



# **Measuring Ambitious and Inclusive Mathematics Instruction**

Preliminary Evidence of Validity and Reliability of a Classroom Observation Tool

#### **December 31, 2024**

Lauren Amos and Micah Wood

**Submitted to: Submitted by:** Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation Attention: Andy Sokatch

Mathematica P.O. Box 2393 Princeton, NJ 08543-2393 Phone: (609) 799-3535 Fax: (609) 799-0005

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We greatly appreciate the contributions of the many people who have helped make the AIM classroom observation tool and this methodological report possible. First and foremost, we express thanks for our study co-principal investigators:

**Laura Desimone, Ph.D.** Professor and Director of Research Associate Professor of in the College of Education and Human Development University of Delaware

**Maria Zavala, Ph.D.** Elementary Education San Francisco State University, Services Graduate College of Education WestEd

#### **Robert Sheffield, Ed.D.**

Former Director of Curriculum, Assessment, and Instruction

We are deeply grateful for the extensive support of Drs. Temple Walkowiak and Holly Pinter in assessing the convergent and divergent validity of the AIM observation tool with the Mathematics Scan measure.



We also thank the Analysis of Middle School Math System's Math Advisory Council for its guidance and recommendations as we developed early iterations of the tool. Members of the council include:

#### **Benjamin Aguilar**

Professional Learning Manager Open Up Resources

#### **Nathan Alexander, Ph.D.**

James King Jr. Professor of Mathematics Teaching and Associate Director, Communicating by Thinking Effectively in and About Mathematics Morehouse College

#### **Robert Q. Berry III Ph.D.**

Samuel Braley Gray Professor of Mathematics Education and Associate Dean of Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion University of Virginia

#### **Doug Jaffe, J.D.**

Former Senior Director, Sustainability, Office of Portfolio Development New York City Department of Education

#### **Sarah Johnson, Ed.D.**

Chief Executive Officer Teaching Lab

#### **Nicole Joseph, Ph.D.**

Assistant Professor of Mathematics Education, Department of Teaching and Learning Vanderbilt University

#### **David Kirkland, Ph.D.**

Associate Professor of English and Urban Education and Executive Director New York University Metropolitan Center for Research on Equity and the Transformation of Schools

#### **Jeff Livingston**

Chief Executive Officer **EdSolutions** 

#### **Aly Martinez**

Former Instructional Coordinator TK-12 Mathematics San Diego Unified School District

#### **Lisette Nieves, Ed.D.**

Director of Educational Leadership and full Clinical Professor of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies NYU Steinhardt

#### **John Staley, Ph.D.**

Past Chair U.S. National Commission on Mathematics Instruction Past President NCSM Former Director Mathematics Baltimore County Public Schools

#### **Julie Washington, Ph.D.**

Professor and Chair of the Department of Communication Sciences and Disorders Georgia State University

#### **Jason Zimba, Ph.D.**

Founding Partner Student Achievement Partners

### <span id="page-3-0"></span>Abstract

This paper introduces and explores the validity and reliability of a classroom observation tool that we developed to measure **ambitious** (cognitively demanding and standards-based) and **inclusive** (culturally responsive, linguistically responsive, and equitable) mathematics teaching. The tool was developed to inform a multiyear study of the enactment of middle school math curricula in four urban school districts. We begin by defining ambitious and inclusive instruction and present an overview of existing observational measures designed to measure ambitious or inclusive practice. Second, we discuss the iterative design and pilot test of our classroom observation tool, including how we assessed *content validity* by expert review, evaluated the tool's *internal consistency* using Cronbach's alpha, and assessed *interrater reliability* using Cohen's kappa. Third, we share the results of two tests of validity: (1) *convergent and discriminant validity* using an existing observational measure of ambitious practice and (2) *construct validity* using student survey data to assess the extent to which our tool can measure inclusive practice. Results indicate that the Ambitious and Inclusive Mathematics (AIM) classroom observation tool is a promising measure of cognitively demanding, standards-based mathematics instruction that is culturally responsive, linguistically responsive, and equitable. We found that employing ambitious and inclusive practices is positively associated with non-academic student outcomes such as math enjoyment, engagement, math achievement identity, self-efficacy, and growth mindset. In addition, we affirmed our assertion that inclusive practices are inherently ambitious. The use of inclusive practices should not be regarded as academic enrichment or supplemental and should not supplant a focus on rigor or learning standards. They should be employed in an integrated manner to improve student outcomes. Inclusive practice serves all students regardless of their race, ethnicity, linguistic traditions, or cultural heritage.

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### <span id="page-8-0"></span>I. Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic disrupted learning for millions of students. Historically marginalized communities and high-poverty schools were particularly hard hit (Nowicki, 2022). As districts and schools weighed strategies to mitigate adverse impacts of the pandemic on students' social-emotional well-being and academic experiences, addressing the needs of students who are Black, Latino, multilingual learners, or experiencing poverty was a high priority for many US public school systems. To better meet the needs of these students, building teacher capacity to engage in *inclusive* pedagogical practice—culturally and linguistically responsive and equitable—while holding students to high expectations with *ambitious* instruction—standards-based and cognitively demanding—was often the focus of district and school level investments in professional learning, remote and hybrid learning, and instructional materials.

#### **Box A.1. Key definitions and concepts**

The mathematics education practitioner and research communities define ambitious and inclusive instruction in various ways. This project and report use the following definitions.

- **Ambitious instruction:** We refer to *ambitious* practice as cognitively demanding, standards-based instruction (Jackson & Cobb, 2010; Kazemi et al., 2009; Stroupe, 2016).
- **Inclusive instruction:** We refer to *inclusive* practice as instruction that is culturally and linguistically responsive as well as equitable.
- *Culturally responsive instruction:* We draw on research conducted by Aguirre and del Rosario Zavala (2013), who define culturally responsive mathematics teaching as pedagogical knowledge, beliefs, dispositions, student expectations, and practices that collectively promote mathematical thinking, use cultural and linguistic funds of knowledge as an instructional asset, and employ mathematics as a tool for social justice (Aguirre & del Rosario Zavala, 2013; Jones, 2015; Moll et al., 2006; Turner et al., 2012).
	- *Linguistically responsive instruction:* We refer to the use of English-language scaffolding strategies or providing translation support to make a math-related conversation or task more accessible to multilingual learners (Aguirre & del Rosario Zavala, 2013; Hanzlian, 2013; Jones, 2015; Turner et al., 2012; Civil, 2016; National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018; Erath et al., 2021; Moschkovich, 2013; Moshckovich, 2015; de Araujo et al., 2018).
	- *Equitable instruction:* We define equitable teaching as instructional protocols, tasks, or content that personalizes or differentiates the learning experience for specific subgroups of students, such as multilingual learners and students with disabilities, to ensure that all students have equal access and opportunity to engage in the learning process. Equitable teaching practices such as wait time are not necessarily culturally or linguistically responsive.

Although we define ambitious and inclusive instruction separately, our work rests on the belief that **inclusive practices are inherently ambitious**. Contrary to dynamics in the education community that have marginalized culturally responsive education (Aronson & Laughter, 2016), **the use of inclusive practices should not be regarded as academic enrichment or supplemental and should not supplant a focus on rigor or learning standards.** They should be employed in an integrated manner to improve student outcomes. Inclusive practice serves all students regardless of their race, ethnicity, linguistic traditions, or cultural heritage (Sleeter, 2012).

With this context in mind, the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation's Coherent Instructional Systems investment portfolio is grounded in the belief that students who are Black, Latino, multilingual learners, or experiencing poverty will succeed when they are served within a **coherent instructional system**. A coherent system is one in which district and school visions for high-quality instruction are aligned with the

provision of high-quality standards-based curricula, effective professional learning, and instructional practice that is ambitious and inclusive.

Under this portfolio, Gates partnered with Mathematica to conduct the **Analysis of Middle School Math Systems (AMS) study** to investigate the enabling and disabling conditions (such as access to a math coach, curriculum-specific professional learning, collaborative planning time, and supportive leadership) under which teachers adopted and adapted six different middle school mathematics curricula in four urban school districts: Illustrative Math, Into Math, Eureka Math, California Math, Big Ideas, or Key Elements of Mathematics Success (KEMS). In addition to conducting extensive interviews with district and school staff, administering teacher and student surveys, conducting student focus groups, and observing professional learning and coaching sessions, we conducted nearly 90 classroom observations over the course of two consecutive school years to better understand how the instructional resources and supports teachers receive at the district and school levels influence the extent to which teachers create more ambitious and inclusive learning environments for their students.

Middle school is a critical time during which students begin to make decisions about whether to pursue college preparatory coursework in mathematics in high school. Race, ethnicity, and poverty are among the most significant predictors of rigorous mathematics course taking (Sciarra, 2010). Black and Latino students, particularly those experiencing poverty, are less likely to enroll in cognitively demanding mathematics courses in secondary school (Riegle-Crumb & Grodsky, 2010). Even when controlling for prior achievement, mathematics course-taking patterns play a critical role in explaining variations in academic performance outcomes (Wang & Goldschmidt, 2003), and failing a mathematics course in middle school is a stronger predictor of not graduating from secondary school than are low test scores (Balfanz et al., 2007). Students who do not believe they can perform well in mathematics tend to perform at lower levels than students who believe they can excel (see, for example, Chen, 2003; Cleary & Chen, 2009; Goetz et al., 2008; Lopez, 2017; Mason & Scrivani, 2004; Pinxten et al., 2014; Riegle-Crumb et al., 2011; Schommer-Aikins et al., 2005). Consequently, our study also explored the extent to which ambitious and inclusive practices can positively influence students' experiences in math classrooms, such as their growth mindset, math identity, persistence, enjoyment, self-efficacy, and engagement.

#### <span id="page-9-0"></span>**Research questions**

To explore the nature and role of ambitious and inclusive instruction in fostering positive student experiences, we conducted observations of middle school mathematics classrooms—predominantly serving Black students, Latino students, or students experiencing poverty—in four urban school districts over the course of two consecutive school years following COVID-related school closures. We investigated the extent to which and how ambitious and inclusive practices foster positive student experiences in middle school math classrooms.

**This paper introduces and explores the validity and reliability of the Ambitious and Inclusive Mathematics (AIM) classroom observation tool that Mathematica developed to help identify pedagogical approaches that foster positive student experiences in math. Specifically, we ask the following questions about the AIM tool:**

- Is it **reliable and valid for use in a large-scale study across multiple contexts** (curricula, districts, schools, classrooms, and instructional units)?
- Is it **empirically supported**? Do data collected by the AIM tool:
	- Support the assertion that inclusive practices are positively associated with ambitious practices?
	- Demonstrate that inclusive practice positively influences student belief (math enjoyment, math achievement identity, math self-efficacy, and growth mindset) and engagement in math?
	- Affirm our hypothesis that procedural learning environments are less ambitious and can negatively influence student belief and engagement in math?

We begin by detailing why we chose to develop a new tool rather than use an existing instrument. In the section that follows, we detail the design and development of the AIM classroom observation tool. We then discuss our approach to testing the psychometric properties of the tool and present the results of these analyses. We close with a discussion of our study limitations and next steps.

#### <span id="page-10-0"></span>**Existing measures of ambitious and inclusive instruction**

The research record on culturally and linguistically responsive and equitable instructional practice is inspirational but largely qualitative, theoretical, anecdotal, and aspirational. There is a dearth of actionable, scalable, and causal research illustrating effective implementation of these strategies and evidencing that the use of these practices contributes to improved student outcomes. A review of culturally responsive measures found that the majority were teacher self-report surveys, with few drawing on student reports or assessments by external observers (Franco et al., 2024). At the outset of the study, we conducted a literature review and landscape analysis to identify classroom observation instruments that meet the following requirements:

- They are **reliable and valid** for use in a large-scale study:
	- *Across multiple contexts* (curricula, districts, schools, classrooms, and instructional units)
	- For both video-recorded and in-person lessons
- They are appropriate or adaptable for assessing instruction in **middle school math learning environments.**
- They can be used to document both **culturally responsive** teaching AND **equitable** teaching (inclusive instructional strategies intended to differentiate or personalize instructional content and tasks to ensure all students have equal access to the learning experience, such as heterogenous and cooperative groupings). Our landscape analysis indicated that many instructional resources promote teaching practices that are equitable (such as "wait time," where teachers pause conversation long enough for students to collect their thoughts and respond to a question or prompt) that are not necessarily culturally or linguistically responsive.
- They score the occurrence or non-occurrence of **observed behavior, activity, or speech** rather than require a coder to inferentially *evaluate or rate the quality of observed behavior* so that the tool can be used reliably by researchers who do not have math education expertise or substantial teaching experience in math.

• They are **empirically supported** by culturally responsive practices that have been documented in research on effective or promising practice, rather than *aspirational or theoretical* approaches presenting an ideal or vision for culturally responsive practice.

We identified and reviewed nine existing tools: (1) Reform-Oriented Teaching Observation Protocol (RTOP; Sawada et al., 2002; Boston et al., 2015); (2) Instructional Quality Assessment in Mathematics (IQA; Boston & Candela, 2018; Boston et al., 2015); (3) Mathematical Quality of Instruction (MQI; Learning Mathematics for Teaching Project, 2011; Boston et al., 2015); (4) Comprehensive Mathematics Instruction Observation Protocol (CMI; Womack, 2011); (5) Electronic Quality of Inquiry Protocol (EQUIP; Marshall et al., 2010); (6) Mathematics Scan (M-Scan; Walkowiak et al., 2014); (7) Assessing Classroom Sociocultural Equity Scale (ACSES; Curenton et al., 2019); (8) systematic approach to culturally responsive practices across classrooms (CRP; Larios et al., 2022); and (9) Culturally Responsive Instruction Observation Protocol (CRIOP; Powell et al., 2016; Powell et al., 2013). Ultimately, we were unable to identify a classroom observation instrument that met all of our criteria. Across these nine tools, five (IQA, MQI, CMI, EQUIP, and M-Scan) were math-specific but did not include measures or components to observe culturally or linguistically responsive practice. The three tools that did measure both culturally responsive and equitable practice (ACSES, CRP, and CRIOP) were not explicitly designed for math environments. The ninth tool (RTOP) satisfied neither of these criteria. In additions, only four of the nine tools (RTOP, MQI, ACES, and CRIOP) were scored deductively; the majority relied on a determination of evaluated behavior based on a rubric or set of standards. The characteristics of the nine existing tools we reviewed are summarized in Exhibit I.1. Descriptions of each, including how each did not meet our selection criteria, are available in Appendix A.



#### <span id="page-11-0"></span>**Exhibit I.1**. Comparison of existing observation tools

Note: A check mark indicates that the measure contains or demonstrates this characteristic; an X indicates it does not; a question mark indicates we could not determine this based on the information provided in the manuscript. An arrow indicates there is preliminary evidence of reliability and validity.

### <span id="page-12-0"></span>II. The Ambitious and Inclusive Mathematics (AIM) Classroom Observation Tool

Based on our review of existing observational tools, we elected to develop our own tool. We iteratively developed the Ambitious and Inclusive Mathematics (AIM) classroom observation tool over a four-year period. In the fourth year, we tested the tool's psychometric properties and refined its final design based on the tool's validity results. In this section, we discuss how we designed the tool; how we used the tool to observe instructional practice; how we summarize, interpret, and report data generated by the tool; and how we trained and certified coders to use the tool.

#### <span id="page-12-1"></span>**AIM tool design and development**

To develop the initial version of the AIM tool, we adapted Aguirre and del Rosario Zavala's (2013) culturally responsive mathematics teaching (CRMT) lesson analysis tool. The CRMT lesson analysis tool is intended for teachers to use in a professional learning setting to self-reflect on their practice in nine areas prompted by a set of guiding questions:

- **1.** Intellectual support
- **2.** Depth of student knowledge and understanding
- **3.** Mathematical analysis
- **4.** Mathematical discourse and communication
- **5.** Student engagement
- **6.** Academic language support for multilingual learners
- **7.** Use of English as a second language (ESL) scaffolding strategies
- **8.** Funds of knowledge/culture/community support
- **9.** Use of critical knowledge/social justice

We built on these dimensions to design a tool that would be appropriate for researchers to use when observing a teacher, as well as to collect detailed data about the learning environment that the CMRT was not designed to systematically document (such as the range of student grouping strategies used and cognitive demand of student performance tasks assigned during a lesson). In addition, we drew on (1) research on culturally responsive teaching, multilingual learning, and equitable practice in mathematics; (2) the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics [Principles to Action;](https://www.nctm.org/PtA/) and (3) recommendations and feedback from the study's Math Advisory Council, comprising experts in mathematics education, professional learning, middle grades teaching and learning, and culturally responsive pedagogy.

The AIM observation tool documents the extent to which teachers employ the instructional practices outlined in Exhibit II.1.

<span id="page-13-0"></span>

### **Exhibit II.1.** Core AIM instructional practice domains



In addition, the tool documents characteristics of the learning environment in which these practices are (or are not) employed, including the following:

- Teachers' use of **student grouping strategies** (such as when students work in small groups or peer pairs)
- Student–teacher and student–student **relational interactions** (Battey et al., 2018) (such as instances when a teacher encourages a student to work through a difficult task or addresses off-task behavior)
- **Administrative procedures and classroom protocols** (routine- or protocol-driven tasks such as taking attendance and assigning homework)
- **Procedural instruction** (scripted or routine-driven instruction such as lecturing and administering exit tickets)
- The cognitive demand of the **performance tasks** teachers assign to students
- Teachers' use of **core and supplemental instructional materials** (such as educational technology, language aids for multilingual learners, and teacher-developed resources)

#### <span id="page-15-0"></span>**Coder training and certification**

A team of Mathematica analysts with qualitative research or classroom teaching experience participated in a five-day training on the tool before conducting classroom observations with the tool each school year. Coders were education researchers, half of whom had math teaching experience. The training was codesigned and co-facilitated by the lead developer of the AIM classroom observation tool (the gold standard coder) and a senior member of the research team. The gold standard coder is a learning scientist with middle grades classroom teaching experience and expertise in culturally responsive teaching. The training involved the following:

- Group discussions of the research base on culturally responsive teaching and for each of the domains in the tool
- Group discussion of the codes in each domain, including their definition, as well as inclusion and exclusion criteria indicating when to apply a code
- Group coding practice using brief video examples of classroom practice
- Independent coding practice using longer video examples of classroom practice

Following training and before data collection began, coders received additional opportunities to independently practice using the tool with new video examples. To certify coders, the gold standard coder or the tool's co-developer (a senior member of the research team) tested trainees' independent coding practice for interrater reliability using Cohen's kappa (Cohen, 1960). Coders continued to practice using the tool until coder agreement with the gold standard exceeded 80 percent.

Throughout the training process, we refined the tool's codes, descriptions, inclusion and exclusion criteria, and examples based on coder feedback.

#### <span id="page-16-0"></span>**Coding procedure**

The AIM tool was designed as a low-tech, Excel-based tool. This format enabled us to integrate the codebook into the tool so that coders could easily access code descriptions, coding inclusion and exclusion criteria, and examples. The digital format also made it possible to automate scoring observation data and auto-calculate interrater reliability (IRR). Using the AIM tool, coders observed and coded entire class periods (including those in which more than one lesson was delivered, such as during a 90-minute class period). In five-minute intervals, coders documented whether a specific practice or behavior occurred at least once during a five-minute interval. Observed class periods ranged in length from 35 to 90 minutes (7 to 18 intervals) with an average of 12 intervals (60 minutes). Some codes represent teacher behaviors and speech, whereas others represent student behaviors and speech, so that scores can distinguish between student and teacher participation patterns.

- **In-person observations** were coded by two certified coders. One was responsible for taking detailed notes on classroom activity in five-minute intervals, and the second coder was responsible for using the tool to code classroom activity in five-minute intervals. Coders were responsible for collecting or photographing instructional materials used during a lesson and content displayed or referenced by the teacher (such as on a whiteboard or transparency machine), to the extent feasible. Coders met within 24 hours after each observation to discuss and resolve coding questions based on the detailed notes, so that codes reflected a consensus between coders.
- **Video observations** were coded by one coder using a recording of an entire class period stored in IRIS Connect [\(https://www.irisconnect.com/us/\)](https://www.irisconnect.com/us/), a secure, cloud-based, and customizable classroom videorecording and sharing platform used by educators and education researchers. IRIS Connect provides audiovisual recording kits to support data collection. Mathematica staff with significant experience conducting remote, virtual classroom observations recruited, trained, scheduled, and monitored field staff in three of the study districts to set up, record, and upload video recordings. Field staff were also responsible for collecting or photographing instructional materials used during a lesson and content displayed or referenced by the teacher (such as on a whiteboard or a chart on the classroom wall), to the extent feasible. Video coders met weekly as a team to discuss inclusion and exclusion criteria for specific codes, as questions arose. If coding criteria were clarified or refined based on these conversations, all coders revised previously coded observations to reflect changes to the codebook.

During some observations, coders could not observe information needed to determine whether to apply a particular code (such as whether a teacher formed student small groups randomly or strategically or whether instructional materials were developed by the core curriculum developer or the teacher). Following each in-person or video observation, we conducted a post-observation interview with the observed teacher using a semi-structured interview protocol, described above. Most interviews were conducted by a research team member other than the coder. Before each interview, the coder met with the interviewer to highlight codes that required clarification during the interview. Following each interview, coders reviewed post-observation teacher interview data to resolve outstanding coding issues.

A gold standard coder double-coded 10 percent of the video observations on a biweekly basis to assess coder drift. When IRR did not meet or exceed a Cohen's kappa (Cohen, 1960) standard for reliability of 80 percent, the coder and lead coder resolved coding discrepancies by discussion.

#### <span id="page-17-0"></span>**Interpreting and reporting AIM scores**

The initial AIM tool contained 13 domains and 86 codes (or items) (refer to Appendix B for a complete list). To summarize and visualize data collected by the tool, the pre-validation version of the tool aggregates codes (or items) into domain scores. Although AIM domain scores are an indicator of how teachers use their instructional time, they do not reflect the total number of times we observed a practice within a specific interval and should not be interpreted in minutes. Instead, domain scores are reported as a "percentage of class time," specifically representing the percentage of intervals during which a practice or behavior was observed at least once. Refer to Appendix C for domain and item-level descriptives.

### <span id="page-18-0"></span>III. Validating the AIM Tool

In this section, we detail our data sources, sample, data collection activities, methods, and results.

#### <span id="page-18-1"></span>**Sample**

To test the tool's psychometric properties, we used classroom observation data collected in late winter of school year (SY) 2021–2022 and SY 2022–2023. We partnered with four large urban districts to pilot test the tool. From the full study sample of 39 middle schools, we purposively constructed a sample of 13 "deep dive" schools to ensure representation across *district*, *school*, *study curricula*, and *grade levels* (grades 6–8). In the deep dive schools, we conducted 85 classroom observations:

- 12 to 27 observations per **district** (4 districts;  $\bar{x} = 21$  observations)
- 1 to 11 observations per **school**<sup>1</sup> (13 schools;  $\bar{x} = 6$  observations)
- 2 to 39 observations per **curriculum** (6 curricula;  $\bar{x} = 14$  observations)
- 25 to 30 observations per **grade** (3 grades;  $\bar{x} = 28$  observations)
- 1 to 4 observations per **teacher** (39 teachers<sup>2</sup>;  $\bar{x} = 2$  observations)

In addition, we conducted 53 post-observation teacher interviews during which teachers reflected on the lesson observed to explain (1) the rationale behind instructional decisions and *adaptations* they made to the intended and planned curriculum, (2) whether and how *professional learning* activities influenced the observed lesson, and (3) their perspective on effective culturally responsive and equitable teaching. Refer to Exhibits III.1–III.2 for sample characteristics.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> One teacher from one school agreed to only one observation during the study's first year. Otherwise, we conducted at least three observations per school.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The number of observations depended on whether a teacher taught more than one grade level, whether they participated in both data collection years, and their availability or willingness to be observed during the data collection window each school year.



<span id="page-19-0"></span>

Source: SY 2020–2021 Common Core of Data. District A does not report FRPL data.

<span id="page-19-1"></span>**Exhibit III.2.** Student math proficiency by grade



Source: SY 2020–2021 Common Core of Data

#### <span id="page-20-2"></span>**Exhibit III.3.** Teacher characteristics



Source: AMS Fall 2021 Teacher Survey.

#### <span id="page-20-0"></span>**Data collection**

#### <span id="page-20-1"></span>**Classroom observation data**

We were not permitted to video-record classrooms in one of the four study districts. Therefore, we used the AIM tool to conduct in-person observations in one school district and video observations in three districts. Between SY 2021–2022 and SY 2022–2023, we simplified and refined the tool's design and retrained all coders. At the conclusion of SY 2022–2023 data collection, we recoded all SY 2021–2022 video-recorded observations using the revised SY 2022–2023 version of the tool, resulting in data on 23 in-person observations in one school district and 62 video observations in the remaining districts. The

final data set excludes SY 2021–2022 observation data collected in person because we cannot recode live observations.

Anticipating a need to validate our tool, we concurrently coded 76<sup>3</sup> of the classroom observations we conducted with the AIM tool in SY 2021–2022 and SY 2022–2023 using the Mathematics Scan observation tool (M-Scan; Bostic et al., 2021; Walkowiak et al., 2014, 2018). The M-Scan is a validated observation protocol designed to assess the degree to which teachers create opportunities for students to do the following:

- **1.** Engage in cognitively demanding tasks
- **2.** Identify, apply, and adapt a variety of strategies to solve problems
- **3.** Connect mathematics to other mathematical concepts, their own experience, to the world around them, and to other disciplines
- **4.** Use, contextualize, illustrate, and translate math ideas and concepts through multiple representations (such as pictures, graphs, symbols, and words)
- **5.** Use mathematical tools (such as calculators, pattern blocks, fraction strips, counters, and virtual tools) to represent abstract mathematical concepts
- **6.** Express their mathematical ideas openly and communicate their mathematical thinking clearly to their peers and teacher using the language of mathematics
- **7.** Provide exp*lanations and justifications*, both orally and on written assignments

The M-Scan tool co-developers (the gold standard coders) trained three Mathematica coders—who were different from the AIM coders—on conducting observations with the tool in a five-day training. The gold standard coders had substantial classroom teaching experience and were math education experts. The three Mathematica coders had classroom teaching experience or had completed substantial coursework in math at the postsecondary level. The training involved reading, listening to conversations about each coding dimension, watching videos, and coding practice videos. The training involved a four-phase process: (1) preparation, (2) training and mastery, (3) reliability, and (4) drift test. The gold standard coders tracked and recorded trainees' progress in attaining and maintaining reliability through the four phases. Trainees practiced with the gold standard coders on at least two full class mathematics videos. After the training session, trainees watched two video-recorded classes independently and took notes. Afterward, trainees' ratings were compared to those of the gold standard coders. After trainees watched and coded the assigned set of "training" videos, the gold standard coders identified gaps and looked for convergence. More training videos were assigned if gaps were present. Trainees moved to the reliability phase when ratings from the training videos converged with ratings from the gold standard codes. Trainees watched and coded six mathematics "reliability" video observations, without conferring with the gold standard coder. After the gold standard coder verified that the trainee was reliable, the trainee was able to code mathematics observations using the M-Scan.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> We were unable to concurrently code nine of the in-person observations because those classes were taught in Spanish. Although one of our certified AIM coders is a fluent Spanish speaker, none of our certified M-Scan coders were fluent in Spanish.

To use the M-Scan tool, coders watch the first 30 minutes of a video-recorded lesson and take notes throughout the 30-minute segment to record what occurs during the lesson. Coders write their notes on the back of the coding sheet or on separate pieces of paper. The notes are used as examples and references when completing the M-Scan coding for that segment. After the first 30 minutes, the video is paused to allow coders to reflect and mark "soft codes" (that is, initial ratings) on the coding sheet by underlining the number corresponding to the initial code. These marks serve as indicators of what happened during the first part of the lesson. After assigning "soft codes" for the first 30 minutes, coders continue watching the lesson, following the procedures from the first 30-minute segment. Once coders have watched the entire lesson, they assign final codes of 1 to 7 to each dimension, where 1 and 2 represent a low rating (limited evidence of this domain), 3 to 5 represent a moderate rating, and 6 and 7 represent a high rating (more evidence and stronger in nature).

We used M-Scan's scoring rubrics to rate both the quality and frequency with which a teacher demonstrated each of the seven domains listed above during a lesson. We analyzed M-Scan ratings for a total of 76 lessons representing 25 different teachers; this included one to four observations per teacher, depending on whether they taught more than one grade level.

In-person observations were coded by one of the gold standard coders who co-developed the M-Scan and co-facilitated M-Scan training. All video observations were coded by one or two coders. During the data collection period, roughly 25 percent of the lessons were double-coded. In addition, the gold standard coders randomly checked for reliability on 20 percent of the videos, and they resolved coder discrepancies. To analyze M-Scan data, we calculated average ratings for each M-Scan domain.

#### <span id="page-22-0"></span>**Student survey**

In the fall and spring of SY 2021–2022 and SY 2022–2023, we administered student surveys that asked students about their classroom experiences and beliefs, including their math enjoyment, engagement, self-efficacy, math achievement identity, and growth mindset. We analyzed survey data for 1835 students associated with the teachers we observed.

### <span id="page-23-0"></span>IV.Methods and Results

In this section, we detail our preliminary tests of the AIM tool's psychometric properties and present the results of these analyses. We collected evidence of *face validity* by expert review, assessed IRR using Cohen's kappa, evaluated the tool's *internal consistency* using Cronbach's alpha, and conducted two tests of validity: (1) *convergent and discriminant validity* using an existing observational measure of ambitious practice and (2) *construct validity* using student survey data to assess the extent to which our tool can measure inclusive practice. Lastly, we visualized the data produced by the tool to build evidence of the tool's capacity to measure ambitious and inclusive practice across instructional settings and curricula.

#### <span id="page-23-1"></span>**Face validity**

Face validity refers to a type of validity based on a subjective judgement that a measure is covering the constructs that it aims to measure. In addition to conducting a literature review on research and evaluations of ambitious and inclusive practice (summarized above in the section on the AIM tool's design and development), we examined face validity by expert review. We consulted with members of our Math Advisory Council—comprising experts in mathematics education, professional learning, middle grades teaching and learning, and culturally responsive pedagogy—to vet and refine our list of initial codes, code descriptions, and code inclusion and exclusion criteria. These experts also reviewed and provided feedback on our initial approach to grouping codes into domains (such as student grouping strategies and performance tasks) and sub-domains (such as positive or negative relational interactions).

#### <span id="page-23-2"></span>**Interrater reliability**

To ensure the tool can be consistently used to score a lesson across coders, teachers, lessons, curricula, and classrooms, we assessed interrater reliability using Cohen's kappa (Cohen, 1960). A senior member of the research team who led the development of the revised versions of the tool randomly selected 10 percent of all SY 2021–2022 observation data to conduct secondary, independent coding and resolved discrepancies with the initial coder by discussion. The same senior member of the team randomly doublecoded 10 percent of all SY 2022–2023 observation data and all SY 2021–2022 video observations that were recoded using the SY 2022–2023 version of the tool to assess interrater reliability. Using Cohen's kappa, we estimated coder agreement as 89 percent at the domain level and 83 percent at the item level for the final data set.

#### <span id="page-23-3"></span>**Internal consistency of AIM teacher performance scales and AIM learning environment composite indicators**

In this section, we discuss how we used AIM tool items and domains (groups of items) to construct and test the internal consistency of two types of measures:

- **1. AIM teacher performance scales** to *evaluate*, classify, and compare the extent to which teachers use ambitious and inclusive practices
- **2. AIM learning environment composite indicators** to *contextualize* the enabling and disabling conditions under which teachers use ambitious and inclusive practices

We designed these measures to simplify summarizing and reporting data collected with the AIM tool.

#### <span id="page-24-0"></span>**AIM teacher performance scales**

Ultimately, we sought to develop reliable scales that we could use to evaluate, classify, and compare teacher performance with data collected with the AIM tool. To this end, we first explored the internal consistency of each AIM domain. Internal consistency estimates the extent to which a set of items that comprise a scale reliably measure the same construct. We used Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951), one of the most common methods for estimating internal consistency (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Cronbach's alpha considers the average intercorrelations of items and the number of items in a scale. Scales or domains constructed with a small number of items tend to perform poorly. Many of the initial AIM tool domains comprised just two items. For example, of the eight domains the tool defines as core ambitious and inclusive instructional practices, only three were found to be reliable due to low alphas. This indicates that the domains cannot be used reliably to assess teacher performance (Exhibit IV.1).

<span id="page-24-1"></span>



\* Acceptable internal consistency ( $\alpha$  > 0.70).

NA = Domain has zero variance items.

Consequently, we iteratively constructed and tested the reliability of five performance scales that use items within and across multiple domains based on theorized relationships between AIM domains or items suggested by research on ambitious and inclusive teaching (Exhibit IV.2). We adjusted poorly performing scales (no or weak correlation between items) by discarding poorly correlated items (*r* < 0.40) to improve scale reliability (Exhibit IV.3). Appendix D details the items we used to construct each scale.



#### <span id="page-24-2"></span>**Exhibit IV.2.** AIM teacher performance scale descriptions



The scales we constructed—ambitious practice, inclusive practice, core AIM instructional practice, studentcentered practice, and teacher-centered practice—were found to be reliable  $(\alpha > 0.70)$  based on a 0.70 to 0.95 range of acceptability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Exhibit IV.3 presents reliability coefficients for the five performance scales.

#### <span id="page-25-1"></span>**Exhibit IV.3.** Reliability coefficients for the AIM teacher performance scales



\* Acceptable internal consistency (α >0.70).

\*\* Excludes three zero variance items in the core AIM instructional practice domains: S\_IC1, T\_EM1, and S\_EM1.

NA = Domain has zero variance items.

### <span id="page-25-0"></span>V. AIM learning environment composite indicators

To contextualize these performance scale scores, we developed composite indicators to characterize the learning environment in which teachers used (or did not use) ambitious and inclusive practices. We first grouped items that represent different characteristics or features of a learning environment into six subdomains based on theorized or empirically supported relationships suggested by research on ambitious and inclusive instruction:

- **1.** Positive relational interactions
- **2.** Negative relational interactions
- **3.** Administrative procedures and classroom protocols
- **4.** Procedural instruction
- **5.** High cognitive (performance tasks)
- **6.** Low cognitive (performance tasks)

Refer to Appendix D for the list of items grouped into each sub-domain. As indicated in Exhibit IV.4, none of these sub-domains were found to be reliable ( $\alpha$  < 0.70).

#### <span id="page-26-0"></span>**Exhibit IV.4.** Reliability coefficients for sub-domains used to construct AIM learning environment composite indicators



\* Value is negative due to a negative average covariance among items violating reliability model assumptions. This suggests a need to either recode these items or reverse code them.

With these sub-domains, we constructed six composite indicators:

- **1. Student grouping strategy gap:** When the gap is a positive value, students spent more time during an observed lesson working in peer pairs or small groups than in whole-class activities or doing independent desk work.
- **2. Positive classroom culture:** When the value is positive, more positive than negative teacher–student and student–student interactions were observed.
- **3. Ambitious–inclusive–procedural instruction ratio:** When the ratio is greater than 1, a teacher predominantly employed ambitious and/or inclusive practices during a lesson. When the ratio is less than 1, teachers predominantly employed procedural practices during a lesson.
- **4. Student–teacher centeredness gap:** When the gap is a positive value, observed classroom practice was more student centered than teacher centered.
- **5. High-low cognitive demand gap:** When the gap is a positive value, students participated in more high-cognitive demand than low-cognitive performance tasks during a lesson.
- **6. Core-supplemental curriculum gap:** When the gap is positive, a teacher used the core curriculum more than supplemental materials during an observed lesson.

Appendix D outlines how we constructed, calculated, and interpreted each indicator.

Despite finding no evidence of reliability for the sub-domains used to construct these indicators, we believe they still hold promise and merit further investigation. For example:

- The **classroom culture** indicator is positively correlated with each of the five AIM scales for which we found evidence of reliability: *ambitious instructional practice* (*r* = 0.566; p = 0.000); *inclusive instructional practice* (*r* = 0.681; p = 0.000); *core AIM instructional practice* (*r* = 0.612; p = 0.000); *student-centered practice* ( $r = 0.676$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ); and *teacher-centered practice* ( $r = 0.485$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ). For instance, students in our sample experienced increasingly more positive classroom culture—more positive than negative interactions with their teacher and peers—the more their teacher used core AIM instructional practices (Exhibit IV.5).
- The **ambitious–inclusive–procedural instruction ratio** is positively correlated with school-level student math proficiency scores for *grade* 6 ( $r = 0.423$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ), *grade* 7 ( $r = 0.446$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ), and *grade 8* ( $r = 0.421$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ), as well as proficiency in English language arts for *grade 6* ( $r = 0.436$ ;  $p = 0.426$

0.000), *grade 7* (*r* = 0.426; p = 0.000), and *grade 8* (*r* = 0.421; p = 0.000). This suggests that the ratio could be an indicator of the coherence of the instructional climate in a school. For instance, the percentage of grade 6 students demonstrating proficiency in math is highest when the ratio is high when teachers use ambitious and inclusive instructional practices more than procedural ones (Exhibit IV.6).

<span id="page-27-0"></span>



#### <span id="page-27-1"></span>**Exhibit IV.6.** Ambitious–inclusive–procedural instruction ratios appear to be higher in schools in which there is a larger percentage of students demonstrating math proficiency



### <span id="page-28-0"></span>VI.Construct validity

We used student survey data to (1) assess the extent to which our tool can measure inclusive practice and (2) evaluate our hypothesis that procedural learning environments are less ambitious and can negatively influence student belief and engagement in math. Decades of research has demonstrated that students' beliefs about themselves and their mathematical abilities, as well as their enjoyment of mathematics, are strong predictors of mathematics performance (Exhibit IV.7).



#### <span id="page-28-1"></span>**Exhibit IV.7.** Research on student beliefs about mathematics

We constructed student survey scales for five constructs—math enjoyment, engagement, math achievement identity, math self-efficacy, and growth mindset—by calculating the average of all items associated with each construct. We calculated Cronbach's alpha to assess the reliability of each scale. First, we ensured that the alpha for each scale was equal to 0.70 or greater and that the alpha value would not be improved by removing any items. If either of these conditions was not met, we discussed as a group whether to remove any items from the scale. A list of the scales we created for the student surveys and the items that comprise each scale are listed in Appendix B.

We ran bivariate correlations between each of these scales and AIM tool scale scores, domain scores, subdomain scores, and items to test the AMS study's hypotheses that inclusive practice and positive relational interactions between students and teachers can foster students' math enjoyment, engagement, math achievement identity, math self-efficacy, and growth mindset. Comparatively, we tested the hypothesis that procedural learning environments are less ambitious and can negatively influence math enjoyment, engagement, math self-efficacy, math achievement identity, or growth mindset.

#### <span id="page-29-0"></span>**Influence of inclusive practice on students' classroom experiences**

- Correlational analyses somewhat affirm our hypothesis that inclusive practice can foster students' math enjoyment, engagement, math achievement identity, math self-efficacy, and growth mindset. We found that AIM's inclusive practice performance scale is not associated with any of our non-academic student outcomes of interest. However, we also found the following:
- **The AIM inclusive instructional practice performance scale is** *positively* **associated with the AIM classroom culture composite indicator** (*r* = 0.768, p = 0.000) designed to measure supportive and inclusive relational interactions between students and teachers, such as those referenced in Exhibit IV.8.
- **A growth mindset is positively correlated with the core AIM instructional practice performance scale** (*r* = 0.574, p = 0.002), which includes such inclusive practices as *developing multilingual learners' academic literacy in mathematics* and *drawing on students' cultural and community funds of knowledge* as an asset for learning.

In addition, we found that our non-academic student outcomes of interest were positively correlated with culturally and linguistically responsive or equitable practices that are theorized to have a positive influence on student beliefs and experiences in math classrooms—for example, in Byrd's (2016) study of the relationship between student perceptions of their classroom experiences and culturally responsive pedagogy. (Exhibit IV.9).



#### <span id="page-29-1"></span>**Exhibit IV.8.** Relationship between non-academic student outcomes and AIM measures of culturally responsive, linguistically responsive, and equitable instructional practice



**Notably, we also found that the AIM inclusive instructional practice performance scale is** *positively*  **associated with the AIM ambitious instructional practice performance scale**  $(r = 0.481, p = 0.000)$ that includes instructional practices such as engaging students in authentic problem solving, in mathematical discourse, and in tasks that require them to explain or justify their thinking. These results support our assertion that *inclusive and ambitious practice are complementary but not redundant. They measure distinct pedagogical strategies*. Moreover, the use of inclusive practices should not supplant a focus on rigor or learning standards.

We also found that **student growth mindset**—the belief that our ability to learn is not fixed but can be developed over time—is positively correlated with AIM's (1) ambitious instructional practice performance scale  $(r = 0.437, p = 0.23)$  and (2) ambitious-inclusive-procedural instruction ratio  $(r = 0.454, p = 0.017)$ .

#### <span id="page-30-0"></span>**Influence of procedural instruction on students' classroom experiences**

Correlational analyses did not affirm our hypothesis that procedural learning environments are less ambitious but do affirm our hypothesis that they can negatively influence math enjoyment, engagement, math achievement identity, or growth mindset. Although we found no evidence of a relationship between our procedural instruction measures and AIM's ambitious practice teacher performance scale or measures of low cognitive demand, we did find the following:

• **Initiation–response–evaluation (IRE) questioning**—the procedural practice that involves a teacher posing a question (for which there is a presumption of a "correct" or specific answer and that requires no elaboration or justification on the student's part) assesses the correctness of a student's response and gives close-ended feedback such as a yes or no—is *negatively correlated with math achievement identity* (*r* =-0.456). IRE is considered a low-cognitive form of mathematical discourse (Cazden, 1988;

Drageset, 2015; Park et al., 2020). We found that low-cognitive tasks that require students to memorize or recall math concepts or facts—such as IRE—are negatively associated with the following:

- Math achievement identity (*r* = -0.628)
- Math self-efficacy (*r* = -0.517)
- Math enjoyment (*r* = -0.683)
- Engagement (*r* = -0.652)
- **Lecturing or demonstrating**—a procedural practice that involves a teacher presenting, demonstrating, reviewing, defining, summarizing, or introducing instructional content in a non-interactive manner for an extended period of time—is *negatively correlated with math enjoyment* (*r* =-0.552) and *math achievement identity* (*r* =-0.554).

#### <span id="page-31-0"></span>**Convergent and discriminant validity**

We used the M-Scan (Bostic et al., 2021; Walkowiak et al., 2014, 2018), an existing reliable and valid observational measure of ambitious practice that we reviewed at the outset of our study, to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the AIM tool's ambitious and inclusive practice teacher performance scales. Recognizing that some M-Scan domains and AIM domains (domains used to construct the ambitious practice teacher performance scale) use similar terminology (such as "mathematical discourse" and "problem solving") but measure those constructs differently, we enlisted two M-Scan developers to review the AIM domains and sub-domains to identify M-Scan domains that we collectively theorize align with each other (convergent validity) as well as domains that we theorize measure different constructs (discriminant validity). We ran bivariate correlations between these domains.

As *evidence of convergent validity*, we theorized that six of the seven M-Scan domains would correlate with four of our AIM performance scales (Exhibit IV.9).



<span id="page-31-1"></span>



As *evidence of divergent validity*, we theorized that none of the M-Scan domains would correlate with the AIM inclusive practice scales because conceptually, they measure different types of pedagogical strategies. Using Dancey & Reidy's (2004) interpretation of Pearson's correlation coefficient for which 0.4 indicates a moderate association, we affirmed both our convergent and divergent validity assumptions (Exhibit IV.10).

|                               |                                 | <b>AIM performance scales</b>   |  |   |   |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|--|---|---|
| <b>M-Scan domains</b>         | <b>Ambitious</b><br>instruction | <b>Inclusive</b><br>instruction | <b>Core AIM</b><br>instructional<br>practice | <b>Teacher-</b><br>centered<br>practice | <b>Student-</b><br>centered<br>practice |
| Cognitive demand              | $0.513*$                        | 0.202                           | $0.455*$                                     | $0.459*$                                | 0.348                                   |
| Problem solving               | $0.545*$                        | 0.237                           | $0.503*$                                     | $0.537*$                                | 0.373                                   |
| Connections &<br>applications | $0.430*$                        | $-0.064$                        | $0.380^{\circ}$                              | 0.385                                   | 0.230                                   |
| Use of representations        | $0.444*$                        | 0.231                           | $0.376^$                                     | 0.376                                   | 0.303                                   |
| Use of math tools             | 0.210                           | 0.194                           | 0.215  | 0.262                                   | 0.112                                   |
| Math discourse                | $0.533*$                        | 0.308                           | $0.496*$                                     | $0.448*$                                | $0.418*$                                |
| Explain & justify             | $0.599*$                        | 0.258                           | $0.542*$                                     | $0.578*$                                | $0.446*$                                |

**Exhibit IV.10.** Correlations between M-Scan domains and AIM performance scales

Source: SY 2021–2022 and SY 2022–2023 classroom observation M-Scan and AIM domain scores (*n* = 76 video observations; excludes 10 in-person observations conducted in SY 2021–2022 that could not be recoded using the revised SY 2022–2023 version of the AIM tool).

Note: **Bold values** indicate scales for which convergence was anticipated and affirmed.

*^ V*alue*s* indicated scales for which convergence was anticipated but not affirmed.

 $* r > 0.40; p < .01.$ 

### <span id="page-33-0"></span>VII. Discussion

Results indicate that our tool is a promising measure of ambitious and inclusive instructional practice cognitively demanding, standards-based mathematics instruction that is culturally responsive, linguistically responsive, and equitable. The results of our psychometric tests are summarized in Exhibit V.1.

<span id="page-33-1"></span>



Reflecting on these results, we updated our tool (refer to Appendix C for the revised codebook). A copy of the revised Excel-based tool is available for download at [https://www.mathematica.org/-](https://nam12.safelinks.protection.outlook.com/?url=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.mathematica.org%2F-%2Fmedia%2FB0CAB9E122F645619F40B4C0EC834757.ashx&data=05%7C02%7CLAmos%40mathematica-mpr.com%7C0e78ed83e78e4009afb708dd3190beab%7C13af8d650b4b4c0fa446a427419abfd6%7C0%7C0%7C638721219927151063%7CUnknown%7CTWFpbGZsb3d8eyJFbXB0eU1hcGkiOnRydWUsIlYiOiIwLjAuMDAwMCIsIlAiOiJXaW4zMiIsIkFOIjoiTWFpbCIsIldUIjoyfQ%3D%3D%7C0%7C%7C%7C&sdata=oIxcs%2BChh1FP9fSi9s6nbBn1RLx0tYFyZG%2B3d2747Xo%3D&reserved=0) [/media/B0CAB9E122F645619F40B4C0EC834757.ashx](https://nam12.safelinks.protection.outlook.com/?url=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.mathematica.org%2F-%2Fmedia%2FB0CAB9E122F645619F40B4C0EC834757.ashx&data=05%7C02%7CLAmos%40mathematica-mpr.com%7C0e78ed83e78e4009afb708dd3190beab%7C13af8d650b4b4c0fa446a427419abfd6%7C0%7C0%7C638721219927151063%7CUnknown%7CTWFpbGZsb3d8eyJFbXB0eU1hcGkiOnRydWUsIlYiOiIwLjAuMDAwMCIsIlAiOiJXaW4zMiIsIkFOIjoiTWFpbCIsIldUIjoyfQ%3D%3D%7C0%7C%7C%7C&sdata=oIxcs%2BChh1FP9fSi9s6nbBn1RLx0tYFyZG%2B3d2747Xo%3D&reserved=0) along with a version with sample data:

#### [https://www.mathematica.org/-/media/47B47F0E9845472CBAB9BE116640E783.ashx.](https://nam12.safelinks.protection.outlook.com/?url=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.mathematica.org%2F-%2Fmedia%2F47B47F0E9845472CBAB9BE116640E783.ashx&data=05%7C02%7CLAmos%40mathematica-mpr.com%7C0e78ed83e78e4009afb708dd3190beab%7C13af8d650b4b4c0fa446a427419abfd6%7C0%7C0%7C638721219927163924%7CUnknown%7CTWFpbGZsb3d8eyJFbXB0eU1hcGkiOnRydWUsIlYiOiIwLjAuMDAwMCIsIlAiOiJXaW4zMiIsIkFOIjoiTWFpbCIsIldUIjoyfQ%3D%3D%7C0%7C%7C%7C&sdata=MVMG1Dvs7L%2FCB2GZRfeSuZPAh0cxVZlMc1EKoW%2Bsb5o%3D&reserved=0)

#### <span id="page-34-0"></span>**Limitations**

Six limitations influenced our ability to generate stronger evidence of the AIM classroom observation tool's reliability and validity:

- **Undersampling teachers who claimed to use inclusive practices.** Our full sample was constructed purposively based on whether a teacher taught one of the six study curricula. We excluded remedial and advanced course sections from consideration. From this purposive sample, and consistent with our partnership agreements with the participating districts, we only observed teachers who agreed to be observed and were available during the data collection window each school year. Unsurprisingly, we rarely observed some of the practices most commonly associated with culturally responsive teaching. This may have occurred for several reasons. First, although the teacher surveys we administered in the fall of each data collection year asked teachers to self-report their confidence with and frequency of using culturally responsive mathematics teaching strategies, COVID-related school closures in the year prior to conducting classroom observations limited our ability to collect and use teacher survey data in time to inform which teachers were selected for observation. As a result, we were unable to purposively construct a sub-sample of classrooms in which we might expect to observe culturally responsive practices. Second, we did not ask teachers to use culturally and linguistically responsive practices when we observed their classrooms. We stressed the importance of them teaching "business-as-usual." Third, teachers may define culturally responsive practice differently than does the AMS study. A future study might oversample teachers who claim to use inclusive practices frequently.
- **Conducting few observations of each teacher.** We only observed each teacher one to four times total during the two data collection years. The lessons we observed may not be a fair representation of a teacher's practice across the year or the frequency with which they use certain instructional practices. For instance, a teacher may be more likely to use culturally responsive practices at the end of an instructional unit, when students might complete a culminating formative assessment project that requires the use of the math concepts they learned during the unit to investigate a social justice issue of interest. Under ideal circumstances, research has recommended conducting at least three lesson observations by three different coders to gather formative data on teacher practice and at least 10 observations to make summative decisions about teacher performance (van der Lans et al., 2016).
- **Relying on student survey data to assess construct validity of AIM's inclusive practice measures.** Participating schools were responsible for administering student surveys for the full sample. Of the 186 teachers who responded to our surveys, schools administered surveys to just 46 percent of these teachers. Among the sample of teachers we observed, we were only able to obtain student survey data for 31 percent of the teachers. The incomplete data affect our ability to evaluate the validity of our inclusive practice performance scale and measures. In future studies, we need to strengthen our efforts to recruit student survey respondents or identify alternative approaches to testing those measures. We also considered that the student survey scales we used may need to be revisited. Although we constructed our scales from several *different* validated instruments, it's plausible that our scales are not sufficiently discriminant when administered together in the same survey. For example, the AMS study's non-academic outcomes of interest—math enjoyment, engagement, math achievement identity, self-

efficacy, and growth mindset—are not mutually exclusive concepts. For instance, *self-efficacy* and *growth mindset* both refer to an individual believing that they can effect positive change in their life through effort. We may revisit the student scale score construction in the future to confirm whether poor discriminant validity influenced our ability to build evidence of the construct validity of AIM's inclusive practice scale.

- **Assessing internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha.** Although the four scales we constructed ambitious, inclusive, teacher-centered, and student-centered practice—were found to be reliable ( $\alpha$ >0.70), only three of the AIM instructional practice domains met or exceeded the 0.7 threshold of acceptability for Cronbach's alpha. These less-than-ideal results were anticipated for several reasons. First, some of the items associated with the core AIM instructional domains were rarely or never observed, such as the empowered mathematical inquiry and decision-making domain. Cronbach's alpha cannot be calculated when there is no variance between items. Second, some of the domains are constructed with just two or three items. Cronbach's alpha is calculated by dividing the average covariance between items by the average total item variance. High alphas (or reliability) therefore require the covariance between items to be substantially higher than the item variance. As a result, domains with few items typically have lower alphas than domains with many items (Emons et al., 2007). Third, Cronbach's alpha is intended to measure the extent to which a set of items consistently measures the same concept. However, some of the AIM domains group items that measure different aspects of the same concept. For example, the performance tasks domain includes five items that represent five different types of student performance tasks that vary in increasing complexity from low cognitive demand to high. Finally, some researchers have argued that Cronbach's alpha is either inappropriately used or overused as an estimate of scale reliability—either overestimating the reliability of a scale or underestimating it results in rejecting a measure that may actually be reliable (Panayides, 2013; Taber, 2018; Zakariya, 2022).
- **Exploring the influence of the method of observation on the tool's reliability.** As discussed previously, we were not permitted to video-record classrooms in one of the four districts. Anecdotally, we did not experience a noteworthy difference in interrater reliability or audiovisual quality of the observation itself. However, we would like to examine in a future study whether and to what extent the method of observation influences the tool's reliability.
- **Investigating the influence of bias on AIM teacher performance scale scores across instructional contexts.** Factors such as the incoming academic performance of students, student course scheduling, and observer implicit biases about instructional norms and quality can influence the reliability of classroom observation scores (Bell et al., 2015; Campbell & Ronfeldt, 2018; Jones & Bergin, 2019; Liu et al., 2019; Luoto et al., 2023; Molina et al., 2018; Steinberg & Garrett, 2016). Although we explored the central tendency and variability of the AIM teacher performance scale scores (Appendix G), we did not evaluate whether and to what degree bias may influence the tool's ability to distinguish practice across instructional contexts (such as district, grade, teacher characteristics, student demographics, and curricula).

#### <span id="page-35-0"></span>**Future directions**

With these limitations in mind, in a future study we would like to do the following:
- **1. Test the AIM classroom observation tool with a larger, more diverse sample of teachers** that includes those who are committed to inclusive practice—perhaps coupled with an intervention that provides professional learning on the practices the AIM tool assesses. Classroom observation could be a tool to promote both ambitious and inclusive practice in middle school math classrooms. Although research on classroom observation as a professional learning intervention is a promising strategy (see for example, Cantrell et al., 2014), in a review by Bottiani et al. (2018) of the impact of in-service training on culturally responsive practice, there were not enough peer-reviewed studies employing causal research designs to make claims about their efficacy. To help address this research gap, we are in the early stages of [adapting](https://www.mathematica.org/download-media?MediaItemId=%7b0FC7165C-7A00-4DF0-9590-69BBFEC6EAB2%7d) and piloting the AIM tool for use by teams of classroom teachers as an in-service professional learning intervention.
- **2. Conduct more observations of each teacher over a longer period of time** (such as an entire instructional unit) and assess within teacher consistency.
- **3. Conduct confirmatory factor and Rausch analyses** to reassess the AIM tool's internal consistency, further refine its structure and content, test the factor structure in different subgroups, and develop benchmarks for each teacher performance scale indicating low, moderate, and high performance levels.
- **4.** Further explore the utility and validity of the AIM learning environment composite indicators.
- **5. Revisit the construct validity of the inclusive practice measures,** including reassessing the reliability and validity of the student survey scales we constructed. Although we constructed our student survey scales from validated instruments, it is plausible that these scales are not sufficiently discriminant when used in the same survey.
- **6. Conduct a sensitivity analysis** to identify biases that may influence AIM teacher performance scale scores across instructional contexts.
- **7. Create a set of training materials and a certification program** to support high-fidelity use of the AIM tool. For the tool to be used reliably across instructional settings and curricula, we would like to develop a set of training materials, a coder training and certification program, and guidance on analyzing and interpreting AIM classroom observation data.
- **8. Explore the potential of artificial intelligence to support classroom observation.** Collecting, coding, and analyzing observational data at scale—whether for research purposes or educator evaluation—is time intensive, resource intensive, and costly. In partnership with IRIS Connect, the platform we used to conduct video observations, we would also like to explore the potential of artificial intelligence (AI) to automate these tasks. However, whether AI can be used to reliably detect and assess ambitious and inclusive practice from video is an open question. The ability of AI tools to accurately interpret human behavior, interaction, and emotions is more emergent than established science. Researchers have demonstrated risks associated with using AI, such as algorithmic bias and facial, gender, and racial recognition discrimination. Some commercial applications of ML models have high error rates, and those errors have been found to disproportionately impact minoritized groups (Buolamwini & Gebru, 2018; Learned-Miller et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2019; Raji et al., 2022).

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Appendix A: Existing observation methods

#### **Reform-Oriented Teaching Observation Protocol (RTOP)**

The RTOP (Sawada et al., 2002; Boston et al., 2015) was developed to support education reform efforts in professional development and teacher education and was used by the Arizona Collaborative for Excellence in the Preparation of Teachers (ACEPT). It was designed to measure the degree to which mathematics and science teaching are *reform oriented*, which they define as standards-based teaching, an inquiry orientation in lesson design and implementation, and student-centered teaching practices. The tool is a 25-item questionnaire using five-point Likert scales for each item and examining Lesson Design and Implementation, Content, and Classroom Culture (communicative interactions and student–teacher relationships). We determined it was not useful for our purposes because it does not have items or domains specifically focused on culturally responsive practices.

#### **Instructional Quality Assessment (IQA) in Mathematics**

The IQA (Boston & Candela, 2018; Boston et al., 2015) was designed to measure the quality of mathematics instruction at scale using a combination of lesson observations, assignment collections, and student work. The IQA is based on two main constructs: *Academic Rigor* and *Accountable Talk*; the IQA assesses the quality of instruction based on the mathematical work that students *do* and *discuss* in the classroom, based on the cognitive demands and accountable talk moves observed during the lesson. There are multiple rubrics describing specific practices within each major construct (for example, Academic Rigor has rubrics for *Potential of the Task, Task Implementation, and Rigor of the Discussion).*  Each rubric is scaled from 0 to 4. We determined it was not useful for our purposes because it does not have items or domains specifically focused on culturally responsive practices.

#### **Mathematical Quality of Instruction (MQI)**

The MQI (Learning Mathematics for Teaching Project, 2011; Boston et al., 2015) is a multidimensional assessment of the rigor and richness of the mathematics present during classroom instruction. It was developed alongside efforts to conceptualize and validate measures of mathematical knowledge for teaching. The instrument is organized around five dimensions of instruction: *Classroom Work is Connected to Mathematics*, *Richness of the Mathematics*, *Working with Students and Mathematics, Errors and Imprecision*, and *Common Core Aligned Student Practices.* There are subscales within each dimension. Videotaped lessons are divided into equal intervals of 5 to 7.5 minutes, with each segment coded yes/no or on a scale of 0 to 3 along the five dimensions. We determined it was not useful for our purposes because it does not have items or domains specifically focused on culturally responsive practices.

#### **Comprehensive Mathematics Instruction (CMI) Observation Protocol**

The CMI (Womack, 2011) uses embedded teaching and learning cycles to build students' mathematical understanding using a guided inquiry approach. The steps in the CMI framework are (1) develop understanding, (2) solidify understanding, and (3) practice understanding. The authors developed an observation protocol aligned to the framework in partnership with a CMI expert panel, pilot tested the protocol in 12 classrooms, and then validated the protocol with a larger sample of 144 classrooms. All items are scored on a five-point rating scale, with quality evaluations. The protocol is made up of six sections. Three are aligned to the standard sections of a CMI lesson: launch, explore, and discuss. Three could happen at any point in the lesson: mathematics content, classroom climate, and lesson coherence. We determined it was not useful for our purposes because it does not have items or domains specifically focused on culturally responsive practices and because it is scored inferentially, rather than deductively.

#### **Electronic Quality of Inquiry Protocol (EQUIP)**

The EQUIP (Marshall et al., 2010) was designed to measure the quantity and quality of inquiry-based instruction. It is composed of 26 indicators measured within three constructs: instruction (for example, conceptual development, order of instruction), curriculum (for example, content depth, assessment type), and ecology (for example, classroom discourse, visual environment). We determined it was not useful for our purposes because it does not have items or domains specifically focused on culturally responsive practices and because it is scored inferentially, rather than deductively.

#### **Mathematics Scan (M-Scan)**

The M-Scan (Walkowiak et al., 2014) is a validated observation protocol designed to assess the degree to which teachers create opportunities for students to engage in cognitively demanding tasks; identify, apply, and adapt a variety of strategies to solve problems; connect mathematics to other mathematical concepts, to their own experience, to the world around them, and to other disciplines; use, contextualize, illustrate, and translate math ideas and concepts through multiple representations (such as pictures, graphs, symbols, and words); use mathematical tools (such as calculators, pattern blocks, fraction strips, counters, and virtual tools) to represent abstract mathematical concepts; express their mathematical ideas openly and communicate their mathematical thinking clearly to their peers and teacher using the language of mathematics; and provide explanations and justifications, both orally and on written assignments. In addition, the M-Scan assesses the degree to which teachers structure a lesson to be conceptually coherent, so that activities are connected mathematically and build on one another in a logical manner as well as present mathematical concepts and model mathematical discourse clearly and accurately throughout the lesson. The tool is scored on a scale from 1 to 7, with values further summarized as low (1–2), medium (3–5), and high (6–7). Detailed rubric descriptions correspond to numerical ratings. We determined it was not useful for our purposes because it does not have items or domains specifically focused on culturally responsive practices and because it is scored inferentially, rather than deductively.

We used the M-Scan to assess the AIM tool's convergent and discriminant validity.

#### **Assessing Classroom Sociocultural Equity Scale (ACSES)**

The ACSES (Curenton et al., 2019) is composed of five major factors: Challenging Status Quo Knowledge, Equitable Learning Opportunities for racially minoritized learners, Equitable Discipline, Connections to Home Life, and Personalized Learning Opportunities. Scoring for each dimension is based on the frequency of occurrence and how many students it affected: 1 (never) = Did not exhibit; 2 (hardly ever) = Exhibited 1 time or with only a few children; 3 (sometimes) = Exhibited 2–3 times with some children; 4 (very often) = Exhibited often with about half children, but inconsistently; 5 (nearly always) = Exhibited consistently with nearly all children. Higher scores indicated more equitable learning opportunities after the necessary items are reverse scored. We determined it was not useful for our purposes because it was developed and tested only in early childhood classrooms (Pre-K to grade 3).

#### **Systematic approach to culturally responsive practices (CRP) across classrooms**

The CRP tool (Larios et al., 2022) builds on qualitative review of teacher practices to identify and holistically assess culturally responsive practices that can be systematically observed across multiple classrooms. This tool was developed and refined over several rounds of data collection to ensure practices are empirically supported. Observers score the entire lesson on a scale of  $-2$  to  $+2$ , where  $-2 =$  Actively culturally hostile;  $-1$  = deficit lens; 0 = absence of CRP; +1 = contributive approach; and +2 = Additive approach. We determined it was not useful for our purposes because it is not math specific, and because it is scored inferentially rather than deductively.

#### **Culturally Responsive Instruction Observation Protocol (CRIOP)**

The CRIOP (Powell et al., 2016; Powell et al., 2013) describes and measures culturally responsive instruction using seven key domains: Classroom Relationships, Family Collaboration, Assessment, Curriculum/Planned Experiences, Instruction/Pedagogy, Discourse/Instructional Conversation, and Sociopolitical Consciousness/Diverse Perspectives. Assessment of classroom practice is measured using a four-point scale:  $1 = not$  at all;  $2 =$  occasionally;  $3 =$  often; and  $4 =$  to a great extent. This tool was implemented in the context of a professional learning program, in which participating teachers received coaching, on-site professional development, and support with instructional planning focused on a CRIOP framework. We determined it was not useful for our purposes because it is not math specific or middle school specific.

# Appendix B: Initial AIM tool codes and descriptions





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# Appendix C: AIM domain and item-level descriptives

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# Appendix D:

AIM teacher performance scale and AIM learning environment composite indicator construction and composite indicator descriptives

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## **Exhibit D.1.** Final AIM performance scale construction

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### **Exhibit D.3.** AIM learning environment sub-domains

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![](_page_69_Picture_306.jpeg)

### **Exhibit D.6.** AIM teacher performance scale score and AIM learning environment composite indicator descriptives

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Appendix E: Student survey scales




\* The letters in "Survey items included" represent the actual survey item letters from the student and teacher surveys.

Appendix F: Final revised AIM codebook **This page has been left blank for double-sided copying.**





































# Appendix G. Central tendency and variability of the AIM teacher performance scales

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After estimating the reliability and validity for the AIM tool, we explored the extent to which the tool can be used to distinguish practice across instructional contexts (such as district, grade, teacher characteristics, and student demographics) and curricula. We ran descriptive statistics to explore the central tendency and variability of the AIM performance scales (Exhibit G.1).



#### **Exhibit G.1.** Descriptive statistics for the AIM teacher performance scales

Below, we share visualizations of the variability of AIM teacher performance scale scores.



**Exhibit G.2.** Variability of the AIM ambitious practice scale



Percent of class time





**Exhibit G.3.** Variability of the AIM inclusive practice scale













Distribution of AIM practice scores





#### Average AIM practice score by curriculum



It should be noted that, of the teaching strategies that comprise the scale scores, strategies most commonly associated with culturally responsive teaching in mathematics were rarely used. On average, just 0.5 percent of the instructional time we observed engaged students' cultural and community funds of knowledge. We did not observe any instances of teachers creating opportunities for students to use mathematics to investigate social justice issues (Exhibit G.5)

## **Exhibit G.5** Use of AIM instructional strategies





## **Exhibit G.6.** Variability of the AIM student-centered practice scale











**Exhibit G.7.** Variability of the AIM teacher-centered practice scale

Distribution of teacher centered practice







#### Average teacher centered practice score by curriculum