



RT/MTSS Classroom Teacher Toolkit

Effective Classroom Interventions: Resources

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How To: Implement Strong Core Instruction

When teachers must present challenging academic material to struggling learners, they can make that material more accessible and promote faster learning by building assistance directly into instruction. Researchers use several terms to refer to this increased level of student instructional support: explicit instruction, direct instruction, supported instruction (Rosenshine, 2008).

The checklist below summarizes the essential elements of a supported-instruction approach. When preparing lesson plans, instructors can use this resource as a 'pre-flight' checklist to make sure that their lessons reach the widest range of diverse learners.

1. Increase Access to Instruction	
Instructional Element	Notes
<input type="checkbox"/> Instructional Match. Lesson content is appropriately matched to students' abilities (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Content Review at Lesson Start. The lesson opens with a brief review of concepts or material that have previously been presented. (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice, 2008, Rosenshine, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Preview of Lesson Goal(s). At the start of instruction, the goals of the current day's lesson are shared (Rosenshine, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Chunking of New Material. The teacher breaks new material into small, manageable increments, 'chunks', or steps (Rosenshine, 2008).	

2. Provided 'Scaffolding' Support	
Instructional Element	Notes
<input type="checkbox"/> Detailed Explanations & Instructions. Throughout the lesson, the teacher provides adequate explanations and detailed instructions for all concepts and materials being taught (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Think-Alouds/Talk-Alouds. When presenting cognitive strategies that cannot be observed directly, the teacher describes those strategies for students. Verbal explanations include 'talk-alouds' (e.g., the teacher describes and explains each step of a cognitive strategy) and 'think-alouds' (e.g., the teacher applies a cognitive strategy to a particular problem or task and verbalizes the steps in applying the strategy) (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice, 2008, Rosenshine, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Work Models. The teacher makes exemplars of academic work (e.g., essays, completed math word problems) available to students for use as models (Rosenshine, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Active Engagement. The teacher ensures that the lesson engages the student in 'active accurate responding' (Skinner, Pappas & Davis, 2005) often enough to capture student attention and to optimize learning.	
<input type="checkbox"/> Collaborative Assignments. Students have frequent opportunities to work collaboratively--in pairs or groups. (Baker, Gersten, & Lee, 2002; Gettinger & Seibert, 2002).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Checks for Understanding. The instructor regularly checks for student understanding by posing frequent questions to the group (Rosenshine, 2008).	



<input type="checkbox"/> Group Responding. The teacher ensures full class participation and boosts levels of student attention by having all students respond in various ways (e.g., choral responding, response cards, white boards) to instructor questions (Rosenshine, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> High Rate of Student Success. The teacher verifies that students are experiencing at least 80% success in the lesson content to shape their learning in the desired direction and to maintain student motivation and engagement (Gettinger & Seibert, 2002).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Brisk Rate of Instruction. The lesson moves at a brisk rate--sufficient to hold student attention (Carnine, 1976; Gettinger & Seibert, 2002).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Fix-Up Strategies. Students are taught fix-up strategies (Rosenshine, 2008) for use during independent work (e.g., for defining unknown words in reading assignments, for solving challenging math word problems).	

3. Give Timely Performance Feedback

Instructional Element	Notes
<input type="checkbox"/> Regular Feedback. The teacher provides timely and regular performance feedback and corrections throughout the lesson as needed to guide student learning (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Step-by-Step Checklists. For multi-step cognitive strategies, the teacher creates checklists for students to use to self-monitor performance (Rosenshine, 2008).	

4. Provide Opportunities for Review & Practice

Instructional Element	Notes
<input type="checkbox"/> Spacing of Practice Throughout Lesson. The lesson includes practice activities spaced throughout the lesson. (e.g., through teacher demonstration; then group practice with teacher supervision and feedback; then independent, individual student practice) (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Guided Practice. When teaching challenging material, the teacher provides immediate corrective feedback to each student response. When the instructor anticipates the possibility of an incorrect response, that teacher forestalls student error through use of cues, prompts, or hints. The teacher also tracks student responding and ensures sufficient success during supervised lessons before having students practice the new skills or knowledge independently (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Support for Independent Practice. The teacher ensures that students have adequate support (e.g., clear and explicit instructions; teacher monitoring) to be successful during independent seatwork practice activities (Rosenshine, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Distributed Practice. The teacher reviews previously taught content one or more times over a period of several weeks or months (Pashler et al., 2007; Rosenshine & Stevens, 1995).	

How To: Create a Written Record of Classroom Interventions

When general-education students begin to struggle with academic or behavioral issues, the classroom teacher will typically select and implement one or more evidence-based intervention strategies to assist those students. But a strong intervention plan needs more than just well-chosen interventions. It also requires 4 additional components (Witt, VanDerHeyden, & Gilbertson, 2004): (1) student concerns should be clearly and specifically defined; (2) one or more methods of formative assessment should be used to track the effectiveness of the intervention; (3) baseline student data should be collected prior to the intervention; and (4) a goal for student improvement should be calculated before the start of the intervention to judge whether that intervention is ultimately successful. If a single one of these essential 4 components is missing, the intervention is to be judged as fatally flawed (Witt, VanDerHeyden, & Gilbertson, 2004) and as not meeting minimum Response to Intervention standards.

Teachers need a standard format to use in documenting their classroom intervention plans. The *Classroom Intervention Planning Sheet* that appears later in this article is designed to include all of the essential documentation elements of an effective intervention plan. The form includes space to document:

- *Case information.* In this first section of the form, the teacher notes general information, such as the name of the target student, the adult(s) responsible for carrying out the intervention, the date the intervention plan is being created, the expected start and end dates for the intervention plan, and the total number of instructional weeks that the intervention will be in place. Most importantly, this section includes a description of the student problem; research shows that the most significant step in selecting an effective classroom intervention is to correctly identify the target student concern(s) in clear, specific, measureable terms (Bergan, 1995).
- *Intervention.* The teacher describes the evidence-based intervention(s) that will be used to address the identified student concern(s). As a shortcut, the instructor can simply write the intervention name in this section and attach a more detailed intervention script/description to the intervention plan.
- *Materials.* The teacher lists any materials (e.g., flashcards, wordlists, worksheets) or other resources (e.g., Internet-connected computer) necessary for the intervention.
- *Training.* If adults and/or the target student require any training prior to the intervention, the teacher records those training needs in this section of the form.
- *Progress-Monitoring.* The teacher selects a method to monitor student progress during the intervention. For the method selected, the instructor records what type of data is to be used, collects and enters student baseline (starting-point) information, calculates an intervention outcome goal, and notes how frequently he or she plans to monitor the intervention.

A completed example of the *Classroom Intervention Planning Sheet* that includes a math computation intervention can be found later in this article.

While a simple intervention documentation form is a helpful planning tool, schools should remember that teachers will need other resources and types of assistance as well to be successful in selecting and using classroom interventions. For example, teachers should have access to an 'intervention menu' that contains evidence-based strategies to address the most common academic and behavioral concerns and should be able to get coaching support as they learn how to implement new classroom intervention ideas.

References

Bergan, J. R. (1995). Evolution of a problem-solving model of consultation. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 6*(2), 111-123.

Witt, J. C., VanDerHeyden, A. M., & Gilbertson, D. (2004). Troubleshooting behavioral interventions. A systematic process for finding and eliminating problems. *School Psychology Review, 33*, 363-383.

Tier 1: Classroom Support Plan

Case Information				
What to Write: Record the important case information, including student, person delivering the intervention, date of plan, start and end dates for the intervention plan, and the total number of instructional weeks that the intervention will run.				
Student:		Interventionist(s) :		Date of Plan
Intervention: Start Date		Intervention: End Date		Total/Intervention Weeks:

Description of the Student Problem		
Environmental Conditions or Task Demands	Problem Description	Typical or Expected Level of Performance

Intervention
What to Write: Write a brief description of the intervention(s) to be used with this student. TIP: If you have a script for this intervention, you can just write its name here and attach the script to this sheet.

Materials	Training
<p>What to Write: Jot down materials (e.g., flashcards) or resources (e.g., Internet-connected computer) needed to carry out this intervention.</p>	<p>What to Write: Note what training--if any--is needed to prepare adult(s) and/or the student to carry out the intervention.</p>

<p>Progress-Monitoring. Select a method to monitor student progress. For the method selected, record what type of data is to be used, enter student baseline (starting-point) information, calculate an intervention outcome goal, and note how frequently you plan to monitor the intervention.</p>	
<p>Type of Data Used to Monitor:</p>	
<p>Baseline</p>	<p>Outcome Goal</p>
<p>How often will data be collected? (e.g., daily, every other day, weekly):</p>	

Tier 1: Classroom Support Plan

Case Information					
What to Write: Record the important case information, including student, person delivering the intervention, date of plan, start and end dates for the intervention plan, and the total number of instructional weeks that the intervention will run.					
Student:	Neda J. Gr 4	Interventionist(s) :	Mrs. Kennedy	Date of Plan	5 Feb 2018
Intervention: Start Date	10 Feb 2018	Intervention: End Date	30 Mar 2018	Total/Intervention Weeks:	6 weeks

Description of the Student Problem		
Environmental Conditions or Task Demands	Problem Description	Typical or Expected Level of Performance
On a 2-minute multiplication-facts worksheet (0-12)	Neda computes 28 correct digits	while the benchmark for Grade 4 is at least 49 correct digits.

Intervention
What to Write: Write a brief description of the intervention(s) to be used with this student. TIP: If you have a script for this intervention, you can just write its name here and attach the script to this sheet.
Neda will be taught to use the Cover-Copy-Compare (CCC) math intervention. She will use the self-guided strategy daily for 10 minutes during math independent seatwork. At the end of each session, Neda will be given the math facts for her next session and will fill out her CCC worksheet for that session.

Materials	Training
<p>What to Write: Jot down materials (e.g., flashcards) or resources (e.g., Internet-connected computer) needed to carry out this intervention.</p>	<p>What to Write: Note what training--if any--is needed to prepare adult(s) and/or the student to carry out the intervention.</p>
<p>Use the math CCC interactive form from: http://www.interventioncentral.org</p>	<p>Neda will meet with the teacher for 1 session to be trained to use the CCC strategy.</p>

<p>Progress-Monitoring. Select a method to monitor student progress. For the method selected, record what type of data is to be used, enter student baseline (starting-point) information, calculate an intervention outcome goal, and note how frequently you plan to monitor the intervention.</p>	
<p>Type of Data Used to Monitor: Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM) 2-Min Math Fact Fluency Worksheet: Multiplication Facts 0-12</p>	
Baseline	Outcome Goal
<p>28 correct digits/2 mins</p>	<p>49 correct digits/2 mins</p>
<p>How often will data be collected? (e.g., daily, every other day, weekly): Weekly</p>	



Classroom Data Tools: What Are They and What Can They Measure?

When a teacher wants to monitor a student's progress on a classroom academic intervention, the instructor will (1) decide what data 'channel' to use to collect that data, and then (2) select a data tool designed to capture the desired information. Here are those steps:

Step 1: Select a Data 'Channel'. While there are many ways to collect data to monitor student academic performance, virtually all information is gathered through one of four general 'data channels': direct observation, interviews, work products, or self-monitoring.

- *Direct observation.* The evaluator watches the student engaged in the academic task and records significant behaviors observed during that observation.
- *Interviews.* The evaluator talks with the student and/or adults familiar with the student to collect useful information about the student's academic performance.
- *Work products.* The evaluator reviews completed student work (e.g., in-class or homework assignments, quizzes and tests, etc.) to draw conclusions about that student's academic performance.
- *Self-monitoring.* The student collects information about his or her own academic performance and shares that data with the evaluator.

The four channels described here give teachers access to vital information on student performance. However, it is likely that the data the teacher collects across multiple situations will be highly variable and subjective—unless that instructor makes an effort to collect information in a structured, consistent format over time.

For example, a teacher might *observe* a student weekly during independent work to monitor whether the learner is consistently applying all steps of an academic strategy. If the teacher simply jots down random notes during these observations, the information collected will probably vary considerably across time, depending on what the teacher decides to include in his notes on any given day. If instead, however, the teacher uses a checklist that includes the essential steps in the academic strategy, that instructor's observations are far more likely to record accurately and consistently what steps in the strategy the student actually uses.

Checklists, rubrics, and other tools can transform information collected via observation, interviews, work products, or self-monitoring into objective formative data that can be charted over time to track the outcomes of classroom interventions.

Step 2: Select a Data Tool. Teachers have a variety of tools that they can access to collect behavioral or academic information and monitor classroom interventions. This 'look-up' chart provides a review of the most common data sources and what they can measure:

Data Tool	What It Is	What It Can Measure
Archival Data	Existing data routinely collected by schools that provides useful ongoing information about the student's academic or behavioral performance.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attendance • Office disciplinary referrals • Other aspects of behavior or academic performance captured in the school database



Behavior Report Cards	A teacher-created rating scale that measures student classroom behaviors. A behavior report card contains 3-4 rating items describing goal behaviors. Each item includes an appropriate rating scale (e.g., Poor-Fair-Good). At the end of an observation period, the rater fills out the report card as a summary snapshot of the student's behavior.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General behaviors (e.g., complies with teacher requests; waits to be called on before responding) • Academic 'enabling' behaviors (e.g., has all necessary work materials; writes down homework assignment correctly and completely, etc.)
Checklists	The dividing of a larger behavioral task or sequence into constituent steps, sub-skills, or components. Each checklist element is defined in a manner that allows the observer to make a clear judgment (e.g., YES/NO, COMPLETED/NOT COMPLETED) about whether the student is displaying it.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Step-by-step cognitive strategies • Behavioral routines • Generalization: Target behavior carried out across settings
Cumulative Mastery Records	A cumulative record of the student's acquisition/mastery of a defined collection of academic items such as multiplication math facts. This record is updated after every intervention session.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any discrete collection of academic items to be mastered: e.g., vocabulary, math facts, spelling words, letter or number names
Curriculum-Based Measures/Assessment	A series of brief measures of basic academic skills given under timed conditions and scored using standardized procedures. CBM/CBA measures often include research-derived benchmark norms to assist in evaluating the student's performance.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speed and accuracy in basic academic skills: e.g., letter naming, number naming, number sense, vocabulary, oral reading fluency, reading comprehension (maze), production of writing, math fact computation
Grades	Represent in letter or number form the teacher's formal, summary evaluation of the student's academic performance on an assignment, quiz, test, or longer span of evaluation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Homework grades • Test grades • Quarterly report card grades
Logs	Written adult or student entries that track the frequency (and perhaps additional details) of relevant academic performance and/or behaviors.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Homework completion • Incidents of non-compliance • Student record of dates when he or she uses a self-guided academic intervention. • Listing of student-teacher meetings.
Rubrics	An instrument designed to measure a student on complex tasks. In a rubric, the teacher defines the categories that make up the important dimensions of a task, develops written exemplars representing mastery for each dimension, and creates a rating scale to be used in evaluating a particular student's work for each dimension.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any complex, multi-dimensional task: e.g., participation in a discussion; writing a research paper; preparing and presenting a PowerPoint; completing and documenting a science lab project, etc.
Work Products	Student work that reflects performance on a series of similar in-class or homework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work completion • Work accuracy



	<p>assignments (e.g., successive writing assignments or ongoing math homework). A work product is selected because it can reflect growth in the intervention target skill(s). The element(s) of the work product being tracked can be objectively measures and converted to numeric data (e.g., percentage of problems completed).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Written evidence of problem-solving steps• Quality of student work (e.g., on writing assignments)
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A Toolkit: 38 Classroom Ideas to Help Students to Make Better Behavioral Choices

Behavior intervention plans are highly individualized--because every student displays a unique profile of behaviors. However, teachers will find that their chances of helping a student to engage in positive behaviors increase when they include *each* of these 3 elements in their classroom behavior intervention plans:

1. Antecedents: Strategies to promote positive behaviors and prevent misbehavior
2. Positive consequences: Responses that increase positive/goal behaviors
3. Extinction procedures: Responses that extinguish problem behaviors

Every one of these elements plays a crucial role in promoting the success of a behavior plan. Antecedent strategies prevent the student from engaging in problem behaviors in the first place. Positive consequences motivate the student to show desired behaviors, such as academic engagement. Extinction procedures remove the 'pay-off' to the student for engaging in problem behaviors. While any one of the elements might be inadequate to change the student's behavior, the combination of antecedents, positive consequences, and extinction procedures can result in a strong, flexible plan and successful intervention outcome.

Teachers can use this guide to build their own behavior plans using its research-based ideas for antecedents, positive consequences, and extinction procedures.

1. Antecedents: Strategies to Prevent Misbehavior

Teachers have the greatest array of options to influence a student to engage in positive behaviors when they focus on *antecedents*: actions they take *before* the student behavior occurs. Proactive antecedent actions to encourage desired behaviors are often quick-acting, can prevent misbehavior and attendant interruption of instruction, and usually require less teacher effort than providing corrective consequences after problem behaviors have occurred. Teacher strategies to elicit positive student behaviors include making instructional adjustments, providing student prompts and reminders, and teaching students to monitor and evaluate their work performance. Here are specific antecedent ideas that teachers can use to 'nudge' students to engage in desired behaviors:

Antecedents That Prevent Problem Behaviors

- Behaviors: Teach Expectations** (Fairbanks, Sugai, Guardino, & Lathrop, 2007). Students must be explicitly taught behavioral expectations before they can be held accountable for those behaviors. The teacher should model positive behaviors, give students examples and non-examples of appropriate behaviors to clarify understanding, have students practice those behaviors with instructor feedback; and consistently acknowledge and praise students for successfully displaying positive behaviors.
- Instructional Match: Ensure the Student Can Do the Work** (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice, 2008). Student misbehavior frequently arises from an inability to do the academic task. When the student lacks skills necessary for the academic task, the instructor teaches the necessary skill(s). Additional strategies include adjusting the immediate task to the student's current skill(s) and pairing the student with a helping peer.



- ❑ **No: Substitute a Preferred Alternative** (Mace, Pratt, Prager, & Pritchard, 2011). If the student has a pattern of misbehaving when told that he or she cannot access a desired item or engage in a preferred activity, the teacher can use the 'no with preferred alternative' strategy. The teacher prepares by making a list of activities or items preferred by the student that are allowed during the academic situation or setting where problems arise. Then, whenever the student requests an item or activity that is not allowed, the teacher (1) tells the student that he or she cannot access the desired activity or item; (2) provides a brief explanation of why the requested item or activity is off-limits; and (3) immediately offers the student one or more items or activities from the prepared list that *are* allowable in the current situation or setting.
- ❑ **Pre-Session Attention: Provide Antecedent Attention.** If a student appears to misbehave to seek adult attention during an activity such as whole-group instruction, the teacher consistently gives the student a dose (e.g., 3 minutes) of positive individual attention *just before* the session begins (Wood et al., 2018). This pre-session attention can thus reduce that student's immediate attention-seeking behaviors.
- ❑ **Relocate the Student: Remove From Temptation** (US Department of Education, 2004). When the student's problem behaviors are triggered or supported by factors in the environment--such as a talkative peer or difficulty hearing or seeing the instructor--the teacher may choose to move the student to another, less-distracting location in the classroom. A good option is to seat the student within the teacher's 'action zone', close to the instructor and in the region of the room toward which that educator directs most instruction.
- ❑ **Schedule: Increase Predictability** (Kern & Clemens, 2007). When students know the "content, duration, and/or consequences of future events" (Kern & Clemens, 2007; p. 67), their level of engagement rises and problem behaviors decline—a good definition of motivation. A strategy to increase the predictability of events for individual students or an entire classroom is to post or otherwise provide a schedule outlining the day's classroom activities. In simplest form, such a schedule lists a title and brief description for each scheduled activity, along with the start and end times for that activity. Teachers may wish to add information to the schedule, such as helpful reminders of what work materials a student might need for each event. Students who have difficulty interpreting a written schedule may benefit from having their schedules read aloud and/or from having pictorial equivalents included in their schedules.
- ❑ **Work Break: Make It Available on Request** (Majeika et al., 2011). Sometimes misbehavior is an attempt by the student to engineer a break from an academic task. The teacher can choose an alternative method for the student to use to communicate that he or she would like a brief break, such as requesting that break verbally or pulling out a color-coded break card. Of course, the student will also require clear guidelines on how long the requested break will last and what activities are acceptable for the student to engage in during that break.

Antecedents That Encourage Goal Behaviors

- ❑ **Checklist for Academic Skills: Make the Complicated Simple** (Alter, Wyrick, Brown, & Lingo, 2008). When the student must apply several steps to complete a complex academic task, the teacher can give the student a checklist detailing each step and instructions for completing it. Before the activity, the student is prompted to preview the checklist; after the activity, the student uses the checklist to review the work.
- ❑ **Checklist for Challenging Situations: Script Transition Times** (McCoy, Mathur, & Czoka, 2010). Students often struggle with the complexity of managing multi-step routines such as transitioning between classroom activities or moving to different locations within the school. Teachers can assist by making up step-by-step



checklists that 'walk' the student incrementally through the routine. Instructors can use these checklists as guides to teach and measure student success in navigating transitions. Just as important, the student can use the checklist as a prompt and guide to follow the expected steps.

- ❑ **Check Out: Exit Slips** (Hirn & Park, 2012). As the student transitions from small-group or independent work to another activity, give the student an 'exit slip'. This slip can contain short-answer questions to prompt the student to reflect on the learning just completed. It can also include reminders for putting away materials, turning in completed work, or preparing for the next activity.
- ❑ **Choice-Making: Allow for Student Preference** (Green, Mays, & Jolivet, 2011). Students find it motivating to have opportunities to choose how they structure or carry out their academic tasks. Teachers can allow choice on any of a variety of dimensions of a classroom activity, such as where the activity takes place; who the child works with; what materials to work with (e.g., choosing a book from several options); when to begin or end the activity; or how long to engage in the activity.
- ❑ **Clock It: Time-Based Check-In** (Hirn & Park, 2012). While the student is working independently, the instructor checks in periodically (e.g., at 3- or 5-minute intervals) to ensure that the student remains actively engaged and to offer instructional support, praise, or encouragement.
- ❑ **Fix-Up Skills: Foster Work Independence** (Rosenshine, 2008). During independent work, the student should know procedures to follow if stuck (e.g., cannot complete an item; does not understand a word in a reading passage). The teacher creates a routine for the student in how to apply 'fix-up' skills for independent assignments: e.g., "If I don't understand what I have read, I should (1) reread the paragraph; (2) slow my reading; (3) focus my *full* attention on what I am reading; (4) underline any words that I do not know and try to figure them out from the reading" (McCallum et al., 2010).
- ❑ **Greet Students at the Start of Class** (Allday & Pakurar, 2007). As students arrive at the start of class, the teacher stands at the door and briefly greets each student by name. This modest effort has been shown to substantially increase student attention and focus. Teachers who commit to using student greetings rearrange their start-of-class routine to allow them consistently to be standing just outside or inside the classroom door as the students arrive.
- ❑ **Goal-Setting: Get a Commitment** (Martin et al., 2003). One tool to increase student motivation to perform an academic task is to have that student choose a specific, measurable outcome goal before starting that task. At the end of the work session, the student compares the actual outcome to the previously selected goal to judge success. For example, a student about to begin a writing task may choose the goal of locating 3 primary sources for a term paper. Or a student starting an in-class reading assignment might come up with two questions that he would like to have answered from the reading.
- ❑ **High-Preference Requests: Build Behavioral Momentum** (Kern & Clemens, 2007). Use 'behavioral momentum' to increase compliance by first directing the student or class to complete several short, simple, high-preference directives that they readily complete (e.g., "Take out a sheet of paper", "write your name on the paper", "copy the assignment from the board") before presenting the student or class with a low-preference directive that they typically balk at (e.g., "Open your books and begin the assignment").
- ❑ **Maintain a High Ratio of Positive Interactions** (Sprick, Borgmeier & Nolet, 2002). To keep relationships on a positive footing throughout the classroom, the teacher self-monitors encounters with particular students and sets



the goal of having at least 3 positive interactions for each disciplinary interaction. Positive teacher-student interactions can vary in format: for example, greeting, praise, conversation, smile, thumbs-up sign. By maintaining at least a 3:1 ratio between relationship-enhancing vs. disciplinary interactions, the teacher bends the odds in his or her favor that every student in the class will view the instructor as fair and caring.

- **Opportunities to Respond: Let Feedback Be Its Own Reward** (Partin et al., 2010). When students are academically engaged, they are usually also behaving appropriately. The teacher's goal, then, is to capture positive student behaviors by structuring lessons and work assignments to require a high rate of opportunities to respond (OTRs). In a complete OTR cycle, the student has an opportunity to respond (e.g., the teacher asks a question, or the student encounters an item on independent work), produces a response (e.g., the student responds to the teacher question or answers the work item); and receives timely performance feedback (e.g., the teacher says, "Right answer!", or the student uses an answer key to check a response).

An efficient way to boost OTRs classwide is through group responding (Haydon, Borders, Embury, & Clarke, 2009). Strategies for group response include choral responding; show of hands; pre-formatted response cards (e.g., with YES and NO written on opposite faces of the card); and individual white boards.

- **Paraphrasing: Have the Student Repeat Directions or Other Key Information** (Mancil & Maynard, 2007). To ensure that the student understands challenging directions, the instructor has the student repeat those directions in his or her own words before starting the task. This paraphrasing strategy can also be used with any other key information (e.g., fix-up strategies) that the student needs for success on the task.
- **Positive Teacher Requests: It's How You Say It** (Braithwaite, 2000). Non-compliant students have a pattern of ignoring or defying teacher requests. However, instructors can increase the likelihood of student compliance by stating their requests in positive terms (e.g., "John, I can help you just as soon as you are back in your seat") rather than in negative terms (e.g., "John, I can't help you unless you are sitting in your seat").
- **Pre-Correction: Plant a Positive Thought** (De Pry & Sugai, 2002). Some students need a timely reminder of expected behaviors just before they transition into situations or settings in which problem behaviors tend to occur. At this 'point of performance', the teacher gives the student a timely reminder of goal behaviors, using such prompting strategies as stating goal behaviors, having the student preview a checklist of goal behaviors, asking the student to describe goal behaviors; or praising another student for demonstrating goal behaviors.
- **Response Effort: Reduce Task Difficulty** (Friman & Poling, 1995; Skinner, Pappas & Davis, 2005). The teacher increases student engagement through any method that reduces the apparent difficulty ('response effort') of an academic task - so long as that method does not hold the student to a lesser academic standard than classmates. Examples of strategies that lower response effort include having students pair off to start homework in class and breaking larger academic tasks into smaller, more manageable 'chunks'.
- **Rewards: Choose Them in Advance** (De Pry & Sugai, 2002). Just as the student is about to enter a challenging situation or setting in which he or she will need to show appropriate behaviors, the instructor reminds the student of the behavioral expectations and has the student select a possible reward from a menu. The student is later given that reward if behaviors were appropriate.
- **Setting the Tone: Transition Signal** (Hirn & Park, 2012). When moving from a high-structure learning task (e.g., independent seatwork) to a less-structured situation (e.g., lining up for lunch; preparing for dismissal), the



teacher uses an audible tone or other signal to clearly mark that transition. Such a signal helps all students more quickly and appropriately to match behaviors to the current classroom activity.

- **'Two by Ten': Engage in Brief Positive Chats** (Mendler, 2000). If a teacher has a strained (or nonexistent) relationship with a particular student, that instructor may want to jump-start a more positive pattern of interaction using the 'two-by-ten' intervention. With this time efficient strategy, the teacher commits to having a positive 2-minute conversation with the student at least once per day across 10 consecutive school days. The active ingredient in the intervention is regular and positive teacher attention delivered at times when the student is engaged in appropriate behavior.
- **Verbal Commands: Keep Them Brief and Powerful** (Matheson & Shriver, 2005; Walker & Walker, 1991). Teacher commands are most likely to elicit student compliance when they (1) are delivered calmly, (2) are brief, (3) are stated when possible as DO statements rather than as DON'T statements, (4) use clear, simple language, and (5) are delivered one command at a time and appropriately paced to avoid confusing or overloading students. Effective teacher commands avoid both sarcasm or hostility and over-lengthy explanations that can distract or confuse students.

2. Positive Consequences: Responses That Increase Positive/Goal Behaviors

Consequences are those events following a student behavior that make it more or less likely that the behavior will occur in the future. This section looks at positive consequences, ideas that teachers can use to reinforce the student for being on-task and showing appropriate behaviors. Among strategies that promote behaviors are providing timely feedback, praise, and teacher attention; as well as allowing students to take temporary work breaks. To foster specific behaviors, the teacher can use any of the following strategies:

- **Performance Feedback: Information is Rewarding** (Conroy et al., 2009). When students receive timely feedback about their academic performance, this information can reinforce academic behavior and reduce misbehavior. Instructional feedback comes in many forms: e.g., teacher oral or written feedback; class discussion and review of an assignment; oral feedback from class peers; student self-directed completion of a rubric or problem-solving checklist during an independent assignment.
- **Praise: Catch Them Being Good** (Kern & Clemens, 2007). Research suggests that teacher praise is one of the most powerful--yet underused-- of classroom management tools. When a student, group, or class displays an appropriate pro-social or pro-academic behavior, the teacher reinforces that behavior with a targeted praise statement containing two elements: (1) a specific description of the praiseworthy behavior, and (2) an expression of teacher approval (e.g., "You worked for the full independent-work period. Nice job!"; "I really appreciate the way that our student groups stayed on-task and completed their entire assignment.").
- **Scheduled Attention: Rechannel Adult Interactions** (Austin & Soeda, 2008). As every educator knows, teacher attention can be a potent motivator for student behavior. One strategy to increase positive behaviors is to 'catch the student being good' with regular doses of 'scheduled attention': (1) The teacher decides on a fixed-interval schedule to provide attention (e.g., every 8 minutes); (2) At each interval, the teacher observes the student; (3) If the student is engaged in appropriate behaviors at that moment, the teacher provides a dose of positive attention (e.g., verbal praise; non-verbal praise such as thumbs-up; brief positive conversation; encouragement). If the student is off-task or not behaving appropriately, the teacher briefly redirects the student to task and returns immediately to instruction until the next scheduled-attention interval.



3. *Extinction Procedures*: Responses That Reduce or Eliminate Problem Behaviors

Extinction means discontinuing the reinforcing consequences of behaviors to erase an individual's motivation to engage in those behaviors. In effect, extinction procedures 'cut off the oxygen' to problem behaviors. That is, explicit directions should be written into a behavior intervention plan to guide those working with the student to alter their responses to problem behaviors in a manner designed to remove reinforcement for the misbehavior.

An explicit plan to extinguish problem behaviors is an *essential* part of most student behavior plans (Hester et al., 2009). Without extinction procedures, educators are far too likely accidentally to continue reinforcing the very behaviors they are trying to eliminate. The teacher wishing to extinguish specific behaviors can try one or more of the following strategies:

- **Escape Breaks: Put Escape on a Schedule** (Waller & Higbee, 2010). The teacher can manage a student who uses disruptive behavior to escape or avoid academic work by scheduling 'non-contingent escape breaks'. First the teacher selects a reasonable work interval for the student-- this should be an interval slightly shorter than the average amount of time that student *currently* will work before misbehaving (e.g. 5 minutes). Next, the teacher decides how long the brief 'escape break' will last (e.g., two minutes). Finally, the teacher identifies motivating activities that the student can engage in during escape breaks (e.g., coloring; playing a math application on a computer tablet). When the intervention is in effect, the teacher directs the student to begin work and starts a timer. When the student's work interval is done, the teacher directs that student to take a break and again starts the timer. When the break is up, the student is directed to resume work. This process repeats until the work period is over. As the student's behaviors improve, the teacher can gradually lengthen the work periods until the student is able to remain academically engaged for as long as typical peers; at this point, the intervention is discontinued.
- **Choice Statements in 2 Parts: Frame the Alternative Consequences** (Walker, 1997). The teacher frames a request to an uncooperative student as a two-part 'choice' statement: (1) The teacher presents the negative, or non-compliant, choice and its consequence (e.g., "John, you can choose to stay after school today to finish this in-class assignment."); (2) The teacher next states the positive behavioral choice that the student is encouraged to select (e.g., "Or you can finish your work now and not stay after school. It's your choice."). If the student fails to comply within a reasonable time (e.g. 1 minute), the teacher imposes the disciplinary consequence.
- **Contingent Instructions: Move from 'Stop' to 'Start'** (Curran, 2006; Gable. Hester, Rock, & Hughes, 2009). When the instructor observes that a student is engaging in problem behavior requiring a response, the teacher delivers contingent instructions in a 3-part format.
 1. *STOP statement*. The teacher directs the student to STOP a specific problem behavior, e.g., "Joshua, put away the magazine."; "Annabelle, return to your seat."
 2. *START statement*. After a brief (1-2 second) pause, the instruction describes the appropriate replacement behavior that the student should START, e.g., "Open your book to page 28 and begin the end-of-chapter questions."; "Work with your partner to solve the math problem on the board."



3. *PRAISE for compliance.* As the student begins to engage in the desired behavior, the teacher concludes by PRAISING the student for compliance. e.g., "Thank you for starting your book assignment, Joshua.", "I see that you and your partner are solving the math problem, Annabelle. Good!"
- **If/Then Statements: Set the Conditions** (Majeika et al., 2011). When the student is engaging in a problem behavior, the teacher can use an 'if/then' statement to prompt that student to engage in the appropriate replacement behavior. For example, if a student is out of seat without permission, the teacher says, "Shelly, if you return to your seat, then I will come over and answer your question." Of course, when the student responds by displaying the positive behavior, the teacher follows through with the promised action and praises that student for compliance.
 - **Planned Ignoring: Turn Off the Attention** (Colvin, 2009). When the student engages in minor misbehavior to attract teacher attention, planned ignoring is a useful strategy. In planned ignoring, the instructor withholds attention when the student engages in the problem behavior. Ignoring problem behavior can remove the source of its reinforcement and thus help to extinguish it. Teachers should remember, though, that planned ignoring alone is seldom successful. Instead, planned ignoring becomes much more powerful when, at the same time, the teacher provides regular attention whenever the student engages in positive, replacement behaviors. In fact, the tandem efforts of (1) removing teacher attention from misbehavior while (2) rechanneling that attention toward positive behaviors is one of the most effective behavior management combinations available.
 - **Praise Peers: Shape Behavior Through Vicarious Reinforcement** (Majeika et al., 2011). Teacher approval can be a powerful motivator. The teacher can capitalize on this fact by publicly praising on-task peers sitting near the target (misbehaving) student. When the target student then engages in academic work, the teacher makes sure to praise that student as well.
 - **Precision Requests: Make Directives and Consequences Clear** (De Martini-Scully, Bray, & Kehle, 2000; Musser, Bray, Kehle, & Jenson, 2001). The *precision request* structures communication with the student in a concise, respectful format that preserves adult authority and increases the likelihood of student compliance. In preparation, the teacher decides on appropriate consequences for non-compliance. Examples of suitable consequences include loss of free time, phone call to a parent, loss of a point or token, or restriction of activities at recess. When making a precision request, the teacher follows these steps:
 1. *Make first request: "Please..."*. The teacher states a brief request that starts with the word 'Please' and -- whenever possible--frames the request as a goal behavior rather than as a behavior to stop (e.g., "Rick, please open your math book and begin the assignment written on the board"). The teacher then waits 5 seconds for the student to comply. If the student complies, the teacher praises the student (e.g., "Thank you for starting your math assignment").
 2. *Make second request: "I Need..."*. If the student fails to comply with the first request within 5 seconds, the teacher repeats that request. This time, the teacher starts the request with the phrase "I need..." (e.g., "Rick, I need you to open your math book and begin the assignment written on the board"). Again, the teacher waits 5 seconds for the student to comply. If the student complies, the teacher praises the student (e.g., "Thank you for starting your math assignment").
 3. *Deliver consequence for non-compliance.* If the student fails to comply to the second request within 5 seconds, the teacher follows through in delivering the pre-determined consequence for non-compliance.



- **Redirect the Student: Get Them Back on Track** (Dhaem, 2012; Simonsen et al., 2008). When the teacher observes the student begin to engage in problem behaviors, the instructor redirects that student back to task, either verbally (e.g., "Tom, stop talking and start your assignment") or non-verbally (e.g., giving that student a significant look and negative head shake). Redirects should be brief and calm in tone. NOTE: Teachers can also redirect without distracting the class by using 'tweets'--brief behavioral reminders written on post-it notes and placed on the student's desk.

- **Response Cost: Deduct for Misbehavior** (DuPaul & Stoner, 2002). Response cost is a strategy in which the teacher assigns an incentive (e.g., points, tokens, or classroom privileges such as free time) to the student at the start of the session. Each time that the student misbehaves during the session, that student loses a point, token, or increment of privilege (e.g., losing 5 minutes of free time). At the end of the session, the student is awarded any points, tokens, or privileges that remain. In preparation for response cost, the teacher must establish incentives that the student(s) would value--either setting up a classwide or individual point/token system tied to rewards or making available classroom privileges. The student(s) must also be trained in how the response cost system operates, including a clear understanding of what problem behaviors will result in response-cost deductions and what positive, replacement behaviors they are expected to display.

Response cost, like all punishment strategies, should be used only when it is clear that the problem behavior is fully under the student's control. Before using response cost, the teacher should ensure that the student has the required skills, training, and self-control to avoid the problem behavior and to engage in a positive, replacement behavior.

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Problem Behaviors: Common 'Functions'	
Hypothesis	Considerations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SKILL DEFICIT. The student lacks the skills necessary to display the desired behavior (Gable et al., 2009). 	If the student has never explicitly been taught the desired behaviors, there is a strong likelihood that behavior-skill deficit is a contributing factor.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PERFORMANCE DEFICIT. The student possesses the skills necessary to display the desired behavior but lacks sufficient incentive/motivation to do so (Gable et al., 2009). 	Poor motivation is a real and frequent cause of behavior problems. However, schools should first carefully rule out other explanations (e.g., skill deficit; escape/avoidance) before selecting this explanation.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ACCESS TO TANGIBLES/ EDIBLES/ACTIVITIES. The student seeks access to preferred objects ('tangibles'), food, or activities (Kazdin, 2001). 	The student may use behavior as a means to gain access to reinforcing experiences, such as food treats, desirable objects to play with, or high-preference activities (e.g., computer games, texting).
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PEER ATTENTION. The student is seeking the attention of other students (Packenham, Shute & Reid, 2004). 	The student may be motivated by general attention from the entire classroom or may only seek the attention of select peers.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ADULT ATTENTION. The student is seeking the attention of adults (Packenham, Shute & Reid, 2004). 	The student may be motivated by general attention from all adults or may only seek the attention of select educators.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ESCAPE/AVOIDANCE. The student is seeking to escape or avoid a task or situation (Witt, Daly & Noell, 2000). 	If the student demonstrates academic ability (e.g., via grades or observed work) close to or at grade level, behavior problems may be tied to motivation issues or attention-seeking. Students with delayed academic abilities are more likely to be driven by escape/avoidance.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • EMOTIONAL OR ATTENTIONAL BLOCKERS. The student possesses the skills to display the desired behavior "but is unable to deal with competing forces—anger, frustration, fatigue." (Gable et al., 2009; p. 197). (This category can also include symptoms associated with anxiety or ADHD.) 	Students fitting this profile typically have difficulty managing their emotions (e.g., anxiety, anger) across settings and situations. However, if evidence suggests that emotional outbursts are linked to <i>specific</i> settings, situations, or tasks, the student may instead be attempting to escape or avoid those particular situations--suggesting poor academic skills or interpersonal difficulties.