Herding CATS: Building Student Engagement in Remote Learning in the U.S. and Uzbekistan

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I. Introduction

In the spring and summer of 2020, law teachers flocked to the many workshops, webinars, and online courses on remote learning that were offered in the wake of the forced shift to remote teaching caused by the covid-19 pandemic. Teachers were eager to compare their experiences with emergency remote teaching and get started on designing remote courses in order to prepare for a possible near-term future without in-person teaching. In most of the programs I attended, including the programs I co-led for teachers at Tashkent State University of Law (TSUL) in Uzbekistan, the topic of student engagement was near the top of the agenda. One reason participants wanted to talk about student engagement was their concern about whether there would be sufficient opportunity for students to interact with teachers and other students in the remote environment.

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1 Associate Professor of the Practice, Boston College Law School.
2 So many law teachers signed up for the mini-course on remote teaching offered by CALI (Center for Computer Assisted Legal Instruction) in June 2020, Preparing for the Future of Legal Education - Online Teaching Tips & Techniques, that the organizers informed participants that they had to change the format of the program from online course to webinar.
3 TSUL is the principal State institution for legal education in Uzbekistan.
4 Student engagement is a broad topic, with an extensive literature. See generally Elizabeth Barkley & Claire Howell Major, Student Engagement Techniques 3-15 (2d ed. 2020) and sources cited. There are numerous facets of student engagement, and correspondingly myriad ways to engage students. This essay addresses the facet of student engagement teachers seemed most worried about in the programs on remote learning in the spring and summer of 2020—cognitive engagement, that is, “student intellectual investment in the content, lesson, or activity,” id. at 8.
This essay discusses how law teachers can address that concern by adapting classroom assessment techniques, or CATs, a subset of formative assessment, as active learning methods to generate student cognitive engagement in the remote learning environment. Designed “to help teachers find out what students are learning in the classroom and how well they are learning it,” CATs require students to interact with the teacher and with content; thus, in addition to providing information about learning, CATs can be used as methods to engage students actively in learning. CATs adapt easily from the physical to the virtual classroom, which to many law teachers in the U.S. offers the promise of engaging students in a manner similar to the physical classroom. In light of drawbacks of the virtual classroom, however, U.S. law teachers may find instructive the experience of teachers at TSUL, who have devised ways to employ activities that function similarly to CATs in lower bandwidth contexts.

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5 See generally THOMAS ANGELO & K. PATRICIA CROSS, CLASSROOM ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES (2d ed. 1993). The term “classroom assessment technique” with its acronym “CAT” was popularized by James Angelo and Patricia Cross in the first edition of their book, which was published in 1988. This widely used and frequently cited book gives theoretical background and practical guidance on implementing a set of fifty specific in-class formative exercises. Many authors discuss the use of CATs in legal education. See, e.g., GERALD F. HESS ET AL., TEACHING BY DESIGN 169-73 (2d ed., 2017); Gregory S. Munro, How Do We Know If We Are Achieving Our Goals: Strategies for Assessing the Outcome of Curricular Innovation, 1 J. ASS’N LEGAL WRITING DIRECTORS 229, 240-44 (2002); Herbert N. Ramy, Moving Students from Hearing and Forgetting to Doing and Understanding: A Manual for Assessment in Law School, 41 CAP. U. L REV. 837, 873-79 (2013).

6 This essay draws on the literature of formative assessment, but in no way purports to present a comprehensive review. For extensive citations to the literature about formative assessment in legal education and in education generally, see Heather M. Field, A Tax Professor’s Guide to Formative Assessment, 22 FLA. TAX REV. 363, 370 nn.6-7 (2019).

7 ANGELO & CROSS supra note 5, at 4.

8 This essay takes up the invitation of Angelo and Cross to consider the fifty CATs in their book as “starting points” and not as a closed universe. See ANGELO & CROSS supra note 5, at 105. Thus, this essay uses the term “CAT” to apply generally, beyond the set of fifty detailed in the book, to classroom activities that, similar to the exercises in the book, include a student’s demonstration of understanding followed by feedback, which can be used by teacher and student to improve future learning and to build student learning in real time. On these two functions of formative assessments, see notes 18 through 32 infra and accompanying text.
The essay first briefly describes the transition to emergency remote teaching in the U.S. and Uzbekistan in the spring of 2020. It then addresses the relationship of formative assessment and cognitive student engagement. It goes on to discuss CATs in general and the potential to adapt CATs as tools to engage students cognitively in remote learning, with examples of CATs that can be used by law teachers in the U.S., where general availability of high-speed internet supports virtual classroom platforms and other high bandwidth tools, and in Uzbekistan, where lack of uniform high-speed internet access requires greater reliance on lower bandwidth tools.

II. Transition to Emergency Remote Teaching

In March 2020, law schools in the U.S. had to make a rapid transition to remote teaching when most law schools suspended in-person classes in the face of the COVID-19 outbreak. Similarly, when the magnitude of the pandemic became apparent in Uzbekistan, TSUL made an abrupt shift to remote instruction.9 TSUL closed for two weeks in March to allow faculty to prepare for remote teaching; students were sent home, many of them to their families in the “Regions,” provinces outside Tashkent City.10

The virus arrived in Uzbekistan a few weeks after it erupted in the U.S., so a team of BC Law faculty11 was in a position to use our experience with emergency remote teaching and our

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10 Id.

11 The BC Law team included Susan Simone Kang, Director of Graduate Legal Education and International Programs and Adjunct Professor, the late Kevin Curtin, and the author.
familiarity with TSUL\textsuperscript{12} to help our colleagues at TSUL make the transition. These efforts included weekly online working sessions\textsuperscript{13} with members of TSUL’s academic leadership team in March and April to provide support for emergency remote teaching, and, in May and June, a total of fourteen hours of online training for TSUL faculty in remote teaching methods to help them prepare for future teaching online. In consultation with the BC Law team, TSUL faculty who participated in these workshops conducted further workshops, in Russian and Uzbek, for their TSUL colleagues.\textsuperscript{14}

Differences in internet infrastructure and the structure and traditions of legal education in the U.S. and Uzbekistan influenced decisions teachers in each country took to implement remote teaching. When law teachers in the U.S. made the shift to emergency

\textsuperscript{12} The partnership between TSUL and BC Law began in 2014, facilitated by Regional Dialogue, an NGO based in Slovenia, which has been involved in rule of law projects in Uzbekistan since 2011. Regional Dialogue’s principal donor is the U.S. Department of State; funding specifically for legal education is provided by the State Department’s Democracy, Rule of Law and Labor Bureau (DRL). TSUL and BC Law executed a Memorandum of Cooperation—the first such agreement signed with a U.S. law school in the history of Uzbekistan—in 2017, after Regional Dialogue’s management team visited BC Law in June 2015 and then organized a March 2017 visit to BC Law by TSUL’s then Rector and Deputy Rector. In connection with the TSUL/BC Law partnership, Dean Vincent D. Rougeau of BC Law made two visits to Uzbekistan, in 2017 to execute the Memorandum of Cooperation, and in 2019 to serve as the featured speaker on legal education at Tashkent Law Spring, an international forum sponsored by Uzbekistan’s Ministry of Justice. In addition to cooperation on remote teaching, the TSUL/BC Law partnership has included training programs for TSUL faculty on clinic management, academic legal research and writing, active teaching methods, and outcomes-based course design; courses and mock trial programs for law students; remote coaching of TSUL’s Jessup Competition team; and ad hoc lectures for TSUL students and faculty by BC Law professors—all facilitated by Regional Dialogue. TSUL faculty members have attended in-person academic programs at BC Law and have participated in online training programs and webinars sponsored by BC Law’s Office of International Programs and by Boston College’s Office of Continuing Education. In addition to Dean Rougeau, BC Law faculty who have participated actively in this partnership include the late Alexis Anderson, Hon. Robert Cordy, the late Kevin Curtin, Susan Simone Kang, and Hon. Christine McEvoy. I conducted faculty development workshops at TSUL in 2017 and 2018 and visited at TSUL in the spring of 2019, as TSUL’s first official full-semester visiting professor from the U.S. I returned to TSUL in December 2019 to conduct further faculty development workshops and co-lead a day-long program for undergraduate law students on comparative professional responsibility, and in 2020 conducted several remote training programs for TSUL faculty.

\textsuperscript{13} These working sessions were facilitated by Regional Dialogue.

\textsuperscript{14} One of the goals of the workshops conducted by the BC Law team in May and June was to train the trainer—to identify TSUL teachers to conduct future workshops in-house.
remote teaching, many gravitated to synchronous teaching on virtual classroom platforms like Zoom in an effort to replicate as closely as possible the way teachers and students interact in the physical classroom. Some BC Law faculty thought, however, that student engagement did not fully survive the shift online because teacher-student interaction was so different on Zoom. Internet access issues\textsuperscript{15} and preference for the lecture method of teaching\textsuperscript{16} drew many TSUL faculty members in the direction of asynchronous teaching with pre-recorded materials, such as videos and podcasts. Like their US. counterparts, TSUL teachers were concerned about student engagement. Some reported that when TSUL transitioned from in-person classes to emergency remote teaching, students lacked motivation to engage with video lectures that had been uploaded to the internet; one teacher remarked that it seemed as if students were simply waiting for in-person classes to resume.\textsuperscript{17}

III. Formative Assessment and Student Cognitive Engagement

Understanding formative assessment as “assessment for learning”\textsuperscript{18} is a good starting point for a discussion of using CATs as a means to foster cognitive student engagement in remote learning.\textsuperscript{19} An assessment is “formative” because its purpose is to

\textsuperscript{15} Rustambekov, supra note 9.
\textsuperscript{17} Comment by participant in workshop for TSUL faculty on remote learning, May 12, 2020. Notes on file with the author.
construct, or form, learning. The classic view of formative assessment is that it advances student learning through give-and-take between teacher and student on information about how the student is doing in relation to learning objectives. This happens when the student demonstrates understanding of what is being taught, and the teacher gives meaningful feedback on the student’s demonstration. From the student’s demonstration, the teacher gains information that helps her assess the effectiveness of her teaching, and, based on this self-assessment, may adjust her approach. The teacher’s feedback on the demonstration provides information the student can use to reflect on his understanding of what is being taught, and based on this self-assessment, to make decisions about the next steps he needs to take in learning.

achievement increases when students experience formative assessment.”); Ian Clark, Formative Assessment is for Self-Regulated Learning, 24 EDUC. PSYCH. REV. 205, 217 (2012) doi: 10.1007/s10648-011-9191-6 (“Formative assessment is not a test or a tool (a more fine-grained test) but a process with the potential to support learning beyond school years by developing learning strategies which individuals may rely on across their entire life-span.”); Wiliam, supra note 18, at 13 (“...integrating assessment with instruction may well have unprecedented power to increase student engagement and to improve learning outcomes.”). On cognitive engagement in remote learning, see, e.g., Marcia Dixson, Measuring Student Engagement in the Online Course: The Online Student Engagement Scale (OSE), 9 ONLINE LEARNING (2015) doi: 10.24059/olj.v9i4.561; Bing Xu, et al., Effects of Teacher Role on Student Engagement in WeChat-Based Online Discussion Learning, 157 COMPUT. & EDUC. 103956 (2020), doi: 10.1016/j.compedu.2020.103956.


21 The expression “give-and-take” in this context comes from a conversation with Nina Farber, BC Law’s Director of Academic Success Programs. See CONNIE M. MOSS & SUSAN M. BROOKHART, ADVANCING FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT IN EVERY CLASSROOM 5 (2d ed. 2019).

22 See id. at 6; W. JAMES POPHAM, TRANSFORMATIVE ASSESSMENT 6 (2008).

The notion of formative assessment as a process for improving learning is rooted in the social constructivist view of learning, in which the student learns by interacting with the teacher and other students as well as with content, and builds new knowledge on the foundation of what the student already knows.\textsuperscript{24} In this view, a key ingredient in learning is developing metacognitive skills that empower the student to regulate (make decisions about) her own learning.\textsuperscript{25} Formative assessment fits within this view of learning because it creates an occasion for 1) the student to demonstrate understanding of content\textsuperscript{26} she is supposed to learn, 2) the teacher (or someone else, perhaps another student) to give the student feedback on the demonstration, and 3) the student to reflect on the feedback to self-assess her understanding, and then use that self-assessment to make decisions about the next steps she needs to take.\textsuperscript{27}

In addition to yielding information that helps the teacher and student make decisions about future teaching and learning, the process of formative assessment builds student learning in real time as the process unfolds.\textsuperscript{28} This function of formative assessment has been called assessment “as” learning.\textsuperscript{29} Educators agree that students learn most effectively


\textsuperscript{26} As used here, the word “content” includes information, skills, and values.


\textsuperscript{28} See, e.g., Earl, \textit{supra} note 25, at 28; Trumbull & Lash, \textit{supra} note 20, at 3-4.

\textsuperscript{29} See, e.g., Earl, \textit{supra} note 25, at 28.
when they engage cognitively, by actively analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating material.30

Formative assessment requires the student to interact actively with content and with the teacher, setting the student up to consolidate new knowledge.31 Thus, the formative assessment process can be seen as “almost indistinguishable from instruction.”32

Recent articles in law journals suggest that some U.S. law teachers are reluctant to employ formative assessments, in part because they do not see formative assessment as part of instruction, but rather as an administrative task or another grading obligation layered on top of teaching.33 This view helps explain why these law teachers do not recognize the full value of formative assessment.34

The term “formative assessment” entered the vocabulary of law teaching in the U.S. around 2015, when the ABA adopted Standard 314, which requires a law school to “utilize

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31 See, e.g., David Boud & Rebecca Soler, Sustainable Assessment Revisited, 41 ASSESSMENT & EVALUATION HIGHER EDUC. 400, 411 (2016) doi: 1 0.1080/02602938.2015.1018133; Susan M. Brookhart, A Theoretical Framework for the Role of Classroom Assessment in Motivating Student Effort and Achievement, 10 APPLIED MEASUREMENT EDUC. 161, 162-63 (1997); Clark, supra note 25, at 6; Young K. Kim & Carol A. Lundberg, A Structural Model of the Relationship Between Student-Faculty Interaction and Cognitive Skills Development Among College Students, 57 RSCH. HIGHER EDUC. 288, 291-92 (2016) doi: 10.1007/sll62. On cognitive engagement in remote learning, see, for example, Dixson, supra note 19; Gikandi et al., supra note 18, at 2346; Xu et al., supra note 19, at 7.

32 Trumbull & Lash, supra note 20 at 5.


34 An additional reason may be lack of familiarity with principles of pedagogy. See Mantz Yorke, Formative Assessment in Higher Education: Moves Towards Theory and the Enhancement of Pedagogic Practice, 45 HIGHER EDUC. 477, 494 (2003) (stating that although “teachers in higher education reflect, as a matter of professional routine on their practice as educators in their subject discipline [and] assess their learners formatively, teachers may simply not recognise their activities as comprising formative assessment.”).
both formative and summative assessment methods in its curriculum to measure and improve student learning and provide meaningful feedback to students.” 35 Both Standard 314 and its official Interpretation lump formative and summative assessment together as methods for measuring student achievement. 36 Thus, even though Standard 314 refers to the obligation to “improve student learning and provide meaningful feedback,” its characterization of formative assessment methods as measurement justifies to some extent thinking on the part of a law teacher that formative assessment requires a grade, or at least in some manner letting students how well their performance measured up.

Although formative assessment always requires some form of meaningful feedback, 37 it does not require a grade 38—unlike a summative assessment, a formative assessment is not designed to measure a student’s performance against a benchmark. 39 Any learning activity can be a formative assessment if it includes feedback of some sort on what a student says or


36 Interpretation 314-1 states: “Formative assessment methods are measurements at different points during a particular course or at different points over the span of a student’s education that provide meaningful feedback to improve student learning. Summative assessment methods are measurements at the culmination of a particular course or at the culmination of any part of a student’s legal education that measure the degree of student learning.” ABA STANDARDS.

37 Black & William, supra note 23, at 53; Brookhart, supra note 31, at 163.

38 Indeed, most experts maintain that a formative assessment should never be graded. See, e.g., BROOKHART, FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT TOOLS FOR EVERY CLASSROOM 4 (2d. ed. 2010) (“Formative assessment is not used for grading.”); CAROL ANN TOMLINSON & TONYA R. MOON, ASSESSMENT AND STUDENT SUCCESS IN THE DIFFERENTIATED CLASSROOM 93 (2013). But see Thomas R. Guskey, Grades Versus Comments: Research on Student Feedback, 101 PHI DELTA KAPPA 42, 42 (2019) (stating that in some schools, grades on formative assessments are required as part of their reporting process); Emma Smith & Stephen Gorad, “They Don’t Give Us Our Marks”: The Role of Formative Feedback in Student Progress, 12 ASSESSMENT IN EDUC.: PRINCIPLES, POL’Y & PRACTICE 21, 31-32 (discussing misgivings of secondary school students who received feedback but no grades on their work).

39 Although ABA Standard 314 uses the word “measure” in connection with both formative and summative assessment, most education researchers assume that the information a student or teacher gets through formative assessment is not quantifiable. See, e.g., Trumbull & Lash, supra note 20, at 7-8.
does in relation to course content and thus yields information that both student and teacher can use to advance learning.\textsuperscript{40} Formative assessment includes an on-the-spot check-in with a student, a planned in-class activity, or a more formal out-of-class assignment.\textsuperscript{41} A formative assessment may be administered to an individual or to a group; it may be formal or informal; it may be written or oral.\textsuperscript{42} Similarly, feedback may be individual or group, formal or informal, written or oral.\textsuperscript{43}

An example of a formative assessment commonly used in a U.S. law school classroom is when a teacher of a large law school class questions a student, requiring her to apply material she prepared for class to hypothetical situations.\textsuperscript{44} The teacher gives verbal or nonverbal feedback on the student’s answers, and the student being questioned and the other students in the class reflect on the answers and the teacher’s feedback to assess their own understanding, to decide what their next steps in learning should be.\textsuperscript{45} Moreover, the interaction between the teacher and the student builds learning in real time as the cognitive

\textsuperscript{40} Some researchers maintain that a formative assessment must be planned. \textit{See e.g., Popham, supra note 22, at 6. The more widely-held view, however, is that a formative assessment may be spontaneous. \textit{See, e.g., Heritage, supra note 23, at 141; Trumbull & Lash, supra note 20, at 2-3; Yorke, supra note 34, at 478.}

\textsuperscript{41} Heritage, \textit{supra} note 23, at 141.

\textsuperscript{42} \textit{See} Field, \textit{supra} note 6, at 385; Heritage, \textit{supra} note 23, at 141.


\textsuperscript{44} \textit{See} Field, \textit{supra} note 6, at 385 ("Whenever you answer a student’s question and have a conversation in which you evaluate if they understand your response, you have engaged in formative assessment. Each time you ask a student a question in class and give them input about their answer, you are providing formative feedback.")

engagement inherent in the question and answer process puts students in the class in a position to construct new knowledge on the foundation of what they already know. Clinical legal education is built on complex formative assessment: students consistently use reflective practice to leverage teacher feedback on their performance to consolidate new knowledge in real time and make decisions on the next steps they need to take. Thus, in both the classroom and clinic situations, formative assessment is intertwined with instruction.

In contrast to formative assessment, summative assessment is designed to measure. A summative assessment is administered at the end of a unit or a course to determine the extent to which the student has achieved learning objectives. As a summative assessment compares student achievement with a benchmark, it is almost always formally graded. In U.S. law schools most courses have a summative assessment—a

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46 For discussion of the theoretical underpinnings of in-lesson questioning as a vehicle for assessment as learning, see Margaret Heritage & John Heritage, Teacher Questioning: The Epicenter of Assessment and Instruction, 26 APPLIED MEASUREMENT EDUC. 176, 177-78 (2013). See also Cheryl B. Preston, Penee Wood Stewart & Louise R. Moulding, Teaching Thinking like a Lawyer: Metacognition and Law Students, 2014 BYU L. REV. 1053, 1056 (2014).


48 See Field, supra note 6, passim for descriptions of many formative assessments that are suitable for large law school classes.


50 See TOMLINSON & MOON, supra note 37, at 93; Herbert N. Ramy, supra note 5, at 843-44.

51 See Brookhart, supra note 23, at 56 (“[C]lassroom tests that contribute to the final grade are by definition summative.”)
final exam in a traditional large-class course, or a final paper, project, or simulation in a seminar or skills course. Even though a summative assessment measures student achievement at the end of a unit or a course, a summative assessment may nonetheless be used formatively to support further learning.\textsuperscript{52} Moreover, if an assessment is formative to any extent, it requires cognitive engagement and thus has the potential to contribute to real-time learning.\textsuperscript{53}

IV. \textbf{CATs: Formative Assessments that are Tools for Active Learning}

The term “classroom assessment technique,” with its acronym “CAT,” was introduced by Thomas Angelo and K. Patricia Cross in their widely used book “Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers,”\textsuperscript{54} to describe formative assessment conducted within the college classroom.\textsuperscript{55} Classroom assessment affords teachers the opportunity to observe students closely in the process of learning in order to “learn about how students learn.”\textsuperscript{56} The utility of a CAT extends beyond informing the teacher, however, because whether or not a teacher is interested in learning about how students learn, a formative assessment tool of this kind engages students actively in learning by requiring them to interact with course content and with the teacher, and perhaps with other students.

\textsuperscript{52} See, e.g., Gikandi et al., \textit{supra} note 18, at 2337; Rogelio A. Lasso, \textit{Is Our Students Learning? Using Assessments to Measure and Improve Law School Learning and Performance}, 15 \textit{BARRY L. REV.} 73, 92 (2010); Ramy, \textit{supra} note 5, at 872. Some teachers at BC Law School bridge the gap between summative and formative assessment by requiring students to engage with written feedback by the teacher as a condition to discussing the grade on a final exam.

\textsuperscript{53} See, e.g., Lumpkin, et al., \textit{Student Perceptions of Active Learning}, 49 \textit{COLLEGE STUDENT JOURNAL} 121, 124-25 (2015); Trumbull & Lash, \textit{supra} note 20, at 5.

\textsuperscript{54} \textit{ANGELO & CROSS, supra} note 5.

\textsuperscript{55} CATs are used in the law school classroom as well. See e.g., Hess \textit{et al.}, \textit{supra} note 5, at 169-73; Munro, \textit{supra} note 5, at 240-44; Ramy, \textit{supra} note 5, at 876-79.

\textsuperscript{56} \textit{ANGELO & CROSS, supra} note 5, at 3.
as well. Because of this potential to engage students cognitively, and because CATS are well-defined, well-tested by researchers and educators, and easy for a teacher to find and use, CATs can be adapted as active learning methods, even by teachers who have little training in pedagogy.

CATs are particularly appropriate to build learning in settings like the large podium class in U.S. law schools because they require students to engage actively in learning without imposing unrealistic burdens on teachers. Like other formative assessments, CATs require a student to perform in some way and receive some sort of feedback. A CAT is not graded, and students may or may not perform individually or receive individual feedback on their performance. With a very modest investment of time on research in a library or online, a teacher can locate descriptions of CATs in addition to those described by Angelo and Cross.

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57 See, e.g., Lumpkin et al., supra note 52, at 123-25; Ramy, supra note 5, at 876-77; Trumbull & Lash, supra note 20, at 5; Deborah P. Valentine & Miriam Freeman, Application Cards: A Classroom Technique for Teaching Social Work Practice, 19 Social Work Educ. 155, 161 (2000).

58 There are many tools similar to CATs that can be used to promote student cognitive engagement. Building on the foundation of Angelo and Cross, Elizabeth Barkley and Claire Howell Major developed tools that they assign to several different categories: LATs (learning assessment techniques), CoITs (collaborative learning techniques) and SETs (student engagement techniques). See Elizabeth F. Barkley & Claire Howell Major, Learning Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Faculty (2016) (LATs); Elizabeth F. Barkley, Claire Howell Major & K. Pamela Cross, Collaborative Learning Techniques: A Handbook for College Faculty (2d ed. 2014) (CoITs); Barkley & Howell Major, supra note 4 (SETs). Barkley and Howell Major distinguish between CATs, LATs, and CoITs on the one hand, because they are designed as assessment tools, and SETs, on the other, which are designed only for student engagement and not for assessment. See Barkley & Howell Major, supra note 4, at 142. All these techniques promote student engagement, however, so the distinction drawn by Barkley and Howell Major is not significant for the law teacher who wants to adopt any of these techniques to promote student engagement in remote or in-person learning.

59 Angelo & Cross, supra note 5, at 6.

60 Id. at 5.

61 See id. at 6-7.
with detailed analyses of their pros and cons for different situations and explanations of how to use them.\textsuperscript{62}

Although they may not be aware that they are using a CAT, law teachers in the U.S. routinely use at least one of them. Question and answer, the modified Socratic dialogue\textsuperscript{63} that has defined the traditional law school classroom for more than a century, is a classroom assessment technique\textsuperscript{64} that engages students cognitively in multiple ways during a class period.\textsuperscript{65}

CATs other than question and answer may, however, be more effective techniques for generating cognitive engagement in the law school classroom.\textsuperscript{66} These include polls, oral or written Directed Paraphrasing,\textsuperscript{67} short in-class writing activities such as the Muddiest Point\textsuperscript{68} or the Minute Paper,\textsuperscript{69} and some forms of group work, such as Think-Pair-Share.\textsuperscript{70}

Although these CATs afford the teacher somewhat less opportunity to improvise than

\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{62} See, e.g., Examples of Classroom Assessment Techniques, MGH School of Health Professions, https://www.mghihp.edu/faculty-staff-faculty-compass-teaching-teaching-strategies/examples-classroom-assessment-techniques (last visited March 5, 2021).
\textsuperscript{63} For discussion of question and answer as formative assessment see notes 44-45 and accompanying text infra.
\textsuperscript{64} See note 44 supra.
\textsuperscript{65} See note 46 supra and accompanying text.
\textsuperscript{66} For arguments in favor of integrating a variety of active learning techniques in the law school classroom, and numerous examples see, for example, Hess et al., supra note 5, at 17-18.
\textsuperscript{67} This CAT requires students “to paraphrase part of a lesson for a specific audience and purpose, using their own words.” Angelo & Cross, supra note 5, at 232-35.
\textsuperscript{68} This CAT requires students to confront what they do not understand in a lesson, discussion, or reading assignment, by answering the question “What was the muddiest point in __________?” See id. at 154-58.
\textsuperscript{69} For this CAT, students respond to an open-ended question like “What was the most important thing you learned during this class?” or “What important question remains unanswered?” Id. at 148-53.
\textsuperscript{70} Think-Pair-Share is not in Angelo & Cross’s book, but it has all the attributes of a CAT. This is a widely used technique first described by Frank Lyman of University of Maryland in 1981. Kristina Prah, Think-Pair-Share, 79 American Biology Teacher 3, 3 (2017), citing Frank Lyman, The Responsive Classroom Discussion: The Inclusion of All Students, Mainstreaming Digest 109–113 (A.S. Anderson, ed., 1981). In a Think-Pair-Share exercise, students first work on an activity individually. Then they work on the activity in pairs. Finally, the discussion moves to the large group. See id. This technique is especially usable to engage students in remote learning, with synchronous or asynchronous tools.}
question and answer, they still do not pose unrealistic burdens on teachers of large law school classes. None of them requires a grade or individual feedback; all of them require cognitive engagement.

At present, a teacher at TSUL is less likely to use a CAT than is a law teacher in the U.S. In the bachelor’s degree\(^1\) program at TSUL, instruction is divided between eighty-student “lectures,” in which senior faculty deliver traditional lectures to largely passive student audiences, and twenty-student tutorials, generally referred to as “seminars,” in which more junior faculty members help students assimilate lecture content.\(^2\) In recent years, TSUL’s academic leadership has supported increased use of active learning methods in both lectures and seminars, and growing numbers of teachers are implementing them.\(^3\) Several factors contribute to a relatively slow pace of change, however, including a view among some lecturers that the teacher’s role is to transmit knowledge, as opposed to guiding students as they construct learning.\(^4\) Most lecturers do not regularly require students to prepare in advance for lectures, so there is little occasion for in-depth interaction between lecturers and students during class,\(^5\) and while some lecturers assign in-class group

\(^{1}\) In Uzbekistan, the bachelor’s degree is sufficient for entry to law practice. Most legal employers provide on-the-job training, which may be highly structured, in, for example, the Academy of the Office of the Prosecutor General, and some of which is informal, as in the offices of private practitioners, or “advocates.”

\(^{2}\) This is still the prevailing model, although curricular reforms are introducing clinical legal education, practical skills courses, and other modifications of the traditional curriculum to provide practical training as well as theoretical knowledge. See Ismatov, supra note 16, at 49-50.

\(^{3}\) Id. at 50. Since 2017, BC Law faculty have been conducting workshops for TSUL faculty on outcomes-based education and active, student-centered, teaching methods. TSUL faculty members have attended other programs on pedagogy, including at Westminster University in Tashkent.

\(^{4}\) See id. at 10. On April 20, 2020, President Shavkat Mirziyoyev of the Republic of Uzbekistan issued a decree entitled “On Additional Measures to Radically Improve Legal Education and Science in the Republic of Uzbekistan.” Implementation of the decree will, among other effects, increase the pace of reforms already underway at TSUL.

\(^{5}\) See id. at 13-14
work, they generally do not provide feedback.⁷⁶ Some seminar teachers adhere to the traditional approach, devoting class time exclusively to questioning students on their recall of lecture content, but other seminar teachers employ a range of sophisticated active learning techniques and give students in-depth oral feedback.⁷⁷

V. Adapting CATs to Remote Teaching

Although CATs were designed for the physical classroom, they can be adapted to engage students in remote learning in synchronous or asynchronous online courses, in both high bandwidth and low bandwidth contexts.⁷⁸ Law teachers in the U.S. generally assume that students have access to high-speed internet, and thus that it is appropriate to use virtual classroom platforms. That assumption is not always justified,⁷⁹ and there are additional drawbacks to relying exclusively on virtual classroom platforms. In Uzbekistan, lack of uniform access to high-speed internet⁸⁰ makes using virtual classroom platforms impractical for most

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⁷⁶ Participants’ oral responses to questions by author during 2019 faculty development workshop. Notes on file with the author.
⁷⁷ Author’s personal observations of seminar teachers in their classes during academic visit at TSUL in spring 2019. Notes on file with the author.
⁷⁸ See Daniel Stanford, Videoconferencing Alternatives: How Low-Bandwidth Teaching Will Save Us All (March 16, 2020) https://www.iddblog.org/videoconferencingalternatives-how-low-bandwidth-teaching-will-save-usall/ (arguing that lower bandwidth alternatives to the virtual classroom are effective teaching tools that foster digital equity and accessibility in light of technical, economic, and other factors) (last visited March 5, 2021).
teachers and students outside the largest cities.\textsuperscript{81} Thus, teachers at TSUL use primarily lower bandwidth options to engage students in the Regions in remote learning.

In the virtual classroom preferred by many U.S. law teachers, limitations on interaction between teacher and student tend to make question and answer, the default CAT, less effective than in the physical classroom. Virtual classrooms do not support the same type of nonverbal communication that many law teachers rely on when they question students in the physical classroom;\textsuperscript{82} for example, a teacher’s gestures may be difficult for a student to perceive on-screen. Additional drawbacks to the virtual classroom include the following:

1) The teacher cannot walk around the room to emphasize a point.

2) Even with a very large monitor, a teacher is unlikely to be able to see all the students in a large law school class at any given moment, and thus the teacher may be unable to perceive student reactions or independently identify students who are poised to make contributions.

3) Students and teachers may be in different time zones, so scheduling a virtual class at a time that is convenient for all concerned may be a challenge.

4) The slight delays that may occur in internet transmission diminish the momentum of classroom interaction.

5) The internet connection of the teacher or a student may be disrupted, or a student may not have access to high-speed internet at all.

6) Although many virtual classroom platforms can be used on a smartphone, a student who does not have access to a computer must strain to see and interact with the teacher, other students, and projected content on the small screen.

\textsuperscript{81} Teachers report that even in Tashkent City, internet service is frequently disrupted in bad weather conditions and when usage is high. During the online TSUL workshops in May and June, internet instability required a number of participants to turn off their video for the entire workshop. One participant’s internet cut out completely.

\textsuperscript{82} The remote environment presents other opportunities for nonverbal communication to establish teacher immediacy, beyond those available in the physical classroom. See, e.g., Marcia D. Dixson et al., \textit{Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors and Online Student Engagement: Bringing Past Instructional Research into the Present Virtual Classroom}, 66 COMM. EDUC. 37, 48 (2017) doi: 10.1080/03634523.2016.1209222 ("Because instructors can create immediacy with little effort in the traditional classroom, they may not see the parallel need in online classrooms.")
These and other drawbacks of virtual classroom platforms counsel U.S. law teachers to branch out beyond question and answer on virtual classroom platforms to explore CATs other than question and answer and lower bandwidth options, both synchronous and asynchronous, for using CATs.83

Among reasons the virtual classroom is an attractive venue for CATs, even with all the drawbacks, is that a number of CATs transfer there almost seamlessly to engage students in a manner very similar to the physical classroom. For example, in the virtual classroom, a teacher can poll the whole class or use a written CAT such as a Minute Paper—just like the teacher can use these CATs to engage students in the physical classroom. Online, a poll works just as it does in the physical classroom. The Minute Paper can be used in remote teaching with only minor adjustments. As in the physical classroom, a student in a virtual classroom may demonstrate understanding by reading the Minute Paper aloud to the full class, or students may discuss each other’s work in breakout rooms, followed by a return to the full classroom for general feedback by the teacher. Alternatively, as in a physical class, the teacher may have the students submit the one-minute papers they wrote during class and then respond to them individually or as a group online or during the next virtual class.

Collaborative CATs like Think-Pair-Share84 may work better in virtual breakout rooms than in the physical classroom for a number of reasons, including that virtual classroom platforms divide students into groups more efficiently.

83 See Stanford, supra note 78.
84 See note 70 supra for description of Think-Pair-Share.
Adapting CATs to lower bandwidth platforms fosters student engagement in remote learning when using a virtual classroom is not desirable or not feasible.85 In a primarily asynchronous course, a lower bandwidth synchronous CAT, for example, a live online poll or live chat (in text or video), may be hosted directly on a learning management system (LMS) to increase student engagement.86 In both primarily synchronous and asynchronous courses, a teacher may administer the Minute Paper CAT asynchronously by assigning it on the LMS instead of in a virtual classroom. After students upload their work, the teacher, still within the LMS, can click through student submissions to take the temperature of the class in order to assess student understanding. The teacher has many options for giving feedback within the LMS, including giving audio, video, or written individual comments or providing a written, audio, or video response to the whole class. The teacher might also give feedback in the form of an annotated sample answer or rubric posted on the LMS.87

In a variety of CATs administered asynchronously88 the teacher may require students to demonstrate understanding through written, audio, or video responses, and again give feedback within the LMS. Collaborative CATs like Think-Pair-Share may be conducted

85Although it might be feasible for a student to attend a virtual class using a smartphone, the small screen makes a smartphone less effective than other devices for this purpose, especially when the teacher or student employs screen sharing.
87 See Field, supra note 6, at 423; Carol Springer Sargent & Andrea A. Curcio, Empirical Evidence that Formative Assessments Improve Final Exams, 61 J. LEGAL EDUC. 379, 395 (2012).
88 CATs can still be adapted as effective tools for assessment and student engagement in asynchronous remote teaching, even though there is no “classroom” in which to administer them. This essay includes in the category of “CAT” any activity that would meet the criteria for a CAT if it were administered in a physical classroom.
asynchronously via discussion boards within the LMS. Questions (and answers) inserted into a pre-recorded video hosted on an LMS is another example of an asynchronous CAT.89

When bandwidth is severely limited, as it is in many places both within and outside the U.S., a social media platform may supplement or replace an LMS.90 Teachers at TSUL use Telegram, the most popular social media platform in Uzbekistan,91 intensively for remote instruction. Even before the pandemic, teachers used Telegram groups to post course materials and communicate with students. In surveys conducted at the end of the first day of both two-day faculty workshops on remote learning that I co-led in May and June 2020, 100% of teachers reported that they used Telegram to engage with their students.92 More than sixty percent said that Telegram was their principal means to distribute course materials to students, even though both TSUL and the Ministry of Higher Education support the Moodle LMS and encourage teachers to use it.

During the spring of 2020, Telegram’s deep penetration throughout Uzbekistan, combined with the ingenuity of TSUL faculty in repurposing a social media platform as an instructional tool, made it possible for TSUL to reach a high percentage of its student body

89 Panopto is an example of a software platform that allows a teacher to add questions, answers, and explanations to a video. See, e.g., https://support.panopto.com/s/article/How-to-Add-a-Quiz-to-a-Video (last visited March 5, 2021).


92 On file with the author.
with remote instruction.\textsuperscript{93} In the TSUL faculty workshops, teachers reported that in addition to using Telegram to distribute asynchronous course materials and host asynchronous discussion boards, they administered CATs via Telegram in order to provide synchronous experiences in otherwise asynchronous remote courses.\textsuperscript{94} These teachers reported that using Telegram for polls as well as for question and answer in chats via audio, video, and text instant messaging was sufficient to motivate students to engage with the asynchronous materials.\textsuperscript{95}

Teachers who used Telegram as their principal tool for engaging students in remote learning recognized that the Moodle LMS, which is supported by both TSUL and the Ministry of Higher Education, is specifically designed as an instructional platform, and that social media platforms are not, and in addition pose privacy and security issues.\textsuperscript{96} Nonetheless, these teachers concluded that Telegram’s accessibility on smartphones throughout Uzbekistan, combined with the high level of user familiarity with the social media platform, makes it an appropriate tool to engage students in learning during the period required for Moodle to gain greater acceptance among teachers and students.

VI. Conclusion

Figuring out ways to engage students in remote learning may be a challenge for teachers who are accustomed to teaching in the physical classroom, but experimenting with

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item TSUL faculty are not alone in using social media platforms effectively for low bandwidth remote teaching. For example, Professor Abd Karim Alias of Universiti Sains of Malaysia has a YouTube channel with detailed lessons on how to use WhatsApp and other social media platforms as interactive remote learning tools. See https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCD1hY6RFpA4n8nXRsoKzjjyg (last visited July 30, 2020).
\item Presentation on May 12 and June 2, 2020 by TSUL Senior Lecturer Botirjon Kosimov, on file with the author.
\item Comments by participants at TSUL workshop held on June 2, 2020. Notes on file with the author.
\item See Berkeley Center for Teaching and Learning, supra note 90.
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
CATs in a variety of remote contexts is a reasonable starting point. CATs are ready-to-use\textsuperscript{97} formative assessments that engage students by requiring them to interact with the teacher and course content. A teacher who takes the plunge and tries out a CAT to engage students in remote learning will likely discover that the benefits of using CATs outweigh the costs of implementing them.

Although many CATs are at home in the high bandwidth virtual classroom, CATs can also be adapted to engage students in lower bandwidth contexts. The experience of teachers at TSUL shows that engaging students in remote learning does not require teachers to try to replicate the physical classroom on a virtual classroom platform. Employing CATs in lower bandwidth contexts successfully engages students, including those who do not have access to high-speed internet or are limited to working on a smartphone. In some circumstances, even a social media platform like Telegram is an appropriate vehicle for a CAT.

Active learning is a key requisite of cognitive engagement, and CATs are readily available tools to foster interaction in both synchronous and asynchronous learning in both high bandwidth and low bandwidth remote environments. Although the transition to remote teaching forced by the covid-19 pandemic required law teachers all over the world to leave the comfort zone of the physical classroom, it has also presented the opportunity to rethink, at least to some extent, methods for teaching.\textsuperscript{98} This can only be of benefit to us, as teachers, and to our students.

\textsuperscript{97} Barkley and Howell Major characterize CATs, LATs, ColTs, and SETs as akin to “well tested recipes . . . that both new and experienced teachers can follow . . . and be reasonably confident they will get good results.” BARKLEY & HOWELL MAJOR, supra note 4, at 142.

\textsuperscript{98} Comment of presenter at Boston College Law faculty workshop on using online discussion boards, July 9, 2020. Notes on file with the author.