan format. This one intends to help specifically when you want students to learn how to use any major computer function (word processing, reports, spreadsheets, databases, graphics, presentations, or Internet searches).

NTeQ (iNtegrating Technology for inQuiry) provides a unique lesson plan format that helps design learning activities promoting computer use and literacy. Its lesson plan steps have been modified for inclusion as follows:

- *Setting Objectives:* What should learners know and be able to do?
- *Matching objectives to computer functions* such as word processing, spreadsheets, databases, presentations, or Internet searches. Which objectives can be accomplished using which computer function(s)?
- *Using the functions:* How specifically will learners use the computer functions to reach objectives? Will they create a word processing document, create a spreadsheet, create a database, prepare a report, or navigate websites?
- *Presentation of results:* How will learners present the results of their work (written, slide show, poster. . .)?
- *Activities prior to using the computer:* What will learners need to do in preparation to using the computer?
- *Computer activities:* What will learners do at the computer? (For example, learners will look for Internet sites related to the objective.)
- *Activities after using the computer:* What will learners do after using the computer? (Will they compile information, prepare a report?)
- *Evaluation:* How will student success be measured?

NTeQ has a website with links to a related book by Morrison & Lowther (2001), PowerPoint presentations, and a "lesson planner" where you can see samples of plans for all grade levels and subjects wherein computers are used as a primary learning tool. Go to Integrating Computer Technology in the Classroom website.

Web Link
Integrating Computer Technology in the Classroom

- ☐ 11. The learning activities take into account what we know about learning.
- ☐ 12. The learning activities are appropriate for learners.
- ☐ 13. The learning activities will likely result in learners meeting the lesson objectives.
- ☐ 14. There is a plan for ongoing monitoring of student learning.
- ☐ 15. There is a plan for assessing learner accomplishments at the lesson's conclusion.
- ☐ 16. Provisions are made for summarizing what has been learned, how it connects with past and future learning.
- ☐ 17. The lesson likely is achievable in relationship to the time and space available.
- ☐ 18. The plan takes into account what we know about good lessons. (See Spotlight on Research 6.3.)
- ☐ 19. Thought has been given to what might go wrong.
- ☐ 20. I think I will like teaching to my plan and learners should learn and be satisfied.

Lesson Plans Online For a list of online resources for lesson plans on a variety of topics, see Highlight 6.8.

REVIEW OF PLANS OF VARYING DURATION

Yinger (1980) outlines the levels of instructional planning. Table 6.5 incorporates his ideas with ours.

SPOTLIGHT ON RESEARCH 6.4
What Lesson Plan Formats Do Teachers Use?

Kagan and Tippins (1992) asked five elementary and seven secondary student teachers at the University of Georgia and the University of Alabama to assist them in answering this question. Because they wanted to see what would happen naturally, the researchers asked the cooperating teachers not to require their student teachers to use any particular lesson plan format. However, Kagan and Tippins gave the student teachers a format with six components: objectives, motivation, major activities, closure, student evaluation, and homework or follow-up. They then asked the student teachers to modify the format so that it worked for them.

As the semester went on, Kagan and Tippins found that (1) elementary teachers' plans became briefer and less detailed, while secondary teachers' plans became more detailed; (2) elementary teachers' plans focused more on learning activities, while secondary teachers focused more on incorporating an outline of a lecture into their plan, and (3) elementary teachers regarded written plans as ways of organizing for the lesson, but preferred to behave spontaneously rather than according to a "script."

The investigators cite the limitations of their study, particularly that only twelve student teachers were involved. However, they conclude that lesson plan formats probably differ not only between novice elementary and secondary teachers but also as a function of the lesson's academic content. Furthermore, Kagan and Tippins suggest that "it would probably be more productive to define lesson plans as lists of major instructional procedures" (p. 487) and that planners should not be required to list "objectives" and "materials" if they are self-evident in the instructional materials. They also suggest that requiring a section on "evaluation" may promote overuse of formal testing.

HIGHLIGHT 6.8
Lesson Plans Available on the Internet

Planning successful lessons is a challenging daily activity. Following are some websites that provide access to thousands of lesson plans that might be useful to you. Remember, however, that any plan developed by another teacher for another group of students will need to be modified to meet your curriculum and your learners' needs.

- Lesson Plan Page
- Lesson Planz.com
- Educator's Reference Desk—Lesson Plans
- Teachers' Page of Lesson Plans
- Yahoo: Education K-12
- Columbia Education Center
- The Gateway: Collections List
- Education World Best of 2003
- New York Times Learning Network
- Discovery School
- Teachers Net

RESOURCES USEFUL WHEN PLANNING

As you make either long- or short-range plans, you will need to locate and use two kinds of resources, *curriculum guides* and *instructional material.*

Curriculum Guides A *curriculum guide* will tell you what you are expected to teach. In a previous section, The Formal Curriculum, you learned that such guides prescribe what the state and your school district want students to know and be able to do. For example, the Chicago Public Schools have "academic standards" to guide teachers at each grade level K–12. See Chicago Public Schools—Standards Website.

Instructional Material *Instructional materials* include those things that assist student learning of the curriculum. They include

TABLE 6.5 Plans of Varying Duration

	Purposes	Sources of Helpful Information	Form of the Plan	Criteria for Judging Planning Effectiveness
Yearly planning	1. Establish yearlong general content (fairly general and framed by district curriculum objectives) 2. Establish basic curriculum sequence 3. Order and reserve resource materials	1. Students (general information about numbers and nature of returning students) 2. Curriculum guidelines (district objectives) 3. Resource availability 4. Personal experience with specific curricula and materials	General outline listing basic content and possible ideas in each subject matter area	1. Comprehensiveness of plans 2. Fit with own goals, district objectives, and learners
Term planning	1. Spell out details of content to be covered in next school term 2. Establish weekly schedules that conform to the goals and emphases for the term	1. Direct contact with students 2. Time constraints set by school schedule 3. Availability of resources	1. Elaboration of outline constructed for yearly planning 2. A weekly schedule outline specifying activities and times	1. Outlines: comprehensiveness, completeness, and specificity of elaborations 2. Schedule: comprehensiveness fit with goals for term balance 3. Fit with goals for term 4. Fit with learners
Unit planning	1. Develop a sequence of well-organized learning experiences built around a topic or theme 2. Present comprehensive, integrated, and meaningful content at an appropriate level	1. Students' abilities, interests, etc. 2. Materials, length of lessons, setup time 3. Facilities available for activities 4. District objectives	1. Activity and content lists of outlines 2. Sequenced activity lists 3. Notes in plan book See Highlight 6.4	1. Organization, sequence balance, and flow of outlines 2. Fit with yearly and term goals 3. Fit with anticipated student interest and involvement
Weekly planning	1. Lay out the week's activities within the framework of the weekly schedule 2. Adjust schedule for interruptions and special needs 3. Maintain continuity and regularity of activities	1. Student performance in preceding days and weeks 2. Scheduled school interruptions (for example, assemblies, holidays) 3. Continued availability of materials, aides, and other resources	1. Activity names and times entered into a plan book 2. Day divided into four instructional blocks punctuated by morning recess, lunch, and afternoon recess	1. Completeness of plans 2. Degree to which weekly schedule has been followed 3. Flexibility of plans to provide for special time constraints or interruptions 4. Fit with goals, learners
Daily planning	1. Set up and arrange classroom for next day 2. Specify activity components not yet decided upon 3. Fit daily schedule to last-minute intrusions 4. Prepare students for day's activities	1. Clarity of instructions in materials to be used 2. Setup time for activities 3. Assessment of class "disposition" at start of day 4. Continued interest, involvement, and enthusiasm	1. Schedule for day written on the chalkboard and discussed 2. Preparation and arrangement of materials and facilities in the room	1. Completion of last-minute preparations and decisions about content, materials, etc. 2. Involvement, enthusiasm, and interest communicated by students
Lesson planning	1. Relate to previous lesson 2. Progress to new, specifically designed task 3. Evaluate attainment (in individual terms) 4. Project to next lesson and relate to broader plan	1. Evaluation of previous lesson 2. The larger units of planning (daily, weekly, unit, etc.) 3. Feedback from class	See Table 6.3 and Highlight 6.6	1. Learner accomplishment of objectives 2. Evaluation during the lesson; at end of lesson; sometime later

HIGHLIGHT 6.9
Subject Matter Resources on the Internet

Go to the Online Learning Center to link directly to these sites.

ART TEACHING
ArtsEdNet
Art Education Resources K–12
Art Education Web Guide

ENGLISH/LANGUAGE ARTS TEACHING
Awesome Library: English
Gumbo: Teaching Ideas for English Teachers
Teaching Ideas Center

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING
American Council of the Teaching of Foreign Languages

HEALTH TEACHING
Great Sites for Teaching About Health

MATH TEACHING
Center for Innovation in Mathematics Teaching
Arithmetic Classroom Materials
This is MEGA Math

MUSIC TEACHING
Children's Music Web
Music Education Online
K–12 Resources for Music Educators

SCIENCE TEACHING
Science Spiders
National Science Teachers Association

SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING
History/Social Studies Website for K–12 Teachers
Teacher Resources

- Resource units, which often are available from your state education department, federal agencies, professional associations, and special interest groups including business and industry. A resource unit is a plan for teaching something in the curriculum, for example, the Constitution.
- Textbooks and other print material.
- Nonprint material, for example illustrations, audio and videotapes, and computer-related material as instructional software.

Resources useful when planning instruction are available in your college or education libraries, at school district locations, and at state education departments. Another way to find instructional material is to search online using the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC). ERIC is a national information network designed to provide you with ready access to educational literature such as curriculum guides, unit plans, lesson plans, ideas for innovative instruction, descriptions of promising practices and so forth.

Web Link
Educational Resources Information Center

For your use we have added selected websites for many subject areas in Highlight 6.9.

Finally, don't forget that knowledgeable parents and community persons can be great resources for some areas of study.

COOPERATIVE OR TEAM PLANNING

Normally, you alone will plan what and how your students will learn. However, at some time when planning, you, like all teachers, will solicit the assistance of other teachers or your students. You will use either teacher-team or teacher-pupil planning.

Teacher-team planning often occurs when courses of study or units are being prepared. The principal benefit is that two or more teacher heads often are better than one. Team planning results in sharing purposes, materials, expectations, and instructional ideas. Since teachers tend to be social and gregarious, team planning also can satisfy the need for affiliation and interaction, discussed in Chapter 13.

Teacher-pupil planning is based on the notions that students should learn how to guide or direct their own learning and that they have the motivation and ability to do so. Teacher-pupil planning derives credibility from the fact that pupils are more likely to be responsive to events they helped plan than to events planned for them. Teacher-pupil planning provides the opportunity to plan activities that students

perceive as more engaging and interesting. Last but not least, advocates note that the process can be an exercise in citizenship and responsibility.

A few cautions about teacher-pupil planning. Such planning should not stray too far from course, unit, or lesson objectives. Consequently, a secure teacher who can hold students to responsible, reasonable boundaries and standards should monitor and guide the planning process. Not all classes and students may be ready for this responsibility, and teacher-pupil planning must be tempered accordingly. While time-consuming on the front end, advocates claim it results in greater student interest and time on task.

Overall, teacher-pupil planning requires skill and considerable forbearance. Teachers who use this technique must be able and willing to provide time, support, guidance, ideas, and resources. Time and effort aside, assisting students in planning what and how they may learn makes a great deal of sense if one of our goals as teachers is to help students become self-directed learners.

6.19 What advantages do you feel may result from collaborative planning?

Some Final Thoughts

Anything important deserves to be planned. Teaching is so important it deserves to be well-planned! Furthermore, studies make clear that if you are a businesslike yet flexible planner then you and your students are more likely to enjoy achievement and satisfaction. However, some of us are planners and some are not. Whatever the case, your planning habits are well ingrained, and you will bring them to the classroom. Take heart. You can overcome. If you are not a natural planner, knowledge of planning and determination to plan can serve you well.

There are no absolutes about instructional planning, for example how to plan a unit or a lesson, and most schools will not prescribe how those things must be done. Your challenge is to find out what kind of planning serves you and your learners best. You will be OK if you regularly demonstrate that you know what your students must know and be able to do and that you have deliberate plans to get them there.

Part of instructional planning, especially short-range, is selecting ways of teaching a lesson that are most likely to be effective. In the next two chapters you will learn about eight ways of teaching that are best known and powerful.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

- Thoughtful instructional planning is extremely important for you and your learners. It will likely ensure that you will teach with greater confidence and more creativity. And, importantly, it should assure that you will accomplish your instructional purposes. Thoughtful planning is important to students because you will have taken into account their diversity, how they learn best, and what interests and motivates them. Thoughtful planning is the prelude to good teaching.
- Instructional planning is often required by school districts, so you may be required to keep a "plan book."
- The first task of planning is determining what it is that you are responsible for helping students to learn. That curriculum results from your state education department which establishes state standards and from your local school district that uses the standards to prescribe what is taught in schools. School districts prepare curriculum guides for teachers showing what is to be taught in each subject at each grade level. Teachers use these guides to develop long- and short-range instructional plans.

STUDY AND INTERACTIVE RESOURCES

Go to the text's Online Learning Center at www.mhhe.com/cruickshank4e to access the chapter's **Study Guide** with practice quizzes and study tools, **Web Links** referenced in the chapter, **PowerWeb** articles and current news feeds, and **Application Resources** including case studies and video clips.

- The second task of planning is the preparation of instructional objectives that clearly indicate what students are expected to know and be able to do. There are three commonly used domains of instructional objectives: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor. When possible, effective instruction draws upon each. When possible, effective instruction encourages learners to function at the highest levels within each domain.
- Teachers are advised to prepare specific objectives as part of their instructional plans because they can be used to let learners know exactly what they are expected to know and be able to do. Such instructional objectives contain four kinds of information. They designate the target audience, the learning outcomes expected of the audience, the conditions under which the audience is to exhibit the learned abilities, and the degree or amount of proficiency expected.
- Instructional objectives are good when they are relevant to the curriculum for which learners are held accountable; achievable by your learners; promote learning in as many of the three domains as feasible; and pursue higher-order cognition, affective, or psychomotor skill.
- Research supports that learners benefit when they know what the instructional objectives are and when they result in learning experiences that are neither too easy nor too difficult.
- Instructional plans are of varying duration: long-range (semester, year), intermediate-range (monthly, weekly), short-range (daily, lesson). Since all are important and useful, teachers should be able to craft each.
- Lesson plans are critical. There are many formats for use in writing them and unless required to use one, you should find a model that you like. The format we like has seven parts: objectives, resources, set induction, methodology, assessment, closure, and reflection. As teachers gain classroom experience and wisdom, plans are more brief and focus more on the learning activities (methodology).
- A number of Internet sites are devoted to the collection and sharing of lesson plans. Any lesson selected should be modified in ways that fit your curriculum and learners.

KEY TERMS

Instructional planning, 147
Formal curriculum, 153
Taught curriculum, 154
Instructional objective, 155
Unit plan, 165
Block plans, 167
Lesson plan, 168
Set induction, 169
Anticipatory set, 169

ISSUES AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

ISSUES Here are some questions worthy of debate in your class.

1. What are the major obstacles you see to good instructional planning?
2. Should written plans be mandated?
3. How specific should objectives be?
4. What kind of learning is most important?
5. What must a teacher think about when planning instruction?
6. What kinds of persons under what circumstances might be able to teach off-the-cuff, that is, without a lesson plan?
7. Should lessons be standardized across teachers to ensure they are on target and well-formulated? (See Highlight 6.2.)

PROBLEMS Following are some planning problems teachers report. What would you do in each circumstance?

Problem 1. "What a mess! Some students finished the task in 10 minutes, some are still working on it and half an hour has passed. There are two or three that won't finish if they have another half hour. It's getting dicey."

Problem 2. "I try to get the kids to use a lot of different resource materials. Many of them can't find anything related to their topics. Some who find stuff can't understand most of it. Lots of times I think we should just stick to the text. It's handy and readable."

Problem 3. "My principal wants to see a week's lesson plans each Friday. She says she wants to see how I am doing and offer suggestions. Maybe, but I am swamped and don't know how I can do this and keep my sanity. I need the weekend to plan what I am going to do the next week."

Problem 4. "Wouldn't you know. Now we are supposed to show how each one of our lessons is 'aligned' with some state standard and 'benchmark.' Teaching is getting pretty prescriptive. I can remember when other countries used to follow our lead. It seems we are teaching what they were 20 years ago. What happened to helping kids become more creative?"

Problem 5. "Technology. Wonderful, when it works. Spent beau coup time planning a lesson that students would do online. Computers are down. Just like the TVs that don't work. I am up the creek without a paddle. We need a school tech person."

Problem 6. "Today students were removed from the room in groups to take hearing tests. I could not continue with my plans because so many children were continually gone. Then, many of the children had to be retested because the tests were invalid. My daily plans were completely altered, and I accomplished very little teaching."

Problem 7. "Our lesson required use of the textbook and a state map. Many pupils arrived without one or the other, claiming they had forgotten them."

THEORY INTO ACTION: ACTIVITIES FOR PRACTICE AND YOUR PORTFOLIO

ACTIVITY 6.1: Recognizing Domains and Levels of Instructional Objectives Given the following specific objectives, identify the level of each according to Bloom or Simpson by placing an X in the correct boxes.

1. Given a list of spelling words, each learner will use each word in a sentence and spell it correctly.

   Domain: ☐ cognitive ☐ affective ☐ psychomotor

   Level: ☐ knowledge ☐ comprehension ☐ application
   ☐ analysis ☐ synthesis ☐ evaluation

2. Given a reading assignment in Rawlings's novel *The Yearling,* each learner will make a judgment about the correctness of the Baxters' decision to kill Flag the fawn.

   Domain: ☐ cognitive ☐ affective ☐ psychomotor

   Level: ☐ receiving/attending ☐ responding ☐ valuing
   ☐ organization ☐ characterization

3. At the conclusion of the typing course, each learner will demonstrate proficiency by typing 60 words a minute with five or fewer errors.

Domain: ☐ cognitive ☐ affective ☐ psychomotor

Level: ☐ perception ☐ set ☐ guided response ☐ mechanism
☐ complex or overt response ☐ adaptation ☐ origination

ACTIVITY 6.2: Recognizing Well-Written Specific Instructional Objectives Read each of the following objectives and determine whether it is well-written. If it is, label the parts A, B, C, D. If it is unclearly written, rewrite it as a good-quality specific instructional objective and label the four parts.

- When dissecting a frog, the student will identify organs of the digestive system.
- Given a worksheet containing twenty addition examples requiring regrouping, the student will correctly complete seventeen.
- The class will know how to use a dictionary for an in-class oral quiz tomorrow.
- Students will be able to list and describe four types of soccer kicks or passes with 100 percent accuracy.

ACTIVITY 6.3: Developing a Long-Range Plan Do the following to learn more about long-range planning.

- Talk with classroom teachers or your college instructors about how they plan for a year-long or semester-long course.
- Look through state or local school district courses of study, curriculum guides, and subject matter curriculum standards (Table 6.1) to see how they can help you in course planning.
- Develop a long-range plan for something you likely will teach during your field experiences or that you hope to teach as a beginning teacher. As part of that long-range plan, it might be helpful to

  a. Consult the state or school district course of study to learn the requirements for such a course.
  b. Talk with teachers who teach this course to determine what they include in the course and how and why they make those decisions.
  c. Collect and file as many related resources (print and nonprint) as you can.
  d. Determine the main topics the course will include and establish the order in which you will present them.
  e. Think about who the learners will be in the course and their interests, aptitudes, and past experiences.
  f. Write *general* objectives you want to accomplish in the course.
  g. Subdivide the course topics into parts or units and assign a time for each.
  h. Decide how you will be able to tell whether learners have accomplished the course goals and are satisfied with the course.

ACTIVITY 6.4: Developing a Unit Plan Do the following activities to learn more about unit planning.

- If you are working in a school, talk with your mentor or cooperating teacher about unit planning. How does he or she organize various activities, experiences, and types of learning around topics, central problems, or areas of interest?
- Look over units your mentor teacher or university professor may have. Also, check to see if any are available through the professional education library or a materials resource center on campus.

- Develop a unit plan that contributes to the long-range plan you developed for Activity 6.3. If you didn't design a long-range plan, design a unit on some topic you probably will teach.

ACTIVITY 6.5: Recognizing Variations on the Theme of Lesson Planning Look at different lesson plans that are available to you from your mentor teacher, education instructor, or other professional education students.

- What format similarities do they share?
- What is different about each lesson plan?
- Which format would be most useful to you when teaching?

ACTIVITY 6.6: Obtaining Classroom Teachers' Views of Lesson Planning If you are doing fieldwork, talk with your mentor teacher about how he or she plans a lesson. You might consider asking some of the following questions.

- When do you develop your lesson plans? How much time does it take each day or each week?
- What information do you write out in the lesson plan?
- Do you have the lesson plan in front of you when you teach?
- How do you know when to change or vary the lesson you have planned?
- What advice would you give a new teacher about planning?

ACTIVITY 6.7: Observing the Implementation of a Lesson Plan Observe a fellow student or teacher implementing a lesson. Did the teacher provide for each of the following? If so, describe briefly what the teacher did with regard to each:

- Set induction.
- Communication of objective(s).
- Methodology.
- Provision for diverse students.
- Closure or summary.
- Assessment.
- Practice.

ACTIVITY 6.8: Developing and Evaluating a Lesson Plan Develop a lesson plan for something you likely will, or hope to, teach. If you have developed a unit plan, as suggested in Activity 6.4, plan a lesson for use within that unit. Or you might develop a lesson plan for one of the Reflective Teaching Lessons contained in Unit 2 of the Practice Teaching Manual. Follow the format for lesson plans presented in this chapter. Be sure to include all the essential parts.

When you have completed the lesson plan, use the checklist on pages 171–173 to evaluate it.

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