

### RTI/MTSS Classroom Teacher Toolkit

## First Responder: How Teachers Can Provide Effective Classroom Academic Interventions Jim Wright, Presenter

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Workshop Materials: http://www.interventioncentral.org/guilderland

1. Increase Access to Instruction

Instructional Element





Notes

### 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.

	Instructional Match. Lesson content is appropriately matched to students' abilities (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice, 2008).	
	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).	
	Preview of Lesson Goal(s). At the start of instruction, the goals of the	
	current day's lesson are shared (Rosenshine, 2008).	
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	small, manageable increments, 'chunks', or steps (Rosenshine, 2008).	
2.	Provided 'Scaffolding' Support	
Inst	ructional Element	Notes
	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).	
	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).  Work Models. The teacher makes exemplars of academic work (e.g.,	
ш	essays, completed math word problems) available to students for use	
	as models (Rosenshine, 2008).	
	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.	
	Collaborative Assignments. Students have frequent opportunities to	
	work collaborativelyin pairs or groups. (Baker, Gersten, & Lee, 2002;	
	Gettinger & Seibert, 2002).	
	Checks for Understanding. The instructor regularly checks for student	
	understanding by posing frequent questions to the group (Rosenshine,	
	2008).	



	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).	
	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).	
	Brisk Rate of Instruction. The lesson moves at a brisk ratesufficient	
_	to hold student attention (Carnine,1976; Gettinger & Seibert, 2002).	
	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).	
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	Give Timely Performance Feedback	
	tructional Element	Notes
	Regular Feedback. The teacher provides timely and regular	
	performance feedback and corrections throughout the lesson as	
	needed to guide student learning (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice).	
	Step-by-Step Checklists. For multi-step cognitive strategies, the	
	teacher creates checklists for students to use to self-monitor	
	performance (Rosenshine, 2008).	
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	Provide Opportunities for Review & Practice	
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# How To: Define Academic Problems: The First Step in Effective Intervention Planning

Students who struggle with academic deficits do not do so in isolation. Their difficulties are played out in the larger context of the school environment and curriculum—and represent a 'mismatch' between the characteristics of the student and the instructional demands of the classroom (Foorman & Torgesen, 2001).

It may surprise educators to learn that the problem-identification step is the most critical for matching the student to an effective intervention (Bergan, 1995). Problem identification statements should be defined in clear and specific terms sufficient to pass 'the stranger test' (Howell, Hosp, & Kurns, 2008). That is, the student problem can be judged as adequately defined if a person with no background knowledge of the case and equipped only with the problem-identification statement can observe the student in the academic setting and know with confidence when the problem behavior is displayed and when it is not.

Here are recommendations for increasing teacher capacity to describe student academic problems in specific terms, and generate a hypothesis about why the problem is occurring.

- 1. Describe the academic problem in specific, skill-based terms with a meaningful instructional context (Batsche et al., 2008; Upah, 2008). Write a clear, brief description of the academic skill or performance deficit that focuses on a specific skill or performance area. Include information about the conditions under which the academic problem is observed and typical or expected level of performance.
  - *Conditions*. Describe the environmental conditions or task demands in place when the academic problem is observed.
  - Problem Description. Describe the actual observable academic behavior with which the student has
    difficulty. If available, include specifics about student performance, such as rate of work, accuracy, or other
    relevant quantitative information.
  - Typical or Expected Level of Performance. Provide a typical or expected performance criterion for this skill or behavior. Typical or expected academic performance can be calculated using a variety of sources, such as benchmark norms, local (classroom) norms, or expert opinion.

Reading-Related Problems: Sample Definitions			
Environmental Conditions or Task Demands	Problem Description	Typical or Expected Level of Performance	
When shown flashcards with mixed-case letters for 3 seconds	Annika can name 38 of 52 correctly	while most peers in her class can name all letters correctly.	
When asked to blend / segment onsets and rimes of single-syllable spoken words	Thomas (grade 1) is inconsistent in this skill	while this is a Kindergarten ELA/Reading standard.	
When shown CVC words from all vowel families via flashcards	Terrance requires adult prompting, hints, and occasional direction to sound out and blend the words	while classmates perform the task with prompting only.	
When reading aloud from a 1-minute 4th-grade passage	Benjamin reads an average of 45 words	while the fall norm (20 <sup>th</sup> percentile) at Grade 4 is 68 words per minute.	





When completing sets of 5 short-answer questions based on assigned readings	Neda scores an average of 40% (2 of 5 correct)	while classmates score an average of 80%.
When directed to match terms and definitions for 20 social-studies terms	Lucy can correctly match 10 items	while this entry-level vocabulary is a prerequisite for the course.
Math-Related Problems: Samp	le Definitions	
Environmental Conditions or Task Demands	Problem Description	Typical or Expected Level of Performance
When shown flashcards with multiplication math facts 0 to 12 for 3 seconds	Annika can answer 57 of 156 correctly	while most peers in her class can name all facts correctly.
When completing a beginning- level algebra word problem	Dennis is unable to translate that word problem into an equation with 1 variable	although this is a prerequisite skill for the course.
Given a 2-term addition or subtraction problem with proper fractions	Franklin (grade 7) cannot correctly solve	although this skill is a Grade 5 Common Core Learning Standard.
On math homework	Neda attempts approximately 60 % of assigned items	while peers typically attempt 90% or more of items.

2. Select a hypothesis to explain the academic skill or performance problem. The hypothesis states the assumed reason(s) or cause(s) for the student's academic problems. Once selected, the hypothesis acts as a compass needle, pointing toward interventions that most logically address the student academic problems. Listed below are common reasons for academic problems. Note that occasionally more than one hypothesis may apply to a particular student (e.g., a student may demonstrate a skill deficit as well as a pattern of escape/avoidance).

Academic Problems: Possible Hypotheses & Recommendations			
Hypothesis	Recommendation		
Skill Deficit. The student has not yet acquired the skill(s).	Provide direct, explicit instruction to acquire the skill. Reinforce the student for effort and accuracy.		
Fluency Deficit. The student has acquired the skill(s) but is not yet proficient.	Provide opportunities for the student to practice the skill and give timely performance feedback. Reinforce the student for fluency as well as accuracy.		
Retention Deficit. The student can acquire the skill(s) but has difficulty retaining it over an extended period.	Give the student frequent opportunities for practice to entrench a skill and help the student to retain it over time. Begin by scheduling more numerous practice episodes within a short time ('massed review') to promote initial fluency and then strengthen longer-term skill retention by scheduling additional periodic review ('distributed review') across longer spans of several weeks or		
Endurance Deficit. The student can perform the academic task(s), but only for brief periods.	<ul> <li>Provide scaffolding supports to help the student to perforr the academic task.</li> <li>In structuring lessons or independent work, gradually lengthen the period of time that the student spends in skill practice or use.</li> <li>Have the student self-monitor active engagement in skill-building activitiessetting daily, increasingly ambitious wo goals and then tracking whether he or she successfully</li> </ul>		



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	reaches those goals.
Generalization Deficit. The student possesses the skill(s) but fails to use across appropriate situations or settings.	<ul> <li>Enlist adults to prompt and remind the student to use the target skills when needed.</li> <li>Train the student to identify relevant characteristics of situations or settings when the skill should be used—and to self-monitor skill use.</li> <li>Provide incentives (e.g., praise, rewards) for the student to use the skill in the appropriate settings.</li> </ul>
Escape/Avoidance. The student seeks to escape or avoid the academic task. NOTE: This category includes "learned helplessness".	<ul> <li>Adjust the work to the student's ability level.</li> <li>Use scaffolding and accommodation strategies to make the academic work more manageable, e.g., breaking larger tasks into smaller increments ("chunking"), allowing the student to take brief breaks during work sessions, etc.</li> </ul>

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# How To: Define Intervention-Related Terms: Core Instruction, Intervention, Instructional Adjustment, Modification

Educators who serve as interventionists should be able to define and distinguish among the terms *core instruction*, *intervention, instructional adjustment*, and *modification*. (In particular, interventionists should avoid using modifications as part of an intervention plan to support a general education student in core instruction--as they can be predicted to undermine the student's academic performance.) Here are definitions for these key terms. (Tindal & Fuchs, 1999; Wright, 2007).

#### Intervention-Related Terms & Definitions

Core Instruction. Those instructional strategies that are used routinely with all students in a general-education setting are considered 'core instruction'. High-quality instruction is essential and forms the foundation of classroom academic support. NOTE: While it is important to verify that a struggling student receives good core instructional practices, those routine practices do not 'count' as individual student interventions.

Intervention. An academic *intervention* is a strategy used to teach a new skill, build fluency in a skill, or encourage a child to apply an existing skill to new situations or settings. An intervention can be thought of as "a set of actions that, when taken, have demonstrated ability to change a fixed educational trajectory" (Methe & Riley-Tillman, 2008; p. 37). As an example of an academic intervention, the teacher may select question generation (Davey & McBride, 1986.; Rosenshine, Meister & Chapman, 1996), a strategy in which the student is taught to locate or generate main idea sentences for each paragraph in a passage and record those 'gist' sentences for later review.

Instructional Adjustment (Accommodation). An *instructional adjustment* (also known as an 'accommodation') is intended to help the student to fully access and participate in the general-education curriculum without changing the instructional content and without reducing the student's rate of learning (Skinner, Pappas & Davis, 2005). An instructional adjustment is intended to remove barriers to learning while still expecting that students will master the same instructional content as their typical peers. An instructional adjustment for students who are slow readers, for example, may include having them supplement their silent reading of a novel by listening to the book on tape. An instructional adjustment for unmotivated students may include breaking larger assignments into smaller 'chunks' and providing students with performance feedback and praise for each completed 'chunk' of assigned work (Skinner, Pappas & Davis, 2005).

Modification. A modification changes the expectations of what a student is expected to know or do—typically by lowering the academic standards against which the student is to be evaluated. Examples of modifications are giving a student five math computation problems for practice instead of the 20 problems assigned to the rest of the class or letting the student consult course notes during a test when peers are not permitted to do so. Instructional modifications are essential elements on the Individualized Education Plans (IEPs) or Section 504 Plans of many students with special needs. Modifications are generally not included on a general-education student's classroom intervention plan, however, because the assumption is that the student can be successful in the curriculum with appropriate interventions and instructional adjustments alone. In fact, modifying the work of struggling general education students is likely to have a negative effect that works against the goals of intervention. Reducing academic expectations will result in these students falling further behind rather than closing the performance gap with peers

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# How To: Use Accommodations With General-Education Students: Teacher Guidelines

Classrooms in most schools look pretty much alike, with students sitting at rows of desks attending (more or less) to teacher instruction. But a teacher facing any class knows that behind that group of attentive student faces lies a kaleidoscope of differences in academic, social, self-management, and language skills. For example, recent national test results indicate that well over half of elementary and middle-school students have not yet attained proficiency in mathematics (NAEP, 20011a) or reading (NAEP 2011b). Furthermore, 1 in 10 students now attending American schools is an English Language Learner (Institute of Education Sciences, 2012) who must grapple with the complexities of language acquisition in addition to the demands of academic coursework.

Teachers can increase the chances for academic success by weaving into their instructional routine an appropriate array of classwide curricular accommodations made available to any general-education student who needs them (Kern, Bambara, & Fogt, 2002). However, teachers also know that they must strike an appropriate balance: while accommodations have the potential to help struggling learners to more fully engage in demanding academics, they should not compromise learning by holding a general-education student who accesses them to a lesser performance standard than the rest of the class. After all, students with academic deficits must actually *accelerate* learning to close the skill-gap with peers, so allowing them to do less is simply not a realistic option.

Read on for guidelines on how to select classroom accommodations to promote school success, verify whether a student actually *needs* a particular accommodation, and judge when accommodations should be used in instruction even if not allowed on state tests.

Identifying Appropriate Accommodations: Access vs. Target Skills. As an aid in determining whether a particular accommodation both supports individual student differences and sustains a demanding academic environment, teachers should distinguish between *target* and *access* skills (Tindal, Daesik, & Ketterlin, 2008). *Target skills* are those academic skills that the teacher is actively trying to assess or to teach. Target skills are therefore 'non-negotiable'; the teacher must ensure that these skills are not compromised in the instruction or assessment of any general-education student. For example, a 4th-grade teacher sets as a target skill for his class the development of computational fluency in basic multiplication facts. To work toward this goal, the teacher has his class complete a worksheet of 20 computation problems under timed conditions. This teacher would not allow a typical student who struggles with computation to do fewer than the assigned 20 problems, as this change would undermine the target skill of computational fluency that is the purpose of the assignment.

In contrast, access skills are those needed for the student to take part in a class assessment or instructional activity but are not themselves the target of current assessment or instruction. Access skills, therefore, can be the focus of accommodations, as altering them may remove a barrier to student participation but will not compromise the academic rigor of classroom activities. For example, a 7th-grade teacher assigns a 5-paragraph essay as an in-class writing assignment. She notes that one student finds the access skill of handwriting to be difficult and aversive, so she instead allows that student the accommodation of writing his essay on a classroom desktop computer. While the access skill (method of text production) is altered, the teacher preserves the integrity of those elements of the assignment that directly address the target skill (i.e., the student must still produce a full 5-paragraph essay).

Matching Accommodations to Students: Look for the 'Differential Boost'. The first principle in using accommodations in general-education classrooms, then, is that they should address access rather than target





academic skills. However, teachers may also wish to identify whether an individual actually benefits from a particular accommodation strategy. A useful tool to investigate this question is the 'differential boost' test (Tindal & Fuchs, 1999). The teacher examines a student's performance both with and without the accommodation and asks these 2 questions: (1) Does the student perform significantly better *with* the accommodation than without?, and (2) Does the accommodation boost that particular student's performance substantially *beyond* what could be expected if it were given to all students in the class? If the answer to both questions is YES, there is clear evidence that this student receives a 'differential boost' from the accommodation and that this benefit can be explained as a unique rather than universal response. With such evidence in hand, the teacher should feel confident that the accommodation is an appropriate match for the student. (Of course, if a teacher observes that most or all of a class seems to benefit from a particular accommodation idea, the best course is probably to revise the assignment or assessment activity to incorporate the accommodation!)

For example, a teacher may routinely allocate 20 minutes for her class to complete an in-class writing assignment and finds that all but one of her students are able to complete the assignment adequately within that time. She therefore allows this one student 10 minutes of additional time for the assignment and discovers that his work is markedly better with this accommodation. The evidence shows that, in contrast to peers, the student gains a clear 'differential boost' from the accommodation of extended time because (1) his writing product is substantially improved when using it, while (2) few if any other students appear to need it.

Classroom Accommodations and State Tests: To Allow or Not to Allow? Teachers may sometimes be reluctant to allow a student to access classroom accommodations if the student cannot use those same accommodations on high-stakes state assessments (Tlndal & Fuchs, 1999). This view is understandable; teachers do not want students to become dependent on accommodations only to have those accommodations yanked away at precisely the moment when the student needs them most. While the teacher must be the ultimate judge, however, there are 3 good reasons to consider allowing a general-education student to access accommodations in the classroom that will be off-limits during state testing.

- 1. Accommodations can uncover 'academic blockers'. The teacher who is able to identify which student access skills may require instructional accommodations is also in a good position to provide interventions proactively to strengthen those deficient access skills. For example, an instructor might note that a student does poorly on math word problems because that student has limited reading decoding skills. While the teacher may match the student to a peer who reads the word problems aloud (texts read) as a classroom accommodation, the teacher and school can also focus on improving that student's decoding skills so that she can complete similar math problems independently when taking the next state examinations.
- 2. Accommodations can promote content knowledge. Students who receive in-class accommodations are likely to increase their skills and knowledge in the course or subject content substantially beyond the level to be expected without such supports. It stands to reason that individuals whose academic skills have been strengthened through the right mix of classroom accommodations will come to the state tests with greater mastery of the content on which they are to be tested.
- 3. Accommodations can build self-confidence. When students receive classroom accommodations, they are empowered to better understand their unique pattern of learning strengths and weaknesses and the strategies that work best for them. Self-knowledge can build self-confidence. And not only are such students primed to advocate for their own educational needs; they are also well-placed to develop compensatory strategies to manage difficult, high-stakes academic situations where support is minimal--such as on state tests.





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#### 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.

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## 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		
Interventi on: Start Date		Intervention: End Date		Total/Intervention Weeks:		
Description of	of the Student Pr	roblem				
Environmental Conditions or Task Demands		Problem Descrip	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
What to Write: Jot down materials (e.g., flashcards) or resources (e.g., Internet-connected computer) needed to carry out this intervention.	What to Write: Note what trainingif anyis needed to prepare adult(s) and/or the student to carry out the intervention.

<b>Progress-Monitoring.</b> 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.		
Type of Data Used to Monitor:		
Baseline	Outcome Goal	
How often will data be collected? (e.g., daily, every other day, weekly):		

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

**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.

Type of Data Used to Monitor: Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM) 2-Min Math Fact Fluency Worksheet: Multiplication Facts 0-12

Baseline	Outcome Goal
28 correct digits/2 mins	49 correct digits/2 mins

How often will data be collected? (e.g., daily, every other day, weekly): **Weekly** 

### 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:	Tomás Gr 7	Interventionist(s)	Mr. Garber Social Studies	Date of Plan	5 Oct 2018
Interventi on: Start Date	10 Oct 2018	Intervention: End Date	30 Nov 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 independent assigned social-studies readings	Tomás retains few key details (40% avg grade on reading quiz)	while most students in the class retain key details (classwide avg grade 80% on reading quiz).

#### 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.

Tomás will be taught to use the Read-Ask-Paraphrase (RAP) intervention.

He will be assigned to complete and turn in the RAP organizer after each independent assigned reading as part of his homework.

Materials	Training
What to Write: Jot down materials (e.g., flashcards) or resources (e.g., Internet-connected computer) needed to carry out this intervention.	What to Write: Note what trainingif anyis needed to prepare adult(s) and/or the student to carry out the intervention.
Use the RAP interactive form from: http://www.interventioncentral.org	Tomás will meet with Mr. Garber for 1-2 sessions during 'extra-help' period to be trained to use the RAP strategy.

**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.

Type of Data Used to Monitor: Readiness Assessment Test (RAT): 5-item pre-test of assigned reading

Baseline	Outcome Goal
RAT Average Score: 40 %	RAT Average Score: 80 %

How often will data be collected? (e.g., daily, every other day, weekly):

After each article assigned as outside reading (about 1 time per week)



### 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.	<ul> <li>Attendance</li> <li>Office disciplinary referrals</li> <li>Other aspects of behavior or academic performance captured in the school database</li> </ul>



D.L.		
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> <li>General behaviors (e.g., complies with teacher requests; waits to be called on before responding)</li> <li>Academic 'enabling' behaviors (e.g., has all necessary work materials; writes down homework assignment correctly and completely, etc.)</li> </ul>
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> <li>Step-by-step cognitive strategies</li> <li>Behavioral routines</li> <li>Generalization: Target behavior carried out across settings</li> </ul>
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> <li>Any discrete collection of academic items to be mastered: e.g., vocabulary, math facts, spelling words, letter or number names</li> </ul>
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> <li>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</li> </ul>
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><li>Homework grades</li><li>Test grades</li><li>Quarterly report card grades</li></ul>
Logs	Written adult or student entries that track the frequency (and perhaps additional details) of relevant academic performance and/or behaviors.	<ul> <li>Homework completion</li> <li>Incidents of non-compliance</li> <li>Student record of dates when he or she uses a self-guided academic intervention.</li> <li>Listing of student-teacher meetings.</li> </ul>
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	<ul><li>Work completion</li><li>Work accuracy</li></ul>



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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)



# 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

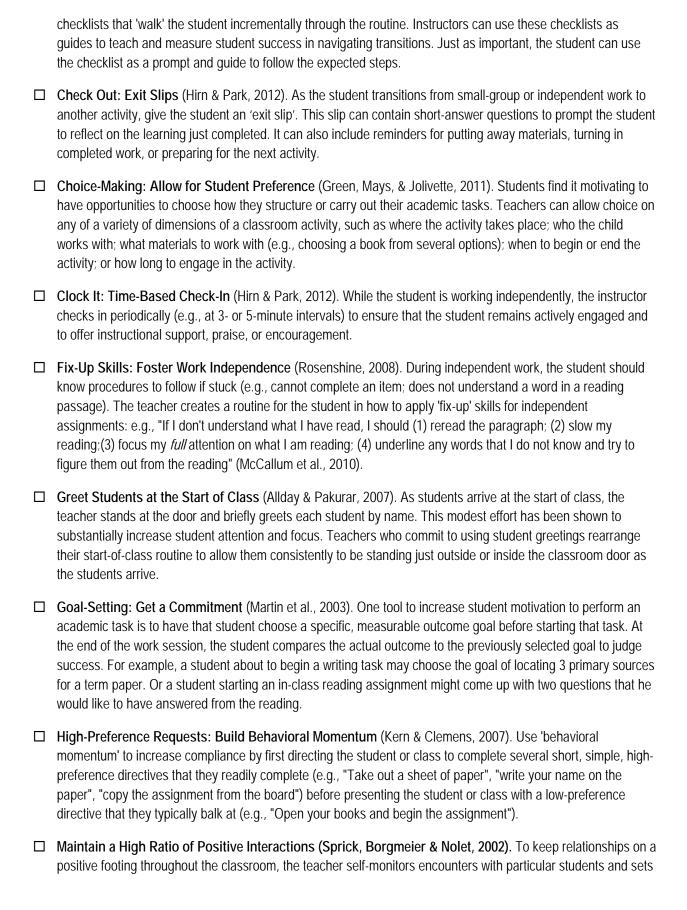
Behaviors: Teach Expectations (Fairbanks, Sugai, Guardino, & Lathrop, 2007). Students must be explicitly
taught behavioral expectations before they can be held accountable for those behaviors. The teacher should
model positive behaviors, give students examples and non-examples of appropriate behaviors 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 <i>are</i> allowable in the current situation or setting.
	<b>Pre-Session Attention: Provide Antecedent Attention.</b> 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 <i>just before</i> the session begins (Wood et al., 2018). This presession 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 environmentsuch as a talkative peer or difficulty hearing or seeing the instructorthe 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.
An	tecedents 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

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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 gr

the odds in his or her favor that every student in the class will view the instructor as fair and caring gr 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.

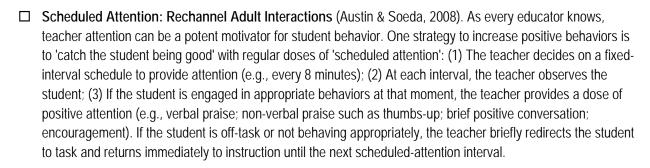
□ Verbal Commands: Keep Them Brief and Powerful (Matheson & Shriver, 2005; Walker & Walker, 1991). Teacher commands are most likely to elicit student compliance when they (1) are delivered calmly, (2) are brief, (3) are stated when possible as DO statements rather than as DON'T statements, (4) use clear, 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 powerfulyet 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.").





# 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."
  - 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!"

Ш	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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## Worksheet: The Teacher as RTI 'First Responder': How to Create Classroom Academic Support Plans

lame:	Date:		Instructor: Jim Wright		
se this worksheet to apply	concepts and try out	skills presented at today's train	ning.		
1 Duckland ID: White	1. Duchland ID. White a 2 mont Duchland Identification Chatemant. Healthis agreement to write your students				
	1. <b>Problem ID: Write a 3-part Problem-Identification Statement</b> . Use this organizer to write your student's academic problem in the form of a 3-part Problem ID statement. For examples, see pp. 4-5 of handout:				
3-Part Academic Prob	·				
Environmental Condi Task Demands		Problem Description	Typical or Expected Level of Performance		
statement that pinpopossible hypothese	2. <b>Problem ID: Write a Hypothesis Statement.</b> Based on your knowledge of this student, write a 'hypothesis' statement that pinpoints the likely 'root cause' of the academic problem. See pp. 4-5 of handout for a listing of possible hypotheses: (A) Skill Deficit; (B) Fluency Deficit; (C) Retention Deficit; (D) Endurance Deficit; (E) Generalization Deficit (F) Escape/Avoidance.				
Hypothesis Statemen	nt				



3.	Intervention: Review Intervention Ideas. Browse the instruction and intervention ideas posted on the course	
	webpage:	
	http://www.interventioncentral.org/bedford	
	The province of the area of th	
	Locate at least one lesson plan, classroom intervention, or differentiation/scaffolding technique that you might wa	ant
		anı
_	to include in your student's intervention plan.	
ın	struction/Intervention Ideas	
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4.	Progress-Monitoring: Select a Data 'Channel'. Choose 1-2 data 'channels' that you might use to collect data of	
	your student's academic performance:(1) direct observation, (2) interviews, (3) work products, (4) self-monitoring	g.
D	ata 'Channels'	
יט	ala Cilalilieis	
	•	
	•	
5.	Progress-Monitoring. Select Specific Data Collection Tools. Review the list of data-collection tools in your	
	handout (pp. 19-21). Pick at least one that you might use to track your student's academic progress.	
_		
D	ata Tool(s)	
	•	
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	•	



# The Struggling Student in a General-Education Setting: Pivot Points



**Directions.** The student competencies in the table below represent 'pivot points'—opportunities for educators to support the at-risk student to 'pivot' them toward school success. \Number in descending order the 5 competencies that you believe pose the greatest challenge for students in your classroom or school to attain.

Ranking	Student Competency		
	A. Basic Academic Skills. The student has sufficient mastery of basic academic skills (e.g., reading fluency) to complete classwork.		
	B. Academic Survival Skills. The student possesses the academic survival skills (e.g., homework skills, time management, organization) necessary to manage their learning.		
	C. Work Completion. The student independently completes in-class work and homework.		
	D. <b>Transitions</b> . The student flexibly adapts to changing academic routines and behavioral expectations across activities and settings (e.g., contentarea classes; specials).		
	E. <b>Attentional Focus</b> . The student has a grade- or age-appropriate ability to focus attention in large and small groups and when working independently.		
	F. <b>Emotional Control.</b> The student manages emotions across settings, responding appropriately to setbacks and frustrations.		
	G. Peer Interactions. The student collaborates productively and has positive social interactions with peers.		
	H. <b>Self-Efficacy</b> . The student possesses a positive view of their academic abilities, believing that increased effort paired with effective work practices will result in improved outcomes ('growth mindset').		
	I. <b>Self-Understanding.</b> The student can articulate their relative patterns of strength and weakness in academic skills, general conduct, and social-emotional functioning.		
	J. <b>Self-Advocacy</b> . The student advocates for their needs and negotiates effectively with adults.		