

RTI Classroom Teacher Toolkit

How to Use Data to Set Classroom Intervention Goals and Monitor Student Progress

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Monitoring Student Progress on Classroom Interventions: Big Ideas

Teachers collect and interpret multiple streams of classroom data continuously to make ongoing judgments about whether groups or individual learners are understanding instructional content, making adequate progress in coursework, and behaving appropriately. Here are key 'big ideas' about monitoring student progress that can assist teachers in collecting more useful data efficiently and making better decisions about students' response to classroom interventions.

1. **Define the student problem clearly.** Before the teacher can select a method of data collection to monitor student progress, that instructor must first define the academic or behavioral problem clearly (Christ, 2008). Clear definitions of the presenting concern are called 'problem identification [ID] statements'.

Problem ID statements can often be improved by making them more specific and, when appropriate, by adding information about frequency, intensity, or other objective data to clarify the severity of the problem. For example, an instructor may initially come up with this problem ID statement, 'Angela is disruptive in class.' This vague statement can be improved with detail, e.g., 'Angela argues and refuses to comply when given a teacher request.' Similarly, a teacher's concern that 'Sam never turns in homework' can be improved if she consults her gradebook for information about how frequently the student submits work, e.g., 'Sam turns in homework only about 25 percent of the time.'

Table 1 provides examples of how to compose specific, data-based problem-ID statements.

Table 1: How to Strengthen Descriptions of Academic and Other Behaviors					
	Descriptions needing improvement.	Joshua does not know his math facts. This description is too general: what does it mean to 'know a math fact' and what specific facts does the student not know?	Anne doesn't respect adults. This description is vaguely worded and includes an unnecessary value judgement.		
	Get Specific. Describe behaviors in specific terms without added value judgments.	Joshua does not know his multiplication 0-12 math facts.	Anne often fails to comply with teacher requests.		
	2. Use Data. Make use of available data (when available) to provide additional information about current student performance.	When shown multiplication 0-12 Scholastic math-fact flash cards for 3 seconds, Joshua can answer 32 of 58 correctly.	When given directives in math class, Anne complies with those directives about 50% of the time.		
	3. Reframe . State behaviors (when possible) as positive 'goal' statements.	When shown multiplication 0-12 Scholastic math-fact flash cards for 3 seconds, Joshua will answer 58 of 58 correctly [with 95% accuracy].	When given directives in math class, Anne will comply with those directives within 1 minute without argument or complaint at least 90% of the time.		

2. Take full advantage of practical progress-monitoring tools available in the classroom. There are a range of data-collection methods that teachers can use to track student progress on academic or behavioral interventions, such as grades, rubrics, student interviews, behavior report cards, and checklists. Many of these measures are teacher-made and have the advantage of measuring the student's actual observed behavior or academic performance (Howell, Hosp & Kurns, 2008).

A concern sometimes raised about such 'informal' measures is that they appear to lack the rigor of norm-referenced assessments—such as curriculum-based measurement or commercial tests—that schools use to make high-stakes judgments about the effectiveness of more intensive RTI interventions and special-education programming. However, the stakes of classroom (Tier 1) interventions are typically lower than these more advanced interventions because the teacher is proactively addressing emerging concerns *before* they escalate. The reduced stakes mean that the measures used to track success on these general-education interventions can also be less rigorous (Hosp, 2008).

3. **Use measures that yield a specific number value.** Instructors should select progress-monitoring tool(s) that can be converted to numeric data, so that the results can be charted over time as a coherent data series.

For example, a teacher may wish to monitor a student's ability to construct complete sentences and select writing samples as a data source. The teacher then converts each qualitative writing sample into chartable, numeric data by (1) counting up the number of correctly formed sentences in the sample and (2) dividing this figure by the total number of sentences attempted (whether correct or incorrect) to calculate percent of correctly formed sentences in the sample. So, the teacher takes a subjective student 'artifact' (writing sample) and converts it into an objective number value that can be charted.

- 4. Choose measures that are sensitive to short-term gains. Progress-monitoring should reveal in weeks—not months— whether the intervention is effective. When possible, teachers should select data-collection tools that accurately capture incremental student improvement within a 6-to-8-week timespan.
- 5. **Keep it simple: Measure target behaviors, not 'interventions'**. The goal of interventions is always to *improve* a target student behavior—whether by strengthening academic performance or positively impacting general conduct. When selecting a data-collection method, therefore, the question to answer is: "How can I best measure the target behavior?" This means that teachers can actually choose a method to monitor a student's progress before selecting an intervention. For example, a teacher may be concerned because a student reads aloud in a slow, halting manner. So, the student's target behavior to measure is 'reading fluency'. The teacher can next select from a range of possible interventions to improve reading fluency, such as repeated reading, duet reading, listening passage preview, or echo reading. However, no matter what intervention(s) the teacher finally selects, the goal for progress-monitoring remains unchanged: reading fluency.
- 6. Know the student's baseline/starting point. When preparing to monitor a student on intervention, the teacher typically first collects 'baseline' data. In this step, the instructor assesses the student's academic or behavioral performance on one or more occasions before the intervention starts—and uses this preliminary data to estimate that student's starting point or current level of performance (Hixson, Christ & Bruni, 2014). Of course, baseline data is collected employing the same method of formative assessment that will be used to track progress during the intervention phase. Baseline data is helpful in calculating an intervention goal (see below). Of equal importance, baseline information can be used as a point of comparison throughout the intervention period to judge whether that student has made progress.
- 7. **Set a goal**. The teacher has a last task to complete before launching an intervention and monitoring progress: establish an outcome goal for the student (Hixson, Christ & Bruni, 2014). To compute this outcome goal, the instructor decides how many instructional weeks the intervention will last and calculates a 'realistic but ambitious' performance goal that the student is expected to meet or exceed by the conclusion of the intervention period. The importance of the intervention goal, of course, is that it allows the teacher a simple, unambiguous standard

against which to judge the success of the intervention. Without such a goal to work toward, the instructor is flying blind, unable to ascertain whether the student's current intervention performance falls short of, meets, or exceeds expectations.

8. Reduce the 'noise' in the data. A central truth about real-world student performance data of any kind is that each data-point contains both real information and an element of error (Hosp, 2008). Error in measurement is a natural element of data collection and can arise from many sources, including fluctuations in student mood and motivation; variability in educators' approach to data collection, scoring, and interpretation; and even the presence of environmental distractions that interfere with focus and concentration. Error in data collection is ever-present. Teachers, however, can take action to minimize the 'noise', or 'error', and to maximize the 'signal', or 'true' information, that data contains—for example, by developing standardized procedures for collecting and evaluating data of any kind and consistently following those methods or ensuring that the student is focused and sufficiently motivated before participating in an assessment session.

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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, guizzes 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.	 Attendance Office disciplinary referrals Other aspects of behavior or academic performance captured in the school database

Behavior Report Cards Checklists	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. 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.	 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.) Step-by-step cognitive strategies Behavioral routines Generalization: Target behavior carried out across settings
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.	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
Flashcards: Student- Response Recording Sheet	A cumulative record of the student's acquisition/mastery of a defined collection of flashcard academic items such as multiplication math facts. This record is updated after every intervention session.	 Any discrete collection of academic items to be mastered: e.g., vocabulary, math facts, spelling words, letter or number names
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.	Homework gradesTest gradesQuarterly report card grades
Logs	Written adult or student entries that track the frequency (and additional relevant details) of relevant academic performance and/or behaviors.	 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.	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	Work completionWork accuracy

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).

- Written evidence of problemsolving steps
- Quality of student work (e.g., on writing assignments)

Progress-Monitoring Questions: How Do I Measure...?

Before a teacher can select a method to monitor a student intervention, that instructor must first decide what assessment question(s) to answer. This 'look-up' chart lists the most common classroom assessment questions and specific assessments that can answer those questions.

Assessment Questions:	Suggested Methods of Progress-Monitoring
How do I measure if the	
student	
is becoming more accurate in an academic skill (goal: accuracy only)?	 Cumulative Mastery Record: This approach is suitable when the student is mastering a fixed set of items (e.g., biology vocabulary; multiplication math facts 0-12). Observation/Log: The teacher observes and records instances of successful student performance. Work product: The teacher examines student work and records the number/percentage of items correct.
is developing fluency in an academic skill (goal: accuracy plus speed)?	 Curriculum-based measures: CBMs are a good choice for rote basic skills such as reading fluency or math fact fluency. Other timed measures: Teachers can create their own timed proficiency assessmentsthat assess work efficiency by measuring accurate responding within pre-set time limits (e.g., running record).
is increasing comprehension of independent reading?	 Grades: Assignments or quizzes are structured to assess student comprehension of assigned readings and collected with sufficient frequency to capture evidence of short-term improvements. Work product: Short-answer questions. The teacher prepares questions suitable for assessing student comprehension of the reading (e.g., mix of factual and inferential questions). Question sets can be assigned as homework or included in quizzes. Written-Retell Rubric. The student is assigned to summarize important points of assigned readings ('written retellings'); the teacher uses a rubric to record/evaluate 'key ideas' or concepts included in the retelling.
is mastering a multi-step cognitive strategy or behavior routine?	 Checklist: The teacher or student uses a checklist to verify steps of the strategy successfully completed. Work product: The student is directed to show work on assignment, e.g., perhaps assisted by visual organizers or other aids highlighting strategy steps. The teacher reviews completed work for evidence of strategy use. Observation/Interview: An adult observes the student during the activity to record (perhaps with the help of a checklist or behavior report card) those steps successfully carried out. The observer may also ask the student to describe the steps being followed.
 is turning in homework or in- class assignments with greater frequency? 	Log: The teacher keeps a record of homework turned in.

	 Self-Monitoring: The student completes a daily classwork- readiness checklist that includes an item on whether homework was submitted.
produces work of higher quality?	 Rubric: The teacher or student rates the quality of the work. Checklist: The teacher or student rates whether each element or step in the assignment is complete. Work product: The teacher defines what element(s) are missing or substandard in student work, monitor their inclusion and/or and quality over time.
is increasing on-task behavior and academic engagement?	 Behavior report card: Rating items are specific to on-task behavior and work engagement. Work product: Monitor amount/quality/accuracy of completed student in-class work. Improvements in work production correlate with increased on-task behavior.
 is better able to organize and implement steps necessary to complete an in-class or homework assignment? 	 Checklist: Recommended if assignment steps can be rated simply COMPLETED/NOT COMPLETED. Rubric: Recommended if assignment steps are more complex and rated along a quality continuum.
transfers an existing skill or strategy to new settings or situations (goal: generalization)?	 Observer/Checklist: The observer notes whether the student follows the steps of the checklist in the appropriate situations or settings. Interview/Checklist: Student is asked structured set of questions about successful use of the target skill/strategy in the target setting(s).
improves compliance with behavioral expectations?	 Behavior report card: Rating items track compliance. Logs: The teacher keeps a log recording incidents of misbehavior, etc. Archival records: Office Disciplinary Referrals are tracked for incidents of non-compliance.
improves overall academic standing in the course because of academic interventions?	Grades. Grades are designed to reflect general improvements in academic performance. Ideally, grading opportunities are frequent and the grades used to evaluate academic improvement are a 'pure' measure of academic attainment.





Setting Outcome Goals for Academic Interventions: Benchmarks, Local Norms, and Criterion-Referenced Goals

When planning any intervention, an essential step is to calculate an outcome goal—that is, the goal used ultimately to judge whether the intervention is successful. An outcome goal typically represents improvement on one of these 2 targets:

- Observable student behavior (e.g., call outs, engagement in independent seatwork, compliance with teacher requests; number of words read correctly per minute in a grade-level text).
- Student performance on work products (e.g., number of correctly completed math problems, percentage of homework turned in, grade on a mid-term exam).

The outcome goal represents the minimum improvement in student performance or work production that indicates that a classroom intervention is successful. So, the outcome goal is selected before the intervention begins. There are 3 main options for setting an outcome goal. The goal can be:

- calculated using benchmark data with research norms.
- developed based on local/classroom norms
- based on a teacher-selected standard (criterion-referenced)

Here is a general description of each of these methods for establishing outcome goals:

Benchmark data with research norms. For some basic academic skills, teachers can access published norms by grade level that can be used to set intervention goals. Benchmark norms are a type of *norm-referenced* assessment, as they allow the instructor to rank a particular student's performance (e.g., 50th percentile; 10th percentile) relative to that of grade-level peers. When available, benchmark norms are usually recommended as the best guide to use in goal-setting because they are derived from research. (A number of commercial screening and progress-monitoring tools for academic skills come with their own benchmark norms, including AIMSweb, FASTBridge, EasyCBM, and iSteep.)

As one illustration of a benchmarked skill, oral reading fluency (ORF) can be precisely measured using curriculum-based measurement (CBM). On ORF-CBM, the student reads aloud for 1 minute from a controlled passage and receives a score for number of words read correctly. Consulting benchmark norms (Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2017), for example, a 4th-grade teacher discovers that a 4th-grade student in the middle of the school year performing at the 25th percentile reads 95 words per minute. (See Table 1.) The instructor can use this information as a starting point to calculate an intervention goal for a student in his classroom with readingfluency delays.

Table 1: Benchmarks: Norm-Referenced Assessment Example: Grade 4: Oral Reading Fluency			
Graue 4. C	rai Reading Fluenc	, y 	
	Percentile	Words Correct Per Min (WCPM)	
	90	168	
Grade 4	75	143	
	50	120	
	25	95	
	10	71	
Source: Hasbrouck, J. & Tindal, G. (2017). An update to compiled			



ORF norms (Technical Report No.1702). Eugene, OR, Behavioral Research and Teaching, University of Oregon.

2. Local/classroom norms: Tie goals to typical classroom performance. For many classroom academic skills or behaviors (e.g., percentage of homework assignments turned in), no benchmark norms exist. Yet the teacher may wish to discover how 'typical' students in a class perform in these skills or behaviors—and use this information about average proficiency to set outcome goals for particular struggling students.

In this situation, that instructor may decide to sample the entire class or a representative sub-group to obtain 'local norms' as an estimate of average performance. Those local norms are then used to calculate an outcome goal for any student targeted for an intervention (Christ, 2008). (NOTE: When analyzing local norms, it is generally recommended that the *median* score be used to represent a class-wide or group average, rather than the *arithmetic mean*—as median values are less likely to be distorted by extreme high or low values in the data-set.)

An advantage of local norms is that they are anchored to current, real-life levels of classroom performance. The 2 most frequent types of local norms that teachers collect are class-wide and sub-group norms. Here are examples of each:

- Class-wide norms: Math-facts. An instructor in a 3rd-grade classroom administers a timed (2-minute) math
 worksheet with basic multiplication facts to the entire class. The teacher counts up the number of correct
 digits on each student's worksheet and then reviews the data from all worksheets to find that the average
 (median) student writes 62 correct digits. The teacher then identifies one student in the class, Sally, whose
 multiplication-fact fluency is only 22 correct digits. The teacher can use the class-wide norm of 62 correct
 digits as a starting point to calculate an intervention goal intended eventually to bring that student's
 multiplication-fact fluency up to the classroom average.
- Class-wide norms: Homework completion. A teacher routinely logs all submitted homework for his class into
 a spreadsheet that automatically calculates percentage of assignments turned in for each student. The
 instructor's records show that the class-wide average for submitted homework is 90 percent. He has a target
 student whose homework completion is only 50 percent. So, the class-wide average (local norm) is useful in
 setting an ambitious but realistic goal for a homework intervention plan.
- Sub-group norms: Writing fluency. Teachers can also sample a sub-group of the class to develop local norms. While sub-group norms are less rigorous than class-wide norms, they are also easier to collect and calculate. For example, an instructor collects a writing assignment from a sample of 5 'typical' students in her class that she judges to have grade-appropriate writing skills and counts up the number of words in each composition. She ranks the students' results from low to high (see Table 2).

Table 2: Local Norm Group Example: Writing Assignment: Word Count				
Lucy	Ricky	Alyssa	Tyrell	Ariadne
103	107	122	132	136

The teacher has a student, Russell, who produces very short compositions (i.e., writing only 42 words on the current writing assignment). The instructor can use the local norms to set a realistic writing-fluency goal for Russell. For example, the teacher may select a word-count goal for Russell to produce 103 words on



future writing assignments, as that would have him writing within the lower range of 'typical' writing fluency represented in these local norms.

3. Teacher-selected standard (criterion-referenced goals). In many cases, an instructor does not care to know how a student ranks among peers in a skill—the goal is simply that the student *master* that skill and advance to the next challenge. This type of goal is called 'criterion-referenced', as it is framed as the student's attainment or failure to reach a pre-selected criterion for performance (Criterion-referenced test, 2014). The teacher chooses the performance goal and the criteria for judging success. Here the student's performance is compared solely to a teacher-selected standard, with no element of peer comparison.

Here are examples of teacher-selected (criterion-referenced) goals:

- Common-Core Learning Standard. Criterion-referenced goals are sometimes imposed by others. For
 example, a Common Core State Standard for Mathematics states that, by the end of grade 3, the student
 will "know from memory all products of two one-digit numbers." (CCSS Math; p. 23). A teacher selecting this
 standard as the objective for a math intervention will select the goal of 100% mastery of all one-digit by onedigit multiplication facts. That instructor does not care to assess how the target student performs relative to
 peers, only whether the learner attains the minimum expectations of the standard.
- Course pre-requisite skill. A teacher may select as a goal a skill that is a pre-requisite for success in a
 particular course. For example, a science teacher compiles a list of 20 essential vocabulary terms that
 students must know as a prerequisite for her biology course. When a student in the course is found to lack
 an understanding of 13 of the 20 terms, the criterion-referenced intervention goal is for the student to master
 all of the vocabulary terms.
- Cognitive strategy. If the student is expected to master a multi-step cognitive strategy (e.g., to solve a math word problem), the teacher may set as a criterion-referenced goal that the student will use all steps of the strategy successfully during independent work. To assess attainment of this goal, the teacher could conduct an observation, directing the student to narrate aloud steps of his or her problem-solving while completing several word problems. Or the instructor may instruct the student to label each problem-solving step and show all work before turning in the worksheet. Whether through observation or review of completed work, the instructor can discern whether the student meets the criterion of successful strategy use.

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7 Steps to Monitor Progress on Tier 1/Classroom Interventions

RTI/MTSS By Jim Wright, Contributing Consultant to Frontline Education on 1/15/2019

When I visit schools as an RTI/MTSS consultant and talk with teachers about Tier 1/classroom academic interventions, I often hear frustration over the difficulty of collecting and interpreting data to monitor student progress. Yet, the critical importance of data is that it 'tells the story' of the academic or behavioral intervention, revealing the answers to such central questions as:

- what specific skills or behaviors does the student find challenging?
- what is the student's baseline or starting point?
- what outcome goal would define success for this student?
- has the student reached the goal?

If the information required to answer any of these questions is missing, the data story becomes garbled and teachers can find themselves unsure about the purpose and/or outcome of the intervention.

While following a guide does not eliminate all difficulties in tracking Tier 1/classroom interventions, these 7 steps will help the educators you work with ask the right questions, collect useful data and arrive at meaningful answers at Tier 1.

STEP 1: What skill or behavior is being measured?

The first step in setting up a plan to monitor a student is to choose the specific skill or behavior to measure. Your 'problem-identification' statement should define that skill or behavior in clear, specific terms.

Problem-identification Statements: Examples
HOMEWORK. Russell does not turn in homework.
WRITING. Andrea's writing includes many incomplete sentences.
MATH FACTS. Rick is not fluent in multiplication math facts.
BEHAVIOR. Angela is inattentive in large-group instruction.

Keep in mind that a clear problem definition is a necessary starting point for developing a monitoring plan[1]: "If you can't name the problem, you can't measure it."

STEP 2: What data-collection method will best measure the target skill or behavior?

Next, select a valid, reliable and manageable way to collect data on the skill or behavior the instructor has targeted for intervention. Data sources used to track student progress on classroom interventions should be brief, valid measures of the target skill, and sensitive to short-term student gains. [2]

Data Collection Methods: Examples		
Problem ID Statement	Sample Data Tool	
HOMEWORK. Russell does not turn in homework.	Homework Log	
WRITING. Andrea's writing includes many incomplete sentences.	Work Product (Writing Sample): Compute percentage of complete sentences.	

MATH FACTS. Rick is not fluent in	Curriculum-based Measurement: 2-minute math
multiplication math facts.	computation worksheets in 0-12 multiplication
BEHAVIOR. Angela is inattentive in large-	Daily Behavior Report Card
group instruction.	

There are a range of teacher-friendly data-collection tools to choose from, such as rubrics, checklists, Daily Behavior Report Cards (DBRC), Curriculum-based Measures (CBMs), teacher logs and student work products.

STEP 3: How long will the intervention last?

When planning a classroom intervention, the teacher should choose an enddate when he/she will review the progress-monitoring data and decide whether the intervention is successful.

A good practice is to run an academic intervention for at least 6-8 instructional weeks before evaluating its effectiveness. Student data can vary significantly from day to day[3]: Allowing 6-8 weeks for data collection permits the teacher to collect sufficient data points to have greater confidence when judging the intervention's impact.

STEP 4: What is the student's baseline performance?

Before launching the intervention, the teacher will use the selected datacollection tool to record baseline data reflecting the student's current performance. Baseline data represents a starting point that allows the teacher to calculate precisely any progress the student makes during the intervention. Because student data can be variable, the instructor should strive to collect at least 3 data points before starting the intervention and average them to calculate baseline.

Baseline Data: Examples			
Problem ID Statement	Sample Data Tool	Baseline Data	
HOMEWORK. Russell does not turn in homework.	Homework Log	Russell turned in homework on 20 percent of days when homework was assigned. [Data source: percentage homework completion calculated from 1 week of homework-log entries.]	
WRITING. Andrea's writing includes many incomplete sentences.	Writing Sample: Compute percentage of complete sentences.	On Andrea's writing samples, an average of 40 percent of sentences are found to be incomplete. [Data source: median value of 3 writing samples collected on different days.]	
MATH FACTS. Rick is not fluent in multiplication math facts.	Curriculum-based Measurement (CBM): 2-minute math computation worksheets	Rick calculates an average of 29 correct digits in 2 minutes on a 0-12 multiplication math-fact worksheet. [Data source: median value of 3 CBM worksheets collected on different days.]	
BEHAVIOR. Angela is inattentive in large-group instruction.	Daily Behavior Report Card	On a DBRC item "The student requires no more than 1 redirect for inattention during the class period," the teacher rates this item 'YES' during 1 of 5 days (20 percent). [Data source: percentage calculated from 5 days of DBRC data collection.]	

STEP 5: What is the student's outcome goal?

Next, the teacher sets a post-intervention outcome goal that defines the student's expected performance on the target skill or behavior if the

intervention is successful (e.g., after 6-8 weeks). Setting a specific outcome goal for the student is a critical step, as it allows educators to judge the intervention's effectiveness.

Outcome Goal: Examples			
Problem ID Statement	Sample Data Tool	Outcome Goal	
HOMEWORK. Russell does not turn in homework.	Homework Log	Russell will turn in at least 80 percent of assigned homework. [Data source: percentage homework completion calculated from final week of homework log entries.]	
WRITING. Andrea's writing includes many incomplete sentences.	Writing Sample: Compute percentage of complete sentences.	On Andrea's writing samples, at least 90 percent of attempted sentences will be correct and complete. [Data source: median value calculated from final 3 writing samples.]	
MATH FACTS. Rick is not fluent in multiplication math facts.	Curriculum-based measurement: 2-minute math computation worksheets	Rick will calculate an average of 49 correct digits in 2 minutes on a 0-12 multiplication math-fact worksheet. [Data source: average of final 2 CBM worksheets.]	
BEHAVIOR. Angela is inattentive in large-group instruction.	Daily Behavior Report Card	On a DBRC item "The student requires no more than 1 redirect for inattention during the class period," the teacher will rate this item 'YES' during at least 4 of 5 days (80 percent). [Data source: percentage calculated from final 5 days of DBRC data collection.]	

Teachers can use several sources to calculate an outcome goal[4]:

• When using academic CBMs with benchmark norms, those grade-level norms can help the instructor to set a goal for the student.

Classroom Norms. When measuring an academic skill for which no benchmark
norms are available, the teacher might instead decide to compile classroom norms
(i.e., sampling the entire class or a subgroup of the class) and use those group norms
to set an outcome goal.

Real-world Example:

A teacher with a student who frequently writes incomplete sentences might collect writing samples from a small group of 'typical' student writers in the class, analyze those samples to calculate percentage of complete sentences, and use this peer norm (e.g., 90 percent complete sentences) to set a sentence-writing outcome goal for that struggling writer.

Teacher-defined Performance Goal (Criterion Mastery). Sometimes, the
instructor must write an outcome goal — but will have access to neither benchmark
norms nor classroom norms for the skill or behavior being measured. In this case,
the teacher may be able to use his or her own judgment to define a meaningful
outcome goal.

Real-world Example:

A math instructor wishes to teach a student to follow a 7-step procedural checklist when solving math word problems. The data source in this example is the checklist, and the teacher sets as the outcome goal that — when given a word problem — the student will independently follow all steps in the teacher-supplied checklist in the correct order.

TIP: For a student with a large academic deficit, the teacher may not be able to close that skill-gap entirely within one 6-8-week intervention cycle. In this instance, the instructor should instead set an ambitious 'intermediate goal' that, if accomplished, will demonstrate the student is clearly closing the academic gap with peers. It is not unusual for students with substantial academic delays to require several successive intervention-cycles with intermediate goals before they are able to close a skill-gap sufficiently to bring them up to meet their grade-level peers.

STEP 6: How often will data be collected?

The more frequently the teacher <u>collects data</u>, the more quickly she/he will be able to judge whether an intervention is effective.[5] This is because more data points make trends of improvement easier to spot and increase instructors' confidence in the overall direction or 'trend' of the data.

Ideally, teachers should strive to collect data at least weekly for the duration of the intervention period. If that is not feasible, student progress should be monitored no less than twice per month.

STEP 7: How does the student's actual performance compare with the outcome goal?

Once the teacher has created a progress-monitoring plan for the student, she/he puts that plan into action. At the end of the pre-determined intervention period (e.g., in 6 weeks), the teacher reviews the student's cumulative progress-monitoring data, compares it to the outcome goal and judges the effectiveness of the intervention. Here are the decision rules:

- Outcome goal met. If the student meets the outcome goal, the intervention is a
 success. The teacher may decide that the intervention is no longer necessary and
 discontinue. Or she/he may choose to continue the present intervention for an
 additional period because the student still appears to benefit from it.
- Clear progress but outcome goal not met. If the student fails to meet the outcome goal, but the teacher sees clear signs that the student is making progress, that

educator might decide that the intervention shows promise. In this case, the next step would be to alter the existing intervention in some way(s) to intensify its effect. For example, the teacher could meet more frequently with the student, meet for longer sessions, shrink the group size (if the intervention is group-based), etc.

• Little or no progress observed. If the student fails to make meaningful progress on the intervention, the teacher's logical next step will be to replace the current intervention plan with a new strategy. The instructor may also decide to refer the student to receive additional RTI/MTSS academic support.

Key Takeaway: Let Data Be Your Guide

The goal in monitoring any classroom intervention is to let the data guide you in understanding a learner's unique story. When teachers can clearly define a student's specific academic or behavioral challenge, collect data that accurately tracks progress, and calculate baseline level and outcome goal as points of reference to judge intervention success, the student's story will be truly told.

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[5] Filderman, M. J., & Toste, J. R. (2018). Decisions, decisions, decisions: Using data to make instructional decisions for struggling readers. Teaching Exceptional Children, 50(3), 130-140.

Tier 1/Classroom Interventions: Assessing Student Performance with Microscope and Telescope Measuresⁱ

When teachers collect data to track classroom academic interventions, they are often seeking answers to two related but different questions:

1. 'Microscope' Question. Is this intervention improving the **specific** academic performance or behavior targeted by the intervention? This query can be called the 'microscope' question because it focuses solely on the narrowly defined academic or behavioral target that the intervention is intended to improve.

To answer microscope questions, the teacher will use microscope measures: assessments that track student improvement on just the academic skill or behavior that is the intervention target. For example, if an intervention is designed to get the student to turn in homework on a more regular basis, an appropriate *microscope measure* would be the teacher's *homework log* used to track amount of homework turned in.

 'Telescope' Question. Is this intervention having a wider, more generalized positive impact on the student's global academic performance or behaviors? This query could be called the 'telescope' question because it investigates whether the intervention is having a measurable positive effect on the student's broader academic or behavioral functioning.

Telescope measures are more comprehensive data sources that can answer a teacher's telescope question: whether a specific intervention is in fact substantially improving a student's more global academic performance or behavior. For example, a science teacher may monitor *course grades* as a *telescope measure* to judge whether her homework intervention is making a difference in the student's overall academic performance.

Table 1 gives examples of student intervention targets, with microscope and telescope measures for each.

Table 1: Examples of Micros	Table 1: Examples of Microscope and Telescope Measures					
Intervention Target/Goal	MICROSCOPE Measure	TELESCOPE Measure				
Sara will turn in all science homework.	Teacher homework log	Course grades				
Gwen will compute multiplication math facts 0-12 with fluency.	CBM-Math Computation Fluency: Single-Skill Probe. Weekly, the student will complete a 2-minute worksheet containing only multiplication facts.	CBM-Math Computation Fluency: Multiple-Skill Probe. Monthly, the student will complete a 2-minute worksheet with a mix of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division facts.				
Marvin (Gr 5) will attain fluency in reading aloud Gr 3 passages.	CBM-ORF at instructional (off-grade) level. Weekly, the teacher assesses the student's ORF using probes from the Gr 3 (instructional) level.	CBM-ORF at grade-placement (on- grade) level. Monthly, the teacher assesses the student's ORF using probes from the Gr 5 (grade- placement) level.				
Russell will comply with teacher requests without argument or complaint.	Daily Behavior Report Card. Each day, the teacher rates the student on this goal: The student complied with teacher requests: Yes/No	Office Disciplinary Referrals (ODRs). Monthly, the teacher will tabulate number of ODRs for the student.				

Microscope & Telescope: Frequently Asked Questions. Here are common questions about the use of microscope and telescope measures:

- When would I use microscope measures to monitor an intervention? Microscope measures give teachers direct information about whether their intervention is increasing the target student academic skill or behavior. So, every classroom intervention should be tracked with at least one microscope measure.
- When would I not use telescope measures to track an intervention? Teachers can rely on their own discretion – but may decide not to use telescope measures when:
 - □ the student's overall academic or behavioral performance is satisfactory. For example, a student needs to work on the intervention target of increasing math-fact fluency on multiplication problems. However, that student's overall math performance is strong. So, the teacher decides that collecting telescope measures of any kind on global math performance is unnecessary.
 - □ the intervention is short-term, modest in scope, and unlikely to have a demonstrable impact on global skills. For example, a teacher whose intervention is to help a student master a 20-item sight-word list decides not to also use a telescope measure like CBM-Oral Reading Fluency because, even if successful, the intervention will probably not translate into an immediate jump in reading fluency.
- How often should I administer microscope and telescope measures? It is recommended that you monitor
 with microscope measures at least once every two weeks, as more frequent data collection allows you to judge
 more quickly whether your intervention is effective. Because telescope measures are more global, however, they
 will typically be less sensitive to short-term student gains. In most cases, therefore, you can limit the frequency of
 telescope measures to once per month or even as infrequently as three times yearly (Fall/Winter/Spring).
- I want to collect telescope measures for my student but lack time and resources. Are there time-saving alternatives? Teachers can inventory the types of instructional information that they or their school routinely collect on students and identify those data sources that could serve as telescope measures.

For example, a teacher who regularly assesses classroom reading performance (e.g., through informal running records/comprehension checks or by using the Fountas & Pinnell Benchmark Assessment System) might use this global reading information to judge whether a student's general literacy skills have improved after a reading intervention

References

Clark, G.C. & Parker, D.C. (2016). Comparing assessment approaches for use with brief experimental analysis *School Psychology Forum*, *10* (1), 93-105.

Hosp, M. K., Hosp, J. L., & Howell, K. W. (2007). *The ABCs of CBM: A practical guide to curriculum-based measurement*. New York: Guilford Press.

¹ NOTE: The terms 'microscope measure' and 'telescope measure' used in this article were inspired by the distinction made in Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM) research between Short-term Skill Mastery Measures (equivalent to microscope measures) and General Outcome Measures (equivalent to telescope measures). (Clark & Parker, 2016; Hosp, Hosp & Howell, 2007).

Behavioral Assessment Tools





Teaching Positive Behaviors: The Power of Checklists

Educators frequently need to define positive student behaviors so that they can teach the student to perform them; take data on them; communicate with others about them; and/or encourage the student to monitor them.

Making Behavior Checklists. One useful way to define a goal behavior is to break it down into a series of steps in checklist format. The process of breaking down a larger behavior goal ('task') into individual steps is called a 'task analysis'.

Creating a behavior checklist is straight-forward. Often, you can just analyze the larger task and use common sense to break it down into smaller steps. Sometimes it is also helpful to get the advice of an expert as you prepare your behavior checklist. For example, if you want to create a checklist that a student will follow to solve a math word problem, you might ask the math teacher for guidance in constructing the steps. Or, if you are developing a checklist to train a student to wash her hands, you might consult the school nurse for expert advice on the sequence of steps to include.

The sample tasks analysis below shows how the behavior goal ("The student is ready to learn at the start of class") can be converted into more specific steps that can be taught, observed, and measured.

Behavior Checklist Example: The student is ready to learn at the start of class.

At the start of class, the student:
has a sharpened pencil.
has paper for taking notes.
has cleared his/her desk of unneeded materials.
has homework ready to turn in.
has put his/her cellphone in backpack.
is sitting quietly.
is working on the start-of-class assignment.

Teaching Positive Behaviors Using Checklists. Positive behaviors must be taught. This direct-instruction sequence can help your students to both correctly master and actually engage in expected behaviors. This framework includes four major stages:

1. Show Them. Using your behavior checklist as a guide, you explain and explicitly model expected ("target") behaviors.



- 2. **Watch and Praise Them.** Students practice target behaviors under your supervision--and you give frequent corrective feedback and praise.
- 3. **Practice**, **Practice**, **Practice**. Students engage in behaviors independently with your encouragement and reinforcement.
- 4. **Prompt Behaviors Across Settings.** With your prompting and feedback, students are able to display target behaviors appropriately across a variety of settings or situations ("generalization").

Making Behavior Checklists. You can use a free web-based app, the Self-Check Behavior Checklist Maker, to create customized behavior checklists. This app is available at:

http://www.interventioncentral.org/tools/self-check-behavior-checklist-maker

Reference

Kazdin, A. E. (2013). Behavior modification in applied settings (7th ed.). Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press, Inc.

Activity: Create a Behavior Checklist

Directions. Select a goal student behavior. Break that behavior down into separate steps to create a checklist.

Here are some examples of larger behaviors that can be task-analyzed and turned into checklists: "Completes inclass writing assignments", "complies with teacher requests", "gets organized at the start of class/the day", "attends to instruction", "interacts appropriately with peers during group work".

Goa	I Student Bel	navior:	 	 	
Beh	avior Steps:				
ш					

RTI Daily Behavior Report: Guidelines for Use

The RTI Daily Behavior Report (RTI-DBR) is a brief form that educators can use to rate student classroom conduct and work-related behaviors on a daily basis.

Daily Behavior Reports in general have several advantages that make them idea for use in monitoring student interventions (Chafouleas, Riley-Tillman, & Sugai, 2007): They are familiar and acceptable to most school staff, are a convenient assessment tool for busy teachers, and can be used both to better understand students' behavioral needs and to track student progress during a classroom intervention.

Directions. When finished working with the student each day, the educator responsible for completing the RTI-DBR completes each rating item on the form. There are sufficient rating columns on one form to rate a student each day for an entire instructional week. The rater can also write daily comments on the back of the form.

An additional option is for the educator to send a copy of the completed rating form home each week for the student's parent to review, sign, and return.

Tips to Increase the Reliability of Daily Behavior Reports. Daily Behavior Reports can be good sources of teacher information about student behaviors. When an educator's ratings on Behavior Reports are based solely on subjective impression, however, it is possible that the rater will apply inconsistent standards each day when rating student behaviors (Chafouleas, Riley-Tillman, & Sugai, 2007). This inconsistency in assessment can reduce the usefulness of Daily Behavior Report information. An approach that educators can follow to keep their ratings on the RTI-DBR consistent and objective over time is to come up with specific, objective criteria for rating each behavioral goal. In particular, the rater will want to:

- Keep in mind student developmental considerations. For example, consider this RTI-DBR item:
 The student was respectful to the teacher and other adults and complied with their requests in a timely manner. The definition of a student being " respectful to the teacher and other adults" may mean "without throwing a tantrum" for a kindergarten student but mean "without defiant talking-back" for a student in middle school.
- Tie RTI-DBR ratings to classroom behavioral norms. For each behavioral goal, the teacher
 may want to think of what the typical classroom norm is for this behavior and assign to the
 classroom norm a specific number rating. The teacher may decide, for instance, that the target
 student will earn a rating of 7 ('Usually/Always') each day that the student's compliance with
 adult requests closely matches that of an 'average' child in the classroom.

Reference

Chafouleas, S., Riley-Tillman, T. C., & Sugai, G. (2007). *School-based behavioral assessment: Informing intervention and instruction.* Guilford Press: New York.

STUDENT DAILY BEHAVIOR REPORT

Student Name:		Grad	le:		
Person Completing This Report Card:					
Directions: At the end of the school day or class period, into the appropriate box on the right of the page and record comments about the student's behavior on the back of this	d the <i>date</i> of				
Student Behaviors	MON //	TUES//_	WED //	THURS	FRI _/_/_
The student got along with classmates and used socially appropriate behaviors. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Most/All of the Time					
The student was respectful to the teacher and other adults and complied with their requests in a timely manner.					
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Most/All of the Time					
The student paid attention to teacher instructions and classroom lessons and focused on his/her work assignments. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Never/Seldom Sometimes Most/All of the Time					
The student completed and turned in classwork and homework assignments. 0-19% 20-39% 40-59% 60-79% 80-100%					
(Optional Behavior) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9					
Never/Seldom Sometimes Most/All of the Time Parent Sign-Off (Optional): I have reviewed this Behchild.	l avior Repo	l rt Card and	l discussed	it with my	
Parent Signature:		Date:			

Daily Behavior Report: Optional Comments

MondayDate:
Comments:
Tuesday Date:
Comments:
Wednesday Date:
Comments:
Thursday Date:
Comments:
Friday Date:
Comments:

Student Daily Behavior Report: Progress-Monitoring Chart

Directions: Plot daily teacher DBRC ratings and summarize notable teacher comments on the progress-monitoring charts below.

Student Name:	
Start Date: Wk 1:/ Wk 2://	Wk 3://Wk 4://
M T W Th F M T W Th F	M T W Th F M T W Th F

The student got along with classmates and used socially appropriate behaviors.

	M T W Th F	M T W Th F	M T W Th F	M T W Th F	
	100000	000001	00000	000001	
Never/Seldom	200000	$\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc 2$	00000	\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc 1	Never/Seldom
	300000	000003	00000	000003	
	400000	000004	00000	000004	
Sometimes	500000	000005	00000	000005	Sometimes
	600000	000006	00000	000006	
	700000	000007	00000	0 0 0 0 0 7	
Usually/Always	800000	000008	00000	000008	Usually/Alway
		000009			

The student was respectful to the teacher and other adults and complied with their requests in a timely manner.

-	1
Never/Seldom 2	2 Never/Seldom
•	3
4	4
Sometimes :	5 Sometimes
(6
,	7
Jsually/Always	8 Usually/Alway
9	9
	_ 0

The student paid attention to teacher instructions and classroom lessons and focused on his/her work assignments.

	1 0 0 0 0 0 M T W Th F	000001 M T W Th F	M T W Th F	0 0 0 0 0 1 M T W Th F	
Never/Seldom	200000	0 0 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 0 0 2	00000	$\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc 2$	Never/Seldom
		000004			
Sometimes		0 0 0 0 0 6 0 0 0 0 0 5			Sometimes
		000007			
Usually/Always		000009			Usually/Always

Student N	lame:				
Start Date:	Wk 1://	_Wk 2:/ Wk	3://	_Wk 4://	_
	M T W Th F	M T W Th F M	T W Th F	M T W Th F	
The student coassignments.	ompleted and tu	ned the following per	centage of ci	lasswork and ho	mework
100	00000	0 0 0 0 0 100 0	0000	00000	100
809	% 0000	$\circ \circ \circ \circ \circ 80\%$	0000	00000	80%
60'	% 0000	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	0000		60%
40	%	O O O O O 40%	0000	00000	40%
20	%. 				20%
0					0
^ ′	MTWThF	MTWThF ~ M		M T W Th F	~ '
Usually/Always 8	9 0 0 0 0 0 8 0 0 0 0 0 7 0 0 0 0 0	0000080	0000		Usually/Always
Sometimes :	6 0 0 0 0 0 5 0 0 0 0 0 4 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 6 0 0 0 0 0 0 5 0	0000	0 0 0 0 0 6	Sometimes
	3 0 0 0 0 0 2 0 0 0 0 0		0000	0 0 0 0 0 3	
1		0000010			
	M T W Th F	M T W Th F M	T W Th F	M T W Th F	
Summary of	Significant Teac	ther Comments:			
Date:	Comment:				
Date:	Comment:				
Date:	Comment:				
Date:	Comment:				

http://www.interventioncentral.org

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■ Behavioral Frequency Count/Behavioral Rate. In a behavioral frequency count, an observer (e.g., the teacher) watches a student's behavior and keeps a cumulative tally of the number of times that the behavior is observed during a given period. Behaviors that are best measured using frequency counts have clearly observable beginning and end points—and are of relatively short duration.

Examples include:

- student call-outs
- requests for teacher help during independent seatwork.
- raising one's hand to make a contribution to large-group discussion.

Teachers can collect data on the frequency of observed student behaviors during a class period in several ways: (1) by keeping a cumulative mental tally of the behaviors; (2) by recording behaviors on paper (e.g., as tally marks) as they occur; or (3) using a golf counter or other simple mechanical device to record observed behaviors.

When multiple observations are made of student behaviors, those observations often last for differing periods of time. One method to standardize the results of observations conducted over varying timespans is to convert the results of each observation to a behavioral *rate* (behaviors divided by the length of the observation). To compute a behavioral rate, the observer (1) sums the total number of behaviors observed and (2) divides the total number of behaviors observed by total minutes in the observation period. The resulting figure represents a standardized 'behaviors observed per minute' and can be compared directly to student behavior rates observed at other times. For example, an observer may have noted that a student engaged in 5 call-outs during a 10-minute observation period. The observer then divides the 5 callouts by the 10 minute observation timespan to compute a standardized behavior rate of *0.5 callouts per minute*.

TIP: One use of the behavioral frequency count that teachers may find helpful is to tally the number of times that they need to approach and redirect an off-task, distracting, or behaviorally acting out student during an observation period (e.g., during math class). Whenever the student's identified problem behavior(s) escalate to the point at which the instructor can no longer ignore them, the teacher intervenes to redirect the student or provide other appropriate consequences. At the same time, the teacher counts this particular redirect episode toward the cumulative tally of redirects directed at the target student during the class period. While a tally of teacher redirects is not a suitable means to track all student behaviors, this approach does offer advantages. First, it recognizes that teachers typically have an informal but clear internal threshold of tolerance of student behaviors. Whenever the instructor approaches a student to redirect, the teacher does so because the student's behavior has moved above that 'tolerance threshold' and must be directly addressed. Second, teacher redirects are usually easier to measure; than other behavior targets--because the teacher has had to interrupt instruction –even briefly--to redirect the student and is thus more likely to note the incident and add it to a running tally.

Use the attached *Behavioral Frequency Count/Behavioral Rate Worksheet* to conduct behavioral frequency counts of a student across as many as 7 sessions.

Example: Ms. Stimson, a fourth-grade teacher, was concerned at the frequency that a student, Alice, frequently requested teacher assistance unnecessarily during independent seatwork. To address this concern, the teacher designed an intervention in which the student would first try several steps on her own to resolve issues or answer her questions before seeking help from the instructor. Prior to starting the intervention, the teacher kept a behavioral frequency count across three days of the number of times that the student approached her desk for help during a daily 20-minute independent seatwork period (baseline). Ms. Stimson discovered that, on average, the student sought requested help times per period (equivalent to 0.4 requests for help per minute). Ms. Stimson set as an intervention goal that, after 4 weeks of using her self-help strategies, the student's average rate of requesting help would drop to 1 time per independent seatwork period (equivalent to 0.05 requests for help per minute).

Behavioral Frequency Count/Behavioral Rate Worksheet

	Student:	School Yr:	Classroom/Course:	
	Behavior Definition: Define in clear, measureable, observed frequency count (e.g., student call-outs during instructional		e behavioral	
Behavio	// Start Time:: End Time::_ or Frequency Count: During the observation, place a tally n	nark (' ') To	otal Observed Minutes of	Behavior Rate
in the bo	ox below whenever the student displays the target behavior:	→	Behaviors Observation Time Divided by	Per Minute Equals
Comme	ents:			
Date:	/ Start Time:: End Time::	_ Setting/Activity:		
	or Frequency Count: During the observation, place a tally nox below whenever the student displays the target behavior:	()	otal Observed Minutes of Behaviors Observation Time	Behavior Rate Per Minute
2		→	Divided by	Equals
Comme	nts:			
Date:	// Start Time:: End Time::	0 ,		
	or Frequency Count: During the observation, place a tally now below whenever the student displays the target behavior:	() /	otal Observed Minutes of Behaviors Observation Time	Behavior Rate Per Minute
3		→	Divided by	Equals
Comme	nts:			

Date:/ Start Time:: End Time:: Setting/n Behavior Frequency Count: During the observation, place a tally mark (' ') in the box below whenever the student displays the target behavior:	Total Observed Minutes of Behaviors Observation Time	Behavior Rate Per Minute
4	Divided by Equals	5
Comments:		
Date:// Start Time:: End Time:: Setting// Behavior Frequency Count: During the observation, place a tally mark (' ') in the box below whenever the student displays the target behavior:	Activity: Total Observed Minutes of Behaviors Observation Time	Behavior Rate Per Minute
5	Divided by Equals	5
Comments:		
Date:// Start Time:: End Time::_ Setting/A Behavior Frequency Count: During the observation, place a tally mark (' ') in the box below whenever the student displays the target behavior:	Activity: Total Observed Minutes of Behaviors Observation Time	Behavior Rate Per Minute
6	Divided by Equals	5
Comments:		
Date:/ Start Time:: End Time:: Setting/n Behavior Frequency Count: During the observation, place a tally mark (' ') in the box below whenever the student displays the target behavior:	Activity: Total Observed Minutes of Behaviors Observation Time	Behavior Rate Per Minute
7	Divided by Equals	5
Comments:		

Classroom Attention Observation Form

	Studer	nt Name	::													_ Date:			_	
	Observ	er:				Location:					Start Time: End Time:				_					
	Description of Activities:																	_		
	attend a mon approx the ch mark t any st	tions: Cling to la nentary ximately ild is foo the inter udent bed, use	arge- time y two und t rval v pehav	group samples second to be owith an	instruc ling pro ds and n-task "X." If	ction. Cocedured determined deter	On-Tare. At mine ding in the control of the control	the state if the to large off-tass	havior art of e child is e-grou sk, leav the ons	is the ach 1 on-ta o instreet the set of	only be 5-seconsk or of uction article the near	ehaviond intendent off-tas or doi unma xt time	or bein erval, k durir ng his irked. e interv	g reco glance g the or he Then l	orded. e at the brief of assign keep re nen th	It is co e targe bserva Ined se unning e obse	oded us et child ation. If eatwork notes	for (), of		
	0:00	0:15	0:30	0:45	1:00	1:15	1:30	1:45	2:00	2:15	2:30	2:45	3:00	3:15	3:30	3:45	4:00	4:15	4:30	4:45
ON-TASK																				
	5:00	5:15	5:30	5:45	6:00	7	6:30	6:45	7:00	7:15	7:30	7:45	8:00	9		8:45	9:00	10 9:15	9:30	9:45
ON-TASK																				
																<u> </u>				
	10:00	10:15		10:45	11:00	11:15		11:45	12:00	1; 1 _{12:15}	3 12:30	12:45	13:00	1 <u>4</u> 113:15		13:45	14:00	15 14:15		14:45
ON-TASK														1						
										l	<u> </u>									
		: Calcula Type of Behavior	Ni in wi f Ta	e Rate of umber of tervals in the the ask behads obser	f n On- avior	ask bei	navioi	The TC numbe	OTAL r of Is in the ation	servati	on Peri	Rate form On- beh	e (in dec n) that th Task avior urred du	ie ring			forr beł	e (in pen) that navior o	the On- ccurred	Task I
_	C	ON-TASK			Divided by			Equals tr		the	the observation.		Times 100 =		=	%				
	Descri	ibe any	nota	ible stu	ident b	ehavio	ors or	other	classr	oom e	vents (observ	ved du	ring th	ie sess	sion:				

■ Behavior Log. Behavior logs are narrative 'incident reports' that the teacher records about problem student behaviors. The teacher makes a log entry each time that a behavior is observed. An advantage of behavior logs is that they can provide information about the context within which a behavior occurs.(Disciplinary office referrals are a specialized example of a behavior log.)

Behavior logs are most useful for tracking problem behaviors that are serious but do not occur frequently.

NOTE: A sample Behavior Log form appears on the next page.

Example: Mrs. Roland, a 6th-grade Science teacher, had difficulty managing the behavior of a student, Bill. While Bill was often passively non-compliant, he would occasionally escalate, become loudly defiant and confrontational, and then be sent to the principal's office.

Because Mrs. Roland did not fully understand what factors might be triggering these student outbursts, she began to keep a behavior log. In that log, she recorded instances when Bill's behavior would escalate to become confrontational. Among other information, Mrs. Roland's behavior logs noted the date and time of each behavioral outburst, its duration and severity, what activity the class was engaged in when Bill's behavioral outburst occurred, and the disciplinary outcome. After three weeks, she had logged 4 behavioral incidents, establishing a **baseline** of about 1 incident every 3.75 instructional days.

Mrs. Roland hypothesized that Bill became confrontational to escape class activities that required him to read aloud within the hearing of his classmates. As an intervention plan, she changed class activities to eliminate public readings, matched Bill to a supportive class 'buddy', and also provided Bill with additional intervention in reading comprehension 'fix up' skills. Mrs. Roland set as an **intervention goal** that within 4 weeks Bill's rate of serious confrontational outbursts would drop to zero.

Behavior Log & Student Behavioral Scatterplot

Directions: Record each incident of problem student behavior in the behavior log below.

Student Name:Observer:
Time:; a.m./p.m. Date:/ Location: Brief narrative of incident (including persons involved, scheduled activity, triggering event(s), outcome(s));
How long did this incident last? mins
How severe was the behavior in the incident? 1 2 3 Not Severe Somewhat Severe Very Severe
Student Name:Observer:
Time:; a.m./p.m. Date:// Location:
Brief narrative of incident (including persons involved, scheduled activity, triggering event(s), outcome(s));
How long did this incident last? mins
How severe was the behavior in the incident? 1 2 3 Not Severe Somewhat Severe Very Severe

Behavioral Scatterplot

Directions: Write the student's general daily schedule in the column labeled 'Activity/Class Schedule'. For each day during which target problems behaviors were monitored in the student's *behavioral log*, mark an 'X' in the appropriate date column at the time when the problem behavior occurred. When all behaviors have been plotted at the correct date and time of their occurrence, look for possible explanatory patterns between the activities scheduled and the behaviors observed --e.g., due to physical setting variables, academic task demands, presence or absence of adult supervision, etc.

Time	Activity / Class Schedule	Date/Day	Date/Day	Date/Day	Date/Day	Date/Day
7:30-7:45						
7:45-8:00	T					
8:00-8:15						
8:15-8:30	T					
8:30-8:45						
8:45-9:00	T					
9:00-9:15						
9:15-9:30						
9:30-9:45						
9:45-10:00	<u> </u>					
10:00-10:15						
10:15-10:30						
10:30-10:45						
10:45-11:00						
11:00-11:15						
11:15-11:30	 					
11:30-11:45						
11:45-12:00						
12:00-12:15						
12:15-12:30						
12:30-12:45						
12:45-1:00	T					
1:00-1:15						
1:15-1:30						
1:30-1:45						
1:45-2:00						
2:00-2:15						
2:15-2:30	 					
2:30-2:45	 					
2:45-3:00	†					
3:00-3:15						
3:15-3:30	 					
3:30-3:45	 					
3:45-4:00	 					
4:00-4:15						
4:15-4:30	†					





How to Track Use of Adult Prompts on Academic Tasks

When students acquire new academic skills, they often require a transitional phase of teacher prompts to successfully perform those skills. For example, a student completing a worksheet might initially need one or more of these prompts to start that worksheet:

- 1. Gestural prompt: The teacher points to the sheet as a signal for the student to begin;
- 2. Verbal prompt: The teacher says, "Angela, begin your worksheet.";
- 3. Modeling prompt: The teacher demonstrates the steps to completing the worksheet;
- Manual prompt: The teacher physically guides the student's hand holding the pen to successfully complete an item on the worksheet.

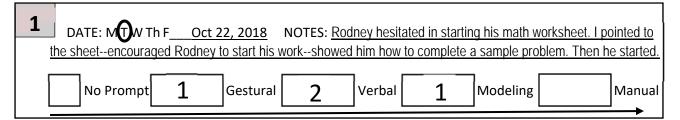
Table 1 defines the types of teacher prompts most frequently used in classrooms. Those prompts are ranked bottomto-top in ascending order of intensity. For example, a verbal prompt is considered to be less intensive than a modeling prompt.

Table 1: Pro	mpt Types (MacDuff et al., 2001)
Manual	The student is guided manually to complete the skill. Guiding the
Prompt	student's hand to write letters on a worksheet is an example of a manual
	('hand-over-hand') prompt. A partial manual prompt (e.g., the teacher
	guiding the student manually through only part of the task) is counted as
	a manual prompt.
Modeling	The student views a demonstration of the skill (e.g., demonstrated in
Prompt	0,
	demonstrating a single step of a multi-step task) is counted as a modeling
	prompt.
Verbal	The student is prompted via verbal communication to demonstrate the
Prompt	skill. Verbal prompts can consist of a single word or several consecutive
	sentences. Encouragement and praise whose goal is to get the student to
	begin the task are considered verbal prompts.
Gestural	The student is prompted via a gesture (e.g., nodding, pointing, motioning,
Prompt	tapping on a worksheet) to complete the skill.
No Prompt	The student requires no prompting to complete the skill.

Prompts are a valuable tool to transition students to task-independence. However, students can sometimes remain 'stuck' continually, requiring teacher prompts—while failing to master independence in the target skill. In this situation, an appropriate intervention goal would be to systematically fade use of prompts.

This document presents a process and accompanying forms that teachers can use monitor progress toward taskindependence—by tracking the type and number of prompts required for student performance. For example, a teacher has a student, Rodney, who requires significant and consistent prompting before he will start independent work on a multiplication math-fact worksheet. Figure 1, below, displays a completed section of Rodney's Student *Prompts Recording Form.* (A blank version of the form appears later in this document.) The teacher observes Rodney and uses this form to keep a log of the number and kinds of prompts the student requires each session to start his math-fact work.

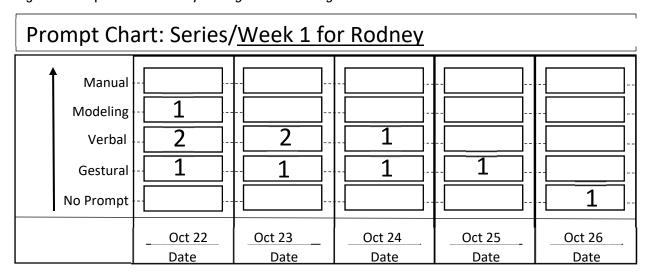
Figure 1: Sample Student Prompts Recording Form Entry



As Figure 1 shows, the teacher moves through a sequence of less-intensive to more-intensive prompts, until finding success with a modeling prompt. The instructor records comments to describe the prompting sequence that she uses. Just as importantly, the teacher tabulates the number of attempts she makes with each prompt type. For example, this instructor attempts 2 verbal prompts before resorting to a modeling prompt. This frequency data can be charted over time as a way to measure progress in fading teacher prompts.

Figure 2 displays an excerpt from the *Student Prompts Progress-Monitoring Chart*, a blank version of which appears later in this write-up. This chart allows teachers to summarize prompting data across multiple days to look for possible trends of improvement. In this example, the teacher has charted a week's worth of data on her use of prompts with Rodney.

Figure 2: Sample Student Prompts Progress-Monitoring Chart Entries



A look at the chart shows clear progress in fading use of prompts. By day 2, verbal prompts replace modeling; by day 4, a simple pointing (gestural) prompt is sufficient for Rodney to begin his math-fact worksheet; by day 5, Rodney initiates his independent work without needing any teacher prompts.

Reference: MacDuff, G. S., Krantz, P. J., & McClannahan, L. E. (2001). Prompts and prompt-fading strategies for people with autism. In C. Maurice, G. Green, & R. M. Foxx (Eds.), Making a difference: Behavioral intervention for autism (pp. 37-50). Austin, TX, US: PRO-ED.

Student:	Teacher:
Target Task/Behavior. Describe the task/behavior tha	t you are targeting to reduce/eliminate task-initiation prompts.

Prompt Definitions. Use these definitions to classify the types of prompts you use with your student.

1	Prompt Types	s. (MacDuff et al., 2001)					
	Manual	The student is guided manually to complete the skill.					
	Modeling	The student views a demonstration of the skill (e.g., demonstrated in person, via a video recording).					
	Verbal	The student is prompted via verbal communication to demonstrate the skill.					
	Gestural	The student is prompted via a gesture (e.g., nodding, pointing, motioning, tapping on a worksheet) to complete the skill.					
	No Prompt	The student requires no prompting to complete the skill.					

Prompt Recording. In the sections below, record your use of task-initiation prompts to initiate the identified task/behavior. Write observation dates, number and type of prompts used, and notes explaining your prompt use.

1	DATE: M T W T	Th F		NOTES:			
	No Prompt		Gestural		Verbal	Modeling	Manual
2	DATE: M T W T	「h F		NOTES:			
	No Prompt		Gestural		Verbal	Modeling	Manual
3	DATE: M T W T	「h F		NOTES:			
	No Prompt		Gestural		Verbal	Modeling	Manual
4	DATE: M T W T	「h F		NOTES:			
	No Prompt		Gestural		Verbal	Modeling	Manual
5	DATE: M T W T	Th F		NOTES:			
	No Prompt		Gestural		Verbal	Modeling	Manual



Student Prompts Progress-Monitoring Chart

Student: _ Teacher: _ Directions. Use this chart to record/summarize entries from the Student Prompts Recording Form. Prompt Chart: Series/Week Manual Modeling Verbal Gestural No Prompt Date Date Date Date Date Prompt Chart: Series/Week Manual Modeling Verbal Gestural No Prompt Date Date Date Date Date Prompt Chart: Series/Week Manual Modeling Verbal Gestural No Prompt

Date

Date

Date

Date

Date

RTI/MTSS: 'Next Steps' Planning Tool: Data Collection

Participant:S	chool/District:	Date:
Goal 1:		
List the 'next steps' that you plan to follow to act this goal:	who in your school or d help you with this goal?	istrict will you need to enlist to :
1	1	
2	2	
3	What resources will you this training to accompli	need beyond those supplied in sh the goal?
4		_
5		
Additional Notes:		
Goal 2:		
List the 'next steps' that you plan to follow to act this goal:	who in your school or d help you with this goal?	istrict will you need to enlist to :
1	1	
2	2	
3		need beyond those supplied in
4		G
5		
	2	
Additional Notes:		

Goal 3:	
List the 'next steps' that you plan to follow to accomplish this goal: 1	Who in your school or district will you need to enlist to help you with this goal?: 1
Additional Notes:	
Goal 4:	
List the 'next steps' that you plan to follow to accomplish this goal: 1 2	Who in your school or district will you need to enlist to help you with this goal?: 1
3.4.5.	What resources will you need beyond those supplied in this training to accomplish the goal? 1 2
Additional Notes:	<u>'</u>