

PRODUCT RESEARCH & DOCUMENTATION

ThinkUp! Foundations Compact Guide for Teachers

Updated [October 2018]

MentoringMinds®
Critical Thinking for Life!®

Critical thinking is an essential element for preparing all learners to succeed in school and throughout their lives by practicing better thinking. Students do not enter school and automatically transform into critical thinkers. A thinking environment must be a shared priority that is created throughout the school to help students learn to think critically. Teachers need resources that offer support in assisting students in embracing critical thinking, developing thinking skills and traits, and purposefully cultivating a classroom thinking environment. The cultivation of such an environment can result in high levels of student performance, as well as that of teachers.

The ThinkUp! Foundations Compact Guide for Teachers™ is a resource from which to build a thinking-centered classroom, embed thinking traits within academics and social interactions, and monitor the integration of thinking across the curriculum and that displayed by students. Two versions of the compact guide are available: one for elementary teachers and another for secondary. With the focus on critical thinking resources, this 14-panel compact guide serves as a support in fostering a classroom culture for thinking with the intent to improve both student and teacher performance. Teachers may also utilize this compact guide to:

- develop a focus on thinking.
- clarify expectations for thinking.
- facilitate, model, and encourage critical thinking.
- acquire a clearer understanding for building a thinking culture.
- identify 9 Traits of Critical Thinking™ that develop students as strong thinkers.
- guide the infusion of thinking traits into academics and social interactions.
- obtain strategies, tips, and ideas for implementing a thinking-centered environment.
- establish a shared thinking language when communicating with students, parents, and others.
- enhance thinking and learning across the curriculum and beyond the classroom environment.
- assess current thinking practices and determine future needs.
- prompt and support reflection to facilitate acquisition of skills and knowledge.
- partner with students to achieve increases in skill development.
- monitor the successful application of thinking and thinking traits.
- initiate teacher and administrator collaboration about opportunities to improve thinking across the campus.
- foster and recognize support for thinking in the home environment.
- orient students and families new to the school to a thinking culture.
- determine essential needs and set professional development goals.
- prepare students for success in school and in life.

The compact resource guides teachers in clarifying expectations for thinking so that it is visible to all students, parents, or anyone upon entry to the classroom. This planning tool supports teachers as they network with colleagues, facilitate thinking with students, and work independently to maximize instructional time and ensure that thinking is integrated throughout daily instruction and encouraged in the home environment. The compact guide is created for flexible usage, allowing teachers to address any part of a thinking culture when warranted.

Student achievement is ultimately determined and limited by the opportunities students have had to learn. “All students must learn to think no matter the subject area. With the passing of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), this federal law requires that academic assessments for “math and reading or language arts be administered annually in grades 3-8 and at least once in grades 9-12...” (Mandlawitz, 2016, p.1). The critical issue of accountability will continue with ESSA, with assessments being used to help improve schools and inform instruction. The law allows the state and local levels the opportunity to create systems for accountability, resources, interventions and teacher evaluation systems. The federal requirements of the Every Student Succeeds Act mandate that all students participate in the state assessment program. Critical thinking is integrated into assessment items and performance tasks. If we don’t explicitly build a thinking environment, how will our students learn to think, much less think at deeper levels?

The necessity of teachers knowing how to build and sustain thinking environment in classrooms is obvious. Critical thinking skills are essential for students to succeed, not only in their school work but also in their life after graduation. For students to meet state content standards, they must be able to critically examine information. After graduation, the ability to think and adapt will stand them in good stead in college and in their careers. Albert Einstein stated that education “is not the learning of the facts, but the training of the mind to think” (as cited in Frank, 1947, p. 185). Similarly, Margaret Mead (n.d.) commented, “Children must be taught *how to think*, not what to think.” Educators have an opportunity and a responsibility to equip students with the critical thinking skills that can help them organize their thinking and transfer what they have learned to new situations.

Critical thinking and problem-solving skills are identified as two key areas in preparing students for college and career readiness (MetLife, 2011; Achieve, 2015). Based on an examination of top-performing global educational systems, a key identifier of successful systems is rigor (Ripley, 2013). Schools have been criticized for not adequately preparing students for the level of rigor

they will encounter in college (Achieve, 2006). In 2011, only 25% of high school graduates taking the ACT successfully passed all four of the ACT's College Readiness Benchmarks, and 28% of high school students did not pass any of them. ACT predictions have been confirmed: nearly one third of students entering post-secondary education take remedial courses in one or more subjects because they lack the skills to take standard credit-bearing courses (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). Moreover, research into the success rates of college students and high school seniors has shown that students' level of critical thinking is predictive of their grades or cumulative college grade point average (Facione, 1990a, 1990b; Sternberg, 2008).

In terms of employment, an overwhelming percentage of employers (93%) have indicated that job candidates' capacity to think critically, communicate clearly, and solve complex problems is more important than their college major (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2013). When asked in 2015 how American public high schools could do a better job of preparing students for the expectations of college and the working world, college instructors and employers emphasized the need for critical thinking and problem-solving skills. This is especially true today, where new knowledge is rapidly accelerating, and information is instantly available. Students with critical thinking and problem-solving skills can interpret and evaluate what they read, see, and hear to effectively make the transition to college and career.

Educators, parents, and community members also agree that critical thinking and problem-solving skills are important skills for students. The findings of the Project Tomorrow (2014), a survey of district administrators, teachers, parents, and community members, show critical thinking and problem-solving skills as essential skills needed by students for future success.

Student success hinges on teacher practice. One important function of formative assessment is to inform instruction. Rice (2003) states that teacher quality weighs heavily on student achievement. Formative assessment will help teachers make more targeted adjustments and increase responsive adjustments and interventions based on student needs. A panel is dedicated to *Assessment/ Formative Feedback* in ThinkUp! Foundations. Strategies, techniques, or tips are provided to help teachers incorporate formative assessment regarding thinking during instruction to gauge progress, to discuss thinking and define learning goals, and to make necessary adjustments. Teachers can give feedback to students as well as encourage peer feedback to improve quality of thought. According to (Black et al., 2013) formative assessment contributes to achievement of standards and intervention support. The incorporation of formative assessment and the inclusion of constructive

feedback are essential because teaching and learning can be improved. Several researchers indicate the difference can be made when formative assessment is embedded into instruction (Darling-Hammond, 2004; Marzano, 2003, 2006; Shepard, 2000; Heritage, 2007).

As shared earlier, there is a connection between critical thinking skills and success in life—not just in college and the workplace. Research has found that adults who scored higher on critical thinking assessments reported fewer negative life events. Possessing critical thinking skills helped the participants make positive life choices (de Bruin, Parker & Fischhoff, 2007). This is echoed by Nisbett (2016), who states, “Schools cannot claim to prepare students for life unless they help students learn to reason effectively and to make choices that will improve their lives and the lives of others” (p. 28).

In short, thinking skills can help equip students with the ability to navigate challenging life circumstances, economic changes, and complex political challenges. There are direct implications for educators in elementary and high schools. As teachers design instruction, it is imperative to evaluate to determine if curricula and assessment that emphasize authentic real-world problems, inquiry-based learning, and opportunities for students to apply what they know in meaningful ways are worked into the instructional design (Stobaugh, 2013a; 2013b). This strengthens the need to provide a resource to help teachers create a classroom thinking culture that supports the development of critical thinking. Thus, the intent of the Think Up! Foundations, is to offer a compact guide to support teachers as they strive to develop students as critical thinkers.

Encouraging and fostering thinking is central to student learning. In education, a shift from a focus on content to an emphasis on thinking skills is apparent. Thinking must be integrated with content to make meaning and deepen learning. Costa and Kallick (2009, p. 5) state that the standards “suggest that successful instruction in skillful thinking should be done *while* teaching subject matter instead of *in addition to* teaching subject matter. Thinking and subject matter content are neither separate from nor in opposition to each other. The implication is that a student cannot demonstrate mastery of any of these required standards without performing one or more important thinking skills.” Thus, a resource that emphasizes how to build a school-wide thinking culture is imperative. Think Up! Foundations supports teachers in building a thinking climate in classrooms with a panel dedicated to the environment. If a thinking environment is purposefully created across the curriculum, then teachers can facilitate deeper thinking, encouraging students to share evidence or reasoning for solutions, rather than simply providing facts or a single answer.

Marzano (2009) stressed the importance of a common language as it provides a framework or a way to talk about instruction at school. Just as educators use a shared language to discuss effective instruction to improve student learning, it stands to reason that to converse about critical thinking and its development, a language common to all should also exist. According to Walsh and Sattes, “A language of thinking promotes exactness and precision in expressing cognitive processing” (2011, p. 144). When a shared understanding is developed based on the common language of critical thinking, teachers can engage in deliberate conversations to make real-time adjustments in planning and engaging students in meaningful thinking experiences. By developing this knowledge base, teachers are given opportunities to improve their expertise in thinking and to better understand the kinds of practice opportunities needed to help students grow as independent thinkers. Thus, a panel that highlights developing a common language was addressed in the compact guide. When the teacher values a common language among colleagues, students, and parents, then all stakeholders can speak and understand the same thinking language.

Teachers must be specific in stating expectations for a thinking classroom if they want students and parents to support such an environment. All teachers may not fully understand what thinking expectations entail, therefore a panel in the compact guide is featured for clarification. Classrooms can be work cultures or thinking cultures. In work cultures, an emphasis is placed on students completing assignments, often at a low cognitive level. Thinking cultures nurture students’ thinking skills (Ritchhart, 2002). Stobaugh (2013a) notes that teachers can train brains in a “thought-full” classroom just as people visit a gym to train their bodies to be stronger and more agile. Classrooms should encourage student questions and inquiries that focus on higher-order thinking and deepen learning experiences.

Students should be taught the importance of thinking critically and how critical thinking skills impact their future success. It is recommended that students be taught that improvement in thinking skills is like improvement in any sport or hobby. Emphasize that the development of thinking takes commitment as well as practice, practice, practice. Students must also understand that learning how to think critically develops and improves over time. Teachers must ensure that students know the purpose or the reason behind every learning experience, so the focus remains on the learning itself and not the work. Stobaugh (2013b, p. 137) states, “By establishing a focus on thinking, teachers can transform classrooms from mass-production classrooms with students able to answer fact-based questions to classrooms that embody real learning through thinking as students analyze, critique, and create.”

Expectations should be clear and communicated to students so they know that learning is more than the acquisition of information and skill, and that discussions are not merely superficial. Only then will individuals understand what a thinking classroom looks like. Classroom tasks, routines, and assessments will make it transparent that in-depth thinking is required for success. Higher-order questions (e.g., Why is ___? What are you assuming when you say ___? What evidence can you offer to support ___? How might ___?) and thoughtful responses are desired. Students will readily observe that tasks, routines, and assessments are designed to elicit thinking and to transfer and make meaning. Translating thinking from content-area instruction into a wide variety of situations allows students to see relevance. Thinking expectations will enable individuals to effectively evaluate the quality of thinking of others and self-assess their own thinking, determining individual progress and the improvement needed. When expectations for thinking are made explicit, evidence can be gathered and judgments can be formed (Paul & Elder, 2000). With the emphasis on learning and thinking at the core of instruction within a school, the focus of the classroom shifts from acquisition of content to making meaning. Teachers can set this tone with high expectations stated from the beginning. The panel in the compact guide on *Expectations* provides teachers with a wide range from which to choose and align to the previously set school-wide expectations.

The most powerful way to raise student achievement is through professional learning. More than ever before, students need effective instruction to develop the deeper thinking skills needed for school and later in life. Research shows that teachers need on-the-job support to infuse ideas into daily instructional practices (Joyce and Showers, 2002). The need for professional development to focus on instruction is based on the assumption that the quality of instruction is the key determinant of variation in student achievement (Wenglinsky, 2000; Hattie, 2009). Teachers must understand the role thinking plays and their responsibilities in making thinking a core element across the curriculum. Both students and teachers need to understand their responsibilities in being a part of a thinking culture. Therefore, a panel about *Student and Teacher Roles* and another about *Facilitating Thinking/Modeling* are included in the compact guide. Professional learning might consist of scenarios, demonstrations, and instructional conversations among teachers and within Professional Learning Communities. The purpose is for developing a solid knowledge base on how instruction and interaction among teachers and students might occur and acquiring implementation strategies and activities for developing a thinking culture rather than isolated experiences. Discussing what might change in current classrooms and practicing what that would look like helps clarify the roles of teachers in facilitating and modeling thinking.

When promoting a thinking culture, teachers might employ one or more thinking frameworks that define the various levels of critical thinking. In 1956, Benjamin Bloom in his book *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* proposed a thinking taxonomy that is still used by teachers as an established hierarchy of critical thinking skills. Recognizing the existence of different levels of thinking behaviors important to learning, Benjamin Bloom and his colleagues developed Bloom's Taxonomy, a common structure for categorizing test questions and designing instruction. The taxonomy is divided into six levels, from basic factual recall, or Knowledge, to the highest order, Evaluation, which assesses value or asks the teacher or learner to make judgments among ideas. This framework was revised and clarified (Anderson et al., 2001). The revised taxonomy changed the names of each level to verbs to show that thinking is active and changed the order of the sixth or highest level of thought, making Evaluate the fifth level and Create the sixth level. The six levels of thinking are known as the Cognitive Domain and a second domain was added, termed the Knowledge Domain.

Another framework is Norman Webb's Depth of Knowledge (DOK), which was developed in 1997. Norman Webb's Depth of Knowledge framework (2002) was expanded to the content areas and is used to categorize a task or an assessment item according to the complexity of thinking required of students to successfully engage with and complete the task or item. The four levels of DOK require students to interact with content in different and deeper ways as the cognitive demand progresses with each level: Level 1: Recall and Reproduction; Level 2: Skills and Concepts; Level 3: Strategic Thinking/Reasoning; Level 4: Extended Thinking. Webb's DOK levels can be applied across all content areas. This useful tool guides teachers to better design instruction and assessment that increases rigor and develops deeper understanding. Unlike RBT, the verb does not categorize the level of thinking; the key factor is the context in which the verb is used and the depth of thinking required. Attention seems to increase so much more than in previous years in the amount of attention given to students' abilities to think critically (Hobgood, Thibault, and Walberg, 2005).

Still another framework described is the Cognitive Rigor Matrices (CRMs) devised in 2009 by Karin Hess by combining Revised Bloom's Taxonomy with Webb's DOK. Instructional curricular examples are featured on each matrix. Teachers might use these frameworks as part of their resource tools to guide instructional planning and assessment to ensure that higher-level thinking is incorporated into everyday learning.

Studies show that the art of asking questions with an emphasis on higher-level thinking can advance student achievement. Thus, the panel *Questioning* is included in the compact guide. For students to

practice thinking practices and ask questions, they must see that teachers value thinking. Ideas are given to assist teachers as they build a safe thinking climate and engage students in the art of asking questions that produce active, responsible and skillful thinkers and learners. Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock (2001) reported how teachers can increase their effectiveness in teaching and learning by using research findings on questioning strategies. An important conclusion showed learning to increase in classrooms where teachers asked questions related to essential content rather than questions teachers gleaned would interest students (Alexander, Kulikowich, & Schulze, 1994; Risner, Nicholson, & Webb, 1994). Fillippone (1998) found that teachers ask lower-level questions more times than not. Teachers can emphasize the importance of questioning by engaging students in high-level conversations and posing questions that encourage students to ponder and collaborate with peers.

Evolving teaching standards have embraced a new view of questioning. Danielson's Framework for Teaching (2013), adopted in many states as a basis for their teaching standards, has included an indicator based on effective questioning and discussion techniques. Across the nations, teaching standards promote increased student engagement in the questioning process and call for higher levels of thinking with more open-ended questions allowing multiple correct answers. The evaluation rubric or the system a district has in place for teacher evaluation often includes a questioning component. These expectations guide teachers in techniques and behaviors that should occur during classroom interactions. Across several panels in the ThinkUp! Foundations Compact Guides, an emphasis is placed on the types of behaviors that are visible in thinking classrooms.

In the compact guides, there is a panel with a focus on time. Strategies are highlighted about how wait-time should be acknowledged before and after asking a question. Usually teachers offer less than one second for students to respond to a question and the results are short responses or no response at all. Student-to-student interaction and quality of responses increase when wait-time is addressed noted Fowler (1975). Rowe (1974a; 1974b) studied the effect of questions used by teachers on elementary students. Results showed three to five seconds of wait-time led to increases in student responses, student confidence, evidence supporting the response, and student conversation. This finding is consistent at the middle and high school levels when wait-time is allowed after asking a question. A recommendation is to allow five seconds of wait-time. Students must be informed that this time is their think-time and time should also be adjusted to the cognitive level of the questions. In the Think Up! Foundations Compact Guides, direction is offered in how wait-time and think-time should be employed within classrooms.

Research indicates there are specific attributes that high-quality thinkers demonstrate. Effective thinkers and high-performing individuals do appear to portray certain characteristics (Goleman, 1995; Perkins, 1991). Costa and Kallick (2008, p.16) report there are certain characteristics that successful individuals “such as lawyers, mechanics, teachers, entrepreneurs, salespeople, physicians, athletes, entertainers, leaders, parents, scientists, artists, and mathematicians” tend to exhibit when faced with solving problems. They define these identifiable characteristics as “habits of mind.”

The need for critical thinking and problem-solving skills in our schools is not denied by educators. Today, where new knowledge is rapidly accelerating and information is instantly available, it is more important than ever that students know how to think critically and reach reasonable solutions. Students who display critical thinking and problem-solving skills can interpret and evaluate what they read, see, and hear to effectively make the transition to college or to the workforce and face whatever challenges life might bring.

While we see the need to include critical thinking skills, creating a culture for thinking should be given high priority. Students need to know that thinking is valued and nurtured in our schools—from the conversations heard, from the words uttered in response to their thoughts, to the physical arrangement of classrooms, to what is displayed, and to the roles that students and teachers play. A climate of trust can convey the importance of thinking in the school and even communicate that it is safe to express one’s thoughts, making thinking visible across the curriculum and in social interactions.

Beyond acquisition of skills and creation of a culture that promotes thinking, there is another consideration that can impact deeper thinking—students should become aware of and learn to apply attributes or behaviors that strong thinkers exhibit. Love (2017) reported that in 2017 a team of educators from Mentoring Minds generated a list of traits they have observed throughout their education careers that were indicative of students who exhibited skillful thinking and deeper levels of thought. Based on their varied backgrounds of teaching and leadership experiences, elementary and secondary levels of curricula expertise, a range of 5–38 years working with children, observations of students, conversations with teachers, and 7 months of focused discussions, careful study, and deliberation, these educators collaboratively narrowed their lists to nine behaviors that students exhibited more times than not when thinking critically. Collectively, these nine behaviors were entitled *9 Traits of Critical Thinking™*. These nine traits, when explicitly taught, modeled, and practiced, can guide students in becoming more successful when engaging in cognitively

demanding tasks and in social interactions at school and in life beyond the classroom. The traits should be emphasized in context with activities that align to each featured trait during instruction. To understand the trait, the development outcomes, prompts that teachers might use to inquire if students are exhibiting the traits, and strategies for explicitly teaching the traits are highlighted in the compact guide in the last panel. This specific panel alerts teachers to what to expect in relation to each trait and to plan instruction that integrates the traits into content and social interactions with students. The traits help students become increasingly aware of thinking and more alert to mindful strategies that can be utilized in a variety of settings.

A featured visual depicts the *9 Traits of Critical Thinking™*. These traits can be integrated into instruction using any order or combination of traits. By developing the 9 traits in students and integrating the traits into the curriculum, teachers can impact student success in thinking and learning. The identified critical thinking traits are basic to all learning at all levels and in all subject areas. Each trait contributes to the creation of a thoughtful environment that supports the development of skillful thinking. The compact resource support teachers as they model, support, and monitor the development of the traits. The responsibility lies with the teacher to plan opportunities to introduce and explicitly teach the nine traits. The goal is to promote these traits across the curriculum with every student—in every classroom, at home, and in the community to help students and adults internalize and display these nine traits. When students are guided to practice better thinking in school and in their daily lives, they will become more successful in cognitive-demanding tasks and learn to value thinking throughout their lives. Based on the 2002 synthesis research report, *A New Wave of Evidence*, several findings were concluded. The overall conclusion was, “When schools, families, and community groups work together to support learning, children tend to do better in school, stay in school longer, and like school more.” (Henderson and Mapp, 2002, p.7). The quality of the teacher and parent relationship appears to impact student performance. The interaction between teachers and parents can have a positive effect on the way in which students perform. It is important for teachers to focus on their roles in engaging parents. The role should be one that considers how to establish and maintain high-quality teacher and parent interaction (Hughes and Kwok, 2007). The panel *Parental Support* offers ideas teachers can use with parents and caregivers to continue practice in the home. The intent is for students to practice and skillfully apply each trait, causing their actions to become more productive and automatic when they encounter unknown or challenging situations in the classroom and in the real world. Learning how to think equips students with the ability to navigate challenging life circumstances. Throughout the compact guide, the teachers are

provided with ways to cultivate this powerful environment. With the resources or support provided in both the elementary and secondary Think Up! Foundations Compact Guides, teachers can be empowered to establish productive thinking climates.

Research indicates that thinking skills instruction makes a positive difference in the achievement levels of students. Past studies that reflect achievement over time show that learning gains can be accelerated. In verbal learning, research reports that the depth with which students process information has a definite impact on retention (Craik, 1979; Haller, Child, and Walberg, 1988). These results indicate that the teaching of thinking skills can enhance the academic achievement of participating students (Bass and Perkins, 1984; Freseman, 1990; Matthews, 1989; Nickerson, 1984). In the compact guides, emphasis is placed on an expectation of higher order thinking and learning. This is a significant shift towards what Ritchhart (2015) describes as cultures of thinking. Zohar and Dori (2003) found that when such a shift was placed on thinking and learning that all students, both high achievers and low achievers made considerable progress in higher order thinking when exposed to processes that were designed to nurture higher order thinking skills. It appears that when higher order skills are used in the application of knowledge then diverse students grasp a better understanding of content. Activities that are cognitively challenging are evidenced in a thinking environment. According to Tharp et al., (2000, p. 30), cognitively challenging activities should reflect “productive tension” which means they are neither too easy or difficult. Producing correct answers is not always the goal of such challenging activities, but rather the goal is to lead students to consider alternatives as they think and problem solve. High expectations for learning are intended to be the result of cognitively challenging activities. Therefore, the use of thinking frameworks provide evidence that higher order thinking not only appears to improve achievement but can favorably impact development for non-native speakers of English. Therefore, the compact guides provide support in setting expectations in teaching critical thinking and meeting the requirements for incorporating research-based strategies and pedagogically sound principles for teaching and learning. A review of literature does suggest that a focus on higher order thinking can yield positive achievement gains.

Based on each state’s accountability plans, all states and schools will have challenging, yet well-defined standards of achievement and accountability plans, requiring all students to reach mastery of the standards for each content area. To achieve mastery, students must think critically. As students engage in deeper thinking, the type of classroom environment will impact the success levels

of students. The ThinkUp! Foundations Compact Guides for Teachers™ support educators as they strive to build classrooms that cultivate thinking. The ideas in this resource give direction to support the preparation and delivery of high-quality lessons in all content areas. With these skillfully designed teaching tools, there is quick-and-easy access to traits which define thoughtful thinkers as well as access to practical ideas, strategies, and tips that pave the way for thinking-centered environments that develop and strengthen thinkers. The ThinkUp! Foundations Compact Guides for Teachers™ (elementary and secondary) are excellent critical thinking resources for establishing a thinking-centered classrooms and guiding students to experience success in school and throughout their lives.

Bibliography for ThinkUp! Foundations Compact Guide for Teachers

Achieve. (2006). Closing the expectations gap 2006: An annual 50-state progress report on the alignment of high school policies with the demands of college and work. Retrieved from www.achieve.org/files/50-state-06-Final.pdf.

Achieve (2015). Rising to the challenge: Views on high school graduates' preparedness for college and careers. Retrieved from <http://www.achieve.org/rising-challenge-survey-2-powerpoint>

Alexander, P., Kulikowich, J., & Schulze, S. (1994). How subject-matter knowledge affects recall and interest. *American Educational Research Journal*, 31(2), 313-337.

Anderson, L., Krathwohl, D., Airasian, P., Crusikshank, K., Mayer, R., Pintrich, P., Raths, J., & Wittrock, M. (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing*. New York, NY: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Association of American Colleges and Universities (2013). *It takes more than a major: Employer priorities for college learning and student success*. Washington, DC: Hart Research Associates. https://209.29.151.145/sites/default/files/files/LEAP/2013_EmployerSurvey.pdf

Bass, G., Jr. & Perkins, H. (1984). Teaching critical thinking skills with CAI. *Electronic Learning* 14, 32, 34, 96.

Beck, I., McKeown, M., & Kucan, L. (2002). *Bringing words to life: Robust vocabulary instruction*. New York: Guilford Press.

Black, P., Harrison, C., Lee, C., Marshall, B., & Wiliam, D. (2003, April). *A successful intervention—Why did it work?* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.

Bloom, B., Englehart, M., Furst, E., Hill, W., & Krathwohl, D. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: Handbook I: Cognitive Domain*. New York: McKay.

Costa, A. & Kallick, B. (Eds) (2008). *Learning and Leading with Habits of Mind: 16 Essential Characteristics for Success*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

- Costa, Arthur & Kallick, Bena, Eds. (2009). *Habits of mind across the curriculum: Practical and creative strategies for teachers*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Curriculum and Development.
- Craik, F. (1979). Human memory. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 30, 63-102.
- Danielson, C. (2013). *The framework for teaching evaluation instrument*. Author.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2004). Standards, accountability and school reform. *The Teachers College Record*, 106(6), 1047–1085.
- de Bruin, W. B., Parker, A. M., & Fischhoff, B. (2007). Individual differences in adult decision-making competence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 92, 938–956.
- Facione, P. A. (1990a). *Technical report #1: Experimental validity and content validity*. Millbrae: California Academic Press. (ERIC 327 549).
- Facione, P. A. (1990b). *Technical report #2: Factors predictive of CT skills*. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. (ERIC ED 327 550).
- Fillippone, M. (1998). *Questioning at the elementary level*. Master's thesis, Kean University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 417 421).
- Fowler, T. (1975). *An investigation of the teacher behavior of wait-time during an inquiry science lesson*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching, Los Angeles. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 108 872).
- Frank, P. (1947). *Einstein: His Life and Times*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Freseman, R. (1990). *Improving higher order thinking of middle school geography students by teaching skills directly*. Fort Lauderdale, FL: Nova University.
- Goleman, D. (1995) *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than I.Q.* New York: Bantam Books.
- Haller, E., Child, D., & Walberg, H. (1988). Can comprehension be taught? A quantitative synthesis of metacognitive studies. *Educational Researcher*, 17, 5-8.

Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. London: Routledge.

Henderson, A.T., and Mapp, K.L. (2002). [A New Wave of Evidence: The Impact of School, Family, and Community Connections on Student Achievement](#). Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory. Retrieved from <http://www.sedl.org/connections/resources/evidence.pdf>

Heritage, M. (2007). Formative assessment: What do teachers need to know and do? *Phi Delta Kappan*, 89(2), 140-145.

Hess, K., Carlock, D., Jones, B., & Walkup, J. (2009). What exactly do fewer, clearer, and higher standards” really look like in the classroom? Using cognitive rigor matrix to analyze curriculum, plan lessons, and implement assessments. In Hess’ Local Assessment Toolkit: Exploring Cognitive Rigor. Retrieved from <http://www.karin-hess.com/#!Fewer-clearer-and-higher-standards/cmbz/91/01F31B21-D92E-4550-AEB6-81AFBE0A20BC>

Hobgood, B., Thibault, M., & Walbert, D. (2005). *Kinetic connections: Bloom’s taxonomy in action*. University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill: Learn NC.

Hughes, J., and Kwok, O. (2007, February). Influence of student-teacher and parent-teacher relationships on lower achieving readers’ engagement and achievement in the primary grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, (Vol 99(1), 39-51.

Joyce, B. & Showers, B. (2002). Student achievement through professional development. In B. Joyce & B. Showers (Eds.), *Designing training and peer coaching: Our need for learning*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Love, S. (2017). 9 traits of critical thinking™. Retrieved from <https://www.mentoringminds.com/learn/blog/9-traits-critical-thinking-2/>

Mandlawitz, Esq., M.R. (January 2016). Every student succeeds act: Summary of key provisions. Retrieved from [http://www.casecec.org/legislative/Every%20Student%20Succeeds%20Act_CASE%20\(2\).pdf](http://www.casecec.org/legislative/Every%20Student%20Succeeds%20Act_CASE%20(2).pdf)

Marzano, R. (2003). *What works in schools: Translating research into action*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

- Marzano, R. (2006). *Classroom assessment and grading that work*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Marzano, R. J. (2009). Setting the record straight on “high yield” strategies. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 91(1), 30–37.
- Marzano, R., Pickering, D., & Pollock, J. (2001). *Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Matthews, D. (1989). The effect of a thinking-skills program on the cognitive abilities of middle school students. *Clearing House*, 62, 202-204.
- MetLife. (2011). The MetLife survey of the American teacher: Preparing students for college and careers. Retrieved from www.metlife.com/about/corporate-profile/citizenship/metlife-foundation/metlife-survey-of-the-american-teacher.html?WT.mc_id=vu1101.
- National Center for Education Statistics (2011). The condition of education 2011. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2011/2011033_4.pdf
- National Center for Education Statistics (2012). Highlights from PIRLS 2011. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2013/2013010rev.pdf>
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2013a). NAEP 2012 Trends in academic progress (NCES 2013-456). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/subject/publications/main2012/pdf/2013456.pdf>
- Nickerson, R. (1984). *Research on the Training of Higher Cognitive Learning and Thinking Skills*. Final Report # 5560. Cambridge, MA: Bolt, Beranek and Newman, Inc.
- Nisbett, R. E. (2016). Tools for smarter thinking. *Educational Leadership*, 73(6), 24-28.
- Paul, R. & Elder, L. (2000). *Critical Thinking: Tools for Taking Charge of Your Learning and Your Life*. Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Perkins, D. (1991). What creative thinking is. In A. Costa (Ed.), *Developing minds: A resource book for teaching thinking* (Rev. ed., Vol. 1, pp. 85–88). Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

- Project Tomorrow (2014). *The new digital learning playbook: Advancing college and career ready skill development in K-12 schools*. Irvine, CA: Project Tomorrow. Retrieved from: http://www.tomorrow.org/speakup/pdfs/SU13Educatorreport_WEB.pdf
- Rice, J. (2003). *Teacher quality: Understanding the effectiveness of teacher attributes*. Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute.
- Ripley, A. (2013). *The smartest kids in the world*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Risner, G., Nicholson, J., & Webb, B. (1994). *Levels of comprehension promoted by the Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) Program*. Florence: University of North Alabama. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 381 751).
- Risner, G., Skeel, D., & Nicholson, J. (1992). A closer look at textbooks: what research says. *Science and Children*, 30, 42-45, 73.
- Ritchhart, R. (2002). *Intellectual character: What it is, why it matters, and how to get it*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Ritchhart, R. (2015). *Creating cultures of thinking: The 8 forces we must master to truly transform our schools*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Rowe, M. (1974). Wait-time and rewards as instructional variables, their influence on language, logic, and fate control: part one - wait-time. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 1974, 11, (2), 81-94.
- Rowe, M.B. (1974b). Reflections of wait-time: Some methodological questions. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 11(3), 263-279.
- Shepard, L. (2000). The role of assessment in a learning culture. *Educational Researcher*, 29(7), 4-14.
- Sternberg, R. J. (2008). *Cognitive psychology* (5th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson-Wadsworth
- Stobaugh, R. (2013a). *Assessing critical thinking in elementary schools: Meeting the Common Core*. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.

Stobaugh, R. (2013b). *Assessing critical thinking in middle and high schools: Meeting the Common Core*. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.

Tharp, R. G., Estrada, P., Dalton, S.S. & Yamauchi, L.A. (2000). *Teaching Transformed. Achieving Excellence, Fairness, Inclusion, and Harmony*. Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, 30-31.

U.S. Department of Education. (1990–2007). National Assessment of Educational Progress. National Center for Educational Statistics. Retrieved September 1, 2007 from <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/>

Walsh, J. A., & Sattes, B. D. (2011). *Thinking through quality questioning: Deepening student engagement*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Webb, N. (March 28, 2002) "Depth-of-Knowledge Levels for four content areas," unpublished paper. Retrieved from <http://facstaff.wcer.wisc.edu/normw/All%20content%20areas%20%20DOK%20levels%2032802.pdf>

Wenglinsky, H. (2000). *How teaching matters: Bringing the classroom back into discussions of teacher quality*. Princeton, NJ: Milken Family Foundation and Educational Testing Service.

Zohar, A., Degani, A., & Vaaknin, E. (2001). Teachers' beliefs about low achieving students and higher-order thinking. *Teaching and Teachers' Education*, 17, 469-485.