

POWERFUL EDUCATOR WHITE PAPER

Alea R. Thompson, PhD Candidate, M.Ed

Jackie Intres, M.Ed

Whitney R. Peterson, M.A.

Mawi Learning

May 2017

Table of Contents

Table of Contents	2
The History of Mawi Learning	3
The History of the Powerful Educator Course	3
Blended and Online Professional Development	4
The State of Professional Development	4
Online Professional Development	6
Research Basis for Powerful Educator	6
Turbo	7
Relationships	9
Mindset	11
Skill	14
Voice	16
Conclusion	20

The History of Mawi Learning

As a refugee fleeing the Ethiopian civil war, Mawi Asgedom arrived in the U.S. and faced poverty, language barriers, and cultural exclusion. Despite these challenges, Mawi was accepted on a full scholarship to Harvard University and when he delivered the commencement speech to 30,000 graduates, he acknowledged that his family's story had made it possible for him to become the first person in his family to graduate from college. Mawi then chronicled his family's story of struggle and survival in his best-selling autobiography: *Of Beetles and Angels*.

Over the next decade, Mawi spoke to over a million students and educators and wrote eight leadership books used in classrooms worldwide. Along the way, he was featured on Oprah, NPR, the Chicago Tribune, and Essence magazine.

Mawi Learning has codified Mawi's message of growth, resilience, and personal success into research-based blended and online courses for students and teachers. Mawi Learning's courses train students and educators to unlock their potential by applying successful strategies that instill powerful mindsets, encourage action, foster relationships, and build critical skills. These courses improve school culture, reinvigorate educators to teach, and motivate and empower students to succeed.

The History of the Powerful Educator Course

During his decade of training students, Mawi visited over one thousand schools and spoke with thousands of students and educators. During this time, he came to the conclusion that, while student success may be the primary focus of our work in education, it is the teachers who create the culture and lasting impact of a school. Moreover, in order to create

effective change for students, any changes must impact educators. Educational researchers have reached a similar consensus. Multiple studies have shown what many of us already know to be true: that teachers' knowledge, skills, and classroom habits are key drivers of students achievement and success (Carey, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Ravitch, 2010).

In order to drive further advancement in teacher training, in 2016, Mawi Learning partnered with Mindset Works to create the Powerful Educator professional development course. This blended course is designed to empower educators to increase student engagement and improve school culture. Over 17 lessons, the course uses an exciting and accessible framework that builds resilience, motivation, and confidence in both staff and students using research-based training in social and emotional techniques. Lessons draw upon inspiring stories, the latest research, and exclusive Growth Mindset training videos from world-renowned researcher Dr. Carol Dweck to demonstrate how to build a culture of success in schools. The course is convenient, flexible, and can be used to support either a professional learning community or a school-wide structured professional development.

Blended and Online Professional Development

The State of Professional Development

Professional development (PD) for teachers can be a key intervention for improving teaching and learning outcomes at the individual, classroom, and school level (Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss, & Shapley, 2007). However, a review of the research illuminated a central problem in PD: most researchers and educators agree that the status quo is not working, but a clear set of effective programs or outcomes has not emerged to replace that status quo.

There exists a broad general consensus among researchers as to what makes professional development effective (Hill, Beigsiegel, & Jacob, 2014). Effective PD requires sufficient dedicated time and includes ongoing learning opportunities and active methods of learning such as role playing, live modeling, open-ended discussions, and classroom visits. This equally holds true for online teachers who may use multiple strategies, including real-time as well as “anytime” online training in addition to traditional workshops (Glowa, 2009). Effective PD is differentiated, meaning tailored to the teacher’s specific development needs, targeted to their students or subject, and responsive to educators’ feedback. Effective PD makes student success visible and doesn’t just leave “ah-ha” moments isolated in a single classroom. Effective PD is content-specific so that teachers leave feeling more prepared to teach in their specific classroom (Gulamhussein, 2013). Finally, effective professional development should include significant and meaningful opportunities for collaboration and collective participation, which in turn lead to greater coherence in development and more active learning among the staff (Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001).

However, if the goal of professional development is to change teacher practice in order to improve student achievement, the results are disappointing. Even programs containing these best practices sometimes do not produce increased student achievement and/or offer a weak return on investment (Hill et al, 2013). As the New Teacher Project summarized, “in the last decade, two federally funded experimental studies of sustained, content-focused and job-embedded professional development have found that these interventions did not result in long-lasting, significant changes in teacher practice or student outcomes” (TNTP, 2015).

There are several recognizable patterns among ineffective professional development. Most PD happens in short, one-shot workshops which research shows have little to no impact on student learning or teacher practice (Gulamhussein, 2013). Ineffective PD may expose teachers to a concept or practice once or twice and then expect a measurable change in their practice. Teachers may abandon new concepts or tasks if there is not ongoing training and support. Instead, PD that creates the most significant impact for teachers is sustained and requires multiple forms of practice (Garet et al., 2001).

Online Professional Development

Researchers and practitioners have increasingly identified PD with online components as a key area of growth for the education industry. Online PD offers flexibility, the possibility of remote schools having access to more diverse offerings, and can be a cost-effective solution for schools (Bates, Phalen & Moran, 2016). However, researchers also caution that online programs must follow the same guidelines of quality as in-person PD including the need to be embedded in subject matter, involve active sensemaking and problem-solving on the part of teachers, and be connected to issues of teachers' own practice (Moon, Passmore, Reiser, & Michaels, 2014).

There is not yet consensus on how online PD differs in outcome from traditional PD. Some research has found no significant difference in teacher outcomes or student achievement between online and traditional PD modalities (Fishman et al., 2013). Other researchers have argued that online PD must address significant questions about how it will foster collaboration and minimize isolated learning (Bates et al., 2016). Still other researchers highlighted the need to continue addressing the delivery of online PD, i.e. whether implementation is maximizing or hindering teacher growth (Moon et al., 2014).

Since online PD is a relatively new phenomenon, research has, to this point, been minimal. However, in the next few years, there will be increasing study of the benefits, challenges, and potential outcomes of online PD. It is worth noting that this increased study offers a site of potential interest to study the initial stages of program development, from funding through effectiveness (Hill et al., 2013).

Research Basis for Powerful Educator

The Powerful Educator course is based on the Mawi Learning professional development framework, first published in *5 Powers of an Educator* (now called *Powerful Educator*). The 5 concepts that are introduced in the course are: Turbo, Relationships, Mindset, Skill, and Voice.

Turbo

Definition. In Mawi Learning's framework, hitting the Turbo Button is a metaphor for the power of taking action in your life. It internalizes the locus of control, training individuals to take control over their actions and mindset. Hitting the Turbo Button requires taking action toward a goal rather than simply thinking positively. The Victim Button, on the other hand, is a metaphor for the power of blame, complaints, or inaction. It externalizes the locus of control, leaving individuals powerless to change their lives. Hitting the Victim Button excuses individuals from taking action because they can claim not to be in control of their circumstances.

Research. The concept of locus of control was developed by researcher Julian Rotter, who developed a scale to assess how individuals viewed control of situations (Rotter, 1966). The questionnaire involves questions designed to measure attitudes about how individuals view specific situations in their lives (Hill, 2011). In recent years, more research has been conducted that demonstrates how relevant the concept of locus of control can be to students and teachers.

Research tells us that teachers who have an internal locus of control--that is, they believe they have the ability to make a difference through their actions within their classroom--tend to be more satisfied with their job and have a higher-rated job performance (Judge & Bono, 2001). Alternatively, teachers with an external locus of control orientation are at risk for burnout and tend to have fewer coping strategies (Lunenburg & Cadavid, 1992). Additionally, research shows that teachers' locus of control orientation impacts student behavior and performance as well. Teachers with an internal locus of control orientation tend to use specific teaching practices that enhance students' learning (Cook, 2012). As Cook's (2012) survey of more than one hundred teachers discovered, internally-oriented teachers tended to be more flexible with their teaching strategies, felt that they could effectively manage their students' behaviors, and were focused on providing multiple types of productive feedback. In contrast, teachers with external orientations put a "ceiling" on their efforts because they did not believe their actions could have much impact (Cook, 2012). Developing an internal locus of control, therefore, not only may increase job satisfaction and decrease burnout, it can actually improve the ways teachers approach challenging problems within their classrooms.

Locus of control in teachers and students is often tied to similar concepts like self-efficacy and agency (Bandura, 2001; Farrington et al., 2012). Though researchers in different disciplines may use different language, these three concepts--internal locus of control, self-efficacy, and agency--all describe the belief that an individual student or teacher has the power to take action and affect change in their situation.

In Powerful Educator. The Powerful Educator course begins with the Turbo unit since this concept is so foundational for building other capabilities. . To help educators strengthen their

internal locus of control allows them to feel in control and engaged with their progression through the course. Much of the learning and development that takes place in other modules is contingent on educators taking ownership of their own learning and believing that they have the capacity to affect positive change in their practice. Therefore, an external locus of control would hinder educators' abilities to develop through the other modules.

The course begins by explaining the metaphor of the Turbo Button to educators and showing them how their locus of control underlies their approach to problem-solving in and outside of their classroom. The second lesson asks educators to consider how much time they spend in the Turbo and Victim zones and gives best practices to help educators activate their Turbo resources. The final lesson of the module teaches educators how to build strong coalitions using "We Turbo" to help create school-wide action toward shared goals.

Relationships

Definition. To forge powerful relationships with students, Mawi Learning encourages educators to build strong support networks that enable them to increase their success and help others succeed. Drawing on the work of Dale Carnegie and his classic work *How to Win Friends and Influence People*, Mawi Learning's Powerful Educator framework argues that the strongest relationships are heart-felt and genuine. Educators who form those powerful relationships with their students are able to use social bonds to enhance learning and draw in students who might otherwise feel invisible in their school. Those educators who expand their circles of familiarity to include more students are able to have genuine and effective relationships with diverse groups of students. By putting consistent and systematic effort into building these relationships, educators are able to increase their impact in and out of the classroom.

Research. Research on relationships between students and teachers consistently supports the idea that positive and caring student-teacher relationships can improve academic, social, and emotional outcomes for students (Hattie, 2008; Murray & Malmgren, 2005). George Lucas (2014) exalted the human aspects of teaching--how teachers can motivate, encourage, and connect with their students. Teachers set the tone for their classroom and are integral in creating a space where powerful learning can occur (Jimerson & Haddock, 2015). When high-risk youth were asked about what increased their resilience, they overwhelmingly cited the motivational support, role modeling, and inspiration of their teachers (Smokowski, Reynolds, & Bezrucsko, 1999). Even if the definitions of why and how teachers matter vary across articles, the core truth in this research remains the same: in the conversations about improving schools and helping students succeed, the teacher-student relationship is at the epicenter (Carey, 2004; Jimerson & Haddock, 2015).

In terms of student outcomes, Hattie (2008) found that positive teacher-student relationships have a larger impact on student learning than other commonly cited factors like study skills, home environment, prior achievement, and socio-economic status. Strong relationships can foster clear and productive communication between students and teachers, which can improve both students' understanding of content and their self-perception (Frymier & Houser, 2000). Students who feel that their teachers are supportive are more likely to show high engagement in school, which is related to higher grades and test scores (Klem & Connell, 2004).

Caring relationships can be an especially positive support for at-risk students, who often feel alienated from school (Baker, 1999; Muller, 2001). Though some teachers may feel like their at-risk students don't want to form positive relationships with them, research indicates the

opposite is actually true. According to the study conducted by Decker, Dona, and Christenson (2007), at-risk students indicated that they wanted to be closer to their teachers, and positive student and teacher relationships were correlated with increased student social competence and engagement. These relationships may have a cyclical effect, as students sense how their teachers feel about them, which may improve their feelings about themselves, which may result in more positive academic and social outcomes. These relationships can help reduce both specific behavioral challenges within the classroom and the overall level of conflict between students and teachers (Hughes, Cavell, & Willson, 2001). Similarly, a study by Murray and Malmgren (2005) found that a school program focused on improving student-teacher relationships had a positive impact on students' academic adjustment and grade point averages.

In Powerful Educator. By asking educators to first reflect on the educators who formed positive relationships with them, the course primes educators to imagine their impact on their own students. The course then asks educators to closely examine which students they connect with and why. This push to widen the educator's circles of familiarity requires a systematic approach; educators create strategies to help expand their relationships with students with whom they might not easily connect. As they build a more responsive and personalized classroom, educators are able to expand their impact on both academic and social-emotional outcomes for students.

Mindset

Definition. Mawi Learning trains students and teachers to build and use a growth mindsets, based on the idea that anyone can grow their abilities and intelligence through targeted and sustained effort. In contrast, a person with a fixed mindset believes that abilities and

intelligence are permanent traits that cannot be changed. Fixed mindsets can appear in the form of chronic low effort, crippling perfectionism, or the perception of being a permanent failure. Having a growth mindset creates physical and functional changes in the brain that allows for increased growth and higher levels of achievement (Dweck, 2006; Farrington et al., 2012).

Research. The research on fixed and growth mindset was pioneered by Dr. Carol Dweck (2006), who advanced the theory that some individuals viewed intelligence and other abilities as fixed entities while others viewed them as malleable qualities. Individuals with fixed mindsets are also sometimes called entity theorists while individuals with growth mindsets are called incremental theorists. (Mangels, Butterfield, Lamb, Good, & Dweck, 2006).

Research has shown not only that these mindsets manifest in both student and teacher behaviors but also that these mindsets are malleable (Farrington et al., 2012). Moreover, students who are presented with information about how the brain can learn and grow tend to show an increase in their general motivation and key growth mindset indicators (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007). In other words, though individual students may exhibit either fixed or a growth mindset from a young age (Dweck, 2006), students can be taught strategies and skills to help them strengthen an incremental theory of intelligence.

Beyond the conceptual distinction that students with growth and fixed mindsets approach learning differently, there is a comprehensive body of research showing that students with growth mindsets outperform their fixed mindset peers in a variety of academic and non-cognitive areas (Blackwell et al., 2007; Mangels et al., 2006; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). In terms of achievement, students with growth mindsets tended to outperform their fixed mindset peers in mathematics over the course of their two junior high school years (Blackwell et al., 2007).

Similarly, Farrington et al. (2012) reviewed multiple randomized sample control studies that reported colleges students who were given an intervention designed to increase their growth mindset had higher college grade point averages at the end of the study than their peers in control groups who did not receive the mindset intervention. Beyond achievement, studies have shown that students with growth mindsets are more resilient against academic and social challenges (Blackwell et al., 2007; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). While there is more work to be done in determining the exact nature of the relationship between mindset and noncognitive outcomes, there is an increasing consensus that mindsets are important factors in student success outcomes (Farrington et al., 2012; Mangels et al., 2006).

Given that growth mindsets are key factors for multiple positive student outcomes and that interventions can be used to strengthen students' growth mindsets, research has begun to turn its attention toward understanding which teaching practices educators can use to help students build their growth mindset strategies. Much of what we study about student mindset is contextualized by the classroom context (Farrington et al., 2012). One key area of focus has been the impact of different forms of teacher praise and language (Mueller & Dweck, 1998; Rau, 2016). Students whose teachers praised them for intelligence tended to display less persistence and enjoyment around a task when compared to students who were phrased for effort. Moreover, students in the intelligence-praise group tended to focus more on performance goals rather the learning goals of their effort-praise peers (Mueller & Dweck, 1998). Rau's (2016) research similarly connects the forms of teacher language used to student learning and mindsets. The communication strategies that teachers employ can have a significant impact not only on their students' actual learning outcomes but also on the students' overall mindsets.

The question as to whether a teacher's mindset itself impacts student mindset or learning outcomes is still a developing topic in research. A recent study, however, by Gutshall (2016) adds an interesting dimension of complexity. Students' mindsets were not only impacted by their teacher's mindset but even more so by their *perception* of their teacher's mindset beliefs (Gutshall, 2016). In other words, even if teachers express growth mindset beliefs, their students may be perceiving or being impacted by a teacher's fixed mindset behaviors or messages. More research is necessary to fully understand the connection between teachers' mindsets and student mindset beliefs. However, given the body of research showing the connection between teachers' actions and student mindsets (Farrington et al., 2012; Mueller & Dweck, 1998; Rau, 2016), it is clear that both teachers and students must be considered when discussing the impact of the growth mindset theory of intelligence.

In Powerful Educator. The Powerful Educator module on Mindset begins by asking teachers to analyze their own mindset and to identify what mindsets their students hold. Even as educators begin to understand what beliefs they personally hold about intelligence, the course asks them to apply that new knowledge to their pedagogical practice. By emphasizing that all individuals use both fixed and growth mindset beliefs, the course helps educators develop strategies to shift their own actions and beliefs without casting blame. By concluding with the importance of educator modeling, the module encourages educators to “practice what they preach” with their students, acknowledging that they have immense potential to impact their students' mindsets and learning outcomes.

Skill

Definition. Skill is the application of your mindset and actions toward growth. When students apply the growth mindset to their learning process by challenging themselves to add skills to their Can Do circle, they are engaged in the process of skill-building. If Mindset is the belief that they can learn how to do something, then Skill is the certainty that they know how to do to something. The process of skill-building requires effective praise, varied practice, and continual challenge. In Mawi Learning's framework, Skill is a constant and incremental move forward toward increasingly challenging goals.

Research. By defining skill as focused on application and continual growth rather than reaching single proficiency goals, Mawi Learning takes a process-based and context-specific approach to skill-building. Student and teacher skills, therefore, cannot be defined as any singular piece of knowledge but instead include the process of application of knowledge to challenges. In this section, therefore, we examine how teachers can impact students skills holistically.

There are many ways to determine the impact of teachers on student skill, as educational researchers continue to build a broad consensus around the idea that teachers are a significant factor in student success. Research has shown us again and again what many of us already know to be true: that teachers' knowledge, skills, and preparation matter for students achievement and success (Carey, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Ravitch, 2010). Despite this consensus, individual studies approach the question of the importance of teachers differently. Some, like Carey (2004) and Goe and Stickler (2008), focus on the impact of specific teacher-related variables as they relate to student standardized test scores. Other studies, like Jimerson and

Haddocks (2015), take a more holistic approach that places teacher effectiveness in dialogue with multiple definitions of student success, including how teachers foster student creativity, how well they communicate high expectations for students, and how they celebrate student success. Still others look to how professional development can help teachers become even better at fostering student success (Wenglinsky, 2000).

Looking specifically at the practices educators can use to build student skill, researchers have highlighted a diverse array of methods to help students learn and apply knowledge. One of the key practices that teachers can use is called interleaving--where assignments include different kinds of problems in a mixed order (Roher, Dedrick, & Stershic, 2015). This approach is also sometimes termed “random” presentation or assignment (Hall, Domingues, & Cavazos, 1994; Stambaugh, 2011). Interleaved practice is in contrast to the common practice of “blocking study,” where all problems in an assignment are from one type or subtopic (Dunlosky, Rawson, Marsh, Nathan, & Willingham, 2014). When teachers use variance in their assignments and interleaved practice, students are challenged to apply skills in new combinations. Research has shown that interleaving helps math students score higher on both immediate and delayed assessments (Rohrer et al., 2015), allowed musicians to retain more practice skills (Stambaugh, 2011), and enabled baseball players to hit a wider variety of pitches more effectively (Hall et al., 1994). Though interleaving is only one of the new and developing ideas to emergence from recent research on best practices for skill-building, it is useful as an example to show how a relevantly minor change in the organization of assignments can have significant results for students.

The applications of these practices encourage teachers to support students' learning processes through effective cognitive and non-cognitive techniques. As the research increasingly focuses on the application of best practices, we must look to create useful and relevant techniques to help educators guide students skill-building (Dunlosky et al., 2013).

In Powerful Educator. The Skill module begins by reminding educators that, while having a growth mindset is key, it is also necessary to be able to apply that mindset during the process of subject-based learning. Many educators praise a growth mindset while still engaging in practices that embed a fixed mindset, which is called the false growth mindset. The module moves to instead give educators the strategies that can put growth mindset into action, like interleaving, praising effort only when it leads to growth, and the Can Do and Not Yet Circles metaphor. The Can Do and Not Yet Circles allow students and teachers to visualize the skills that they already have and the skills that they are building toward. The use of these practices allows schools to build a culture of skill that is focused on continued growth.

Voice

Definition. Mawi Learning defines voice as having three key parts: passion, relevance, and autonomy. For educators, developing student voice in the classroom means creating opportunities where students are the primary drivers of their learning. Providing opportunities for voices means allowing students to have the autonomy to guide their learning process through meaningful--though not inherently unlimited--choice. Students must find relevance in their learning, connecting the materials to their own unique lives and experiences. And students must be passionately engaged in their work, encouraged to link their personal interests with the subject

matter of school. Educators who build student voice into their classroom use their own personal voice to create meaningful opportunities for learning.

Research. Though researchers may use different lenses to study student voice, the combined concepts of autonomy, relevance, and passion have been consistently identified as key factors for student success. Researchers studying voice take a student-centered approach that is responsive to the unique experiences and knowledge of individual students (Frymier & Shulman, 1995; Howard, 2001). To look at voice requires centering students because, as research reminds us, what adults intend for students to experience may not always be what students perceive they experience (Howard, 2001). Developing students' passion for learning, providing autonomous opportunities for study, and creating meaningful relevance requires that educators engage with their own work passionately, finding choice and meaning in their work (Newell, 2003). In other words, even as the research highlights the need for student voice, it demonstrates the need for teachers to develop their voice as well.

The concepts of autonomy, relevance, and passion are all highly linked. When teachers support student autonomy, it is not merely providing a choice between two teacher-approved options. Instead, teachers can engage in autonomy-supporting behaviors that give students meaningful options to guide their own experiences and learning in the classroom (Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon, & Barch, 2004). When teachers are practicing more control strategies and less autonomy-supporting strategies, students feel less competent and are more likely to drop out of school (Vallerand, Fortier, & Guay, 1997). Moreover, researchers found that teachers' autonomy-supporting behaviors were positively associated with higher levels of student engagement (Reeve et al., 2004). Of course, researchers correctly assert that

autonomy-for-autonomy's sake will not produce meaningful opportunities for student voice (Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, 2002). Instead, autonomy must exist in connection with relevance and passion.

Researchers have distinguished relevance from its related-but-less-intensive forms of engagement, arguing that relevance must reach for more than a superficial feeling of applicability (Frymier & Shulman, 1995; Howard, 2001). For true relevance, students must be able to apply the subject matter to their lives and find value in the work (Frymier & Shulman, 2005; Johnson, 2000). For teachers, Howard (2001) argued that making content relevant is a form of caring that is especially important for students of color and underserved students. When content feels more relevant, students report increases in motivation (Frymier & Shulman, 1995) and sense of connection to school (Howard, 2001). Without relevance, however, students may not be able to connect what they learn to their lives outside of school or their post-secondary futures (Johnson, 2000). While making work interesting to students is a related form of engagement, making work relevant requires that teachers make content responsive and meaningful to the unique experiences and backgrounds of their students.

Passion occurs when educators are able to merge the freedom of autonomy with the interest of relevance to create opportunities for students to fully engage in their work. Increasingly, researchers are studying the impact of such passion when students engage in independent projects. Some, like the passion projects analyzed by Singer & Shagoury (2005) occur as a unit within a more traditional classroom setting. In this case, students were allowed choice for a topic on social activism, encouraged to connect their experiences to the type of project they did, and presented their work in a medium that fit their interests-- mixtapes, poems,

performance pieces, etc (Singer & Shagoury, 2005). In project-based learning, these types of projects are extended to serve as the main form of educational experience for students (Markham, 2011; Newell, 2003). Students choose to learn “what they need to learn when they perceive they need to learn it” (Newell, 2003, p.8) and are expected to pursue their own learning through active practice (Markham, 2011). This type of project-based learning, is starting to be studied by researchers keen to understand how students’ passionate work is able to produce strong learning outcomes.

Given that student voice is primarily composed of these three components--autonomy, relevance, and passion--then where do we see such student voice in schools? Since so many of the student voice activities are newly implemented in academic classrooms, we can look to the success of extracurricular and service learning projects as more established systems for developing student voice. As students are often, though not always, able to freely select into and out of extracurriculars, they can be used as a lens through which we can understand the impact of student-driven activities. Researchers have theorized that part of the reason extracurriculars and service learning have such powerful impacts on students is because they center student voice in an asset-oriented environment (Celio, Durlak, & Dymnicki, 2011; Mahoney & Cairn, 1997; Mezuk, 2009). Students are valued in these environments and their interests, experiences, and choices are centered. And the results of centering voice are powerful. Students in extracurricular and service learning activities have lower dropout risks (Davalos, Chavez, & Guardiola, 1999; Mahoney & Cairns, 1997; Mezuk, 2009) and stronger academic performance (Celio, Durlak, & Dymnicki, 2011) than students not participating. Even controlling for previous academic performance, students involved in extracurriculars were more likely to have stronger senior year

GPA's and more likely to be considered college-ready (Mezuk, 2009). Using extracurricular and service learning activities as examples of what can happen when students' voices are fully engaged shows the potential for transformative impact.

In Powerful Educator. The Powerful Educator voice module begins with the invitation for educators to build their students' voices through passion, relevance, and autonomy. By asking educators to examine opportunities to bring joy, meaning, and freedom into their classrooms, the course encourages a student-responsive approach to learning that can spark increased motivation for teachers and students. In the second lesson, the course shows the power that championing voice can have for educators, both personally and in terms of classroom outcomes. By offering best practices like varying assessment options, student-as-teacher roles, choice assignments, and cultural relevancy, teachers are given multiple pathways to champion voice in their school. In the final lesson, the focus shifts to full-school implementations with wide-ranging impacts, asking educators and administrators to think about how they can leverage passion, relevance, and autonomy to create school culture of listening to, valuing, and responding to student voice.

Conclusion

Each of these powers is presented as part of the Powerful Educator framework, acknowledging that they work in concert with each other for both educators and students. Each of these concepts connects and builds on the others, so that Turbo, Relationships, Mindset, Skill, and Voice can be applied both independently and collectively to the challenges and opportunities facing educators.

As educators build their powers as individuals, they are better able to model and teach the powers to their students. And when both educators and students are building the same powers

using a common language and goals, there is the potential for transformative impact. For even as the research continues to measure how and why educators impact students, it is undeniably true that teachers do impact student success. The research underscores what we at Mawi Learning already believe: that educators are the key to unlocking student potential. The Powerful Educator course equips educators with the powers and strategies to build a culture of growth in any classroom.

References

- Assor, A., Kaplan, H., & Roth, G. (2002). Choice is good, but relevance is excellent: Autonomy-enhancing and suppressing teacher behaviours predicting students' engagement in schoolwork. *The British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72(Pt 2), 261-278.
- Baker, J. A. (1999). Teacher-student interaction in urban at-risk classrooms: Differential behavior, relationship quality, and student satisfaction with school. *The Elementary School Journal*, 100(1), 57-70.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 1-26.
- Bates, M. S., Phalen, L., & Moran, C. (2016). Online professional development: A primer. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 97(5), 70-73.
- Blackwell, L. S., Trzesniewski, K. H., & Dweck, C. S. (2007). Implicit theories of intelligence predict achievement across an adolescent transition: A longitudinal study and an intervention. *Child Development*, 78(1), 246-263.
- Carey, K. (2004) *The real value of teachers*. Thinking K-16. Washington, D.C.: The Education Trust.
- Celio, C. I., Durlak, J., & Dymnicki, A. (2011). A meta-analysis of the impact of service-learning on students. *Journal of Experiential Education*, 34(2), 164-181.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). Teacher quality and student achievement. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 8, 1-44.

- Davalos, D. B., Chavez, E. L., & Guardiola, R. J. (1999). The effects of extracurricular activity, ethnic identification, and perception of school on student dropout rates. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 21*(1), 61-77.
- Decker, D. M., Dona, D. P., & Christenson, S. L. (2007). Behaviorally at-risk African American students: The importance of student–teacher relationships for student outcomes. *Journal of School Psychology, 45*(1), 83-109.
- Dunlosky, J., Rawson, K. A., Marsh, E. J., Nathan, M. J., & Willingham, D. T. (2013). Improving students’ learning with effective learning techniques: Promising directions from cognitive and educational psychology. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest, 14*(1), 4-58.
- Dweck, C.S. (2006) *Mindset: The new psychology of success*. New York: Random House.
- Farrington, C.A., Roderick, M., Allensworth, E., Nagaoka, J., Keyes, T.S., Johnson, D.W., & Beechum, N.O. (2012). *Teaching adolescents to become learners. The role of noncognitive factors in shaping school performance: A critical literature review*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Consortium on Chicago School Research.
- Fishman, B., Konstantopoulos, S., Kubitskey, B. W., Vath, R., Park, G., Johnson, H., & Edelson, D. C. (2013). Comparing the impact of online and face-to-face professional development in the context of curriculum implementation. *Journal of Teacher Education, 64*(5), 426-438.
- Frymier, A. B., & Houser, M. L. (2000). The teacher-student relationship as an interpersonal relationship. *Communication Education, 49*(3), 207-219.

- Frymier, A. B., & Shulman, G. M. (1995). "What's in it for me?": Increasing content relevance to enhance students' motivation. *Communication Education, 44*(1), 40-50.
- Garet, M. S., Porter, A. C., Desimone, L., Birman, B. F., & Yoon, K. S. (2001). What makes professional development effective? Results from a national sample of teachers. *American Educational Research Journal, 38*(4), 915-945.
- Glowa, E. (2009). Guidelines for professional development of online teachers. *South Regional Education Board*.
http://publications.sreb.org/2009/09T01_Guide_profdev_online_teach.pdf
- Goe, L., & Stickler, L. M. (2008). *Teacher quality and student achievement: Making the most of recent research*. TQ Research & Policy Brief. National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality.
- Gulamhussein, A. (2013). Teaching the teachers: Effective professional development in an era of high stakes accountability. *Center for Public Education*.
<http://www.centerforpubliceducation.org/teachingtheteachers>
- Gutshall, C. A. (2016). Student perceptions of teachers' mindset beliefs in the classroom setting. *Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology, 6*(2), 135.
- Hall, K. G., Domingues, D. A., & Cavazos, R. (1994). Contextual interference effects with skilled baseball players. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 78*(3), 835-841.
- Hill, H. C., Beisiegel, M., & Jacob, R. (2013). Professional development research: Consensus, crossroads, and challenges. *Educational Researcher, 42*(9), 476-487.
- Hill, R. (2011) *Teach internal locus of control*. Beach Haven, NJ: Will to Power Press.

Howard, T. C. (2001). Telling their side of the story: African-American students' perceptions of culturally relevant teaching. *The Urban Review*, 33(2), 131-149.

Hughes, J. N., Cavell, T. A., & Wilson, V. (2001). Further support for the developmental significance of the quality of the teacher–student relationship. *Journal of School Psychology*, 39(4), 289-301.

Jimerson, S. R., & Haddock, A. D. (2015). Understanding the importance of teachers in facilitating student success: Contemporary science, practice, and policy. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 30(4), 488-493

Johnson, L. S. (2000). The relevance of school to career: A study in student awareness. *Journal of Career Development*, 26(4), 263-276.

Klem, A. M., & Connell, J. P. (2004). Relationships matter: Linking teacher support to student engagement and achievement. *Journal of School Health*, 74(7), 262-273.

Lucas, G. (2014) Why teachers matter. *Edutopia*.

<http://www.edutopia.org/blog/why-teaching-matters-george-lucas>

Mahoney, J. L., & Cairns, R. B. (1997). Do extracurricular activities protect against early school dropout? *Developmental Psychology*, 33(2), 241-253.

Mangels, J. A., Butterfield, B., Lamb, J., Good, C., & Dweck, C. S. (2006). Why do beliefs about intelligence influence learning success? A social cognitive neuroscience model. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, 1(2), 75-86.

Markham, T. (2011). Project based learning: A bridge just far enough. *Teacher Librarian*, 39(2), 38-42.

- Mezuk, B. (2009). Urban debate and high school educational outcomes for African American males: The case of the Chicago Debate League. *The Journal of Negro Education, 78*(3), 290-304
- Moon, J., Passmore, C., Reiser, B. J., & Michaels, S. (2014). Beyond comparisons of online versus face-to-face PD: Commentary in response to Fishman et al., “Comparing the impact of online and face-to-face professional development in the context of curriculum implementation”. *Journal of Teacher Education, 65*(2), 172-176.
- Murray, C., & Malmgren, K. (2005). Implementing a teacher–student relationship program in a high-poverty urban school: Effects on social, emotional, and academic adjustment and lessons learned. *Journal of School Psychology, 43*(2), 137-152.
- Newell, R. J. (2003). *Passion for learning: How project-based learning meets the needs of 21st-century students*. Lanham, Md: Scarecrow Press.
- Rattan, A., Good, C., & Dweck, C. S. (2012). “It's ok — not everyone can be good at math”: Instructors with an entity theory comfort (and demotivate) students. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 48*(3), 731-737.
- Rau, A. (2016). Exploring the influence of teacher language on fourth grade students' mindsets: A multi-case study. *The Qualitative Report, 21*(9), 1684.
- Ravitch, D. (2010). *The death and life of the great American school system: How testing and choice are undermining education*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Reeve, J., Jang, H., Carrell, D., Jeon, S., & Barch, J. (2004). Enhancing students' engagement by increasing teachers' autonomy support. *Motivation and Emotion, 28*(2), 147-169.

- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, 80(1), 1-28.
- Singer, J., & Shagoury, R. (2005). Stirring up justice: Adolescents reading, writing, and changing the world: Students read and wrote about an issue for which they had passion, and the resulting projects were shared with the community. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 49(4), 318-339.
- Smokowski, P. R., Reynolds, A. J., & Bezruczko, N. (1999). Resilience and protective factors in adolescence. *Journal of School Psychology*, 37(4), 425-448.
- Stefanou, C. R., Perencevich, K. C., DiCintio, M., & Turner, J. C. (2004). Supporting autonomy in the classroom: Ways teachers encourage student decision making and ownership. *Educational Psychologist*, 39(2), 97-110.
- TNTP. (2015) *The mirage: Confronting hard truths about our quest for teacher development*. New York: NY. http://tntp.org/assets/documents/TNTP-Mirage_2015.pdf
- Vallerand, R. J., Fortier, M. S., & Guay, F. (1997). Self-determination and persistence in a real-life setting: Toward a motivational model of high school dropout. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72(5), 1161-1176.
- Wenglinsky, H. (2000). *How teaching matters: Bringing the classroom back into discussions of teacher quality*. Milken Family Foundation. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.
- Yeager, D. S., & Dweck, C. S. (2012). Mindsets that promote resilience: When students believe that personal characteristics can be developed. *Educational Psychologist*, 47(4), 302.
- Yoon, K. S., Duncan, T., Lee, S. W.-Y., Scarloss, B., & Shapley, K. (2007). *Reviewing the evidence on how teacher professional development affects student achievement* (REL

2007–No. 033). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, Regional Educational Laboratory Southwest. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs>