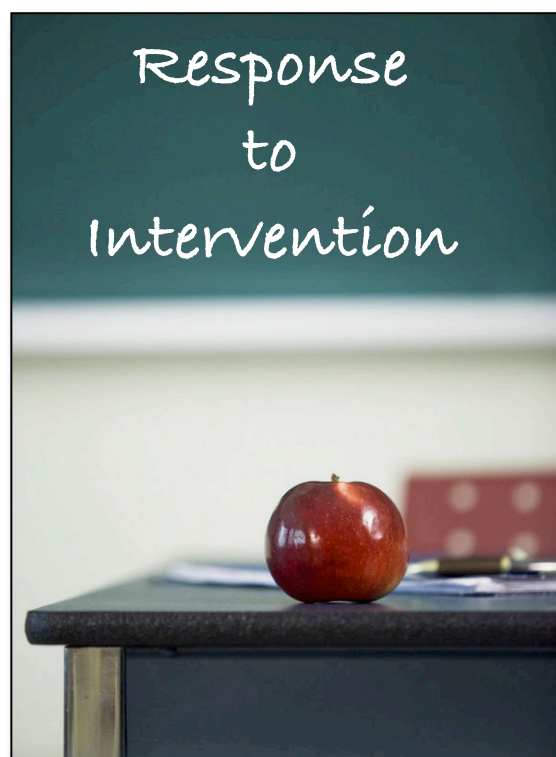# RtI
INTERVENTIONS
MANUAL

Response
to
Intervention

ESU #1

Providing Innovation, Leadership, and Service.

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RESPONSE TO INTERVENTION: AN OVERVIEW

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) 2004 has authorized local education agencies to use Response to Intervention "RtI" models. RtI is a national movement designed to accomplish three important goals:

1) insure all students receive research based instruction;
2) provide progress monitoring tools that will be utilized in making data-based decisions in terms of interventions and modifications; and
3) provide a more practical method of identifying students as learning disabled (i.e., rather than strictly using a discrepancy model).

More specifically, RtI is an integrated approach that includes general, remedial and special education. It is based on a three-tiered model that monitors student progress with different levels of intervention intensity. By providing scientifically-based intervention to students, monitoring progress on interventions, and using this information to determine who is in need of more intensive services, RtI further builds on the requirements of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act. The interventions themselves, in conjunction with comprehensive testing (i.e., intelligence testing, achievement testing, developmental history, etc.) assist in the determination of a student's verification for special education services.

For additional information regarding RtI, please reference available powerpoints, handouts and resource links on the ESU #1 RtI webpage: http://www.esu1.org/dept/sped/RTI/rti.html

SCIENTIFICALLY BASED INTERVENTIONS

Scientifically Based Research

The term "scientifically based research"

(A) means research that involves the application of rigorous, systematic, and objective procedures to obtain reliable and valid knowledge relevant to education activities and programs; and

(B) includes research that –

1. employs systematic, empirical methods that draw on observation or experiment;

2. involves rigorous data analyses that are adequate to test the stated hypotheses and justify the general conclusions drawn;

3. relies on measurements or observational methods that provide reliable and valid data across evaluators and observers, across multiple measurements and observations, and across studies by the same or different investigators;

4. is evaluated using experimental or quasi-experimental designs in which individuals, entities, programs or activities are assigned to different conditions and with appropriate controls to evaluated the effects of the condition of interest, with a preference for random-assignment experiments, or other designs to the extent that those designs contain within-condition or across-condition controls;

5. ensures that experimental studies are presented in sufficient detail and clarity to allow for replication or, at a minimum, offer the opportunity to build systematically on their findings; and

6. has been accepted by a peer-reviewed journal or approved by a panel of independent experts through a comparably rigorous, objective, and scientific review.

No Child Left Behind Act: Title IX – General Provisions: Part A – Definitions Sec. 9101

1. **The term "scientifically based research" includes research that employs systematic, empirical methods that draw on observation or experiment.**

The defining principle of scientific evidence is systematic empiricism. Empiricism is "watching the world," relying on careful observation of events to make conclusions (Stanovich & Stanovich, 2003, p. 33). Systematic empiricism requires conducting those observations in a careful manner in order to answer a specific question. In the realm of educational research, systematic empiricism requires an exact definition of the intervention and program being studied and a careful measurement of its outcomes.

> *Example:* Following a state referendum restricting "bilingual education" in California, the popular media reported a dramatic improvement in the academic achievement of nonnative English speakers in a school district that switched to an English-only curriculum. This result was touted as evidence for the superiority of English-only instruction over bilingual instruction. However, this report did not constitute scientific evidence, because no one had systematically compared the two differing curriculum approaches. In fact, upon careful analysis, it became known that the school did not even have a bilingual curriculum to start with. Subsequent studies that precisely defined the key features of bilingual education and evaluated specific educational outcomes can be called systematic and empirical (see Krashen, 2002).

This criterion requires quantitative research, the hallmark of which is the use of numerical measurement of student outcomes. In order to know if one method truly caused an improvement, it is necessary to quantify the improvement in student performance. For example, studies about the effectiveness of certain mathematics instructional practices measure the improvement in mathematics ability, perhaps by quantifying changes over time in the percentage of math problems that students are able to answer.

2. **The term "scientifically based research" includes research that involves rigorous data analyses that are adequate to test the stated hypotheses and justify the general conclusions drawn.**

It is necessary to analyze data from a study using appropriate statistical procedures that can support the conclusions. Failure to apply the appropriate statistical procedures calls the results into question. Reputable research does not issue strong claims for the effectiveness of a program or practice based on modest differences or gains in student achievement. It is necessary to use statistics to determine whether the results were significant and important.

> *Example:* Research on the influence of class size on literacy achievement compared the reading ability of students in classrooms with 12 to 15 students to classrooms with 20 to 25 students. The students from the smaller classes scored higher on reading achievement tests. The researchers calculated the statistical significance of this difference to determine whether it was likely that such a result could have been possible by chance.

A great deal of technical expertise is necessary to understand whether statistical procedures have been performed and reported adequately. Fortunately, the publication of research in reputable sources and the replication of the results by different researchers give the layperson some degree of confidence that the research claims are above board. On a superficial level, quality research reports basic statistical information such as the following:

* **Sample size and representativeness.** The sample refers to the selection of participants in the study. The sample must be representative of the population of people about whom the researchers wish to learn. If a researcher wishes to demonstrate an intervention for improving reading skills among youth in poverty, the sample must be drawn from youth in poverty.

* **Statistical procedures to interpret data.** Research that compares the effectiveness of an intervention almost always reports statistical tests such as t-tests or analyses of variance (ANOVAs). A study lacking such information is unlikely to provide convincing proof of effectiveness.

* **Supplementary descriptive statistics.** Quality research provides numbers that describe the results, such as means and standard deviations.

* **Significance.** Statistical significance is expressed as the probability that the observed differences could have happened by chance. When this is very low (i.e., .05 or less), the results are deemed statistically significant.

* **Effect size.** The effect size is a description of how large an effect the treatment had. It should be reported in real-world terms, such as percentage of children reading at or above grade level (Coalition for Evidence-Based Policy, 2003). The size of an effect indicates its importance. Some effects can be statistically significant, but of such a small magnitude that they are unimportant.

3. The term "scientifically based research" includes research that relies on measurements or observational methods that provide reliable and valid data across evaluators and observers, across multiple measurements and observations, and across studies by the same or different investigators.

Scientific research needs to use reliable methods of collecting data. A reliable testing instrument will give you the same result each time you use it on the same person or situation. Whenever a study evaluates students in a manner that relies on human judgment, as with assessments of writing ability, it is essential for the research to report interpreter reliability, an index of how closely the different raters agree. Studies that rely on testing instruments typically establish test-retest reliability by administering it to the same group of people twice. The main point is that SBR documents the reliability of its procedures for data collection.

Data about a particular outcome (e.g., mathematics achievement) are valid if they truly reflect that outcome and not some unrelated factor.

> *Example:* Research that examines the effect of art education on mathematics achievement should use a measure that reflects that outcome and is not influenced by unrelated outcomes. For example, if the test of this outcome contains questions that are difficult to understand, then the test may measure verbal ability as well as mathematics achievement. Its validity would then be in doubt.

4. The term "scientifically based research" includes research that is evaluated using experimental or quasi-experimental designs in which individuals, entities, programs or activities are assigned to different conditions and with appropriate controls to evaluated the effects of the condition of interest, with a preference for random-assignment experiments, or other designs to the extent that those designs contain within-condition or across-condition controls.

Experimental design. This criterion specifies that in order to be deemed scientific by the NCLB Act, research needs to conform to an experimental or quasi-experimental design. The reasoning is that it is difficult to understand the effectiveness of any educational approach without comparing it to a different approach. For this reason, this criterion states that evidence for the effectiveness of any practice needs to include a comparison group to show what would happen if that practice had not been used. An ideal comparison group is similar in every important way that could influence the outcome of interest. Because the comparison group allows researchers to control for the influence of external factors unrelated to the intervention, it is sometimes called a control group. By contrast, the group of people (or schools) that uses the practice under investigation is typically called the treatment or experimental group.

Example: Consider an educational program to decrease tobacco use among teenagers. Suppose that the promoters of the program tout its effectiveness by noting that a school that began using this program in 2002 reported a decrease in smoking from that point on. Is this convincing evidence? According to NCLB guidelines, no. Because there are so many other variables that affect the smoking rate, it is not possible to identify any one cause. After all, perhaps an increase in the cigarette tax—or a national advertising campaign to deter tobacco use—caused the decline. To make a claim about the effectiveness of the educational intervention, researchers would need to compare the students at the school that implemented the program to students at a similar school that did not implement it.

This criterion makes an additional statement about comparison groups and treatment groups: The best way to assign people to these groups in through a random process. Random assignment is the hallmark of the experimental design. When researchers randomly assign students (or classrooms or schools) to the experimental or control groups, any given participant in the study has an equal chance of ending up in the control group or the treatment group. The purpose of this procedure is to make sure that the two groups are as equivalent as possible in terms of the background characteristics that could influence the outcome variables. Any preexisting differences between the comparison and the treatment group can confound—that is, spoil—the results. Random assignment eliminates, for the most part, the concern that the control group comprises people (or schools) that are fundamentally different from the treatment group.

Example: Continuing the tobacco education example, if the students in the treatment school were from poorer families than students at the comparison school, they might be more impacted by an increase in the tobacco tax. This preexisting difference would account for a decrease in the use of tobacco in the school where the anti-tobacco program is implemented. However, suppose the researchers randomly assigned 20 schools, all of which were similar in their major demographic traits, to either the treatment or control condition. If the treatment group reported a substantial decrease in student tobacco use in comparison to the control group, one could be highly confident that the education program worked.

<u>Practical and ethical concerns with experimental design.</u> Random assignment is not always possible, for both practical and ethical reasons. As a practical matter, the administration of a school district might insist on deciding which of its elementary schools adopt a new curriculum. It would therefore not be possible to randomly assign schools (or classrooms or students) to particular treatment or control groups to study the effectiveness of this curriculum. Other practical dilemmas abound but are beyond the scope of this discussion. As an ethical matter, random assignment often is not an appropriate way to determine which students in a school benefit from an experimental approach.

<u>Quasi-experimental design.</u> Because of these concerns, most educational research does not utilize a pure experimental design, but rather a quasi-experimental design. One such approach is to select a comparison group that closely matches the control group in all relevant factors. For example, a study of an intensive professional development program might select five schools to participate in the program, and five other similar schools to serve as comparison schools. Although this sounds very much like an experiment, it lacks the key factor of random assignment; the schools that received the program may have volunteered or been selected to participate. For this approach to be considered SBR by NCLB measures, the five comparison schools would need to closely match the treatment group in all of the factors that could influence the intended outcome of the program (e.g., demographic composition, academic achievement and timing of evaluation).

It must be noted that this criterion has generated much controversy due to what some perceive as its exclusion of legitimate methods of scientific research such as qualitative designs and other nonexperimental approaches.

5. The term "scientifically based research" includes research that ensures that experimental studies are presented in sufficient detail and clarity to allow for replication or, at a minimum, offer the opportunity to build systematically on their findings.

Scientific research is open to the public. A person who claims to have discovered an effective teaching technique needs to submit evidence for its effectiveness to public scrutiny. If the results are sound, and the practice is truly effective, other people should be able to get the same results. For this reason, SBR must be reported in sufficient detail to allow for replication of the intervention and the scientific findings. One type of replication involves practitioners reproducing the educational intervention in their own schools. Another type of replication is more demanding; it involves another researcher attempting to replicate the original findings by following the same research procedures. This is an important process because it allows researchers to independently confirm the legitimacy of purported scientific evidence. For this reason, scientific research also needs to include all of the details about the educational intervention, participants, materials, outcome measures (e.g., tests and questionnaires), and the statistical procedures that were employed. Vague reporting of methods or results is a red flag, because it makes it seem as if the authors have something to hide. By the same token, successful replication of the research from a variety of sources ensures that the research is truly objective.

> **_Example:_** In the early 1990s, psychology researchers published a study in which they claimed that listening to a Mozart sonata temporarily boosted the IQ of college students. The results of this small study were reported widely in the popular media, unleashing a torrent of marketing of classical music as a way to improve intelligence. Subsequent researchers have precisely replicated the methods of the original experimental, but have not replicated the findings of increased IQ. For this reason, the validity of the original findings is highly doubtful.

6. The term "scientifically based research" includes research that has been accepted by a peer-reviewed journal or approved by a panel of independent experts through a comparably rigorous, objective and scientific review.

The process of peer review is essential to SBR. Many journals of educational research, such as the American Educational Research Journal, accept their articles based on the review of other researchers who understand the research topic. The purpose of peer review is to submit research to public criticism—to shine the light of objectivity generated by independent minds. This process helps to screen out poor quality research, especially research that has serious problems in any of the areas discussed here. A variety of journals—with varying degrees of stringency of standards—exist, so peer review is a minimal standard. Yet because it is minimal, its absence is a sure sign that a particular method is lacking in quality (Stanovich & Stanovich, 2003). It is possible to determine whether a journal is peer reviewed by reading its editorial policy for acceptance of manuscripts.

In summary, SBR is submitted to public scrutiny through peer review, and is replicated by independent researchers. Educators should therefore be wary of programs or practices whose support comes only from unpublished "in-house" studies conducted by its commercial vendors.

EXPLANATION OF INTERVENTIONS

An objective of RtI is to select intervention strategies that match a student's needs. As with any intervention, it can be ineffective to continue implementing interventions that are not shown to be successful through progress monitoring data. Therefore, if the child is not making progress, consider modifying the intervention or switching to another intervention. Interventions should always supplement instruction and not replace instruction in the general education classroom. Additionally, student intervention strategies should be researched based and feasible to implement.

While perusing the intervention manual, several interventions are repeatedly represented throughout various levels of intensity and categories. This is due to the variation in duration and frequency of a given intervention. For example, if an intervention is implemented for ten minutes, three times per week, it is considered less intensive than that same intervention being implemented every day for thirty minutes.

Criteria for each level of intervention – Interventions in each level will exist on a continuum, meaning there is variability in the duration and frequency for each level. The below descriptions are meant to serve as guidelines, as schools will define their own measures. Generally speaking, interventions could be described/implemented as the following:

> Least Intensive – a supplemental intervention provided in addition to general instruction, typically provided in a small group setting. Frequency would vary between three to five times a week for approximately 5 to 15 minutes. This intervention may be administered by the classroom teacher, parent, paraprofessional or peer.

> Moderately Intensive – a supplemental intervention provided outside the general education classroom, which typically occurs in a small group or on an individual basis. Additionally, one may increase the duration and/or frequency of the intervention previously in place. The interventions will likely occur approximately three to five times a week for approximately 15 to 30 minutes. Additionally, a moderately intensive intervention could be a purchased program.

> Most Intensive – a supplemental intervention that may be a prescribed purchased program. It is typically administered every day for at least twenty to sixty minutes. This should be administered in a one-on-one setting with personnel who are trained to administer the intervention.

ESU #1 does not endorse any programs/interventions listed in this manual. This is a compilation of interventions collected in order to assist school districts in implementing research-based interventions in the classroom. While the concepts of the interventions have been researched, the actual programs may not.

Each website is referenced following the interventions, from which the text was not altered from the original authors. More specifically, the text was gleaned directly from the original document; therefore, all credit should be given to the author.

Reading Interventions
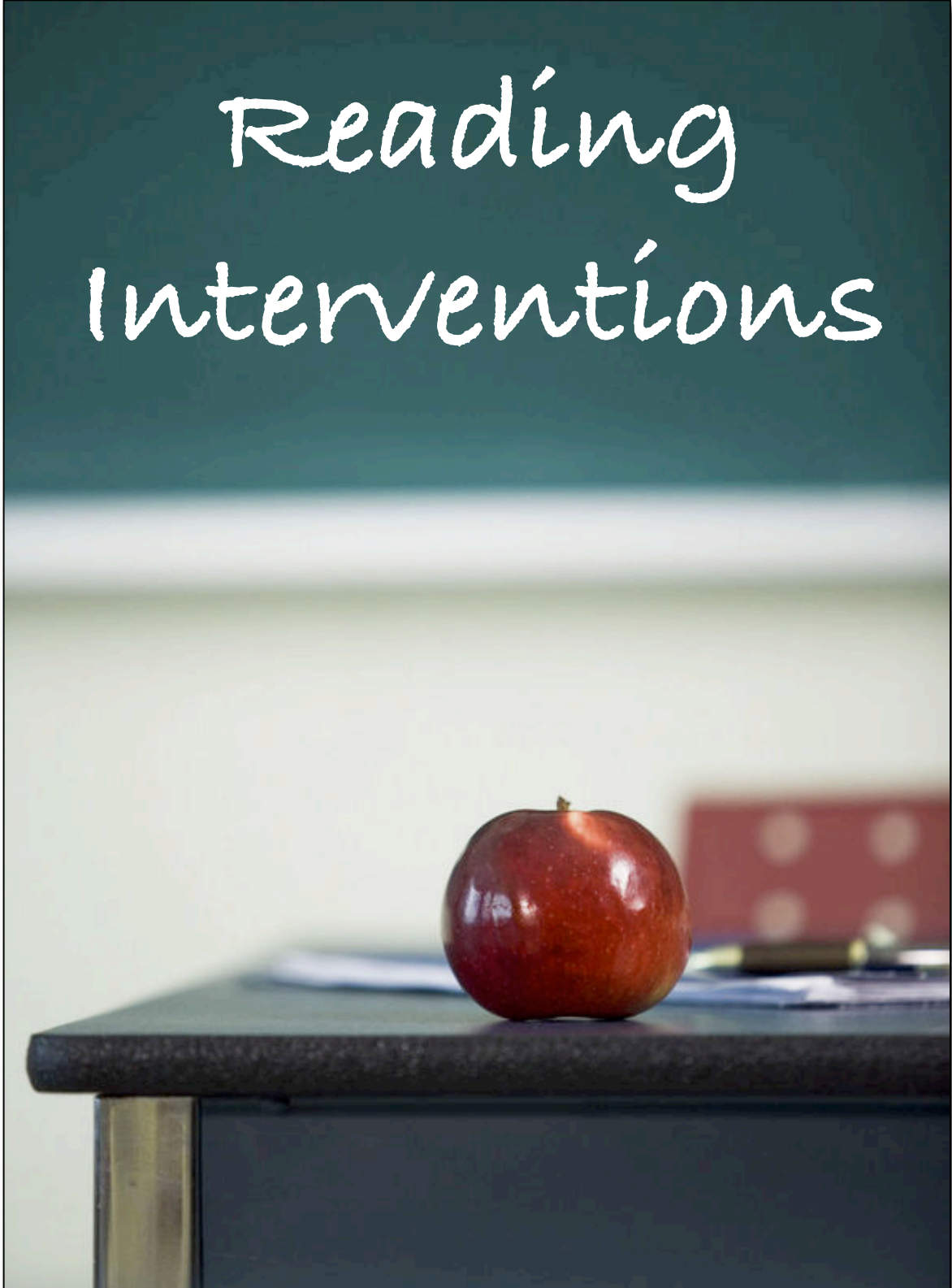
READING INTERVENTIONS: PHONOLOGICAL & PHONEMIC AWARENESS

Phonological Awareness is the precursor to phonics, which is frequently the method used to teach children to read. If a child cannot "sound out a word" or does not have good "word attack skills," it is possible that he may not have the underlying phonological awareness skills necessary to understand and use phonics skills.

Phonemic Awareness involves analyzing the sounds of language and how these sounds make up words and sentences.

Reading Rockets General Recommendations for Group Development:

❖ If your child is past the ages at which phonemic awareness and phonological skills are taught class-wide (usually kindergarten to first or second grade), make sure he or she is receiving one-on-one or small group instruction in these skills.

❖ Do activities to help your child build sound skills (make sure they are short and fun; avoid allowing your child to get frustrated).

Phonological & Phonemic Awareness
Least Intensive Interventions:

Phoneme Activities

Phoneme isolation

❖ Children recognize individual sounds in a word.

> Example: Teacher: What is the first sound in *van?*
> Children: The first sound in *van* is /v/.

Phoneme identity

❖ Children recognize the same sounds in different words.

> Example: Teacher: What sound is the same in *fix, fall,* and *fun?*
> Children: The first sound, /f/, is the same.

Phoneme categorization

❖ Children recognize the word in a set of three or four words that has the "odd" sound.

> Example: Teacher: Which word doesn't belong? *bus, bun, rug.*
> Children: *Rug* does not belong. It doesn't begin with /b/.

Phoneme segmentation

❖ Children break a word into its separate sounds, saying each sound as they tap out or count it. Then they write and read the word.

> Example: Teacher: How many sounds are in *grab?*
> Children: /g/ /r/ /a/ /b/. Four sounds.
> Teacher: Now let's write the sounds in *grab:* /g/, write *g;*
>   /r/, write *r;* /a/, write *a;* /b/, write *b.*
> Teacher: (Writes *grab* on the board.) Now we're going to
>   read the word *grab.*

Phoneme deletion

❖ Children recognize the word that remains when a phoneme is removed from another word.

> Example: Teacher: What is *smile* without the /s/?
> Children: *Smile* without the /s/ is *mile.*

Phoneme addition

❖ Children make a new word by adding a phoneme to an existing word.

<u>Example:</u>	Teacher: What word do you have if you add /s/ to the beginning of *park?* Children: *Spark.*

Phoneme substitution

❖ Children substitute one phoneme for another to make a new word.

<u>Example:</u>	Teacher: The word is *bug.* Change /g/ to /n/. What's the new word? Children: *Bun.*

Phoneme blending

❖ Children listen to a sequence of separately spoken phonemes, and then combine the phonemes to form a word. Then they write and read the word.

<u>Example:</u>	Teacher: What word is /b/ /i/ /g/? Children: /b/ /i/ /g/ is *big.* Teacher: Now let's write the sounds in *big:* /b/, write *b;* /i/, write *i;* /g/, write *g.* Teacher: (Writes *big* on the board.) Now we're going to read the word *big.*

Courtesy of:
National Institute for Literacy: Reading First
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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Games for Phonics and Blending

❖ <u>Word Bingo:</u> Make bingo word cards with identified words. The teacher says the sounds of the letters. For example, teacher would read /c/ /a/ /t/. The student is to find the word "cat" on the Bingo card. Continue playing the game like Bingo.

❖ <u>Go Fish for Words:</u> Make set of four word cards (i.e., big big big big), and play like the game Go Fish. Add your own Jokers.

❖ **Fish For Words:** Put a paper clip at the end of a word card. Make a fishing pole with a magnet. Use the magnet to pull out a card with a paper clip. The card should have either a word or the sounds of a word, and have the child read.

❖ **Concentration:** Make pairs of words on cards (i.e., hat hat). Turn cards over to make matches. (This is good for visual memory.)

❖ **Board Games:** Use a standard board game. The player rolls a dice (spins a spinner) and reads a word on the card. If correct, the player moves the number he rolled.

❖ **Tic Tac Toe:** Use this familiar game by putting words in the square. The player must say the word before earning the square.

❖ **Magic Square:** Make squares and fill in letters - with the magic letter in the middle. Rule: All words must have a short "a" – cat, bag, rag...Children make as many words as they can find.

Example:	b c t
	d a g
	r p m

Courtesy of:
http://www.blendingatthebeginning.com/

Phonemic Awareness Games to Play

❖ **Silly Mistakes:** Can your child listen attentively? Can she close her eyes and identify sounds around the house – a door shutting, footsteps, water running, silverware being put away?

Example:	Read a familiar poem or story . . . but make any kind of silly mistake that will be obvious to your child.
	You might **replace a word with nonsense:**
	Jack and Jill went up the pickle
	or **say the words in the wrong order:**
	The first little pig built a straw of house
	or even **swap sounds:**
	The clock struck one, The mouse ran down,
	Dickory, Hickory, Hock
	Ask your child to catch your error! (Silly mom or dad.)

◊ **Alternative Silly Mistakes:**
　　　　Your child tries to 'trick' you by making a Silly Mistake.

❖ <u>**What's New: First or Last, Make a Rhyme:**</u> Can your child fill-in rhyming words: 'There was an old woman who lived in a shoe; She had so many children she didn't know what to d__'?

> <u>Example:</u>　　**Help your child fill-in some new rhymes:**
> *A tree with a --bee. (or a C, key, knee . . .)*
> *A boy holding a --toy.*
> *A stick in a --zick.*
> *A cat with a --bat.*
> *A man on a --can*
> *A bug and a --hug.*
> *A picture of a --kicture.*
> (Since we are focusing on sound, and not meaning, nonsense is fine.)

　　　　　　◊ <u>**Alternative Make a Rhyme:**</u>
　　　　＊ **Sing to the tune of Farmer In The Dell:**
　　　　　　A tree with a bee, A tree with a bee,
　　　　　　Hi Ho the Derry-O, A tree with a bee.

　　　　＊ **Sing 'Down By the Bay':**
　　　　　　Down by the bay, And to and fro,
　　　　　　That's where I know, I dare not go.
　　　　　　For if I do, My mother will say,
　　　　　　[first player]: Did you ever see a boy--
　　　　　　[second player]: Chasing a loy
　　　　　　[together] Down by the bay!'
　　　　　　Easier version: The adult is the 'second player.'

　　　　＊ **Play The Name Game**
　　　　　　Just play with line one at first. You can begin with any name or word--but run it through your mind first, to eliminate words that result in unwanted rhymes.
　　　　　　Honey, honey, Bo-bunny
　　　　　　Banana-Fanna-Fo-funny
　　　　　　Fee-Fie-Mo-money
　　　　　　--Honey!

❖ <u>Clap Syllable 'Beats'</u>: Can your child move to the beat? Can he dance to music; march or clap to 'One, Two, Three, Four--One, Two, Three, Four'?

> <u>Example:</u>   1. Find something in the room, or out the window. (Or think of something we see in the kitchen; at the park, etc.)
> 2. Say its name, and help the child to clap out the syllables: "The word is . . .airplane...Say and clap . . . air—plane"

◊ <u>Alternative Clap Syllable 'Beats':</u>
* **Which Word is Longer? Clap and see!**
(This can be a tricky question for young children!)
Sev-en-up or truck?
Train or cat-er-pil-lar?

* **Say a Word Without a Syllable:**
Ask the child to say 'Sev-en-Up' without the 'up': "Seven."
"Say . . . Seven-Up...Without the Up"(Child claps and says "Seven" with two claps)

Courtesy of:
The Reading Treehouse
http://www.aability.com/pagames.htm

Reading Rockets Potential Activities:

❖ Help your child think of a number of words that start with the /m/ or /ch/ sound, or other beginning sounds.

❖ Make up silly sentences with words that begin with the same sound, such as "Nobody was nice to Nancy's neighbor."

❖ Play simple rhyming or blending games with your child, such as taking turns coming up with words that rhyme (*go – no*) or blending simple words (/d/, /o/, /g/ = *dog*).

❖ Read books with rhymes. Teach your child rhymes, short poems and songs.

❖ Practice the alphabet by pointing out letters wherever you see them and by reading alphabet books.

❖ Consider using computer software that focuses on developing phonological and phonemic awareness skills. Many of these programs use colorful graphics and animation that keep young children engaged and motivated.

Courtesy of:
http://www.readingrockets.org/helping/target/phonologicalphonemic

Phonological Awareness: Humpty Dumpty

The following phonological awareness activities are part of a larger, more comprehensive unit based on the theme of nursery rhymes. This larger unit is taught as part of the Discovery Team time. Each student experiences a number of phonological awareness activities based on a variety of nursery rhymes. The students are heterogeneously grouped and are able to participate in the activities of all of the nursery rhymes. The following is an example of how a number of activities could be derived from one rhyme, Humpty Dumpty. As an added point of interest, and as a way to integrate these activities with other areas of study, the children would be told the history of the rhyme.

Review of History: Anyone who has spent time with young children knows how much they love to learn about why things are the way they are. They love to hear the "real" story. All English nursery rhymes have stories behind them. Many rhymes started as chronicles of events for people who could not read. Often they were about rather gruesome events veiled in the rhymed vernacular of the day. Thus the citizenry were able to comment about the happenings without facing the often serious consequences of such freedom of speech.

"Humpty Dumpty sat on the wall,
Humpty Dumpty had a great fall,
All the king's horses and all the king's men,
Couldn't put Humpty Dumpty together again."

Humpty Dumpty was not an egg at all; nor was he an English king, as people frequently believe. Humpty Dumpty was the nickname for a huge wooden battering ram built for the army of King Charles I in the mid-1600s to roll down a slope, across the River Severn, and up against the walls of Gloucester. During England's Civil War, Gloucester was held by Oliver Cromwell and his Roundheads. While Charles' army was busy building the "Humpty Dumpty," the Roundheads were secretly widening the river. Thus Humpty Dumpty was wrecked in midstream, "had a great fall," and toppled into the water, drowning hundreds of soldiers--and there was nothing all the king's men could do about it. "

In addition to learning some history and working on phonological awareness, young children can also be exposed to map reading skills with an activity such as this one. A very short summary of what happened at the Severn River and a look at the globe to see where England is located are good extensions for this activity. It all makes the old story of Humpty Dumpty more meaningful and interesting.

<u>Activities for Humpty Dumpty's Wall:</u>

❖ <u>Activity #1</u>
Phonological Level: Word (phrases to words)
Materials: supply of tiles, all the same color
Grouping Type: heterogeneous or homogeneous, small group or
individual

Before beginning this activity, check to see if the children know the rhyme. If they do not know it, teach them the nursery rhyme Humpty Dumpty. Using one-to-one correspondence, one tile for each word said, for several phrases, model several examples. (Students' full names could be modeled as examples.) Make sure that each child knows how to name the tiles. Set up a pool of tiles in the middle of the table and then have the children name each tile as she/he lines them up. Be sure to use a left-to-right orientation. The children will be building Humpty Dumpty's wall. When Humpty Dumpty's wall has been built, give each child a picture of a "Humpty Dumpty" to place on top of her/his wall.

❖ <u>Activity #2</u>
Phonological Level: Syllable (words to syllables)
Materials: same as above
Grouping Type: same as above

If the children are able to easily do the activity above, move on to this activity. Again using the same technique, have children name each syllable as they line up tiles to build a wall for Humpty Dumpty.

❖ <u>Activity #3</u>
Phonological Level: Phoneme (discrimination of vowel sounds,
substitution)
Materials: set of sound cards with pictures of words beginning with
vowels
Grouping Type: heterogeneous or homogeneous, small group or
individual

Explain to the children that Humpty Dumpty wasn't the only one who "had a great fall." Hold up a picture of an /a/ sound such as a card with a picture of an apple. Tell the students to listen for this sound in the poem. Then recite poem changing the short /u/ sound to an /a/ sound.

"Hampty Dampty sat on the wall,
Hampty Dampty had a great fall,
All the king's horses and all the king's men,
Couldn't put Hampty Dampty together again."

Now hold up a picture of an /o/ sound word. Work with the children to help them change the rhyme to the following:

"Hompty Dompty sat on the wall,
Hompty Dompty had a great fall,
All the king's horses and all the king's men,
Couldn't put Hompty Dompty together again."

Continue in this manner next using the /i/ sound and finally the /e/ sound.

❖ **Activity #4**
  Phonological Level: phoneme (substitution)
  Materials: None
  Grouping Type: heterogeneous or homogeneous, small group or
     individual

If the children have difficulty with the vowel game, initial sounds may be used changing the name of Humpty Dumpty to a targeted sound such as Bumpty Dumpty. Children's name sounds can be used to personalize it, increase interest and draw attention to matching sounds. For example:

"Bumpty Dumpty sat on the wall,
Bumpty Dumpty had a great fall,
All the king's horses and all the king's men
Couldn't put Bumpty Dumpty together again."

❖ **Activity #5**
  Phonological Level: rhyming (substitution)
  Materials: None
  Grouping Type: heterogeneous or homogeneous, small group or
     individual

To further emphasize the rhyming nature of these activities, children can brainstorm words that rhyme with wall/fall, men/again. These new words can then be substituted in the rhyme. For example:

"Humpty Dumpty sat in the mall,
Humpty Dumpty had a great ball,
All the king's horses and all the king's men,
Couldn't put Humpty Dumpty together again.

Humpty Dumpty sat on the wall,
Humpty Dumpty had a great fall,
All the king's horses and all the king's ten,
Couldn't put Humpty Dumpty into the pen."

◊ **Alternative to Humpty Dumpty:**

❖ Finally, to take these activities a step further, they could be used, with slight adjustments, at a later date as reading, phonics and/or spelling activities. For example, the rhyme could be written out on large, heavy paper, the words cut apart and mixed up. The children could then be asked to reconstruct the poem.

❖ As a phonics/reading activity, children could be given the poem in a written format with the vowels deleted and then asked to substitute vowels and read the poem. A cloze activity could lead students into writing their own poems. Similar activities could be done with other rhymes.

Some examples of rhyming books available in bookstores or local libraries:
   * Shaw, Nancy *Sheep in a Jeep*, Houghton Mifflin Company Publishers
   * Gregorich, Barbara *The Fox On The Box*, School Zone Publishing Co.
   * Samton, Sheila *My Haunted Ship*, Puffin Books
   * Lewison, Wendy *Hello, Snow!*, Grosset & Dunlap Publishers
   * Armstrong, Jennifer *The Snowball*, Random House
   * Hayes, Sarah *This Is The Bear And The Scary Night*, Candlewick Press
   * Alborough, Jez *Where's My Teddy?* Candlewick Press

Courtesy of:
Phonological Awareness Resources and links
http://ca.geocities.com/phonological/index.htm
http://ca.geocities.com/phonological/usefullinks.htm

Phonological & Phonemic Awareness Moderate/Intensive Interventions:

Blending At The Beginning

Teaches the early reader the vowel sounds and how to successfully blend those sounds with consonant sounds to decode words. The blending process begins at the beginning of the word. Early readers learn to look at the entire word for phonetic clues before they begin the blending process.

Courtesy of:
http://www.blendingatthebeginning.com/

Group Assisted Reading

> **Example:** Everyday in second grade, the students break up into four groups of about six students according to reading ability. Each group is facilitated by either an Educational Assistant or the classroom teacher. GAR time is usually 20 minutes long. Variations of Assisted Group Reading are likely.

Courtesy of:
http://schools.fwps.org/nautilus/gar.htm

Reading Mastery Classic

❖ **Reading Mastery Classic Grade Levels Pre-K – 2**
   Long recognized for its phonemically explicit, intensive approach for teaching beginning reading

❖ **Reading Mastery Plus Grade Levels Pre–K - 6**
   New concepts and skills are taught by the teacher in small steps to ensure success the first time, avoiding time-consuming and repetitious re-teaching. Students have ample opportunity to practice all concepts and skills so they achieve mastery and develop efficient strategies for learning. Entry-level assessment and continuous monitoring of progress make it easy to quickly identify students needing specialized instruction.

❖ Horizons: Grade Levels K – 4
>A unique instructional sequence incorporates word attack, story reading, comprehension exercises, spelling and independent work on a daily basis to ensure success. Levels A, B and Fast Track A-B build a solid foundation for fluency and comprehension by systematically teaching phonemic awareness and phonics. Fast Track C-D expands key decoding and vocabulary skills while developing higher order thinking and comprehension strategies.

❖ Reading Mastery Rainbow Edition: Grade Levels K - 6
>*Reading Mastery Rainbow* involves a three-step process that ensures that students make smooth transitions from decoding to comprehension. The first step, decoding, is later combined with comprehension strategies, and in the final step students acquire an appreciation and understanding of literature. Ongoing assessment is built in, enabling teachers to adjust pacing, provide immediate feedback and give meaningful reinforcement. *Reading Mastery Rainbow* enhances students' problem-solving strategies, critical-thinking skills, phonics and vocabulary and is designed to generate excitement and enthusiasm for reading and learning.

❖ Corrective Reading: Grade Levels 3 – Adult
>*Corrective Reading* provides intensive intervention for students in Grades 3-Adult who are reading below grade level. This program delivers tightly sequenced, carefully planned lessons that give struggling students the structure and practice necessary to become skilled, fluent readers and better learners. Four levels for decoding plus four for comprehension address the varied reading deficits and skill levels found among older students.

Courtesy of:
http://www.sraonline.com/index.php/home/curriculumsolutions/di/9

Reading Recovery

Reading Recovery is an early literacy intervention program for children who have literacy difficulties at the end of their first year at primary school. It involves reading and writing in a daily one-to-one lesson with a highly trained teacher for a period of between 15 and 20 weeks.

At the end of that time, most children have caught up with their classmates and can read and write at a level appropriate for their age.

Courtesy of:
http://www.ioe.ac.uk/schools/ecpe/readingrecovery/

Ladders to Literacy

The *Ladders to Literacy Outreach Project* assists early childhood and early childhood special education staff, related services personnel and families in supporting the early literacy development of young children with disabilities, preparing them for later formal literacy instruction. The project offers training on:

- Classroom activities designed to facilitate early literacy and language skills.
- Strategies for individualizing instruction to meet the needs of teaching all children, including those with disabilities, in inclusive settings.
- Home-based literacy activities for families.
- Guidelines for early literacy and language assessment.
- Development of IEP/IFSPs in the area of early literacy.
- An overview of state-of-the-art theory and research on early literacy and language development and intervention.

BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS

The *Ladders to Literacy Outreach Project* offers the following services to assist the implementation of the *Ladders to Literacy* model in outreach sites:

- 10 - 15 hours of direct on-site training. Training modalities are individualized according to participant preferences and needs.
- Technical support for on-site implementation of the Ladders to Literacy model.
- Curriculum and other materials to support model implementation.
- Project staff time and travel at no cost for training and model replication and evaluation activities.
- Optional trainers training for interested staff and parents.

SITE PARTICIPATION

Outreach sites are requested to replicate the *Ladders to Literacy* model through the following activities:

- Ensure at least 15 participants in the training, including early childhood, and early childhood special education staff, related service personnel and parents.
- Identify one staff member and one parent to serve as on-site coordinators to maintain contacts with project staff.
- Trainee participation in the evaluation of the *Ladders to Literacy* model through the completion of questionnaires and interviews and the gathering of documentation for trainee portfolio assessment task and other project related activities.

Scott Foresman Early Reading Intervention (a.k.a. OPTIMIZE)

The intervention is designed for children who need early, intensive intervention in phonological awareness, letter names, letter sounds, word reading, spelling and simple-sentence reading. The target grade is kindergarten. The activities are designed to increase children's skills and knowledge in phonological awareness and alphabetic understanding. The intervention emphasizes the strategic and systematic instruction of phonemic awareness and alphabetic understanding and consists of two 15-minute components delivered consecutively in daily 30-minute lessons. The curriculum consists of 126 lessons.

> **Program**: Scott Foresman Early Reading Intervention
> **Publisher/Source**: Scott Foresman
> **Educational Level**: Kindergarten
> **Author**: Debra C. Simmons

Corrective Reading (Direct Instruction)

Corrective Reading Decoding is a tightly leveled intervention program which progresses form teaching letter sounds and blending skills to reading expository passages typical of text book material. Corrective Reading Comprehension is for students who read without understanding. The program develops vocabulary information and comprehension strategies needed for academic success. It also focuses on developing higher order thinking and reasoning tactics used by successful reader; applying prior knowledge, making inferences and analyzing evidence.

Program: Corrective Reading
Publisher/Source: Science Research Associates
Educational level: Grades 3-12
Author: Sigfried Engelmann

PALS (Peer Assisted Learning Strategies)

Peer Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS) is a class-wide peer-tutoring program providing supplemental practice and instruction on key reading skills. *K-PALS* focuses on phonemic awareness, alphabetic principle and sight word reading. *First Grade PALS* focuses on alphabetic principle, fluency and sight word reading. *Second-Eighth Grade PALS* focuses on fluency and accuracy in connected text and reading comprehension strategies of summarization, main idea and predication. *High School PALS* focuses on Fluency and comprehension skills within the context of a career, job oriented structure. Lessons are provided to train students to be "readers and coaches". Students are taught correction procedures and instructional cues. *K-8 PALS* can be used in general or special educational classrooms. *High School PALS* has only been validated in special education and remedial settings.

Program: PALS (Peer Assisted Learning Strategies)
Publisher/Source: Vanderbilt University
Educational level: K, 1, 2-6, 7-12
Author: Lynn and Doug Fuchs

Road to the Code

Road to the Code is an intervention program for kindergarteners and first graders who are having difficulty with their early literacy skills. This eleven-week program teaches phonemic awareness and letter sound correspondence. It gives students repeated opportunities to practice and enhance their beginning reading and spelling abilities.

Program: Road to the Code
Educational Level: Kindergarten, First Grade
Author: Benita Blachman

Phonemic Awareness in Young Children

Phonemic Awareness is Young Children targets phonemic awareness and helps young children learn to distinguish individual sounds that make up words and affect their meaning. The materials include information on the nature and importance of phonemic awareness. Specific directions to special education teachers are included.

> **Program**: Phonemic Awareness in Young Children
> **Publisher/Source**: Brookes
> **Educational Level**: Kindergarten preschool
> **Author**: Marilyn Jager Adams

Early Steps

Early Steps is a one-to-one tutorial program for early intervention of reading difficulties which represents a balanced approach. This model uses 30-minute lessons, taught one-to-one incorporating:

- Reading and rereading connected text
- Daily writing
- Acquiring phonological skills
- Applying phonological strategies

> **Program**: An Assessment of Early Steps: A Program for Early Intervention of
>   Reading Problems
> **Author(s)**: Carol M. Santa & Torleiv Hoien
> **Publisher/Source**: Reading Research Quarterly, v.34 (1), Jan/Feb/March
>   1999, pg 54-79

READING INTERVENTIONS: PHONICS

Phonics instruction is most effective when it begins in kindergarten or first grade. To be effective with young learners, systematic instruction must be designed appropriately and taught carefully. It should include teaching letter shapes and names, phonemic awareness and all major letter-sound relationships. It should ensure that all children learn these skills. As instruction proceeds, children should be taught to use this knowledge to read and write words.

Courtesy of:
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

The English alphabet contains 26 letters but we use roughly 44 phonemes. These sounds are represented by as many as 250 different spellings (e.g. /f/ as in *ph, f, gh, ff*).

Children who are instructed to segment words into phonemes as well as pair letter names and letter sounds showed significantly improved early reading and literacy skills. Students who have training in letter naming and letter sounds only are not as successful.

Courtesy of:
Does Phoneme Awareness Training in Kindergarten Make a Difference in Early Word Recognition and Developmental Spelling? Eileen W. Ball, Benita A. Blachman Reading Research Quarterly, Vol. 26, No. 1 (Winter, 1991), pp. 49-66.

Phonics
Least Intensive Interventions

Phonics and Word Study

Phonics and Word Study, Student Activity Center: Interactive computer games for grades pre-K - 6

Courtesy of:
http://www.sadlier-oxford.com/phonics/control_page/front2.htm

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EdHelper.Com

Lesson plans, coloring books, worksheets, word wall activities and books for improving phonics in pre-k to third grade

Courtesy of:
http://www.edhelper.com

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Phonics Sound Identification

- ❖ ***Phonics Sound Identification:*** Players are given three words but they differ by only one sound:

> Example: big, bag, and bug

- ❖ ***Phonics Sound Identification:*** Have children make words out of a larger word. How many words they can make out of a larger word?

> Example: Constant – you could pull, sat, ant, nat

- ❖ ***Phonics Sound Identification:*** Using the Dolch list appropriate for the student's grade level and write the words on index cards. Present three of the cards to the student at a time. The instructor or tutor will say one of the words and the student must choose or identify the word spoken from the three choices.

❖ *Categorizing words:* Give the student a group of words and have the student categorize them into a related word.

> Example: Of the words strawberry, bat, banana, dog, bottle and orange; the student would categorize strawberry, banana, and orange together since they are fruits.

Similar interactive computer games can be found online at http://pbskids.org.

Systematic and Explicit Phonics Instruction

- Introduce most common sound for a new letter (/k/ for "c")
- Separate instruction of potentially confusing letters due to visual or auditory similarity (h/n, e/I, b/d)
- May introduce low case letters first (more functional)
- Start with high-utility letters (s, t, m and vowels, not z, x)
- Select words that start with continuous sounds rather than stop sounds when beginning to sound out words—or for blending and segmenting practice (use "mat" before "bat")
- Potential sequence for introducing letters: a, m, t, s, S, I, f, d, r, o, O, g, l, h, u, U , c, C, b, n, k, K, v, V, e, w, W, j, p, P, y, Y, T L, M, F, D, I, N, A, R, E, H, G, B, x, X, q, z, Z , J, Q

Courtesy of:
Using Progress Monitoring as Data-Based Decision-Making: Materials for Trainers. Presentation for ESU #1, Spring 2006, Dr. Erica Lembke, University of Missouri

Phonics
Moderate/Intensive Interventions

Funnel Toward Phonics

Source: *Funnel Toward Phonics: Quick Reference Activity Book and Poster*
By Judy Montgomery, Ph. D., CCC-SLP

Funnel Toward Phonics is a handy, quick reference, 48-page Activity Book, and Poster Set that clearly organizes and defines the "ph" words of reading: phonological processing, phonological awareness, phonemic awareness and phonics. Fifty-three group and individual activities provide a host of teaching ideas for anyone involved in helping pre-readers. Plus, *Funnel Toward Phonics* meets IDEA and No Child Left Behind requirements.

Courtesy of:
www.superduperinc.com

The Phonological Awareness Kit

The Phonological Awareness Kit is designed as a direct instruction supplement to any regular classroom reading program. The goal of this program is to enable students to solve the phoneme/grapheme code of the English language, resulting in improvement of word attack and spelling skills. It provides a multi-sensory way of teaching.

> **Program:** The Phonological Awareness Book-Primary from 1995
> **Publisher Source:** LinguiSystems, Inc.
> **Educational Level:** K – 3
> **Authors:** Carolyn Robertson and Wanda Salter

PALS (Peer Assisted Learning Strategies)

Peer Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS) is a class-wide peer-tutoring program providing supplemental practice and instruction on key reading skills. *K-PALS* focuses on phonemic awareness, alphabetic principle and sight word reading. *First Grade PALS* focuses on alphabetic principle, fluency and sight word reading. *Second-Eighth Grade PALS* focuses on fluency and accuracy in connected text and reading comprehension strategies

of summarization, main idea and predication. *High School PALS* focuses on Fluency and comprehension skills within the context of a career, job oriented structure. Lessons are provided to train students to be "readers and coaches." Students are taught correction procedures and instructional cues. *K=8 PALS* can be used in general or special educational classrooms. *High School PALS* has only been validated in special education and remedial settings.

> **Program**: PALS (Peer Assisted Learning Strategies)
> **Publisher/Source**: Vanderbilt University
> **Educational level**: K, 1, 2-6, 7-12
> **Author**: Lynn and Doug Fuchs

Reading Mastery

Reading Mastery I teaches basic decoding and comprehension skills. Intensive, explicit phonics instruction helps use the words immediately as they read stories. *Reading Master II* expands basic reading skills. Strategies for decoding difficult words and answering interpretive comprehension questions are introduced. *Reading Mastery III* focuses on the development of reasoning skills, building background knowledge and higher order comprehension skills. *Reading Mastery IV* continues to stress reasoning and reference skills and the development of higher-level comprehension skills. *Reading Master V* focuses on building students' understanding of literature, literary language and analysis, reasoning strategies and extends writing are incorporated with story selection. *Reading Mastery VI* helps students gain insight into literary language and a variety of literary strategies.

> **Program**: Reading Mastery (Rainbow)
> **Publisher/Source**: Science Research Associates
> **Educational Level**: Grades K -6
> **Author**: Siegfied Engelmann et al

Read Well

Read Well is a reading program that combines systematic phonics, mastery=based learning and rich content. From the beginning, children develop strong decoding sills, comprehension strategies and sophisticated content knowledge. *Read Well* systematically introduces and reviews skills and strategies. It utilizes narrative and expository content that piques learner interest. A teacher/student "duet story format" and students "solo story format" promote student reading independence while ensuring education and enjoyable material. Reading and writing activities include story maps, story retells and guided reports. *Read Well* stories are scaffolded

to support increasing independent reading by students. As students gain independent reading skills, student-read text gradually increases and teacher-read text is gradually withdrawn.

> **Program**: Read Well
> **Publisher/Source**: Sopris West
> **Educational Level**: First, Special Education 2nd and 3rd. Current version
>   appropriate for some kindergarten students
> **Author**: Marilyn Sprick

Sound Partners

Sound Partners is phonics-based tutoring program that provides individual explicit instruction in early reading skills to students who need it most. The program was specifically developed to reduce the number of students identified with reading disabilities by supplementing reading instruction for: first graders at highest risk of reading failure, second and third graders below grade level in reading and students just learning the English language.

> **Program:** Sound Partners
> **Publisher Source:** Sopris West
> **Educational Level:** 1-3 and ESL
> **Author:** Patricia Vadasy

Courtesy of:
http://www.wri-edu.org/partners/sound-partners.htm

READING INTERVENTIONS: VOCABULARY

Vocabulary refers to:

* the words we must know to communicate effectively.
* **Oral** vocabulary refers to words that we use in speaking or recognize in listening.
* **Reading** vocabulary refers to words we recognize or use in print.

Vocabulary is important because:

* beginning readers use their oral vocabulary to make sense of the words they see in print.
* readers must know what most of the words mean before they can understand what they are reading.

Courtesy of:
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

Vocabulary
Least Intensive Interventions

❖ **Teaching specific words before reading helps both vocabulary learning and reading comprehension.**
Before students read a text, it is helpful to teach them specific words they will see in the text. Teaching important vocabulary before reading can help students both learn new words and comprehend the text.

❖ **Extended instruction that promotes active engagement with vocabulary improves word learning.**
Children learn words best when they are provided with instruction over an extended period of time and when that instruction has them work actively with the words. The more students use new words and the more they use them in different contexts, the more likely they are to learn the words.

❖ **Repeated exposure to vocabulary in many contexts aids word learning.**
Students learn new words better when they encounter them often and in various contexts. The more children see, hear, and work with specific words, the better they seem to learn them. When teachers provide extended instruction that promotes active engagement, they give students repeated exposure to new words. When the students read those same words in their texts, they increase their exposure to the new words.

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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An Example of Classroom Instruction
Teaching Specific Words

A teacher plans to have his third-grade class read the novel *Stone Fox*, by John Reynolds Gardiner. In this novel, a young boy enters a dogsled race in hopes of winning prize money to pay the taxes on his grandfather's farm. The teacher knows that understanding the concept of taxes is important to understanding the novel's plot. Therefore, before his students begin reading the novel, the teacher may do several things to make sure that they understand what the concept means and why it is important to the story.

Example:
- engage students in a discussion of the concept of taxes; and/or
- read a sentence from the book that contains the word taxes and ask students to use context and their prior knowledge to try to figure out what it means.

To solidify their understanding of the word, the teacher might ask students to use taxes in their own sentences.

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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An Example of Classroom Instruction
Word Learning Strategies

Of course, it is not possible for teachers to provide specific instruction for all the words their students do not know. Therefore, students also need to be able to determine the meaning of words that are new to them but not taught directly to them. They need to develop effective word-learning strategies. Word-learning strategies include:

(1) how to use dictionaries and other reference aids to learn word meanings and to deepen knowledge of word meanings;
(2) how to use information about word parts to figure out the meanings of words in text; and
(3) how to use context clues to determine word meanings.

Using dictionaries and other reference aids. Students must learn how to use dictionaries, glossaries and thesauruses to help broaden and deepen their knowledge of words, even though these resources can be difficult to use.

Using information about word parts. Breaking words down into prefixes and suffixes will assist the student in determining meanings of words. For example, bi = two, hydro = water, ous = full and re = again.

Using context clues. Searching for clues in the text (i.e., pictures and surrounding words) will assist in deciphering the meaning of unknown words.

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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An Example of Classroom Instruction
Extended and Active Engagement With Vocabulary

A first-grade teacher wants to help her students understand the concept of *jobs,* which is part of her social studies curriculum. Over a period of time, the teacher engages students in exercises in which they work repeatedly with the meaning of the concept of jobs. The students have many opportunities to see and actively use the word in various contexts that reinforce its meaning.

The teacher begins by asking the students what they already know about jobs and by having them give examples of jobs their parents have. The class might have a discussion about the jobs of different people who work at the school.

The teacher then reads the class a simple book about jobs. The book introduces the idea that different jobs help people meet their needs, and that jobs either provide goods or services. The book does not use the words *goods* and *services,* rather it uses the verbs *makes* and *helps.*

The teacher then asks the students to make up sentences describing their parents' jobs by using the verbs *makes* and *helps* (e.g., "My mother is a doctor. She helps sick people get well.")

Next, the teacher asks students to brainstorm other jobs. Together, they decide whether the jobs are "making jobs" or "helping jobs." The job names are placed under the appropriate headings on a bulletin board. They might also suggest jobs that do not fit neatly into either category.

The teacher might then ask the students to share whether they think they would like to have a making or a helping job when they grow up.

The teacher next asks the students to talk with their parents about jobs. She tells them to try to bring to class two new examples of jobs – one making job and one helping job.

As the students come across different jobs throughout the year (for example, through reading books, on field trips, through classroom guests), they can add the jobs to the appropriate categories on the bulletin board.

Repeated exposure to words: A second-grade class is reading a biography of Benjamin Franklin. The biography discusses Franklin's important role as a scientist. The teacher wants to make sure that her students understand the meaning of the words *science* and *scientist,* both because the words are important to understanding the biography and because they are obviously very useful words to know in school and in everyday life.

At every opportunity, therefore, the teacher draws her students' attention to the words. She points out the words *scientist* and *science* in textbooks and reading selections, particularly in her science curriculum. She has students use the words in their own writing, especially during science instruction.

She also asks them to listen for and find in print the words as they are used outside of the classroom – in newspapers, magazines, at museums, in television shows and movies, or on the Internet.

Then, as they read the biography, she discusses with students in what ways Benjamin Franklin was a scientist and what science meant in his time.

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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An Example of Classroom Instruction Using Word Parts

Knowing some common prefixes and suffixes (affixes), base words, and root words can help students learn the meanings of many new words. For example, if students learn just the four most common prefixes in English (un-, re-, in-, dis-), they will have important clues about the meaning of about two thirds of all English words that have prefixes. Prefixes are relatively easy to learn because they have clear meanings (for example, un- means not and re- means again); they are usually spelled the same way from word to word; and, of course, they always occur at the beginnings of words.

Learning suffixes can be more challenging than learning prefixes. This is because some suffixes have more abstract meanings than do prefixes. For example, learning that the suffix -ness means "the state or quality of" might not help students figure out the meaning of kindness. Other suffixes, however, are more helpful.

For example, -less, which means "without" (hopeless, thoughtless); and -ful, which means "full of" (hopeful, thoughtful). Latin and Greek word roots are found commonly in content-area school subjects, especially in the subjects of science and social studies. As a result, Latin and Greek word parts form a large proportion of the new vocabulary that students encounter in their content-area textbooks. Teachers should teach the word roots as they occur in the texts students read. Furthermore, teachers should teach primarily those root words that students are likely to see often.

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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An Example of Classroom Instruction
Using Dictionaries and Other Reference Aids

As his class reads a text, a second-grade teacher discovers that many of his students do not know the meaning of the word *board,* as in the sentence, "The children were waiting to board the buses." The teacher demonstrates how to find *board* in the classroom dictionary, showing students that there are four different definitions for the word. He reads the definitions one at a time and the class discusses whether each definition would fit the context of the sentence. The students easily eliminate the inappropriate definitions of *board,* and settle on the definition, "to get on a train, an airplane, a bus, or a ship."

The teacher next has students substitute the most likely definition for *board* in the original sentence to verify that it is, "The children were waiting to get on the buses" that makes the best sense.

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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Word parts

Word parts include *affixes* (prefixes and suffixes), *base words* and *word roots.*

Affixes are word parts that are "fixed to" either the beginnings of words (prefixes) or the ending of words (suffixes). The word *disrespectful* has two affixes, a prefix (*dis-*) and a suffix (*-ful*).

Base words are words from which many other words are formed.
For example, many words can be formed from the base word *migrate: migration, migrant, immigration, immigrant, migrating, migratory.*

Word roots are the words from other languages that are the origin of many English words. About 60% of all English words have Latin or Greek origins.

Example of Using Word Parts:
▪ A second-grade teacher wants to teach her students how to use the base word *play* as a way to help them think about the meanings of new words they will encounter in reading. To begin, she has students brainstorm all the words or phrases they can think of that are related to *play.* The teacher records their suggestions: *player, playful, playpen, ballplayer,* and *playing field.* Then she has the class discuss the meaning of each of their proposed words and how it relates to *play.*

Example of Using Word Parts:

- A third-grade teacher identifies the base word *note.* He then sets up a "word wall," and writes the word *note* at the top of the wall. As his students read, the teacher has them look for words that are related to *note* and add them to the wall. Throughout their reading, they gradually add to the wall the words *notebook, notation, noteworthy,* and *notable.*

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

An Example of Classroom Instruction Using Context Clues

Context clues are hints about the meaning of an unknown word that are provided in the words, phrases and sentences that surround the word. Context clues include definitions, restatements, examples or descriptions. Because students learn most word meanings indirectly, or from context, it is important that they learn to use context clues effectively.

Not all contexts are helpful, however. Some contexts give little information about a word's meaning. An example of an unhelpful context is the sentence, "We heard the back door open, and then recognized the buoyant footsteps of Uncle Larry." A number of possible meanings of buoyant could fit this context, including heavy, lively, noisy, familiar, dragging, plodding, and so on. Instruction in using context clues as a word-learning strategy should include the idea that some contexts are more helpful than others.

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

An Example of Classroom Instruction
Using Context Clues

In a third-grade class, the teacher models how to use context clues to determine word meanings as follows:

Student *(reading the text):* When the cat pounced on the dog, the dog jumped up, yelping, and knocked over a lamp, which crashed to the floor. The animals ran past Tonia, tripping her. She fell to the floor and began sobbing. Tonia's brother Felix yelled at the animals to stop. As the noise and confusion mounted, Mother hollered upstairs, "What's all that _commotion_?"

Teacher: The context of the paragraph helps us determine what _commotion_ means. There's yelping and crashing, sobbing and yelling. And then the last sentence says, "as the _noise_ and _confusion_ mounted." The author's use of the words noise and confusion gives us a very strong clue as to what _commotion_ means. In fact, the author is really giving us a definition there, because _commotion_ means something that's noisy and confusing – a disturbance. Mother was right; there was definitely a _commotion_!

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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Indirect Learning of Vocabulary

You can encourage indirect learning of vocabulary in two main ways. First, read aloud to your students, no matter what grade you teach. Students of all ages can learn words from hearing texts of various kinds read to them. Reading aloud works best when you discuss the selection before, during and after you read. Talk with students about new vocabulary and concepts and help them relate the words to their prior knowledge and experiences.

The second way to promote indirect learning of vocabulary is to encourage students to read extensively on their own. Rather than allocating instructional time for independent reading in the classroom, however, encourage your students to read more outside of school. Of course, your students also can read on their own during independent work time in the classroom – for example, while you teach another small group or after students have completed one activity and are waiting for a new activity to begin.

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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Words to Teach

You won't be able to directly teach your students all the words in a text that they might not already know. In fact, there are several reasons why you should not directly teach all unknown words.

- The text may have a great many words that are unknown to students – too many for direct instruction.
- Direct vocabulary instruction can take a lot of class time – time that you might better spend on having your students read.
- Your students can understand most texts without knowing the meaning of every word in the text.
- Your students need opportunities to use word-learning strategies to learn on their own the meanings of unknown words.

You will probably be able to teach thoroughly only a few new words (perhaps eight or ten) per week, so you need to choose the words you teach carefully. Focus on teaching three types of words:

Important words. When you teach words before students read a text, directly teach those words that are important for understanding a concept or the text. Your students might not know several other words in the selection, but you will not have time to teach them all. Of course, you should prepare your students to use word-learning strategies to figure out the meanings of other words in the text.

Useful words. Teach words that students are likely to see and use again and again. For example, it is probably more useful for students to learn the word *fragment* than the word *fractal*; likewise, the word *revolve* is more useful than the word *gyrate.*

Difficult words. Provide some instruction for words that are particularly difficult for your students.

Words with multiple meanings are particularly challenging for students. Students may have a hard time understanding that words with the same spelling and/or pronunciation can have different meanings, depending on their context. Looking up words with multiple meanings in the dictionary can cause confusion for students. They see a number of different definitions listed, and they often have a difficult time deciding which definition fits the context. You will have to help students determine which definition they should choose.

Idiomatic expressions also can be difficult for students, especially for students who are English language learners. Because idiomatic expressions do not mean what the individual words usually mean, you often will need to explain to students expressions such as "hard hearted," "a chip off the old block," "drawing a blank," or "get the picture."

> **Examples**
> **Multiple-meaning words that can be difficult for students:**
> - ❖ Words that are spelled the same but are pronounced differently
>   - o *sow* (a female pig); *sow* (to plant seeds)
>   - o *bow* (a knot with loops); *bow* (the front of a ship)
> - ❖ Words that are spelled and pronounced the same, but have different meanings
>   - o *mail* (letters, cards, and packages); *mail* (a type of armor)
>   - o *ray* (a narrow beam of light); *ray* (a type of fish); *ray* (part of a line)

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
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Mnemonic Vocabulary Instruction

First-Letter Mnemonic Strategy is a strategy for independently approaching large bodies of information that need to be mastered. Specifically, students identify lists of information that are important to learn, generate an appropriate title or label for each set of information, select a mnemonic device for each set of information, create study cards and use the study cards to learn the information. Extracted from Strategic Instruction Model: Learning Strategies and Teaching Routines, The University of Kansas Center for Research on Learning, www.kucrl.org, 1999-2001, September, 2001

Courtesy of:
http://www.kucrl.org/htmlfiles/simbrochure.pdf - 2004-10-25
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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Generative Vocabulary Strategies

Background:
Students learn to locate, select and learn words to add to their vocabulary knowledge.

Overview:
These strategies build word awareness and vocabulary knowledge by requiring students to make a personal construction of meaning. Teachers may select the words for instructional purposes or students may select their own words. Three common generative vocabulary strategies are Possible Sentences (Moore & Moore, 1986), Keyword Strategy (Levin, Levin, Glasman, &

Nordwall, 1992) and Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy, or VSS (Haggard, 1982). The procedures follow:

Possible Sentences:
1. Teachers list and pronounce 6-8 new vocabulary words central to the major concepts to be learned that are adequately defined by context within the upcoming text. They also present several related terms from the text that students should already know.
2. Students, individually or in groups, use at least two words from the list to write "possible sentences" that they think may be in the text. It does not matter at this point if their sentences are incorrect.
3. Students read and find the targeted vocabulary to verify/correct their predictions.
4. Students evaluate their sentences for accuracy and amend them to reflect the meaning gained from the text.
5. Students generate new sentences using the targeted vocabulary and use the text to defend their choices.

Keyword Strategy: This strategy builds on mnemonic devices and visual images to define new words.
1. Teachers review students on the meanings of new vocabulary words and ask them to create personal, visual images to help them remember the meaning.
2. Students create memorable images and discuss them with one another and with teachers.
3. Words and their images are recorded in a vocabulary notebook.

Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy (VSS):
1. Students reading a common text each select a word they consider important that should be shared with the class.
2. Teacher and students present the words, defining them from context. They may clarify and expand on definitions and a dictionary or thesaurus may be consulted for final clarification. Students also present reasons to support why they believe their word is important for understanding the text.
3. Once all words are explored, a final list is made of those the group considers to be the most important for understanding. Students record these words in vocabulary journals.
4. Follow-up activities ensure that words are learned.

Courtesy of:
http://www.sedl.org/cgi-bin/mysql/buildingreading.cgi?showrecord=23&l=description

Vocabulary
Moderate/Intensive Interventions

PALS (Peer Assisted Learning Strategies)

Peer Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS) is a class-wide peer-tutoring program providing supplemental practice and instruction on key reading skills. *K-PALS* focuses on phonemic awareness, alphabetic principle and sight word reading. *First Grade PALS* focuses on alphabetic principle, fluency and sight word reading. *Second-Eighth Grade PALS* focuses on fluency and accuracy in connected text and reading comprehension strategies of summarization, main idea and predication. *High School PALS* focuses on Fluency and comprehension skills within the context of a career, job oriented structure. Lessons are provided to train students to be "readers and coaches." Students are taught correction procedures and instructional cues. *K-8 PALS* can be used in general or special educational classrooms. *High School PALS* has only been validated in special education and remedial settings.

> **Program**: PALS (Peer Assisted Learning Strategies)
> **Publisher/Source**: Vanderbilt University
> **Educational level**: K, 1, 2-6, 7-12
> **Author**: Lynn and Doug Fuchs

QuickReads

QuickReads is a research-based fluency program that features short, high interest nonfiction texts designed to be read quickly and meaningfully. It is designed for students who read at grade levels 2 – 4. *QuickReads* can improve fluency, comprehension, background knowledge and vocabulary.

QuickReads has a classroom-validated instructional routine that takes 15 minutes and is done with students daily. *QuickReads* promotes fluent reading by:
- o. Supporting automaticity through the use of grade level, high frequency words and phonics/syllabic patterns necessary for success at each grade level.
- 1. Developing content-rich vocabulary, consistent comprehension strategies and critical background knowledge.
- 2. Helping students learn more about critical curriculum areas with a focus on social studies and science.
- 3. Helping students build background knowledge by reading five connected text passages around one topic.
- 4. Modeling fluent reading by teacher model.

Evidence of Positive Effects on Reading Achievement: Field-testing in classrooms demonstrated significant fluency gains for both native English speakers as well as English language learners. For additional information see website: www.textproject.org

Local evidence of positive effects: Local School districts within Heartland have data available on fluency gains of students.

> **Program**: QuickReads
> **Source/Publisher**: Pearson Learning
> **Educational Level**: 2nd – 4th grade and remedial 5th – 7th
> **Educational Level**: 2nd – 4th grade and remedial 5th – 7th
> **Author**:   Alfrieda Hiebart

READING INTERVENTIONS: FLUENCY

Fluency is the ability to read a text accurately and quickly. When fluent readers read silently, they recognize words automatically. They group words quickly to help them gain meaning from what they read. Fluent readers read aloud effortlessly and with expression. Their reading sounds natural, as if they are speaking. Readers who have not yet developed fluency read slowly, word by word. Their oral reading is choppy and plodding.

Fluency is important because it provides a bridge between word recognition and comprehension. Because fluent readers do not have to concentrate on decoding the words, they can focus their attention on what the text means. They can make connections among the ideas in the text and between the text and their background knowledge. In other words, fluent readers recognize words and comprehend at the same time. Less fluent readers, however, must focus their attention on figuring out the words, leaving them little attention for understanding the text.

Courtesy of:
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

Fluency
Least Intensive Interventions

Silent Reading

Reading fluency growth is greatest when students are working directly with you. Therefore, you should use most of your allocated reading instruction time for direct teaching of reading skills and strategies. Although silent, independent reading may be a way to increase fluency and reading achievement, it should not be used in place of direct instruction in reading.

Direct instruction is especially important for readers who are struggling. Readers who have not yet attained fluency are not likely to make effective and efficient use of silent, independent reading time. For these students, independent reading takes time away from needed reading instruction.

Rather than allocating instructional time for independent reading in the classroom, encourage your students to read more outside of school. They can read with an adult or other family member. Or, they can read on their own with books at their independent reading level. Of course, students might also read on their own during independent work time in the classroom – for example, as another small group is receiving reading instruction, or after they have completed one activity and are waiting for a new activity to begin.

When should fluency instruction begin? When should it end?

Fluency instruction is useful when students are not automatic at recognizing the words in their texts. How can you tell when students are not automatic? There is a strong indication that a student needs fluency instruction:

* if you ask the student to read orally from a text that he or she has not practiced; and the student makes more than ten percent word recognition errors;
* if the student cannot read orally with expression; or
* if the student's comprehension is poor for the text that she or he reads orally.

Is increasing word recognition skills sufficient for developing fluency?

Isolated word recognition is a necessary but not sufficient condition for fluent reading. Throughout much of the twentieth century, it was widely assumed that fluency was the result of word recognition proficiency. Instruction, therefore, focused primarily on the development of word recognition. In recent years, however, research has shown that fluency is a separate component of reading that can be developed through instruction.

Having students review and rehearse word lists (for example, by using flash cards) may improve their ability to recognize the words in isolation, but this ability may not transfer to words presented in actual texts. Developing reading fluency in texts must be developed systematically.

Courtesy of:
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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Modeling Fluent Reading

Researchers have found several effective techniques related to repeated oral reading:

❖ students read and reread a text a certain number of times or until a certain level of fluency is reached. Four rereadings are sufficient for most students; and

❖ oral reading practice is increased through the use of audiotapes, tutors, peer guidance or other means.

In addition, some effective repeated oral reading techniques have carefully designed feedback to guide the reader's performance.

Model fluent reading, then have students reread the text on their own.

❖ **By listening to good models of fluent reading, students learn how a reader's voice can help written text make sense.** Read aloud daily to your students. By reading effortlessly and with expression, you are modeling for your students how a fluent reader sounds during reading.

❖ **After you model how to read the text, you must have the students reread it.** By doing this, the students are engaging in repeated reading. Usually, having students read a text four times is sufficient to improve fluency. Remember, however, that instructional time is limited, and it is the actual time that students are actively engaged in reading that produces reading gains.

❖ **Have other adults read aloud to students.** Encourage parents or other family members to read aloud to their children at home. The more models of fluent reading the children hear, the better. Of course, hearing a model of fluent reading is not the only benefit of reading aloud to children. Reading to children also increases their knowledge of the world, their vocabulary, their familiarity with written language ("book language"), and their interest in reading.

❖ **Have students repeatedly read passages aloud with guidance.** The best strategy for developing reading fluency is to provide your students with many opportunities to read the same passage orally several times. To do this, you should first know what to have your students read. Second, you should know how to have your students read aloud repeatedly.

Example:

In the primary grades, you might read aloud from a big book. A big book is an enlarged version of a commercially published book – big enough so that all students can clearly see the text. By pointing to each word as you are reading (using either a pointer or your finger), you can show students where and how you are pausing and how the text shows you when to raise or lower your voice. Occasionally, you can also explain to your students why you are reading in a certain way:

Teacher: Did you hear how I grouped the words "Brown bear/ brown bear"?
                  That's because the words brown and bear belong together.
                  And then I paused a little before repeating the words.

Teacher: Did you hear how my voice got louder and more excited right here?
                  That's because the author put in this exclamation mark (point to it) to show that the speaker was excited or enthusiastic about what she was saying.

Then, have the students practice reading the same text.

Independent level text
Relatively easy text for the reader, with no more than approximately 1 in 20 words difficult for the reader (95% success)

Instructional level text
Challenging but manageable text for the reader, with no more than approximately 1 in 10 words difficult for the reader (90% success)

Frustration level text
Difficult text for the reader, with more than 1 in 10 words difficult for the reader (less than 90% success)

Oral ReReading

Fluency develops as a result of many opportunities to practice reading with a high degree of success. Therefore, your students should practice orally rereading text that is reasonably easy for them – that is, text containing mostly words that they know or can decode easily. In other words, the texts should be at the students' independent reading level. A text is at students' independent reading level if they can read it with about 95% accuracy, or misread only about 1 of every 20 words. If the text is more difficult, students will focus so much on word recognition that they will not have an opportunity to develop fluency.

The text your students practice rereading orally should also be relatively short – probably 50-200 words, depending on the age of the students. You should also use a variety of reading materials, including stories, nonfiction and poetry. Poetry is especially well suited to fluency practice because poems for children are often short and they contain rhythm, rhyme and meaning, making practice easy, fun and rewarding.

How to have your students read aloud repeatedly. There are several ways that your students can practice orally rereading text, including student-adult reading, choral (or unison) reading, tape-assisted reading, partner reading and readers' theatre.

❖ **Student-adult reading.** In student-adult reading, the student reads one-on-one with an adult. The adult can be you, a parent, a classroom aide or a tutor. The adult reads the text first, providing the students with a model of fluent reading. Then the student reads the same passage to the adult with the adult providing assistance and encouragement. The student rereads the passage until the reading is quite fluent. This should take approximately three to four rereadings.

❖ **Choral reading.** In choral, or unison, reading, students read along as a group with you (or another fluent adult reader). Of course, to do so, students must be able to see the same text that you are reading. They might follow along as you read from a big book or they might read from their own copy of the book you are reading. For choral reading, choose a book that is not too long and that you think is at the independent reading level of most students. Patterned or predictable books are particularly useful for choral reading, because their repetitious style invites students to join in. Begin by reading the book aloud as you model fluent reading. Then reread the book and invite students to join in as they recognize the words you are reading. Continue rereading the book, encouraging students to read along as they are able. Students should read the book with you three to five times total (though not necessarily on the same day). At this time, students should be able to read the text independently.

❖ **Tape-assisted reading.** In tape-assisted reading, students read along in their books as they hear a fluent reader read the book on an audiotape. For tape-assisted reading, you need a book at a student's independent reading level and a tape recording of the book read by a fluent reader at about 80-100 words per minute. The tape should not have

sound effects or music. For the first reading, the student should follow along with the tape, pointing to each word in her or his book as the reader reads it. Next, the student should try to read aloud along with the tape. Reading along with the tape should continue until the student is able to read the book independently, without the support of the tape.

❖ **Partner reading.** In partner reading, paired students take turns reading aloud to each other. For partner reading, more fluent readers can be paired with less fluent readers. The stronger reader reads a paragraph or page first, providing a model of fluent reading. Then the less fluent reader reads the same text aloud. The stronger student gives help with word recognition and provides feedback and encouragement to the less fluent partner. The less fluent partner rereads the passage until he or she can read it independently. Partner reading need not be done with a more and less fluent reader. In another form of partner reading, children who read at the same level are paired to reread a story that they have received instruction on during a teacher-guided part of the lesson. Two readers of equal ability can practice rereading after hearing the teacher read the passage.

❖ **Readers' theatre.** In readers' theatre, students rehearse and perform a play for peers or others. They read from scripts that have been derived from books that are rich in dialogue. Students play characters who speak lines or a narrator who shares necessary background information. Readers' theatre provides readers with a legitimate reason to reread text and to practice fluency. Readers' theatre also promotes cooperative interaction with peers and makes the reading task appealing.

Buddy Reading

❖ <u>**Familiar Reading**</u>. Students reread familiar stories or dictations. This material should be at each student's independent reading level. This rereading helps support recognition of familiar words that will then be carried over into reading other books and into writing. Familiar reading helps students to improve their fluency and confidence.

❖ <u>**New Reading**</u>. Students read new books that have a minimum of new learning in them. New books are read with a good deal of support from the tutor or teacher. New reading also includes a personal dictation about an experience. Here, the student dictates a few sentences to the tutor who writes them down or types them on a computer. The dictation is then reread and the printed version is placed in a folder for further practice.

❖ <u>**Write With**</u>. Students either write with support or write independently as needed. These writing activities are important, as work done in writing supports reading development just as reading supports writing development.

❖ <u>Word Study</u>. Students learn how to work with letters, sounds and words to discover and reflect upon patterns. Activities include word banks, picture and word sorts and word study games.

❖ <u>Read To</u>. Students are read books that are too difficult for them to read without help. The books read are also of interest to the students and may serve as a point of discussion to be followed by writing or word study activities. This reading also serves to model fluent and expressive reading and helps to develop a love for stories and reading.

Courtesy of:
http://library.thinkquest.org/J001156/helpothers/cp_buddyreading.htm

Fluency
Moderate/Intensive Interventions

Read Naturally

The *Read Naturally* strategy provides a method to improve reading fluency in struggling readers. *Read Naturally* combines three powerful strategies to improve fluency: teacher modeling, repeated reading and progress monitoring. The *Read Naturally* strategy results in significant improvement in the reading fluency of students. Students often experience an increase in their confidence and self-esteem while using the strategy. The *Read Naturally* strategy is primarily an independent practice for the student and takes about ten minutes after it becomes routine.

> **Program:** Read Naturally From (1991)
> **Publisher Source:** Read Naturally, Inc.
> **Educational Level:** Grades 1 - 8
> **Authors:** Candyce Ihnot & Tom Ihnot

Courtesy of:
http://www.readnaturally.com

Dyad or Buddy Reading

In *Buddy Reading*, a person [or a parent] who knows how to read well reads with a person [or a child] who can't read as well. Together they choose a book that isn't too hard and find a good spot to read.

Buddy Reading helps the person who can't read as well hear the sounds of words when someone else reads with them. When they learn the sounds of the words better, they are able to figure out the pronunciation of the words. The better reader helps the other reader as they read the book together. The readers can take turns reading, or read the words together. The better reader can help with pronunciation, the meaning of words and understanding the story. They can ask questions as they read. The buddy can give clues when the student reader gets stuck on a word.

Questions like:
1. "What sound does the word start with?"
2. "What word would make sense there?"
3. "Does that sound right?"
4. "Will the picture help you?"

The better reader might ask questions about the story like:
1. "Who are the characters?"
2. "Where does the story take place?"
3. "What problem does the character have?"
4. "What kind of trouble is in the story?"
5. "How is the problem fixed?"
6. "Tell me what is happening in the story so far."

Anyone can help people who can't read by reading to them, or reading with them and when they stumble on a word, you can help them sound out the word. A good reader always uses at least two strategies before giving the word to the reader who is learning.

When you read to your buddy:
1. Practice reading aloud by yourself a few times.
2. Make your buddy feel comfortable and welcome.
3. Sit side by side.
4. Let your buddy hold the book!
5. Talk about the title and the author.
6. Look through the pictures – let your buddy predict what will happen.
7. Encourage your buddy to ask questions and point out details.
8. Stop and talk about the characters and events from time to time.
9. When you finish reading, ask about his favorite part or character and tell him your favorite, too!

Reading Buddy Strategies:
These are some things you can try with your little buddy to help them read.
1. Read Aloud – read to your buddy, but make sure he look at the words while you're reading!
2. Echo Reading – First, you read a sentence or paragraph, then let your buddy read the same sentence or paragraph.
3. Choral Reading – Read at the same time – out loud!
4. Take Turns Reading – first you read a sentence or paragraph, then let your buddy read the next one.

When Your Buddy Gets Stuck:
Here are some things you should try when your buddy can't figure out a word.
1. Wait - give them a chance to figure it out by themselves!
2. Tell them to look at the pictures for clues about the story.
3. Ask them what would make sense.
4. Skip the word, and read the rest of the sentence.
5. Have them look for words or patterns they recognize.
6. Have them look for letters or sounds they recognize.
7. Give them a choice – is it this or that?
8. Once they know the word, have them reread the sentence.

9. Never make your buddy feel bad because he can't figure out the word.
10. Most of all, praise your buddy!

     You can say things like:
     - I like the way you read that!
     - I like how you got the first sounds of that word!
     - You're really smart – you figured it out all by yourself!

Courtesy of:
http://library.thinkquest.org/J001156/helpothers/cp_buddyreading.htm

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Reading Buddies Small group

The small group model uses a combination of whole group and small group activities. Whole group activities include reading aloud providing an interesting writing stimulus, sharing our writing and support activities like choral reading and rereading group experience charts. Small group activities include familiar reading, new reading, writing with and word study. Small group instruction is conducted with approximately three students per teacher or tutor.

A program designed for small group tutoring accommodates approximately 15 children per session. Implementation of this program requires two teacher coordinators, or one teacher coordinator and a school liaison who coordinates activities with the school and families and helps to coordinate instruction. Three tutors and university education students are needed in the small group configuration.

Courtesy of:
http://www.unr.edu/sb204/CLL/whatis.htm

Reading Buddies One-on-One

Personnel required for this model are one teacher to serve as coordinator and enough tutors to staff one-to-one tutoring. Tutors work with students 30 minutes each day, or for longer periods of time two or three days per week. This model allows for extensive individualized instruction. Activities are similar to those conducted in the small group model. Most tutors pick up a second child and tutor two children individually.

Courtesy of:
http://www.unr.edu/sb204/CLL/whatis.htm

Ravenscourt Books/Fluency Research
Why Fluency Matters

Reading fluency develops over time and requires practice. For reading practice to be effective, the student should read passages with 85% or better accuracy. Comprehension is highly dependent upon word recognition and fluency skills. When the stories are at the same reading level, comprehension gains on practiced text carry over to new, unpracticed text.

1. Rereading the same passage significantly increases reading rate and comprehension.
2. Feedback concerning the accuracy and rate of reading helps students acquire fluency.
3. Practicing one passage to a set rate of reading speed leads to increases of speed and accuracy in unpracticed passages.
4. Using a read-along or model approach is appropriate when children are reading with few errors but at a slow rate.
5. Repeated oral reading with the use of audiotapes, peer or adult assistance or other feedback increases fluency.

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>   **<u>Program</u>**: QuickReads
>   **<u>Source/Publisher</u>**: Pearson Learning
>   **<u>Educational Level</u>**: 2nd – 4th grade and remedial 5th – 7th
>   **<u>Educational Level</u>**: 2nd – 4th grade and remedial 5th – 7th
>   **<u>Author</u>**:   Alfrieda Hiebart

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REWARDS
(Reading Excellence: Word Attack and Rate Development Strategies)

The **REWARDS** method is a flexible strategy to move students from early elementary reading level to on of increased fluency and comprehension. Many student having mastered basic readings skills have difficulty with multisyllabic words. The **REWARDS** method of decoding words by segmenting their parts is key to this program. It has been field tested with positive results in intensive remedial programs as well as in general and special education classrooms.

>   **<u>Program</u>**: REWARDS (Reading Excellence: Word Attack and Rate Development Strate3gies)
>   **<u>Publisher/Source</u>**: Sopris West
>   **<u>Education level</u>**: Grades 3-7
>   **<u>Author</u>**: Anita Archer

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> **Program**: PALS (Peer Assisted Learning Strategies)
> **Publisher/Source**: Vanderbilt University
> **Educational level**: K, 1, 2-6, 7-12
> **Author**: Lynn and Doug Fuchs

READING INTERVENTIONS: TEXT COMPREHENSION

Text comprehension is important because comprehension is the reason for reading. It is both purposeful and active and can be developed by teaching various comprehension strategies. These strategies can be taught through explicit instruction, cooperative learning and by helping readers use strategies flexibly and in combination.

Courtesy of:
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

Text Comprehension
Least Intensive Interventions

Using graphic and semantic organizers

Graphic organizers illustrate concepts and interrelationships among concepts in a text, using diagrams or other pictorial devices. Graphic organizers are known by different names, such as maps, webs, graphs, charts, frames or clusters. Semantic organizers (also called semantic maps or semantic webs) are graphic organizers that look somewhat like a spider web. In a semantic organizer, lines connect a central concept to a variety of related ideas and events.

Regardless of the label, graphic organizers can help readers focus on concepts and how they are related to other concepts. Graphic organizers help students read to learn from informational text in the content areas, such as science and social studies textbooks and trade books. Used with informational text, graphic organizers can help students see how concepts fit common text structures. Graphic organizers are also used with narrative text, or stories, as story maps.

Graphic organizers can:
1. help students focus on text structure as they read;
2. provide students with tools they can use to examine and visually represent relationships in a text; and
3. help students write well-organized summaries of a text.

Answering and Generating Questions

❖ *Answering questions.* Teachers have long used questions to guide and monitor students' learning. Research shows that teacher questioning strongly supports and advances students' learning from reading. Questions appear to be effective for improving learning from reading because they:
1. give students a purpose for reading;
2. focus students' attention on what they are to learn;
3. help students to think actively as they read;
4. encourage students to monitor their comprehension; and
5. help students to review content and relate what they have learned to what they already know.

Question-answering instruction encourages students to learn to answer questions better and, therefore, to learn more as they read. One type of question-answering instruction simply teaches students to look back in the text to find answers to questions that they

cannot answer after the initial reading. Another type helps students understand question-answer relationships – the relationships between questions and where the answers to those questions are found. In this instruction, readers learn to answer questions that require an understanding of information that is:

1. text explicit (stated explicitly in a single sentence);
2. text implicit (implied by information presented in two or more sentences); or
3. scriptal (not found in the text at all, but part of the reader's prior knowledge or experience).

❖ *Generating questions.* Teaching students to ask their own questions improves their active processing of text and their comprehension. By generating questions, students become aware of whether they can answer the questions and if they understand what they are reading. Students learn to ask themselves questions that require them to integrate information from different segments of text. For example, students can be taught to ask main idea questions that relate to important information in a text.

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Examples of Question-Answer Relationships

Text: (from *The Skirt*, by Gary Soto)
> *After stepping off the bus, Miata Ramirez turned around and gasped, "Ay!" The school bus lurched, coughed a puff of stinky exhaust, and made a wide turn at the corner. The driver strained as he worked the steering wheel like the horns of a bull.*
>
> *Miata yelled for the driver to stop. She started running after the bus. Her hair whipped against her shoulders. A large book bag tugged at her arm with each running step, and bead earrings jingled as they banged against her neck.*
>
> *"My skirt!" she cried loudly. "Stop!"*

Question: Did Miata try to get the driver to stop?
Answer: Yes.
Question-Answer Relationship (Text explicit, because the information is given in one sentence):
> *"Miata yelled for the driver to stop."*

Question: Why did Miata want the driver to stop?
Answer: She suddenly remembered that she had left a skirt on the bus.
Question-Answer Relationship (Text implicit, because the information must be inferred from different parts of the text):
> Miata is crying "My skirt!" as she is trying to get the driver to stop.

Question: Was the skirt important to Miata?
Answer: Yes.
Question-Answer Relationship (Scriptal, because the information is not contained in the text, but must be drawn from the reader's prior knowledge):

> She probably would not have tried so hard to get the driver to stop if the skirt were not important to her.

Recognizing Story Structure

❖ *Story Structure.* Story structure refers to the way the content and events of a story are organized into a plot. Students who can recognize story structure have greater appreciation, understanding and memory for stories. In story structure instruction, students learn to identify the categories of content (setting, initiating events, internal reactions, goals, attempts and outcomes) and how this content is organized into a plot. Often, students learn to recognize story structure through the use of story maps. Story maps, a type of graphic organizer, show the sequence of events in simple stories. Instruction in the content and organization of stories improves students' comprehension and memory of stories.

❖ *Summarizing.* A summary is a synthesis of the important ideas in a text. Summarizing requires students to determine what is important in what they are reading, to condense this information and to put it into their own words. Instruction in summarizing helps students:
   1. identify or generate main ideas;
   2. connect the main or central ideas;
   3. eliminate redundant and unnecessary information; and
   4. remember what they read.

❖ *Effective comprehension strategy instruction is explicit, or direct.* Research shows that explicit teaching techniques are particularly effective for comprehension strategy instruction. In explicit instruction, teachers tell readers why and when they should use strategies, what strategies to use and how to apply them. The steps of explicit instruction typically include direct explanation, teacher modeling ("thinking aloud"), guided practice and application.

   ▪ *Direct explanation.* The teacher explains to students why the strategy helps comprehension and when to apply the strategy.
   ▪ *Modeling.* The teacher models, or demonstrates, how to apply the strategy, usually by "thinking aloud" while reading the text that the students are using.
   ▪ *Guided practice.* The teacher guides and assists students as they learn how and when to apply the strategy.

- **Application.** The teacher helps students practice the strategy until they can apply it independently.

❖ *Cooperative Learning.* Cooperative learning (and the closely related concept, collaborative learning) involves students working together as partners or in small groups on clearly defined tasks. Cooperative learning instruction has been used successfully to teach comprehension strategies in content-area subjects. Students work together to understand content-area texts, helping each other learn and apply comprehension strategies. Teachers help students learn to work in groups. Teachers also provide demonstrations of the comprehension strategies and monitor the progress of students.

❖ *Multiple-Strategy Instruction.* Multiple-strategy instruction teaches students how to use strategies flexibly as they are needed to assist their comprehension. In a well-known example of multiple-strategy instruction called "reciprocal teaching," the teacher and students work together so that the students learn four comprehension strategies:
1. asking questions about the text they are reading;
2. summarizing parts of the text;
3. clarifying words and sentences they don't understand; and
4. predicting what might occur next in the text.

Teachers and students use these four strategies flexibly as they are needed in reading literature and informational texts.

❖ *Prior Knowledge.* Good readers draw on prior knowledge and experience to help them understand what they are reading. You can help your students make use of their prior knowledge to improve their comprehension. Before your students read, preview the text with them. As part of previewing, ask the students what they already know about the content of the selection (for example, the topic, the concept or the time period). Ask them what they know about the author and what text structure he or she is likely to use. Discuss the important vocabulary used in the text. Show students some pictures or diagrams to prepare them for what they are about to read.

❖ *Using mental imagery.* Good readers often form mental pictures, or images, as they read. Readers (especially younger readers) who visualize during reading understand and remember what they read better than readers who do not visualize. Help your students learn to form visual images of what they are reading. For example, urge them to picture a setting, character or event described in the text.

Courtesy of:
http://www.nifl.gov/partnershipforreading/publications/reading_first1fluency.html

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Bloom's Taxonomy – Higher Level Questioning

❖ Questioning should be used purposefully to achieve well-defined goals. An instructor should ask questions that will require students to use the thinking skills that he is trying to develop. A system exists for organizing those thinking skills. Bloom's Taxonomy (Benjamin Bloom (ed), Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook I Cognitive Domain (New York: David McKay Co., 1956)) is a hierarchal system of ordering thinking skills from lower to higher, with the higher levels including all of the cognitive skills from the lower levels.

Below are the levels of the taxonomy, a brief explanation of each one, and examples of questions that require students to use thinking skills at each level.

  ❖ Knowledge – Remembering previously learned material, e.g., definitions, concepts, principles, formulas.
    o What is the definition of "verb"?
    o What is the law of supply and demand?
    o What are the stages of cell division?

  ❖ Comprehension – Understanding the meaning of remembered material, usually demonstrated by explaining in one's own words or citing examples.
    o What are some words commonly used as adjectives?
    o What does the graph on page 19 mean?
    o Explain the process of digestion.

  ❖ Application – Using information in a new context to solve a problem, to answer a question or to perform another task. The information used may be rules, principles, formulas, theories, concepts or procedures.
    o Using the procedures we have discussed, what would you include in a summary of Bacon's essay?
    o How does the law of supply and demand explain the current increase in fruit and vegetable prices?
    o Based on your knowledge, what statistical procedure is appropriate for this problem?

  ❖ Analysis – Breaking a piece of material into its parts and explaining the relationship between the parts.
    o What are the major points that E. B. White used to develop the thesis of this essay?
    o What factors in the American economy are affecting the current price of steel?
    o What is the relationship of probability to statistical analysis?

❖ Synthesis – Putting parts together to form a new whole, pattern or structure.
  o How might style of writing and the thesis of a given essay be related?
  o How are long-term and short-term consumer loan interest rates related to the prime rate?
  o How would you proceed if you were going to do an experiment on caloric intake?

❖ Evaluation – Using a set of criteria, established by the student or specified by the instructor, to arrive at a reasoned judgment.
  o Does Hemingway use adjectives effectively to enhance his theme in The Old Man and the Sea?
  o How successful would the proposed federal income tax cut be in controlling inflation as well as decreasing unemployment?
  o How well does the Stillman Diet meet the criteria for an ideal weight reduction plan?

❖ <u>Lower and Higher Level Questions</u>
At times, instead of referring to a specific level of the taxonomy, people refer to "lower-level" and "higher-level" questions or behaviors. Lower-level questions are those at the knowledge, comprehension and simple application levels of the taxonomy. Higher-level questions are those requiring complex application (e.g., analysis, synthesis, and evaluation skills).

Usually questions at the lower levels are appropriate for:
  1. evaluating students' preparation and comprehension.
  2. diagnosing students' strengths and weaknesses.
  3. reviewing and/or summarizing content.

Questions at higher levels of the taxonomy are usually most appropriate for:
  1. encouraging students to think more deeply and critically.
  2. problem solving.
  3. encouraging discussions.
  4. stimulating students to seek information on their own.

Typically, an instructor would vary the level of questions even within a single class period. For example, an instructor might ask the synthesis question, "How can style of writing and the thesis of a given essay be related?" If she gets inadequate or incorrect student response to that question, she might move to questions at a lower level of the taxonomy to check whether students know and understand material. For example, the instructor might ask, "What is the definition of 'thesis statement'?" or "What are some variables in writing style?" If students cannot answer those questions, the instructor might have to temporarily change her teaching strategy, e.g., briefly review the material. If students can answer lower level questions, the instructor must choose a teaching strategy to help

students with the more complex synthesis which the original questions requires, e.g., propose a concrete problem which can be used as a basis for moving to the more abstract synthesis. In the example used here, the teacher might direct students to Jonathan Swift's "Modest Proposal" and ask, "What is Swift's thesis?" and "What are some terms you can use to describe Swift's writing style?"

It is not essential that an instructor be able to classify each question at a specific level. The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives is introduced as a tool which is helpful for defining the kinds of thinking skills instructors expect from students and for helping to establish congruence between the instructor's goals and the questions he asks.

❖ <u>Open and Closed Questions</u>
In addition to asking questions at various levels of the taxonomy, an instructor might consider whether he is asking closed or open questions.

A closed question is one in which there are a limited number of acceptable answers, most of which will usually be anticipated by the instructor. For example, "What is a definition for 'adjective'?" requires that students give some characteristics of adjectives and their function. While students may put the answer in their own words, correct answers will be easily judged and anticipated based on a rather limited set of characteristics and functions of adjectives.

An open question is one in which there are many acceptable answers, most of which will not be anticipated by the instructor. For example, "What is an example of an adjective?" requires only that students name "any adjective." The teacher may only judge an answer as incorrect if another part of speech or a totally unrelated answer is given. Although the specific answer may not be anticipated, the instructor usually does have criteria for judging whether a particular answer is acceptable or unacceptable.

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<u>Example:</u>
Both open and closed questions may be at any level of the taxonomy.

    An open low-level question might be:
           "What is an example of an adjective?"
    An open high-level question might be:
           "What are some ways we might solve the energy crisis?"
    A closed low-level question:
           "What are the stages of cell division?"
    A closed high-level question:
           "Given the medical data before you, would you say this patient is intoxicated or suffering from a diabetic reaction?"

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Courtesy of:

Questioning

❖ <u>Sequencing Questions and Bloom's Taxonomy</u>
   Sequencing questions may be accomplished through Bloom's Taxonomy of Cognitive Objectives. Pose two questions at different levels of thinking and in sequential order. Here is an example of the taxonomy with questions that match each level of thinking.

Lower Level Questions
   ❖ Knowledge (recalling specific information, describe, name, state, tell, define) – Who was our first President?
   ❖ Comprehension (interpreting, explaining, summarizing, interpret, summarize, state in own words) – Which month marked the most significant events leading to the Revolutionary War?
   ❖ Application (using concepts, generalizations or skill in a new situation, demonstrate, use, predict, infer, act) – Using the mapping techniques we learned yesterday, how would you show someone to get from Boston to Philadelphia?

Higher Level Questions
   ❖ Analysis (examining parts of a whole and their relationships, distinguish, examine, determine the cause and effect, explain the main idea)
       1. How are the two neighborhoods alike?
       2. How are they different? What does each of the figures in the political cartoon about the Revolutionary War represent?
       3. What is the cartoonist trying to tell us?

   ❖ Synthesis (putting parts back together to create a new whole, develop a plan, or communicate a new way)
       1. From our study of cities during colonial times, what things do you think were the most important ideas to consider in building a new city during that time period in history?
       2. What would include in your dream neighborhood?
       3. What proposal would you make to improve downtown Mt. Pleasant's Play Scape?

   ❖ Evaluation (making a judgment using a specific set of criteria)
       1. What do you think might have happened if the British won the Revolutionary War?
       2. Whose perspective makes the most sense to you?
       3. Which was the authentic part of the video?

Examples of effective questions are the following.
1. What were some causes of the Revolutionary War?
2. Who was our first president? What was his position on the question of slavery?
3. What are the symbols in our flag? What does each symbol mean?
4. What are some ways neighborhoods change over time?
5. What are two features in our community that distinguish it from other communities?

Ineffective Questions
Certain types of questions are ineffective because they are unfocused, closed, requiring only a yes-or-no answer or are slanted. They cause confusion for the learner. Examples of poorly constructed questions are the following:
1. What happened in the Civil War?
2. Was George Washington our first President?
3. What makes our region the best in the country?
4. How did Sojourner Truth live her life?
5. What does our flag mean?

Courtesy of:
http://www.ehhs.cmich.edu/~dnewby/questions.html

Taba's Techniques

❖ Technique #1
Technique #1 has the following types of questions:
- Beginning Questions
  - What do you think about when you hear the word abolitionist?
  - What did you see in the movie, Armistad?
  - Reflecting on the movie, what do you think of when you hear the name John Adams?
- Categorizing Questions
  - Look over our list of items. Could any be grouped together? Why did you group them in that way?
- Labeling Questions
  - Look at this group. Can you think of a label or name for it?

- ❖ **Technique #2**
  - Technique #2 helps learners interpret data, analyze data and draw conclusions.
    - ❖ Beginning Question
      - o What did you see on the trip to the convenience store?
    - ❖ Analyzing Question
      - o What differences did you notice between the grocery store and the convenience store?
    - ❖ Generalizing Question
      - o What conclusions could we draw from our field trips to Mt. Pleasant, Midland and Clare?
      - o From our trip, what can you say about the retail stores in these three cities?

- ❖ **Technique #3**
  - Technique #3 offers supportive questions that assist in guiding discussions. Here are some examples of supportive questions:
    - ❖ Targeting Question
      - o Listen to the original question. Do you recall what I asked?
    - ❖ Clarifying or Refocusing Question
      - o Can you give me a more specific example of what you mean?
    - ❖ Summarizing Question
      - o Could you state that idea by using one broad concept or label?
      - o What conclusions did you draw from this investigation?

References:
Maxim, G. W. (2003).dynamic Social Studies for Elementary Classrooms
Martorella, P. H. (1998). Social Studies for Elementary School Children
Michaelis and Garcia. (1998). Social Studies for Children

Mnemonic Instruction

Mnemonic instruction is an instructional strategy commonly used with students who have disabilities, as well as with their non-disabled peers. It is designed to improve memory of key information. Mnemonic instruction facilitates access to the general education curriculum by giving students the tools they need to better encode information so that it will be much easier to retrieve it from memory at later points. Mnemonics can be used in language arts (i.e., vocabulary, spelling and letter recognition), math, science, social studies, foreign language and other academic subjects. Use of this instructional strategy does not require a wealth of additional materials or extensive planning and preparation time (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 1998).

Mnemonics is a memory enhancing instructional strategy that involves teaching students to link new information that is taught to information they already know. According to Levin (1993),

mnemonic instruction is useful for students across a wide age range. Though students in the early elementary grades are usually not expected to learn and recall as many facts as older students, they are involved in a number of activities that involve making associations that employ mnemonic principles. For example, associations linking the letter "a" to the word "apple" or "f" to "flower" employ mnemonic principles. Teachers instruct students in the use of mnemonic strategies by using both visual and verbal cues. There are at least three distinct methods for teaching mnemonics: keyword, pegword and letter strategies. These methods are briefly described below.

❖ **Keyword Strategy**

The keyword strategy is based on linking new information to keywords that are already encoded to memory. A teacher might teach a new vocabulary word by first identifying a keyword that sounds similar to the word being taught and easily represented by a picture or drawing. Then the teacher generates a picture that connects the word to be learned with its definition. According to Scruggs & Mastropieri (n.d.), the keyword strategy works best when the information to be learned is new to students.

<u>Example</u>

To teach students the definition of the new word, the teacher will ask the students to remember the keyword, envision the picture and how it relates to the definition, and finally recall the definition. If a teacher is trying to teach her students the definition of the old English word *carline*, she will first identify a good keyword. In this instance, "car" is appropriate because it is easy to represent visually and it sounds like the first part of the vocabulary word. *Carline* means "witch" so the teacher shows the students a picture of a car with a witch sitting in it. When asked to recall the definition of **carline**, students engage in a four-step process:

1. Think back to the keyword (car),
2. Think of the picture (a car),
3. Remember what else was happening in the picture (a witch was in the car), and
4. Produce the definition (witch) (Scruggs & Mastropieri, n.d., p. 2).

❖ **Pegword Strategy**

The pegword strategy uses rhyming words to represent numbers or order. The rhyming words or "peg words" provide visual images that can be associated with facts or events and can help students associate the events with the number that rhymes with the peg word. It has proven useful in teaching students to remember ordered or numbered information (Scruggs & Mastropieri, n.d.). For example, "one" is typically represented by the word pegword "bun," two is represented by the pegword "shoe," and "three" is represented by the pegword "tree." Teachers can use these pegwords to help students remember historical facts.

Example

During a study of the American Revolutionary War, a teacher wanted her students to remember the three major Acts that the British Parliament passed that led to the American Revolutionary War: the Sugar Act of 1764, the Stamp Act (1765), and the Townshend Acts (1767). To help them remember the Acts and the order in which they occurred, she created the following mnemonics: for the Sugar Act of 1764, she created a picture of a bowl of sugar (reminding students of the Sugar Act of 1764) being poured on a hamburger bun ("bun" is the pegword for "one," indicating the first Act that Parliament passed). For the Stamp Act, the teacher created a picture of a pair of shoes ("shoe" is the pegword for "two") with a stamp (to remind students of the Stamp Act) on it. Finally, she created a picture of a teapot with the Union Jack on it (to remind the students of the Boston Tea Party, which resulted from the Townshend Acts) and a tree coming out the top of the teapot ("tree" is the pegword for "three").

❖ **Letter Strategy**

Teaching letter strategies involves the use of acronyms and acrostics. Acronyms are words whose individual letters can represent elements in lists of information, such as HOMES to represent the Great Lakes (e.g., Huron, Ontario, Michigan). Acrostics are sentences whose first letters represent to-be-remembered information, such as "My very educated mother just served us nine pizzas," to remember the nine planets in order (e.g., Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars). (Scruggs & Mastropieri, n.d.). Teachers can use these letter strategies to help students remember lists of information.

Example A

The mnemonic "IT FITS" (King-Sears, Mercer, & Sindelar, 1992) is an acronym providing the following steps to create mnemonics for vocabulary words:

I dentify the term (vocabulary word, e.g., "impecunious").
T ell the definition of the term (e.g., "having no money").
Fi nd a keyword (e.g., "penniless imp").
T hink about the definition as it relates to the keyword, and imagine the definition doing something with the keyword. For example, "an imp tried to buy something but found that his pockets contained no money."
S tudy what you imagined until you know the definition (Foil & Alber, 2002).

Example B

Another mnemonic device for creating keywords for new vocabulary is LINCS (Ellis, 1992). During a unit on medieval history, students must learn a new vocabulary word, "catapult." The teacher gives the following instructions:

L ist the parts. Write the word on a study card, and list the most important parts of the definition on the back. On the frontside of the card write the word "catapult" as the term to be defined, and on the backside of the card, write "to throw or launch as if by an ancient device for hurling missiles."

I magine the picture. Create a mental picture and describe it. For example, something being launched over or through a barrier.

N ote a reminding word. Think of a familiar word that sounds like the vocabulary word. For example, a "cat" and a "pole" sounds similar to "pult" — write this on the bottom half of the card).

C onstruct a LINCing story. Make up a short story about the meaning of the word that includes the word to be remembered, for example, a cat pole-vaulting over a castle wall.

S elf-Test. Test your memory forward to back; for example, look at the word "catapult" and "cat pole" on the front of the card, and say aloud the definition on the back of the card, as well as the image of a cat pole-vaulting over a castle wall. Reverse this process by looking at the back of the card to self-test the vocabulary word and keyword (Foil & Alber, 2002).

General Comprehension Strategies

❖ **Comprehension monitoring**: Involves students using a set of steps to recognize when they have difficulties understanding.

❖ **Story Structure**: Knowledge of story parts (e.g., characters, setting, problem sequence of events, problem resolution) facilitates comprehension.

❖ **Cooperative learning**: Students work together to apply comprehension strategies. Effective with clearly defined tasks and content-area reading.

❖ **Multiple-strategy instruction**: Students use different strategies flexibly as needed to assist their comprehension

Courtesy of:

Text Comprehension
Moderate/Intensive Interventions

Story Mapping

Advanced Story Map Instruction

Students are taught to use a basic 'Story Grammar' to map out, identify and analyze significant components of narrative text (e.g., fiction, biographies, historical accounts). Reserve at least a full instructional session to introduce this comprehension strategy. (For effective-teaching tips, consult the guidelines presented in "*Introducing Academic Strategies to Students: A Direct-Instruction Approach*").

Materials:
1. Overhead transparencies of short stories or other narrative texts, transparency markers
2. Student copies of *Advanced Story Map Worksheet*, and practice narrative passages
3. (optional) or reading/text books

Preparation:
1. Prepare overheads of sample narrative passages.

Intervention Script:
1. Introduce the concept of a Story Grammar to students and preview main elements. (Refer to the *Advanced Story Map Worksheet* as a guide.) Tell students that a Story Grammar can help them to better understand a story's characters and events.
2. Set aside at least four successive instructional days to introduce the major components of the Story Grammar: (A) Identifying important characters and their personalities and motivation, (B) Identifying main problem and significant plot developments, (C) Noting characters' attempts to solve problems, and (D) Identifying a narrative's overarching theme. Interactive Instruction: Make the instruction of each story component highly interactive, with clear teacher demonstration and use of examples. 'Think aloud' as you read through a story with the class to illustrate to students how you arrive at your conclusions. Elicit student discussion about the story. As you fill out sections of the *Advanced Story Map Worksheet* on the overhead, have students write responses on their own copies of the worksheet.
3. Error Correction: When students commit errors, direct them to the appropriate section of the narrative to reread it for the correct answer. Use guiding questions and modeling as necessary to help students to come up with an appropriate response.

4. After students have been introduced to the key Story Grammar elements, the group is now ready to use the Grammar to analyze a sample narrative passage. Have students read independently through a story. Pause at pre-determined points to ask the group key questions (e.g., "Who is the main character? What is she like?"). After discussion, encourage students to write their answers on the *Advanced Story Map Worksheet* while you fill out the same worksheet as an overhead. Give specific praise to students for appropriately identifying Story Grammar elements.

5. When students are able to use the Story Grammar independently, have them read through selected stories and complete the *Advanced Story Map Worksheet* on their own. Check students' responses and conference individually with those students requiring additional guidance and support.

Tips:

- **Edit student creative writing using the Story Map Worksheet.** Students can use the *Advanced Story Map Worksheet* to check the structure of stories that they have written. Peer editors can also use the worksheet to give feedback to students about the clarity of their story structure.

- **Consider the Story Grammar as a tool for analyzing historical narratives.** Many historical accounts are structured as dramatic narratives — with central characters taking part in key events. Students can productively use elements of a Story Grammar to analyze these historical narratives.

Troubleshooting:

- **Students do not seem motivated to use the Story Grammar framework.** To make a Story Grammar analysis more inviting, consider screening a video of a popular movie or television program. At key points, stop the tape, have students complete relevant sections of the *Advanced Story Map Worksheet* and discuss the results. This exercise can be highly motivating and also makes clear to students that a Story Grammar is a universal tool that help us understand narratives presented in any medium.

- **Some students do not appear to be successful in using the Story Grammar independently.** Pull aside individuals or small groups of students who might be having similar problems mastering the Story Grammar. As you read together through a story, have students "think aloud" the strategies that they follow to identify Story Grammar elements. If you discover that a student is using a faulty approach (e.g., routinely selecting the first character named in the story as the main character) you can gently correct the student by modeling and demonstrating more appropriate strategies.

References:

Gardill, M.C. & Jitendra, A.K. (1999). Advanced story map instruction: Effects on the reading comprehension of students with learning disabilities. *The Journal of Special Education, 28,* 2-17.

Advanced Story Map Worksheet
(Adapted from Gardill & Jitendra, 1999)

Student: _____ Date: _____ Class: _____

Story Name: _____

1. Who is the central character? _____
2. What is the main character like? (Describe his/her key qualities or personality traits).
_____
_____

3. Who is another important character in the story? _____
4. What is this other important character like? _____
_____

5. Where and when does the story take place? _____
_____

6. What is the major problem that the main character is faced with? _____
_____

7. How does the main character attempt to solve this major problem? _____
_____

8. What is the twist, surprise, or unexpected development that takes place in the story?
_____
_____

9. How is the problem solved or not solved?
_____
_____

10. What is the theme or lesson of the story?
_____
_____

Other Story Mapping links:
   ❖ http://curry.edschool.virginia.edu/go/readquest/strat/storymaps.html

Courtesy of:
Jim Wright
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Collaborative Strategic Reading

Collaborative Strategic Reading is a procedure for teaching reading skills to mixed level classrooms. It incorporates and builds upon effective, well-tested tactics (i.e., cooperative learning and reciprocal teaching) to offer a systematic yet practical approach to reading comprehension. There are four complementary strategies: Preview, Clunk and Click, Get the Gist and Wrap Up.

> **Program**: Collaborative Strategic Reading
> **Publisher/Source**: Sopris West or Manual available for professional development downloadable off the web.
> **Educational Level**: Grades 3 – 6 or Remedial Grades 7 -12
> **Author**: Sharon Vaughn et al

Reading Mastery

Reading Mastery I teaches basic decoding and comprehension skills. Intensive, explicit phonics instruction helps use the words immediately as they read stories. *Reading Mastery II* expands basic reading skills. Strategies for decoding difficult words and answering interpretive comprehension questions are introduced. *Reading Mastery III* focuses on the development of reasoning skills, building background knowledge and higher order comprehension skills. *Reading Mastery IV* continues to stress reasoning and reference skills and the development of higher-level comprehension skills. *Reading Mastery V* focuses on building students understanding of literature, literary language and analysis, reasoning strategies and extends writing are incorporated with story selection. *Reading Mastery VI* helps students gain insight into literary language and a variety of literary strategies.

> **Program**: Reading Mastery (Rainbow)
> **Publisher/Source**: Science Research Associates
> **Educational Level**: Grades K -6
> **Author**: Siegfied Engelmann et al

Read Well

Read Well is a reading program that combines systematic phonics, mastery=based learning and rich content. From the beginning, children develop strong decoding skills, comprehension strategies and sophisticated content knowledge. *Read Well* systematically introduces and reviews skills and strategies. It utilizes narrative and expository content that piques learner interest. A teacher/student "duet story format" and students "solo story format" promote student

reading independence while ensuring education and enjoyable material. Reading and writing activities include story maps, story retells and guided reports. *Read Well* stories are scaffolded to support increasing independent reading by students. As students gain independent reading skills, student=read text gradually increases and teacher-read text is gradually withdrawn.

> **Program**: Read Well
> **Publisher/Source**: Sopris West
> **Educational Level**: First, Special Education 2nd and 3rd. Current version
> appropriate for some kindergarten students
> **Author**: Marilyn Sprick

Dyad or Buddy Reading

In *Buddy Reading*, a person [or a parent] who knows how to read well reads with a person [or a child] who can't read as well. Together they choose a book that isn't too hard and find a good spot to read.

Buddy Reading helps the person who can't read as well hear the sounds of words when someone else reads with them. When they learn the sounds of the words better, they are able to figure out the pronunciation of the words. The better reader helps the other reader as they read the book together. The readers can take turns reading, or read the words together. The better reader can help with pronunciation, the meaning of words and understanding the story. They can ask questions as they read. The buddy can give clues when the student reader gets stuck on a word.

Questions like:
5. "What sound does the word start with?"
6. "What word would make sense there?"
7. "Does that sound right?"
8. "Will the picture help you?"

The better reader might ask questions about the story like:
7. "Who are the characters?"
8. "Where does the story take place?"
9. "What problem does the character have?"
10. "What kind of trouble is in the story?"
11. "How is the problem fixed?"
12. "Tell me what is happening in the story so far."

Anyone can help people who can't read by reading to them, or reading with them and when they stumble on a word, you can help them sound out the word. A good reader always uses at least two strategies before giving the word to the reader who is learning.

When you read to your buddy:

10. Practice reading aloud by yourself a few times.
11. Make your buddy feel comfortable and welcome.
12. Sit side by side.
13. Let your buddy hold the book!
14. Talk about the title and the author.
15. Look through the pictures – let your buddy predict what will happen.
16. Encourage your buddy to ask questions and point out details.
17. Stop and talk about the characters and events from time to time.
18. When you finish reading, ask about his favorite part or character and tell him your favorite, too!

Reading Buddy Strategies:

These are some things you can try with your little buddy to help them read.

5. Read Aloud – read to your buddy, but make sure he look at the words while you're reading!
6. Echo Reading – First, you read a sentence or paragraph, then let your buddy read the same sentence or paragraph.
7. Choral Reading – Read at the same time – out loud!
8. Take Turns Reading – first you read a sentence or paragraph, then let your buddy read the next one.

When Your Buddy Gets Stuck:

Here are some things you should try when your buddy can't figure out a word.

11. Wait - give them a chance to figure it out by themselves!
12. Tell them to look at the pictures for clues about the story.
13. Ask them what would make sense.
14. Skip the word, and read the rest of the sentence.
15. Have them look for words or patterns they recognize.
16. Have them look for letters or sounds they recognize.
17. Give them a choice – is it this or that?
18. Once they know the word, have them reread the sentence.
19. Never make your buddy feel bad because he can't figure out the word.
20. Most of all, praise your buddy!
    You can say things like:
    - I like the way you read that!
    - I like how you got the first sounds of that word!
    - You're really smart – you figured it out all by yourself!

Courtesy of:
http://library.thinkquest.org/J001156/helpothers/cp_buddyreading.htm

QuickReads

QuickReads is a research-based fluency program that features short, high interest nonfiction texts designed to be read quickly and meaningfully. It is designed for students who read at grade levels 2 – 4. *QuickReads* can improve fluency, comprehension, background knowledge and vocabulary.

QuickReads has a classroom-validated instructional routine that is done with students daily that takes 15 minutes. *QuickReads* promotes fluent reading by:

6. Supporting automaticity through the use of grade level, high frequency words, and phonics/syllabic patterns necessary for success at each grade level.
7. Developing content-rich vocabulary, consistent comprehension strategies and critical background knowledge.
8. Helping students learn more about critical curriculum areas with a focus on social studies and science.
9. Helping students build background knowledge by reading five connected text passages around one topic.
10. Modeling fluent reading by teacher model.

<u>**Evidence of Positive Effects on Reading Achievement**</u>: Field-testing in classrooms demonstrated significant fluency gains for both native English speakers as well as English language learners. For additional information see website: www.textproject.org

<u>**Local evidence of positive effects**</u>: Local School districts within Heartland have data available on fluency gains on students.

> <u>**Program**</u>: QuickReads
> <u>**Source/Publisher**</u>: Pearson Learning
> <u>**Educational Level**</u>: 2nd – 4th grade and remedial 5th – 7th
> <u>**Educational Level**</u>: 2nd – 4th grade and remedial 5th – 7th
> <u>**Author**</u>: Alfrieda Hiebart

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REWARDS
(Reading Excellence: Word Attack and Rate Development Strategies)

The *REWARDS* method is a flexible strategy to move students from early elementary reading level to on of increased fluency and comprehension. Many student having mastered basic readings skills have difficulty with multisyllabic words. The *REWARDS* method of decoding words by segmenting their parts is key to this program. It has been field tested with positive results in intensive remedial programs as well as in general and special education classrooms.

Program: REWARDS (Reading Excellence: Word Attack and Rate Development Strateзgies)
Publisher/Source: Sopris West
Education level: Grades 3-7
Author: Anita Archer

PALS (Peer Assisted Learning Strategies)

Peer Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS) is a class-wide peer-tutoring program providing supplemental practice and instruction on key reading skills. *K-PALS* focuses on phonemic awareness, alphabetic principle and sight word reading. *First Grade PALS* focuses on alphabetic principle, fluency and sight word reading. *Second-Eighth Grade PALS* focuses on fluency and accuracy in connected text and reading comprehension strategies of summarization, main idea and predication. *High School PALS* focuses on Fluency and comprehension skills within the context of a career, job oriented structure. Lessons are provided to train students to be "readers and coaches." Students are taught correction procedures and instructional cues. *K-8 PALS* can be used in general or special educational classrooms. *High School PALS* has only been validated in special education and remedial settings.
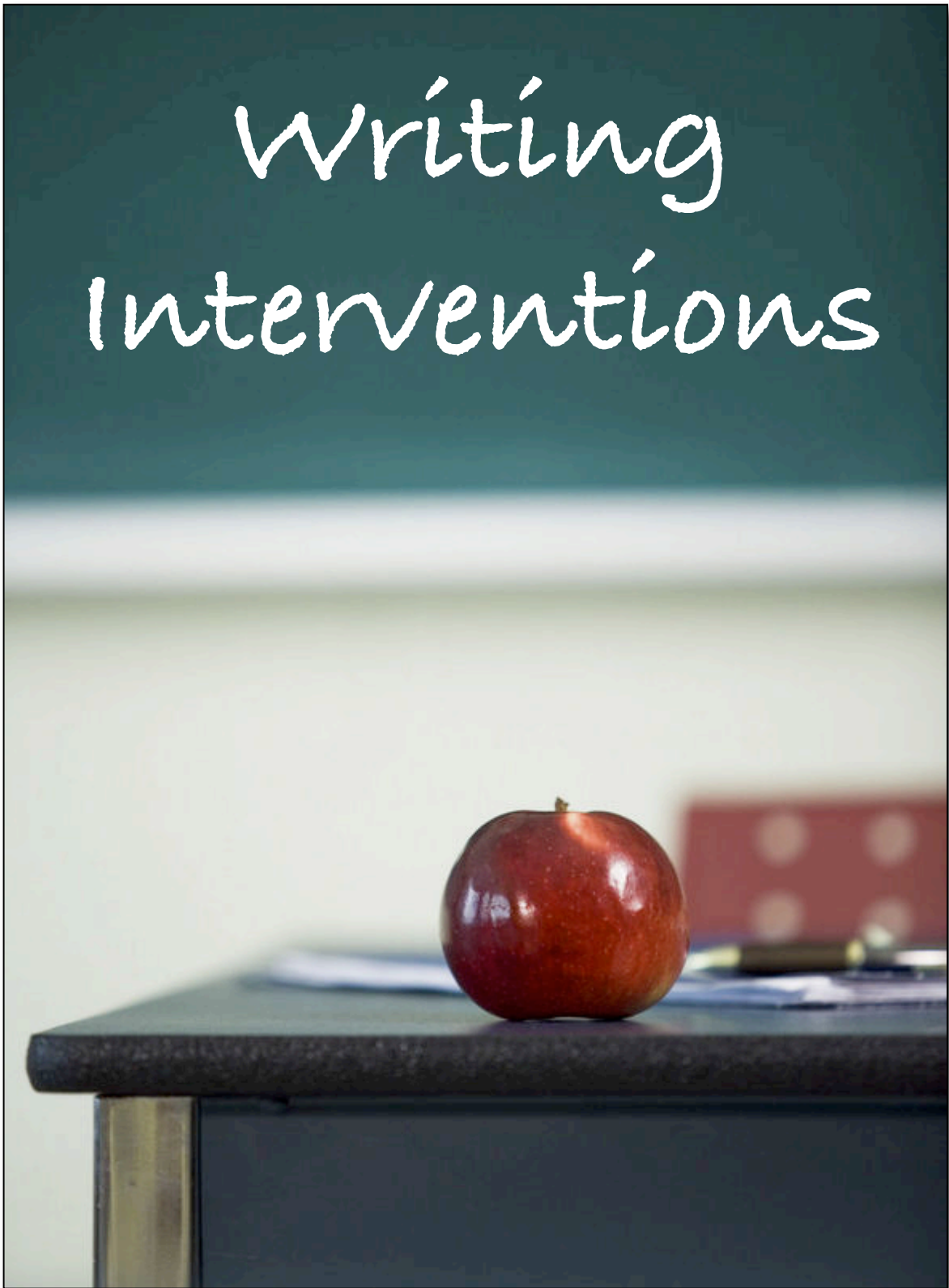
Program: PALS (Peer Assisted Learning Strategies)
Publisher/Source: Vanderbilt University
Educational level: K, 1, 2-6, 7-12
Author: Lynn and Doug Fuchs

Writing Interventions

Writing Interventions
Least Intensive Interventions

Mnemonic Device

Teach the student strategies to write lengthier stories with organized content. Use a mnemonic device such as "WWW, What = 2, How = 2" which translates into a story grammar checklist: WHO is the main character; WHERE the story takes place; WHEN the story occurs; WHAT the main character(s) do or plan to do; WHAT happens next; HOW the Story concludes; and How the character(s) feel about their experiences.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Journaling

Encourage the student to write every day to increase written expression skills. Short daily writing assignments can build students' writing fluency and make writing a more motivating activity. Have the student self-monitor and graph his/her progress, which will increase his/her motivation and writing fluency as well. For example, have the student count up the number of words he/she has written in the daily journal entry (whether spelled correctly or not) and have him/her record.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Outline

Teach the student how to build an outline for his/her writing. There are several methods for doing this that may help him/her organize and plan what to write. He/She can build an outline by talking through the topic with another student first. After the conversation, the student can jot down an outline from memory to capture and record main ideas of the discussion.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Proofreading

Teach the student to proofread by using a memory strategy such as SCOPE proofreading elements. (1) Spelling: Are my words spelled correctly?; (2) CAPITALIZATION: Have I capitalized all appropriate words, including first words of sentences, proper nouns and proper names?; (3) ORDER or words: Is my word order (syntax) correct?; (4) PUNCTUATION: Did I use end punctuation and other punctuation marks appropriately?; (5) EXPRESSION of complete thoughts: Do all of my sentences contain a noun and verb to convey a complete thought?   The student can pair off with another student and be encouraged to evaluate their own writing samples using SCOPE.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Memorize a Story Grammar Checklist
(Reid & Lienemann, 2006)

Students write lengthier stories that include greater detail when they use a memorized strategy to judge their writing-in-progress. These young writers are taught a simple mnemonic device with 7 elements: 'WWW, What=2, How=2'. This mnemonic translates into a story grammar checklist: WHO the main character is; WHERE the story takes place; WHEN the story occurs; WHAT the main character(s) do or plan to do; WHAT happens next; HOW the story concludes; and HOW the character(s) feel about their experiences. Students are taught this strategy through teacher demonstration, discussion, teacher modeling and student use of the strategy with gradually fading teacher support. When students use the 'WWW, What=2, How = 2' tactic independently, they may still need occasional prompting to use it in their writing.

NOTE: Teachers can apply this intervention idea to any genre of writing (e.g., persuasive essay), distilling its essential elements into a similar short, easily memorized checklist to teach to students.

Courtesy of:
http://www.jimwrightonline.com/php/interventionista/interventionista_intv_list.php?prob_type= writing

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Fluency: Have Students Write Every Day
(Graham, Harris & Larsen, 2001)

Short daily writing assignments can build student writing fluency and make writing a more motivating activity. For struggling writers, formal writing can feel much like a foreign language, with its own set of obscure grammatical rules and intimidating vocabulary. Just as people learn

another language more quickly and gain confidence when they use it frequently, however, poor writers gradually develop into better writers when they are prompted to write daily and receive rapid feedback and encouragement about that writing. The teacher can encourage daily writing by giving short writing assignments, allowing time for students to journal about their learning activities, requiring that they correspond daily with pen pals via email or even posting a question on the board as a bell-ringer activity that students can respond to in writing for extra credit. Short daily writing tasks have the potential to lower students' aversion to writing and boost their confidence in using the written word.

Courtesy of:
http://www.jimwrightonline.com/php/interventionista/interventionista_intv_list.php?prob_type=writing

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Fluency: Self-Monitor and Graph Results to Increase Writing Fluency
(Rathvon, 1999)

Students gain motivation to write through daily monitoring and charting of their own and class-wide rates of writing fluency. At least several times per week, assign your students timed periods of 'freewriting' when they write in their personal journals. Freewriting periods should include the same amount of time each day. After each freewriting period, direct each student to count up the number of words he or she has written in the daily journal entry (whether spelled correctly or not). Next, tell students to record their personal writing-fluency score in their journal and also chart the score on their own time-series graph for visual feedback. Then collect the day's writing-fluency scores of all students in the class, sum those scores and chart the results on a large time-series graph posted at the front of the room. At the start of each week, calculate that week's goal of increasing total class words written by taking last week's score and increasing by five percent. At the end of each week, review the class score and praise students if they have shown good effort.

Courtesy of:
http://www.jimwrightonline.com/php/interventionista/interventionista_intv_list.php?prob_type=writing

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Instruction: Essentials of Good Teaching Benefit Struggling Writers
(Gersten, Baker, & Edwards, 1999)

Teachers are most successful in reaching students with writing delays when their instruction emphasizes the full writing process, provides strategy sheets, offers lots of models of good

writing and gives students timely editorial feedback. Good instructors build their written expression lessons around the three stages of writing – planning, writing and revision – and make those stages clear and explicit. Skilled instructors also provide students with 'think sheets' that outline step-by-step strategies for tackling the different phases of a writing assignment (e.g., taking concise notes from research material; building an outline; proofreading a draft). Students become stronger writers when exposed to different kinds of expressive text, such as persuasive, narrative and expository writing. Teachers can make students more confident and self-sufficient as writers when they give them access to plentiful examples of good prose models that the student can review when completing a writing assignment. Finally, strong writing teachers provide supportive and timely feedback to students about their writing. When teachers or classmates offer writing feedback to the student, they are honest but also maintain an encouraging tone.

Courtesy of:
http://www.jimwrightonline.com/php/interventionista/interventionista_intv_list.php?prob_type=writing

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Motivation: Stimulate Interest With an Autobiography Assignment
(Bos & Vaughn, 2002)

Assigning the class to write their own autobiographies can motivate hard-to-reach students who seem uninterested in most writing assignments. Have students read a series of autobiographies of people who interest them. Discuss these biographies with the class. Then assign students to write their own autobiographies. (With the class, create a short questionnaire that students can use to interview their parents and other family members to collect information about their past.) Allow students to read their finished autobiographies for the class.

Courtesy of:
http://www.jimwrightonline.com/php/interventionista/interventionista_intv_list.php?prob_type=writing

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Organization: Build an Outline by Talking Through the Topic
(The Writing Center, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, n.d./ 23 December 2006)

Students who struggle to organize their notes into a coherent outline can tell others what they know about the topic – and then capture the informal logical structure of that conversation to create a working outline. The student studies notes from the topic and describes what he or she

knows about the topic and its significance to a listener. (The student may want to audio-record this conversation for later playback.) After the conversation, the student jots down an outline from memory to capture the structure and main ideas of the discussion. This outline 'kernel' can then be expanded and refined into the framework for a paper.

Courtesy of:
http://www.jimwrightonline.com/php/interventionista/interventionista_intv_list.php?prob_type=writing

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Organization: 'Reverse Outline' the Draft
(The Writing Center, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, n.d./ 23 December 2006)

Students can improve the internal flow of their compositions through *'reverse outlining.'* The student writes a draft of the composition. Next, the student reads through the draft, jotting notes in the margins that signify the main idea of each paragraph or section. Then the student organizes the margin notes into an outline to reveal the organizational structure of the paper. This 'reverse outline' allows the student to note whether sections of the draft are repetitious, are out of order or do not logically connect with one another.

Courtesy of:
http://www.jimwrightonline.com/php/interventionista/interventionista_intv_list.php?prob_type=writing

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Planning: Brainstorm to Break the 'Idea' Logjam
(The Writing Center, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, n.d./ 28 December 2006)

Brainstorming is a time-tested method that can help students to generate motivating topics for writing assignments and uncover new ideas to expand and improve their compositions. Here are four brainstorming strategies to teach to students: FREEWRITING: The student sets a time limit (e.g., 15 minutes) or length limit (e.g., one hand-written page) and spontaneously writes until the limit is reached. The writer does not judge the writing but simply writes as rapidly as possible, capturing any thought that comes to mind on the topic. Later, the student reviews the freewriting to pick out any ideas, terms or phrasing that might be incorporated into the writing assignment. LISTING: The student selects a topic based on an idea or key term related to the writing assignment. The writer then rapidly brainstorms a list of any items that might possibly relate to the topic. Finally, the writer reviews the list to select items that might be useful in the assigned composition or trigger additional writing ideas. SIMILES: The student selects a series of key terms or concepts linked to the writing assignment. The student brainstorms, using the framework of a simile: "_1_ is like _2_." The student plugs a key term into the first blank and

then generates as many similes as possible (e.g., "A SHIP is like a CITY ON THE SEA."). REFERENCES: The student jots down key ideas or terms from the writing assignment. He or she then browses through various reference works (dictionaries, encyclopedias, specialized reference works on specific subjects) looking randomly for entries that trigger useful ideas. (Writers might try a variation of this strategy by typing assignment-related search terms into GOOGLE or another online search engine.)

Courtesy of:
http://www.jimwrightonline.com/php/interventionista/interventionista_intv_list.php?prob_type=writing

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Proofreading: Teach A Memory Strategy
(Bos & Vaughn, 2002)

When students regularly use a simple, portable, easily memorized plan for proofreading, the quality of their writing can improve significantly. Create a poster to be put up in the classroom summarizing the SCOPE proofreading elements: (1) SPELLING: Are my words spelled correctly; (2) CAPITALIZATION: Have I capitalized all appropriate words, including first words of sentences, proper nouns, and proper names?; (3) ORDER of words: Is my word order (syntax) correct?; (4) PUNCTUATION: Did I use end punctuation and other punctuation marks appropriately? (5) EXPRESSION of complete thoughts: Do all of my sentences contain a noun and verb to convey a complete thought? Review the SCOPE proofreading steps by copying a first-draft writing sample onto an overhead and evaluating the sample with the class using each item from the SCOPE poster. Then direct students to pair off and together evaluate their own writing samples using SCOPE. When students appear to understand the use of the SCOPE plan, require that they use this strategy to proofread all written assignments before turning them in.

Courtesy of:
http://www.jimwrightonline.com/php/interventionista/interventionista_intv_list.php?prob_type=writing

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Proofreading: Use Selective Proofreading
With Highlighting of Errors
(Frus, n.d./18 November 2006)

To prevent struggling writers from becoming overwhelmed by teacher proofreading corrections, focus on only one or two proofreading areas when correcting a writing assignment. Create a student 'writing skills checklist' that inventories key writing competencies (e.g., grammar/syntax, spelling, vocabulary, etc.). For each writing assignment, announce to students that you will grade the assignment for overall content but will make proofreading corrections on only 1-2 areas

chosen from the writing skills checklist. (Select different proofreading targets for each assignment matched to common writing weaknesses in your classroom.) Also, to prevent cluttering the student's paper with potentially discouraging teacher comments and editing marks, underline problems in the student' text with a highlighter and number the highlighted errors sequentially at the left margin of the student paper. Then (if necessary) write teacher comments on a separate feedback sheet to explain the writing errors. (Identify each comment with the matching error-number from the left margin of the student's worksheet.) With fewer proofreading comments, the student can better attend to the teacher feedback. Also, even a heavily edited student assignment looks neat and tidy when teachers use the highlighting/numbering technique, preventing students from becoming disheartened at the site of an assignment scribbled over with corrective comments.

Courtesy of:
http://www.jimwrightonline.com/php/interventionista/interventionista_intv_list.php?prob_type=writing

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Spelling: Leverage the Power of Memory Through Cover-Copy-Compare
(Murphy, Hern, Williams, & McLaughlin, 1990)

Students increase their spelling knowledge by copying a spelling word from a correct model and then recopying the same word from memory. Give students a list of 10-20 spelling words, an index card and a blank sheet of paper. For each word on the spelling list, the student (1) copies the spelling list item onto a sheet of paper, (2) covers the newly copied word with the index card, (3) writes the spelling word again on the sheet (spelling it from memory), and (4) uncovers the copied word and checks to ensure that the word copied from memory is spelled correctly. If that word is spelled incorrectly, the student repeats the sequence above until the word copied from memory is spelled correctly and then the student moves to the next word on the spelling list.

Courtesy of:
http://www.jimwrightonline.com/php/interventionista/interventionista_intv_list.php?prob_type=writing

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Wright Writing Skills Checklist

Jim Wright

Writing Skills Checklist

Directions: Use this checklist to inventory students' foundation writing skills. Any writing skill that is marked 'N[o]' should be targeted for intervention.

Problem?	Writing Competency	Sample Intervention Ideas
Physical Production of Writing		
___Y ___N	*Writing Speed*. Writes words on the page at a rate equal or nearly equal to that of classmates	• Teach keyboarding skills • Allow student to dictate ideas into a tape-recorder and have a volunteer (e.g., classmate, parent, school personnel) transcribe them
___Y ___N	*Handwriting*. Handwriting is legible to most readers	• Provide training in handwriting • Teach keyboarding skills
Mechanics & Conventions of Writing		
___Y ___N	*Grammar & Syntax*. Knowledge of grammar (rules governing use of language) and syntax (grammatical arrangement of words in sentences) is appropriate for age and/or grade placement	• Teach rules of grammar, syntax • Have students compile individualized checklists of their own common grammar/syntax mistakes; direct students to use the checklist to review work for errors before turning in
___Y ___N	*Spelling*. Spelling skills are appropriate for age and/or grade placement	• Have student collect list of own common misspellings; assign words from list to study; quiz student on list items • Have student type assignments and use spell-check
Writing Content		
___Y ___N	*Vocabulary*. Vocabulary in written work is age/grade appropriate	• Compile list of key vocabulary and related definitions for subject area; assign words from list to study; quiz student on definitions of list items • Introduce new vocabulary items regularly to class; set up cooperative learning activities for students to review vocabulary
___Y ___N	*Word Choice*. Distinguishes word-choices that are appropriate for informal (colloquial, slang) written discourse vs. formal discourse	• Present examples to the class of formal vs. informal word choices • Have students check work for appropriate word choice as part of writing revision process
___Y ___N	*Audience*. Identifies targeted audience for writing assignments and alters written content to match needs of projected audience	• Direct students to write a 'targeted audience profile' as a formal (early) step in the writing process; have students evaluate the final writing product to needs of targeted audience during the revision process
___Y ___N	*Plagiarism*. Identifies when to credit authors for use of excerpts quoted verbatim or unique ideas taken from other written works	• Define plagiarism for students. Use plentiful examples to show students acceptable vs. unacceptable incorporation of others' words or ideas into written compositions

Writing Preparation		
___Y ___N	*Topic Selection*. Independently selects appropriate topics for writing assignments	• Have student generate list of general topics that that interest him or her; sit with the student to brainstorm ideas for writing topics that relate to the student's own areas of interest
___Y ___N	*Writing Plan*. Creates writing plan by breaking larger writing assignments into sub-tasks (e.g., select topic, collect source documents, take notes from source documents, write outline, etc.)	• Create generic pre-formatted work plans for writing assignments that break specific types of larger assignments (e.g., research paper) into constituent parts. Have students use these plan outlines as a starting point to making up their own detailed writing plans.
___Y ___N	*Note-Taking*. Researches topics by writing notes that capture key ideas from source material	• Teach note-taking skills; have students review note-cards with the teacher as quality check.
Writing Production & Revision		
___Y ___N	*Adequate 'Seat Time'*. Allocates realistic amount of time to the act of writing to ensure a quality final product	• Use teacher's experience and information from proficient student writers to develop estimates of minimum writing 'seat time' needed to produce quality products for 'typical' writing assignments (e.g., 5-paragraph opinion essay; 10-page term paper). Share with students. • Have students keep a writing diary to record amount of time spent in act of writing for each assignment. Require that this information be submitted along with the students' assignment. (Additional idea: Consider asking parents to monitor and record their child's writing time.)
___Y ___N	*Oral vs. Written Work*. Student's dictated and written passages are equivalent in complexity and quality	• Allow student to dictate ideas into a tape-recorder and have a volunteer (e.g., classmate, parent, school personnel) transcribe them • Permit the student to use speech-to-text software (e.g., Dragon Naturally Speaking) to dictate first drafts of writing assignments.
___Y ___N	*Revision Process*. Revises initial written draft before turning in for a grade or evaluation	• Create a rubric containing the elements of writing that students should review during the revision process; teach this rubric to the class; link a portion of the grade on writing assignments to students' use of the revision rubric.
___Y ___N	*Timely Submission*. Turns in written assignments (class work, homework) on time	• Provide student incentives for turning work in on time. • Work with parents to develop home-based plans for work completion and submission. • Institute school-home communication to let parents know immediately when important assignments are late or missing.

Writing Interventions
Moderate/Intensive Interventions

Integrated Writing Instruction

The instructor follows a uniform daily instructional framework for writing instruction. First, the instructor checks in with students about the status of their current writing projects; then teaches a mini-lesson; next allows the group time to write and to conference with peers and the teacher; and finally arranges for the group to share or publish their work for a larger audience.

❖ **Status-checking**. At the start of the writing session, the instructor quickly goes around the room, asking each student what writing goal(s) he or she plans to accomplish that day. The instructor records these responses for all to see.

❖ **Mini-Lesson**. The instructor teaches a mini-lesson relevant to the writing process. Mini-lessons are a useful means to present explicit writing strategies (e.g., an outline for drafting an opinion essay), as well as a forum for reviewing the conventions of writing. Mini-lessons should be kept short (e.g., 5-10 minutes) to hold the attention of the class.

❖ **Student Writing**. During the session, substantial time is set-aside for students to write. Their writing assignment might be one handed out by the instructor that day or part of a longer composition (e.g., story, extended essay) that the student is writing and editing across multiple days. When possible, student writers are encouraged use computers as aids in composing and editing their work. (Before students can compose efficiently on computers, of course, they must have been trained in keyboarding and use of word-processing software).

❖ **Peer & Teacher Conferences**. Writers need timely, gentle, focused feedback from readers of their work in order to improve their compositions. At the end of the daily writing block, the student may sit with a classmate to review each other's work, using a structured peer editing strategy. During this discussion time, the teacher also holds brief individual conferences with students to review their work, have students evaluate how successfully they completed their writing goals for the day and hear writers' thoughts about how they might plan to further develop a writing assignment.

❖ **Group Sharing or Publishing**. At the end of each session, writing produced that day is shared with the whole class. Students might volunteer to read passages aloud from their compositions. Another method of sharing might be for the students to post their work on the classroom wall or bulletin board for everyone to read and respond to. Periodically, polished student work might be displayed in a public area of the school for all to read, published in an anthology of school writings, read aloud at school assemblies or published on the Internet.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org/htmdocs/interventions/writing/intwriting.php

Math Interventions
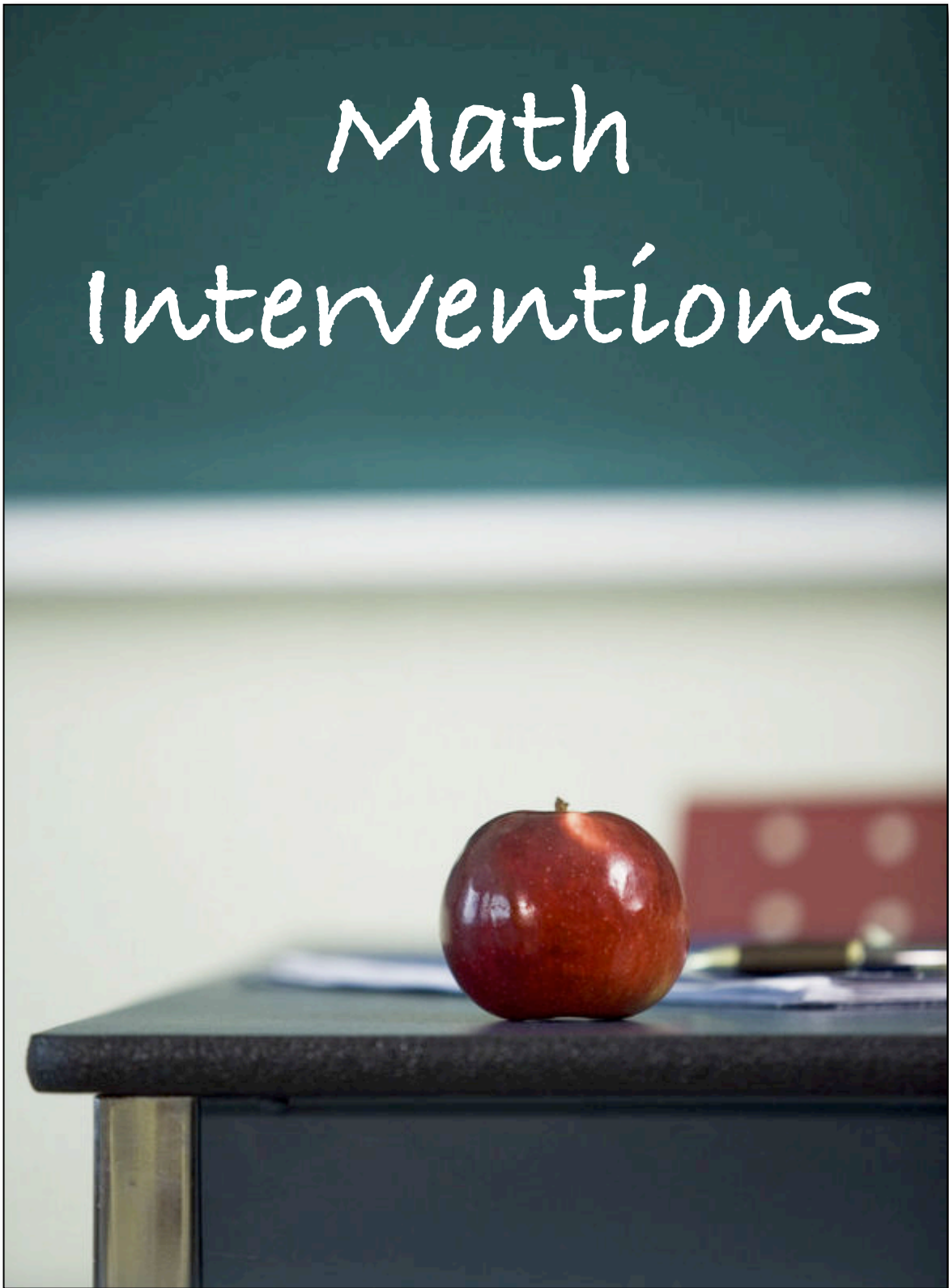
Math Interventions
Least Intensive Interventions

Number Search

<u>Materials</u>: A place from which to observe, paper and a pencil

<u>Intervention</u>: Create a chart that lists the numbers from 1-50. Write down each number as family members locate that number on a car, a sign, a building, etc. Write down words that have numbers in them, such as "one-stop shopping," "two-day service," or "Highway 20." This is a great challenge for family members of all ages, because even young children can learn to recognize numbers.

Courtesy of:
http://www.ed.gov/pubs/parents/Math/OnTheGo.html

"Cover-Copy-Compare"

<u>Category</u>: Math Skills

<u>Grade</u>: May use with any age group. Activity is dependent on current curriculum

<u>Materials</u>: Teacher prepared worksheets with computation problems with answers on the left side of the sheet. Completed computation problems appear on the right side of the page, unsolved.

<u>Intervention:</u> When first introducing Cover-Copy-Compare worksheets to the student, the teacher gives the student an index card. The student is then directed to look at each correct computation on the left side of the page. Then the student is instructed to cover the correct model on the left side of the page with an index card and to copy the problem and compute the correct answer in the space on the right side of the sheet. The student then uncovers the correct answer on the left and checks his or her own work. If the use of an index card proves distracting you may simply fold the worksheet in half length-wise so that the answers appear on one side of the folded worksheet and the answer blanks appear on the other side.

An advantage of this intervention is the ability of the child to work independently and correct his or her work. It's important that the student does not just copy the problems. He or she must study the completed computation, then work to solve the problem autonomously. If the child needs to be supervised, the use of a peer may tutor may be helpful.

More or Less

<u>Materials</u>: Coin, 2 decks of cards, Scratch paper to keep score

<u>Age or Grade</u>: Kindergarten-Grade 2

<u>Intervention</u>: This game encourages number sense and helps children learn about the relationships of numbers and about adding and subtracting. By counting the shapes on the cards and looking at the printed numbers on the card, they can learn to relate the number of objects to the numeral.

First flip a coin to tell if the winner of this game will be the person with "more" (a greater value card) or "less" (a smaller value card). Remove all face cards and divide the remaining cards in the stack between the two players. Place the cards face down. Each player turns over one card and compares: Is mine more or less? How many more? How many less?

Money Match

<u>Materials</u>: a die to roll, 10 of each coin (penny, nickel, dime), 6 quarters

<u>Intervention</u>: This game helps children count change. Lots of repetition will make it even more effective. For young players (5-and 6-year-olds), use only 2 different coins (pennies and nickels or nickels and dimes). Older children can use all coins. Explain that the object of the game is to be the first player to earn a set amount (10 or 20 cents is a good amount). The first player rolls the die and gets the number of pennies shown on the die. Players take turns rolling the die to collect additional coins. As each player accumulates 5 pennies or more, the 5 pennies are traded for a nickel. The first player to reach the set amount wins. Add the quarter to the game when the children are ready. Counting money, which involves counting by 1's , 5's, 10's and 25's is a challenging skill and usually does not come easily to children until about the third grade.

Math Word Problem Strategies

<u>Intervention</u>:

1. Make certain the student's inability to read is not the cause of his/her difficulty.
2. Teach the student to look for "key words" that will indicate the math operation. Make or provide a list of these key words.
3. Before introducing complete word problems, present the student with word phrases to be translated into numbers (six less than ten equals 10-6).
4. Provide the student with a checklist to follow in solving math story problems.
5. Make the situation interesting to the student. Have the student make up story problems.

<u>Reference</u>: Mc Carney, The Teacher's Resource Guide, Hawthorne

Difficulty With Word Problems

<u>Age or Grade</u>: Grade 6 – Grade 8

❖ <u>Intervention #1</u> – The teacher may ask the student to identify the primary question that must be answered to solve a given word problem. The teacher should continue this activity using more difficult word problems containing two or more questions, making sure the student understands the questions are often implied rather than directly asked.

❖ <u>Intervention #2</u> – The teacher can have the student make up word problems. Direct the student to write problems involving specific operations. Other students in the classroom should be required to solve these problems. The student can also provide answers to his/her own problems.

❖ <u>Intervention #3</u> – The teacher can speak with the student to explain: (a) what the student is doing wrong (e.g., using the wrong operation, failing to read the problem carefully, etc.) and (b) what the student should be doing (e.g., using the appropriate operation, reading the problem carefully, etc.).

<u>Reference</u>: McCarney, S.B., Cummins Wunderlich, K., Bauer,A, (1994). The Teacher's Resource Guide: Colimbia, MO.

Collaborative Problem Solving

Collaborative problem solving can take the form of long-term projects or shorter activities that can be completed in a single class period or less. Students enjoy puzzles in which each person in a group of four is given a different clue and the clues must be combined to reach the solution. Both number sense and mental math skills are developed when students are challenged to find a number which is even, is a multiple of three, has an integral square root and has two digits.

<u>Reference</u>: Cole, R.W, (1995). Educating Everybody's Children: Diverse Teaching Strategies for Diverse Learners. Alexandria, Va. ASCD

Small Group

Small Class Size (13-17 Students) – There are lasting benefits in mathematics achievement at grade 9 when students are in small class sizes in the early grades.

Courtesy of:
The University of Chicago School "Everyday Mathematics"
http://everydaymath.uchicago.edu/

Addition Top-It

<u>Materials</u>: A set of number cards with four cards each of the numbers 0-10, a penny (optional)

<u>Number of Players</u>: 2 or 3

<u>Directions</u>: A player shuffles the cards and places the deck number-side down on the playing surface. Each player turns over two cards and calls out their sum. The player with the highest sum wins the round and takes all the cards.

In the case of a tie, each player turns over two more cards and calls out their sum. The player with the highest sum then takes all the cards from both plays.

Play ends when not enough cards are left for each player to have another turn. The player with the most cards wins.

Option: Children toss a penny to determine whether the player with the most or the fewest cards wins.

Game Variations

1. Use a set of double-nine dominoes instead of a set of number cards to generate addition problems. Place the dominoes facedown on the playing surface. Each player turns over a domino and calls out the sum of the dots on the two halves. The winner of a round takes all the dominoes then in play.
2. To practice addition with three addends, use three cards.

Courtesy of:
The University of Chicago School "Everyday Mathematics"
http://everydaymath.uchicago.edu/

Name that Number

Materials: 4 cards each of numbers 0-10 and 1 card each of numbers 11-20

Number of Players: 3 or 4

Directions: A player shuffles the deck and places five cards face-up on the playing surface. This player leaves the rest of the deck facedown and then turns over and lays down the top card from the deck. The number on this card is the number to be named.

In turn, players try to (re)name the number on the set-apart top card by adding or subtracting the numbers on two of the five face-up cards.

A successful player takes both the two face-up cards and the number-named top card. A successful player also replaces those three cards by drawing from the top of the facedown deck.

Unsuccessful players lose their turns. But they turn over and lay down the top card from the facedown deck, and the number on this card becomes the new number to be named.

Play continues until all facedown cards have been turned over. The player who has taken the most cards at the end wins.

Mae's Turn:

Mae's Cards

The number to be named is 6. It may be named with 4+2, 8-2, or 10-4.

Mae selects 4+2. She takes the 4, 2 and 6 cards. She replaces the 4 and 2 cards with the top two cards from the facedown deck and then turns over and lays down the next card to replace the 6.

Mike's Turn:

Mike's Cards

The new number to be named is 16. Mike can't find two cards with which to name 16, so he loses his turn. He also turns over the next card from the facedown deck and places it on top of 16, and the number on this card becomes the new number to be named.

Play continues as before.

<u>Game Variations</u>:
- ❖ If children are finding the game difficult, increase the number of face-up cards.
- ❖ Use any combinations of two or more numbers and all operations. For example, Mike could have named 16 as follows:
  - ○ 10+7-1
  - ○ 10+12-7+1
  - ○ 8+12-10+7-1
- ❖ Children can experiment by using different numbers of face-up cards.

Courtesy of:
The University of Chicago School "Everyday Mathematics"
http://everydaymath.uchicago.edu/

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Two-Fisted Pennies Game

<u>Materials</u>: 10 pennies for each player

<u>Number of Players</u>: 2 or more

<u>Directions</u>: Players count out 10 pennies, and then split them between their two hands. (Help children identify their left and right hands.)

Call on several children to share their amounts. For example: "My left hand has 1 and my right hand has 9; left hand 3 and right hand 7; left hand 4 and right hand 6; left hand 5 and right hand 5." Record the various splits for any given number on the chalkboard.

Partners continue to play using different total numbers of pennies – for example, 9, 12, 20.

Option: Partners take turns grabbing one part of a pile of 20 pennies. The other partner takes the remainder of the pile. Both players count their pennies, secretly. The partner making the grab uses the count to say how many pennies must be in the partner's hand. ("I have 12, so you must have 8." The eventual result is many addition names for 20.

Change the number of pennies in the pile to practice addition names for other numbers.

Courtesy of:
The University of Chicago School "Everyday Mathematics"
http://everydaymath.uchicago.edu/

Beat the Calculator

Materials: a calculator; a penny or a random-number generator (optional); 1 Fact Power Table (optional)

Number of Players: 3

Directions: One player is the "Caller," a second player is the "Calculator," and the third is the "Brain."

The "Caller" selects a fact problem by dropping a penny on Game Master 7 or by using a random-number generator to create an addition-fact problem. The "Calculator" then solves the problem with a calculator while the "Brain" solves it without a calculator. The "Caller" decides who got the answer first.

Players trade roles every 10 turns or so.

Taken from K-3 Everyday Mathematics Teacher's Reference Manual.

Courtesy of:
The University of Chicago School "Everyday Mathematics"
http://everydaymath.uchicago.edu/

General Math Strategies

<u>Strategies for factual learning</u>:
1. Count-on, count-by, touch-math, etc.
2. Use for students when the data shows it's working

<u>Strategies for complex problems</u>:
1. "Daddy, Mother, Sister, Brother" – Steps for long division. <u>D</u>ivide, <u>M</u>ultiple, <u>S</u>ubtract, <u>B</u>ring down

<u>Strategies for solving word-problems</u>:
1. Provide an advance organizer (tell students what they will learn and why).
2. Explicitly model strategic behavior using think-aloud approach.
3. Give guided practice.
4. Provide feedback during independent practice.

Courtesy of:
Using Progress Monitoring as Data-Based Decision-Making: Materials for Trainers, Presentation for ESU #1, Spring 2006, Dr. Erica Lembke, University of Missouri

Number Sense

The student will understand numbers, ways of representing numbers, relationships among numbers and number systems. Start teaching with categories: counting, reading and writing number symbols and words, relationships among whole numbers, place value, estimation.

❖ <u>**Counting strategy**</u>: Rote counting intervention: Each day, practice counting up to the highest number the student reached on the previous day. If mastered, add two more numbers. If not, practice numbers from the previous day. Practice counting with 1, but also beginning and ending with other numbers (i.e., begin at 8 and stop at 17). This leads to counting strategies that will be helpful in addition. Also, have the student count backwards.

❖ <u>**Rational counting**</u>: Counting items (concrete or pictorial) in a picture (need 1-1 correspondence). Given two groups of objects, student will count how many altogether.

❖ <u>**Ordinal counting**</u>: Identify ordinal position of objects in a line (first, second, third, etc.)

- ❖ **Skip counting**: Count objects/pictures by 2's, 5's, and 10's to 100. Skip count by 2's, 5's, and 10's orally. Recognize and extend patterns by filling in missing numbers.

- ❖ **Number symbols**: Say names when shown number symbols. Write numbers given the oral number name.

- ❖ **Number words**: Read number words. Write number words that are presented orally.

- ❖ **Writing numbers sequences**: Write the missing numerals that fill in the sequence.

- ❖ **Symbol quantity match**: Match number symbols to correct quantities of pictorial or concrete objects. Count out objects that match a given number symbol.

- ❖ **One-to-one correspondence between groups**: Match objects from one group to objects in another using 1-1 correspondence.

- ❖ **Quality comparison**: Are groups of objects equal in number? Which group has more or fewer? Arranging groups of objects in order from smallest to largest. Use symbols <, >, =. Identify number that is greater than, less than or equal to.

- ❖ **Place value**: "Trade" ones to make tens. Identify the numbers from concrete or pictorial representations of base 10 blocks. Represent numbers with base 10 blocks.

- ❖ **Column alignment**: Align 2 numerals with differing numbers of digits vertically.

- ❖ **Expanded notation**: Rewrite multidigit numbers as addition problems

- ❖ **Place value recognition**: Identify the value of each place in a mutlidigit number

- ❖ **Base ten identification**: Given a number, identify 1 or 10 more or less.

- ❖ **Estimation**: Estimate how many concrete or pictorial objects are in a group.

Courtesy of:
Using Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM) within a Response to Intervention System: Data Utilization, Presentation for ESU #1, January 2007, Dr. Erica Lembke, University of Missouri.

Math Interventions
Moderate/Intensive Interventions

Peer-Mediated Instruction

Suggestions for Implementing Successful Peer-Mediated Instructional Arrangements:

1. Establish rules and guidelines to help students function as a group and work cooperatively. (Johnson & Johnson, 1990)

2. Form heterogeneous groups based on such factors as gender, race, ethnicity, linguistic ability, academic and social level and ability to work together. (Dishon & O'Leary, 1991; Edwards & Stout, 1990)

3. Arrange the physical design of the classroom to facilitate peer-mediated instruction. (Johnson & Johnson, 1986)

4. Help students learn to work cooperatively. (Johnson & Johnson, 1990; Whittaker, 1991)

5. Deal with problems that typically occur with peer-mediated instructional arrangements, such as increased noise levels, complaints about partners and cheating. (Maheady, Harper, & Mallette, 1991)

Courtesy of:
www.deafed.department.tcnj.edu/math/peermediated.html

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PALS (Peer Assisted Learning Strategies)

Peer Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS) is a class-wide peer-tutoring program providing supplemental practice and instruction on key reading skills. *K-PALS* focuses on phonemic awareness, alphabetic principle and sight word reading. *First Grade PALS* focuses on alphabetic principle, fluency and sight word reading. *Second-Eighth Grade PALS* focuses on fluency and accuracy in connected text and reading comprehension strategies of summarization, main idea and predication. *High School PALS* focuses on Fluency and comprehension skills within the context of a career, job oriented structure. Lessons are provided to train students to be "readers and coaches." Students are taught correction procedures and instructional cues. *K-8 PALS* can be used in general or special educational classrooms. *High School PALS* has only been validated in special education and remedial settings.
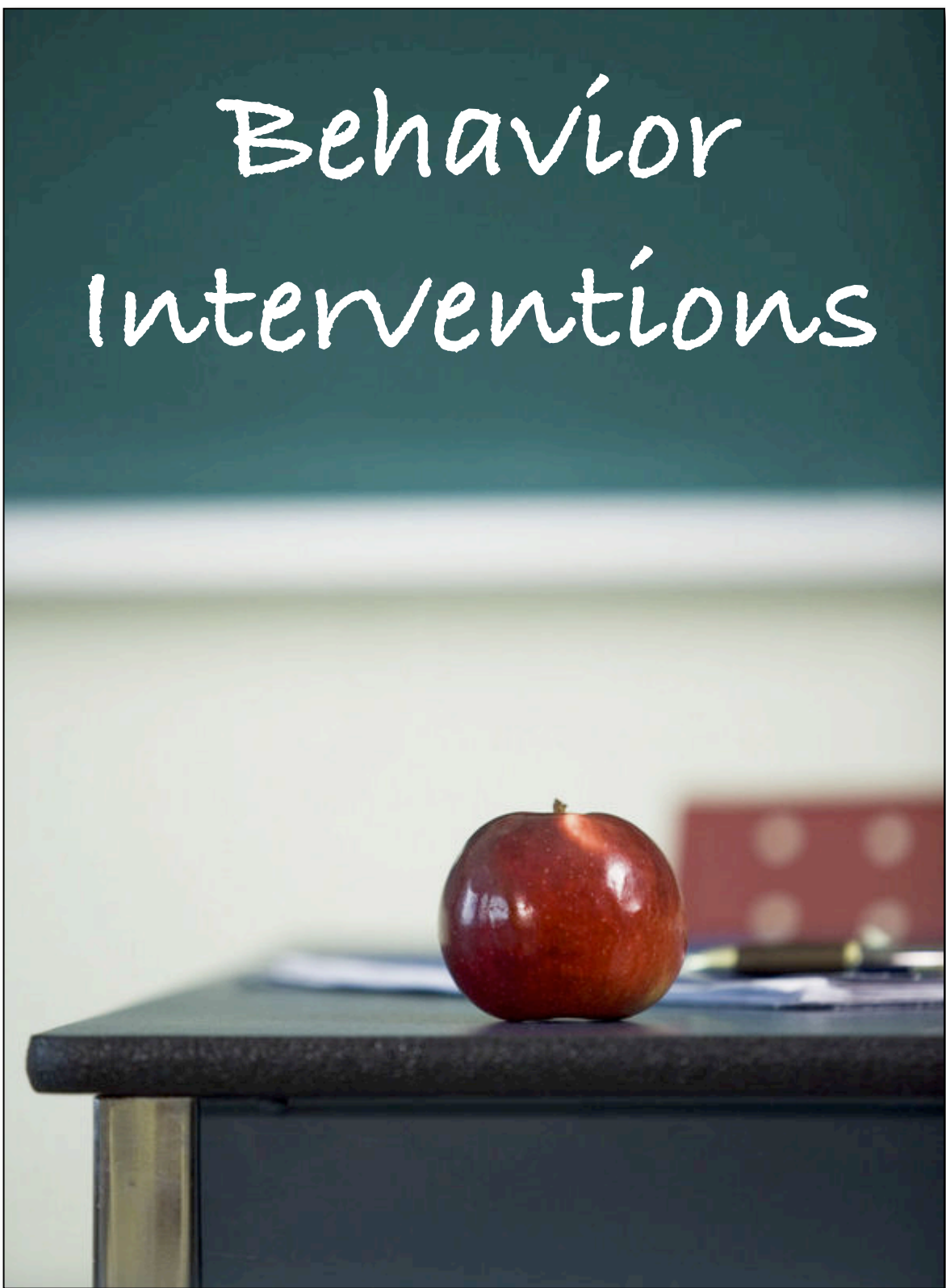
Program: PALS (Peer Assisted Learning Strategies)
Publisher/Source: Vanderbilt University
Educational level: K, 1, 2-6, 7-12
Author: Lynn and Doug Fuchs

Behavior Interventions

BEHAVIOR INTERVENTIONS

Behavior is a prevalent issue in today's society and school systems. Utilizing a problem solving process, such as RtI, is applicable to behavioral difficulties, much like it is applied to the academic arena. One similarity between academic and behavior systems is in program and intervention selection. More specifically, when selecting a behavioral process, the school administration is encouraged to carefully select programs and interventions that are consistently implemented school-wide.

Data collection is another commonality between RtI and behavior. In order to assess the level of intensity and select a behavioral intervention, data must be obtained. Prior to intervening, even at the primary level, a teacher ideally gathers baseline data on the student exhibiting problematic behaviors. One way to obtain a baseline is to evaluate discipline referrals. However, there are many ways to evaluate a student's behavior depending on the definition of the behavior. For example, observations may be conducted to evaluate the duration, intensity, and frequency of the defined behavior (*see glossary*). Baseline data and teacher information will assist the team in determining appropriate steps to address the student's needs.

Although school-wide behavioral systems are important for all students, a system of identifying at-risk students must be in place. For example, looking closely at office disciplinary referrals (ODR) is one way of analyzing which students are in need of intervention (Irvin et al., 2006). ODRs are a naturally occurring data source that are relatively cheap, ongoing, and effective measurements for identifying at-risk students (Irvin et al., 2006; Putnam, Luiselli, Handler, & Jefferson, 2003; Sprague et al., 2001; Sugai et al., 2000; Tidwell, Flannery, & Lewis-Palmer, 2003; Walker, Cheney, Stage, & Blum, 2005). One such program of identifying office referrals is the School-wide Information System (www.swiss.org).

Behavior interventions, much like academic interventions, can and should be implemented in a systematic format. It is ideal to reduce student confusion by implementing school wide systems through assuring classroom and grade level consistency. Positive Behavior Support is one example of the behavioral systematic problem solving process, which utilizes various levels and programs of intervention. Behavioral systems should be selected after consideration of the unique needs of your school environment (for example: students, size, staff composition, geographic location, etc.).

At the most basic level (Tier I, also known as Primary Prevention or least intensive), the teacher begins by addressing problem behaviors class-wide. Tier I works most effectively when the system is implemented in Kindergarten through 6th grades, much like an academic core program should be implemented. PBS describes the first tier in this fashion.

> *Primary prevention strategies focus on interventions used on a school-wide basis for all students (Sugai & Horner, 2002). This level of prevention is considered "primary"*

because all students are exposed in the same way, and at the same level, to the intervention. The primary prevention level is the largest by number. Approximately 80% to 85% of students who are not at risk for behavior problems respond in a positive manner to this prevention level (Sugai et al, 2000). Primary prevention strategies include, but are not in limited to, using effective teaching practices and curricula, explicitly teaching behavior that is acceptable within the school environment, focusing on ecological arrangement and systems within the school, consistent use of precorrection procedures, using active supervision of common areas, and creating reinforcement systems that are used on a school-wide basis (Lewis, Sugai, & Colvin,1998; Martella & Nelson, 2003; Nelson, Crabtree, Marchand-Martella, & Martella,1998; Nelson, Martella, & Marchand-Martella, 2002). www.pbis.org

If, upon these attempts, progress is not identified and a student has additional needs that have not been met, more intensive interventions should be attempted. This moves the intervention along the continuum toward Tier II (also known as Secondary Prevention Strategies or Moderate Intensity). Tier II may require direct instruction for the student and can be individualized in the classroom setting or can occur in a smaller group setting (i.e., social skills). PBS's definition of the second tier is as follows:

Secondary prevention strategies involve students (i.e., 10% to 15% of the school population) who do not respond to the primary prevention strategies and are at risk for academic failure or behavior problems but are not in need of individual supports (Nelson, et al., 2002). Interventions at the secondary level often are delivered in small groups to maximize time and effort and should be developed with the unique needs of the students within the group. Examples of these interventions include social support such as social skills training (e.g., explicit instruction in skill deficit areas, friendship clubs, check in/ check out, role playing) or academic support (i.e., use of scientifically-validated intervention programs and tutoring). Additionally, secondary programs could include behavioral support approaches (e.g., simple Functional Behavioral Assessments [FBA], precorrection, self-management training). Even with the heightened support within secondary level interventions, some students (1% to 7%) will need the additional assistance at the tertiary level (Walker et al., 1996). Tertiary prevention programs focus on students who display persistent patterns of disciplinary problems (Nelson, Benner, Reid, Epstein, & Currin, 2002). www.pbis.org

At times, a student's behavior is so severe that intensive and individualized behavior planning must be put in place to address his/her needs. A student is then moved into the final tier, Tier III (also known as Tertiary or Intensive Interventions), where specific and involved behavior plans will likely occur. PBS defines the third tier as:

Tertiary-level programs are also called intensive or individualized interventions and are the most comprehensive and complex. The interventions within this level are strength based in that the complexity and intensity of the intervention plans directly reflect the complexity and intensity of the behaviors. Students within the tertiary level continue

involvement in primary and secondary intervention programs and receive additional supports as well. These supports could include use of full FBA, de-escalation training for the student, heightened use of natural supports (e.g., family member, friends of the student), and development of a Behavior Intervention Plan (BIP). www.pbis.org

Behavior Interventions
Least Intensive Interventions

Response-Cost Lottery

Designed to be time effective for teachers, this strategy can be used with individual students or small groups.

Materials:
- ❖ Index card, tape
- ❖ Colored slips of paper (different color for each student)

Preparation:
- ❖ Develop a reward menu for each student targeted for this intervention.
- ❖ Select 1-3 behaviors that you wish to reduce in the targeted student(s) and write out concrete definitions for each.
- ❖ Decide on a time period during the instructional day that the Response Cost Lottery program will be in effect (e.g., 30 minutes during math class). *NOTE:* You may want to limit the length of the monitoring period at the start of the intervention, to increase the odds of student success. As the intervention proves successful, you can extend the monitoring period.
- ❖ Decide how many points (i.e., paper slips) you will award to students at the outset of each monitoring period. (*NOTE:* For short monitoring periods, you may want to start with 4-5 points/paper slips.)
- ❖ Prepare the lottery tickets. Use a different color paper for each student's tickets, so that you can tell them apart from one another. Or type blanks on student tickets onto which the recipient can write in his or her name and the date that the ticket was awarded.
- ❖ Choose how frequently you will hold lottery-ticket prize drawings. *NOTE:* Many teachers find that once per week is sufficiently motivating to make the intervention effective. For students with more intense or severe levels of misbehavior, however, you may want initially to hold prize drawings more frequently (e.g., daily) and as students' behaviors improve, gradually extend intervals between drawings

Steps in Implementing This Intervention:
Step 1: Introduce the Response Cost Lottery Program to Targeted Students.
- ❖ Explain that students will have the chance to earn rewards for good behavior.
- ❖ Review with students the negative behaviors that you would like them to reduce. Use demonstration and modeling to ensure that students clearly know (a) the negative behavior(s) that should be avoided and (b) positive behavior(s) that they can engage in instead. Post the definitions that you have written for behaviors that are to be reduced.

❖ Tape an index card on three sides onto the top of each student's desk. Under the untapped corner of the index card, slip the pieces of paper assigned to that student-so that about half the slip is visible.
❖ Tell students that the slips of paper represent behavior points. Let them know that every time that they show a negative behavior during the monitoring period, you will remove one of the slips of paper from their desk. At the end of the monitoring period, any slips that remain will be placed into a lottery ticket container.
❖ Inform student that at the end of each week, you will hold a drawing for one or more prizes. Emphasize that students who hold onto more tickets through the week stand a greater chance of winning prizes.

Step 2: Start the Response Cost Lottery Intervention.

Consider reminding students at the start of each day's monitoring period of your positive behavioral expectations (e.g., "We are going to start our lottery game now. Be sure to give me your best attention, raise you hand to get permission to speak, and do your best work!"). If you must remove a student's lottery slip because of misbehavior, do so quietly and without drawing undue attention to him or her. If the student does not appear to understand why you are removing a slip, provide a brief explanation in a neutral voice and move on.

Step 3: Hold a Lottery-Ticket Drawing.

At the end of each week (or alternative time interval that you have selected), hold a lottery-ticket drawing and permit students whose colored slips were drawn to select a prize from their reward menu. Empty the tickets from the lottery-ticket container and start over.

Hints for Using Response-Cost Lottery:

Use Bonus Tickets. You can increase motivation by telling students that they can earn an extra bonus ticket each day that they manage to hold onto all of their allocated slips throughout the entire observation period. These bonus tickets are placed in the lottery-ticket container along with the student's other earned tickets.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Behavior Contracts

The behavior contract is a simple positive-reinforcement intervention that is widely used by teachers to change student behavior. The behavior contract spells out in detail the expectations of student and teacher (and sometimes parents) in carrying out the intervention plan, making it a useful planning document. Also, because the student usually has input into the conditions that are established within the contract for earning rewards, the student is more likely to be motivated to abide by the terms of the behavior contract than if those terms had been imposed by someone else.

For example, a goal may be stated in the contract that a student "will participate in class activities, raising his hand, and being recognized by the classroom or specials teacher before offering an answer or comment." Art, gym, or library instructors would then rate the student's behaviors in these out-of-class settings and share these ratings with the classroom teacher.

Steps in Implementing This Intervention

The teacher decides which specific behaviors to select for the behavior contract. When possible, teachers should define behavior targets for the contract in the form of positive, pro-academic or pro-social behaviors. For example, an instructor may be concerned that a student frequently calls out answers during lecture periods without first getting permission from the teacher to speak. For the contract, the teacher's concern that the student talks out may be restated positively as "The student will participate in class lecture and discussion, raising his hand and being recognized by the teacher before offering an answer or comment." In many instances, the student can take part in selecting positive goals to increase the child's involvement in, and motivation toward, the behavioral contract.

The teacher meets with the student to draw up a behavior contract. (If appropriate, other school staff members and perhaps the student's parent(s) are invited to participate as well.) The teacher next meets with the student to draw up a behavior contract. The contract should include:

❖ *A listing of student behaviors that are to be reduced or increased.* As stated above, the student's behavioral goals should usually be stated in positive, goal-oriented terms. Also, behavioral definitions should be described in sufficient detail to prevent disagreement about student compliance. The teacher should also select target behaviors that are easy to observe and verify. For instance completion of class assignments is a behavioral goal that can be readily evaluated. If the teacher selects the goal that a child "will not steal pens from other students," though, this goal will be very difficult to observe and confirm.

❖ *A statement or section that explains the minimum conditions under which the student will earn a point, sticker, or other token for showing appropriate behaviors.* For example, a contract may state that "Johnny will add a point to his Good Behavior Chart each time he arrives at school on time and hands in his completed homework assignment to the teacher."

❖ *The conditions under which the student will be able to redeem collected stickers, points, or other tokens to redeem for specific rewards.* A contract may state, for instance, that "When Johnny has earned 5 points on his Good Behavior Chart, he may select a friend, choose a game from the play-materials shelf, and spend 10 minutes during free time at the end of the day playing the game."

❖ *Bonus and penalty clauses (optional).* Although not required, bonus and penalty clauses can provide extra incentives for the student to follow the contract. A bonus clause usually offers the student some type of additional pay-off for consistently reaching behavioral targets. A penalty clause may prescribe a penalty for serious problem behaviors; e.g., the student disrupts the class or endangers the safety of self or of others.

❖ *Areas for signature.* The behavior contract should include spaces for both teacher and student signatures, as a sign that both parties agree to adhere to their responsibilities in the contract. Additionally, the instructor may want to include signature blocks for other staff members (e.g., a school administrator) and/or the student's parent(s).

<u>Hints for Using Behavior Contracts:</u>
Behavior contracts can be useful when the student has behavioral problems in school locations other than the classroom (e.g., art room, cafeteria). Once a behavior contract has proven effective in the classroom, the instructor can meet with the student to extend the terms of the contract across multiple settings. Adults in these other school locations would then be responsible for rating the student's behaviors during the time that the student is with them.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Working With Defiant Kids:
Communication Tools for Teachers

Teachers cite conflicts with defiant and noncompliant students as being a primary cause of classroom disruption. In many schools, staff believe that student misbehavior is so pervasive that it seriously interferes with effective instruction. This article outlines important communication tools that teachers can use to defuse (or even prevent!) confrontations with students.

How to Use Active Listening to Interrupt an Upset Student Without Confrontation. Here is a useful tip for using active listening. When a student is quite upset and talking very quickly, you can safely interrupt him or her, take control of the conversation, and still seem supportive by using an active listening phrase (Thompson, 1993). For example, you might interrupt a student by saying, "Whoa, just a minute! You've covered a lot of ground. Let me just try to sum up what you said so that I know that I am understanding you!"

Why do classroom conflicts between teachers and students seem to occur so frequently?
Conflicts are social power struggles and must always involve at least two parties. As conflicts between students and teachers appear to be so widespread, it might help to examine what factors tend to push each party into these power struggles.

Students who are prone to conflict often do poorly in school. They may act out in part to mask their embarrassment about their limited academic skills. These students may also lack basic prosocial strategies that would help them to work through everyday school difficulties. For example, students may become confrontational because they do not know how to ask for help on a difficult assignment, lack the ability to sit down with a peer and calmly talk through

a problem, or are unable to negotiate politely with a teacher to get an extension on an assignment.

Students can also sometimes adopt defiance toward teachers as a deliberate strategy because, in the past, this confrontational behavior seems to have paid off for them in the form of reduced expectations for schoolwork or improved social standing with peers. The longer that a student has engaged in habitual confrontational behavior, the more time and energy a teacher will probably need to invest in specific strategies to turn that behavior around.

Teachers who get pulled into power struggles with students may not realize that they are often simply reacting to student provocation. For each step that the student escalates the conflict (e.g., raising his or her voice, assuming a threatening posture), the teacher matches the step (e.g., speaking more loudly, moving into the student's personal space). In other words, a teacher allows the student to control the interaction.

Furthermore, if an instructor has already decided that a student is generally defiant, the teacher may be overly quick to jump to conclusions, interpreting any ambiguous behavior on the part of the student (e.g., muttering in frustration during a test) as intended to be deliberately confrontational (Fisher et al., 1991). The instructor may then reprimand or criticize the student, triggering a confrontation.

What is the most important point to keep in mind when working with a defiant or noncompliant student?

The cardinal rule to keep in mind in managing conflicts with students is to stay outwardly calm and to maintain a professional perspective. For example, it is certainly OK to experience anger when a student deliberately attempts to insult or confront you in front of the entire classroom. If you react with an angry outburst, though, the student will control the interaction, perhaps escalating the conflict until the student engineers his or her desired outcome. If you instead approach the student in a business-like, neutral manner, and impose consistent, fair consequences for misbehavior, you will model the important lesson that you cannot be pulled into a power struggle at the whim of a student.

Instructors who successfully stay calm in the face of student provocation often see two additional benefits:

1. Over time, students may become less defiant, because they no longer experience the reward of watching you react in anger;
2. Because you now deal with student misbehavior impartially, efficiently and quickly, you will have more instructional time available that used to be consumed in epic power struggles.

How do I deliver a teacher command in a way that will minimize the chance of a power struggle?

You can increase the odds that a student will follow a teacher command by:

❖ approaching the student privately and using a quiet voice

- ❖ establishing eye contact and calling the student by name before giving the command
- ❖ stating the command as a positive (do) statement, rather than a negative (don't) statement.
- ❖ phrasing the command in clear and descriptive terms (using simple language that is easily understood) so the student knows exactly what he or she is expected to do (Walker & Walker, 1991).

There are several ways that you might use to deliver a teacher command. The table below presents two sequences for teacher commands, one brief and one extended (Thompson, 1993; Walker & Walker, 1991). Your choice of which to use will depend on your own personal preference and your judgment about how a particular student will respond to each.

Teacher Command Sequence (Brief)	*Teacher Command Sequence (Extended)*
1. Make the request. Use simple, clear language that the student understands. If possible, phrase the request as a positive (do) statement, rather than a negative (don't) statement. (E.g., "John, please start your math assignment now.") Wait a reasonable time for the student to comply (e.g., 5 to 20 seconds).	1. Make the request. Use simple, clear language that the student understands. If possible, phrase the request as a positive (do) statement, rather than a negative (don't) statement. (E.g., "John, please start your math assignment now.") Wait a reasonable time for the student to comply (e.g., 5 to 20 seconds).
2. [If the student fails to comply] Repeat the request. Say to the student. "You need to..." and restate the request. (E.g., "John, you need to start your math assignment now.") Take no other action. Wait a reasonable time for the student to comply (e.g., 5 to 20 seconds).	2. [If the student fails to comply] Repeat the request as a 2-part choice. Give the student two clear choices with clear consequences. Order the choices so that the student hears a pre-selected negative consequence as the first choice and the teacher request as the second choice. (E.g., "John, you can refuse to participate in the math assignment and receive a referral to the principal's office, or you can start the math assignment now and not be written up. It's your choice." Take no other action. Wait a reasonable time for the student to comply (e.g., 5 to 20 seconds).
3. [If the student fails to comply] Impose a pre-selected negative consequence. As you impose the consequence, ignore student questions or complaints that appear intended to entangle you in a power struggle.	3. [Optional – If the student fails to comply] Offer a face-saving out. Say to the student, "Is there anything that I can say or do at this time to earn your cooperation?" (Thompson, 1993). 4. [If the student fails to comply] Impose the pre-selected negative consequence. As you impose the consequence, ignore student questions or complaints that appear intended to entangle you in a power struggle.

Are there other effective communication strategies that I can use with defiant students?

There are a number of supportive techniques that teachers can use to establish rapport and convey their behavioral expectations clearly to students, including:

❖ <u>Active Listening.</u> Active listening, or paraphrasing, is the act of summarizing another person's ideas, opinions, or point of view in your own words. Students who are chronically hostile and confrontational often believe that nobody truly listens to them. When upset, they frequently interrupt the teacher because they believe that the instructor does not understand their point of view.

Active listening is powerful because it demonstrates beyond a doubt that you have not only heard the student's comments but that you have grasped his or her opinions so clearly that you can repeat them back to the satisfaction of the speaker. Note, though, that active listening does not imply that you necessarily agree with the student's point of view. Rather, it shows that you fully comprehend that viewpoint. Students tend to view teachers who practice active listening as being empathic, respectful, and caring individuals.

Here are some statements you can use when paraphrasing student comments:
   ❖ "Let me be sure that I understand you correctly..."
   ❖ "I want to summarize the points that you made, so that I know that I heard you right..."
   ❖ "So from your point of view, the situation looks like this..."

Once you have finished summarizing the student's point of view, give that student the opportunity to let you know how accurately he or she thinks you paraphrased those views: "Does what I just said sound like your point of view?" And don't be surprised if the student clarifies his or her position at this point. ("Well, teacher, I don't think that you really meant to pick on me when I walked into class late, but when you called me by name and drew attention to me, I got really embarrassed!") Though a simple communication technique, active listening can transform a potential classroom conflict into a productive student/teacher conversation.

❖ <u>I-Centered Statements.</u> When we tell oppositional students that they are engaging in inappropriate behaviors, we run the risk of having them challenge the truth of our statements or of taking offense at being criticized for their conduct. An instructor's use of I-centered statements can reduce the potential that teacher criticism will lead to student confrontation. Because I-centered statements reflect only the instructor's opinions and viewpoints, they are less incendiary and open to challenge than more global statements that pin blame for misbehavior on the student.

For example, rather than telling a student, "You are always disrupting class with your jokes and fooling around!," you may say, "Zeke, I find it difficult to keep everybody's attention when there are other conversations going on in the classroom. That's why I need you to open your book and focus on today's lesson."

❖ **Pairing of Criticism With Praise (Adapted from Thompson, 1993).** Sometimes you have no choice but to let a student know directly and bluntly that his or her classroom behaviors are not acceptable. Many oppositional students, though, have experienced a painful history of rejection in personal relationships and lack close ties with adults.

No matter how supportively you present behavioral criticism to these students, they may assume that you are in fact rejecting them as individuals and react strongly to this perceived rejection. One strategy to reassure the student that you continue to value him or her as a person is to (a) describe the problem behavior that you would like to see changed, (b) clearly outline appropriate behavioral alternatives (b) praise the student about some other aspect of his or her behavior or accomplishments, and finally (c) state that you value having the student as a part of the classroom community.

Here is a demonstration of this communication strategy:
  1. **Description of problem behavior:** "Trina, you said disrespectful things about other students during our class meeting this morning. You continued to do so even after I asked you to stop."
  2. **Appropriate behavioral alternative(s):** "It's OK to disagree with another person's ideas. But you need to make sure that your comments do not insult or hurt the feelings of others."
  3. **Specific praise:** "I am talking to you about this behavior because know that you can do better. In fact, I have really come to value your classroom comments. You have great ideas and express yourself very well."
  4. **Affirmation statement:** "You are an important member of this class!"

What are some conflict pitfalls that I should watch out for?
Communication is never easy, especially when you work with students who can be defiant. You can maximize your chances for successful communication, though, if you:
  ❖ Avoid a mismatch between your words and nonverbal signals. Students are quick to sense when a speaker's body language and tone of voice convey a different message than his or her words. If the student reads your nonverbal signals as being disrespectful or confrontational, conflict may result. If a teacher speaks politely to a student, for example, but has his fists clenched and uses a sarcastic tone, that student is likely to discount the instructor's words and focus instead on his nonverbal signals. Be sure that you convey sincerity by matching your verbal message with your nonverbal cues.

❖ Take time to plan your response before reacting to provocative student behavior or remarks. It is easy to react without thinking when a student makes comments or engages in behavior that offends or upsets you. If you let anger take over, however, and blurt out the first thing that comes to mind, you may end up making "the greatest speech that you'll ever live to regret" (Thompson, 1993, p. 32). A teacher's angry response can escalate student misbehavior, resulting in a power struggle that spirals out of control. When provoked, take several seconds to collect your thoughts and to think through an appropriate, professional response before you take action.

❖ Do not become entangled in a discussion or argument with a confrontational student (Walker & Walker, 1991). Some students are very skilled at dragging teachers into discussions or arguments that turn into power struggles. When you must deliver a command to confront or discipline a student who is defiant or confrontational, be careful not to get hooked into a discussion or argument with that student. If you find yourself being drawn into an exchange with the student (e.g., raising your voice, reprimanding the student), immediately use strategies to disengage yourself (e.g., by moving away from the student, repeating your request in a business-like tone of voice, imposing a pre-determined consequence for noncompliance).

❖ Do not try to coerce or force the student to comply. It is a mistake to use social pressure (e.g., reprimands, attempting to stare down students, standing watch over them) or physical force to make a confrontational student comply with a request (Walker & Walker, 1991). The student will usually resist and a power struggle will result. In particular, adults should not lay hands on a student to force compliance, as the student will almost certainly view this act as a serious physical threat and respond in kind.

What are proactive steps that I can take to head off or minimize conflict with students?

The best way to handle a student conflict is to prevent it from occurring altogether: Some ideas to accomplish this are to:

Offer the student face-saving exit strategies.

According to Fisher, et al. (1993), "face-saving reflects a person's need to reconcile the stand he takes in a negotiation or agreement with his principles and with his past words and deeds" (p. 29). When a potential confrontation looms, you can give a student a face-saving way out by phrasing your request in a way that lets the student preserve his or her self-image even as the student complies.

A teacher, for example, who says to a student, "Rashid, take out your book now and pay attention--or I will send you to the office!" backs the student into a corner. The student cannot comply without appearing to have done so merely to avoid the threatened disciplinary consequence (that is, prompt compliance would probably result in Rashid's losing face with his peers). The teacher might instead use this face-saving alternative:

"Rashid, please take out your book now and pay attention. We need to make sure that you do well on the upcoming test so that you continue to be eligible to play on the lacrosse team. They need your talent!"

Act in positive ways that are inconsistent with the student's expectations (Fisher, et al., 1991).

Because they have experienced so many disappointments in school, confrontational students may believe that teachers do not take a personal interest in them or value their classroom contributions. You can surprise these students and begin to forge more positive relationships by showing through your actions that you do indeed value them.

You might, for example, occasionally bring in articles from popular magazines on topics that you know will interest the student, set aside time for weekly individual conferences to be sure that the student understands and is making progress on all assignments, or take a couple of minutes each day to engage the student in social conversation. Each ach small random act of kindness will probably not instantly change a teacher-student relationship. Over time, however, such acts will demonstrate your empathy and caring--and are likely to have a cumulative, powerful, and positive impact on the student.

Select fair behavioral consequences in advance (Walker & Walker, 1991).

When you are face-to-face with a confrontational student, it can be a challenge to remain impartial and fair in choosing appropriate consequences for misbehavior. Instead, take time in advance to set up a classwide menu of positive consequences for good behaviors and negative consequences for misbehavior. Be sure that all students understand what those consequences are. Then be consistent in applying those consequences to individual cases of student misbehavior.

Avoid making task demands of students when they are upset.

Students will be much more likely to become confrontational if you approach them with a task demand at a time when they are already frustrated or upset. When possible, give agitated students a little breathing room to collect themselves and calm down before giving them commands (Walker & Walker, 1993).

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

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Mystery Motivator

This reward system intrigues students because it carries a certain degree of unpredictability. The strategy can be used with an entire class or with individual students.

Materials:
- ❖ Mystery Motivator Chart
- ❖ Special watercolor markers (including 'invisible' marker)*

Preparation:
- ❖ Develop a reward menu for the individual or class targeted for this intervention.
- ❖ Select 1-3 behaviors that you wish to reduce or increase in the targeted student(s) and write out concrete definitions for each.
- ❖ Decide on a time period during the instructional day that the Mystery Motivator program will be in effect (e.g., during math class, all morning, throughout the school day).
- ❖ Decide on the minimum behavioral criteria that the student must meet in order to earn a chance to fill in a blank on the Mystery Motivator Chart (e.g., all homework turned in; fewer than 2 teacher reminders to pay attention during reading group)
- ❖ Prepare the Mystery Motivator Chart.
- ❖ First, decide how frequently you want students to be able to earn a reward (a good rule of thumb is to start with a frequency of 3-4 times per week and then to reduce the frequency as student behaviors improve).
- ❖ Next, randomly select as many days of the week on the chart as you plan to reward students. For each day that you select on the chart, write the letter "M" into the chart blank with the invisible-ink pen.
- ❖ Finally, come up with guidelines for the student or class to earn bonus points (e.g., if the student or class earn the chance to fill out at least 3 of the five chart spaces in a week, they will be given the bonus points that appear in the Bonus Points box on the Mystery Motivator Chart). Each week, you will write a different number of bonus points (e.g., between 1 and 5) into the bonus points box. If the student or class earns these points, they will be able to redeem them for a prize from the reward menu.

Steps in Implementing This Intervention:
Step 1: Introduce the Mystery Motivator program to students:
- ❖ Explain that students will have the chance to earn rewards for good behavior.
- ❖ Review the behaviors that you have selected with students. Use demonstration and modeling to ensure that students clearly know either (a) the negative behavior(s) that should be avoided or (b) the positive behavior(s) that should be increased. Post the behavioral definitions that you have written.
- ❖ Introduce the Mystery Motivator Chart. Tell students that they can earn a chance to fill in the blank on the chart for the current day to uncover a possible reward-but only if they first are able to show the appropriate behaviors. Specifically, inform students of the behavioral criteria that they must meet and the time period each day that the program will be in effect (e.g., "If you turn in all of your classwork assignments by 2 p.m., you will be allowed to color the daily blank on the chart.")
- ❖ Let students know that the magical letter "M" (for Mystery Motivator) has been secretly placed in some (but not all) of the chart squares. If the student reveals the "M" as he or she fills in the chart, the student can select a reward from the reward menu.

Step 2: Start the Mystery Motivator intervention.

At the end of the daily monitoring period, inform the student or class whether they have earned the chance to fill in the Mystery Motivator Chart. Permit the student or class to color in the chart blank for the current day, using the special markers.

- ❖ If the magic letter "M" appears, the student or class can select a prize from the prize menu.
- ❖ If the magic letter "M" does not appear, congratulate and praise the student or class for their good behaviors. Let them know that they will have another chance to fill in the Mystery Motivator Chart tomorrow.

Step 3: Award Bonus Points.

At the end of each week, determine whether the student or class has met criteria to fill in the Bonus Points box. Award any points that appear in the box and let the student or class redeem them for corresponding prizes from the reward menu.

Hints for Using Mystery Motivator:

Substitute Paper Slips for Special Markers. Students find it very motivating to color in chart blanks to uncover a hidden prize symbol. However, the teacher who does not have special "invisible ink" markers readily available can substitute envelopes and folded slips of paper. At the start of the week, the teacher takes five envelopes and writes one of the days of the week on the back of each. The teacher then takes five slips of paper. For each day (e.g., 3) that child can earn a reward, the teacher writes the letter "M" on the slip. The remaining slips are left blank. The teacher then folds all slips in half, randomly mixes them up, seals them into the envelopes, and stores them securely. Whenever the student or class meets the behavioral criteria, the teacher retrieves the envelope with the current day written on it and hands it to a student to open. If the letter "M" appears on the slip inside, the student or class can choose a reward from the reward menu.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Breaking the Attention-Seeking Habit:
The Power of Random Positive Teacher Attention

Some students misbehave because they are trying to attract teacher attention. Surprisingly, many students who value adult attention don't really care if it is positive (praise) or negative attention (reprimands)--they just want attention!

Unfortunately, instructors with students who thrive on teacher attention can easily fall into a reprimand trap. The scenario might unfold much like this: First, the student misbehaves. Then

the teacher approaches the student and reprimands him or her for misbehaving. Because the student finds the negative teacher attention to be reinforcing, he or she continues to misbehave-and the teacher naturally responds by reprimanding the student more often! An escalating, predictable cycle is established, with the student repeatedly acting-out and teacher reprimanding him or her.

Teachers can break out of this cycle, though, by using random positive attention with students. Essentially, the instructor starts to ignore student attention-seeking behaviors, while at the same time randomly giving the student positive attention. That is, the student receives regular positive teacher attention but at times unconnected to misbehavior. So the student still gets the adult attention that he or she craves. More importantly, the link between student misbehavior and resulting negative teacher attention is broken.

<u>Steps in Implementing This Intervention:</u>
Step 1: Select How the Teacher Will Show Positive Attention to the Student.
The key to this intervention strategy is that the teacher will be giving the student regular positive attention at times of his or her choosing. It is important, then, for the teacher to put together a list of ways to deliver positive attention that (a) can be done quickly, without disrupting classroom instruction, and (b) the student actually finds rewarding. Here are just a few ideas for giving positive attention:

- ❖ Pat the student on the shoulder
- ❖ Make eye contact and smile at the student
- ❖ Check in with the student about how he or she is progressing with an assignment
- ❖ Call on the student in class (when you are pretty sure that he or she knows the answer!)
- ❖ Pass the student a note with a cheerful comment, specific praise, or compliment
- ❖ Give brief, specific praise about the student's work or behavior (e.g., "I really like to see how carefully you are drawing that map, Joanna!")
- ❖ Give the student a few words of encouragement
- ❖ Invite the student to summarize for the group the main points of a classroom discussion
- ❖ Converse briefly with the student
- ❖ Select the student to carry out a classroom task (e.g., passing out papers) that he or she likes

Step 2: Decide How Frequently the Teacher Will Give Random Positive Attention to the Student During a Class.
The teacher now needs to figure out how often during a class period he or she will approach the student to give positive attention. Generally, this intervention works best if the teacher is able to give the student a fairly high level of positive attention, at least at the outset.

One good way for the teacher to estimate how frequently to provide positive attention is to observe a student across several class periods. The instructor keeps track of how frequently (e.g., once every 5 minutes) the student tries to capture the teacher's attention with problem

behaviors. When the teacher has a good idea of how often the student typically seeks attention, he or she can plan to counter the misbehavior by giving the student random positive attention at the same rate. *Note:* A teacher can simply estimate the student's rate of attention-getting behavior based on past experience with him or her.

Step 3: The Teacher Chooses the Time(s) and Setting(s) in Which to Use Random Positive Attention.

If the target student engages in attention-seeking during only certain times of the day or in particular locations (e.g., just after lunch in math class), the teacher can limit this intervention to just those time periods. If the student seems to be attention-seeking most of the time and in most locations, however, the teacher may want to use the random attention strategy across a greater part of the school day.

Step 4: Start the Random Attention Intervention.

Unlike some intervention ideas, random teacher attention does not require that the student be formally trained in its use. Just start the intervention! There are just two simple rules:

- ❖ Rule 1: Whenever the student inappropriately tries to get the teacher's attention, the instructor either (a) ignores the student or (b) in a neutral manner, quietly and briefly redirects the child to task. The teacher then continues teaching.
- ❖ Rule 2: During a given class session, whenever the student is due for positive teacher attention, the teacher observes the student. If the student is not engaged in attention-seeking behavior when the teacher glances at him or her, the instructor immediately approaches the student and briefly delivers positive attention (using a choice from the list developed in Step 1). Then continue teaching. Otherwise, the teacher simply ignores the student's attention-seeking behavior and continues teaching.

Step 5: Fade the Successful Intervention Over Time.

Once the teacher finds that random positive attention has significantly reduced or eliminated the student's attention-seeking behavior, the instructor can gradually fade the intervention. Each week, the instructor reduces the number of times that he or she approaches the student with positive attention--until the teacher is only occasionally providing that attention. If at any point in the fading process, the teacher discovers that the student begins again to act in an attention-seeking manner, the teacher can temporarily increase the rate of random positive attention until the student's behavior improves. Then the teacher continues fading the attention.

Hints for Using The Power of Random Positive Teacher Attention:

Teach other instructors to use random attention. After you have experienced success with this strategy, teach other educators who work with the child to use the intervention. Share with them your list of positive ways to show random attention to the student.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Preventing Graffiti and Vandalism: Enlisting the Power of Classrooms

Graffiti and vandalism can cost a school a great deal of money in repairs. They also may contribute to a perception that the school is not well cared for and is an unsafe environment for students and staff. Because the writing of graffiti and acts of vandalism are usually carried out in secret, schools may discover that these types of misbehavior are difficult to curb. One intervention idea to reduce misbehavior directed against school property is to have classrooms of students adopt various school locations and to reward them for each day that these locations are kept in good repair (Watson, 1996). When student bystanders are given a personal stake in the maintenance of school property, they can quickly send a message to potential vandals that defacing or destroying property is not cool!

Encourage Classrooms to Help to Implement the Program.
Teachers can tap student creativity and strengthen their classroom's commitment to the location-adoption project by having students assist in carrying out the program. Students, for example, might design their own site-adoption posters or visit their adopted location on a daily basis to evaluate its appearance (using a quality checklist of their own creation). Students might also be enlisted in a service-learning project to make repairs or improvements to a school setting. A classroom responsible for a wall on the exterior of the school that is a popular target for graffiti, for example, might solicit a small grant from a local foundation, use the money to purchase paint from a neighborhood hardware store, and work together under the art teacher's supervision to cover the wall with an inspirational mural.

Use Public Announcements and Newsletters to Build Interest.
A school can deepen student investment in the adopt-a-location program in inventive ways. A building may make daily announcements over the public address system, for example, of classrooms who earned prize points because of the good condition of their adopted locations or deliver weekly reports of those five classrooms with the longest string of uninterrupted days of having prize points awarded. The same information can be written up for school newsletters.

Materials
   ❖ Copies of Adopt-A-School-Location poster

Steps in Implementing This Intervention:
Step 1: Select Locations Vulnerable to Vandalism or Misuse.
   Schools first should select those areas of the school that tend to be singled out for vandalism or other types of misuse. Student bathrooms, for instance, are often targets for property destruction and graffiti. Custodial staff are an excellent source for identifying vulnerable school locations. Schools might also survey staff and students, asking them which locations they would most like to see be cleaned up.

Step 2: Collect Baseline Information About the Extent of the Vandalism Problem and Set Goals for Improvement.

For a week or two, visit the selected clean-up locations around the school each day For each location, determine what kinds of problems are occurring (e.g., graffiti, trash strewn on the floor, property damage), how frequently they happen, and how severe they are. Keep daily notes on each location. For example, a custodian may visit a student bathroom at the end of a school day and record: "Graffiti written in ink on four spots on walls. Drawing scratched into metal bathroom stall. Numerous paper towels thrown on floor around trash receptacle."

Step 3: Determine Minimum Quality Standards for Adopted Locations.

Once school staff have collected baseline information about the degree of vandalism, graffiti, and neglect that occurs in locations selected for this intervention, they must agree on minimum daily quality standards expected for each location. (These standards will serve as the criteria that the classrooms that have adopted various locations must meet in order to be awarded daily prize points.) For example, a school may set the daily quality standards for a student bathroom as follows: "No more than two pieces of trash are found outside of the trash receptacles, no fresh graffiti has been written, and no destruction of property has occurred."

Step 4: Assign Classrooms to Adopt School Locations.

Classrooms are next assigned school locations to adopt. Here are teacher guidelines for presenting the adopt-a-location program to students:

- ❖ The teacher opens the classroom discussion by asking students how they can tell-using only the cues in their physical environment-that they are in a place where people are respected. (e.g., "Floors are kept clean," "Walls are freshly painted," "Blown light bulbs are replaced") The teacher writes student contributions on the board.
- ❖ The teacher next names a specific site in the school (e.g., the school cafeteria). At this point, only the teacher knows that this location was picked because it is so often targeted for vandalism or graffiti. Students are instructed to review the posted list of indicators of a quality environment that they have just generated. They are asked: Does this particular location's daily appearance suggest to visitors that people are respected there? If not, why not?
- ❖ The teacher announces that the classroom will be adopting the school location discussed by the group. The instructor informs students that the class will earn a certain number of points (e.g., 5) for each day that their adopted school location is kept free of litter and graffiti and in good repair. Students also learn that when their class has accumulated a certain number of points (e.g., 120) they will earn a group prize (e.g., video and popcorn party, field trip, etc.).

Step 5: Begin the Intervention.

Adoption posters are displayed in each selected location and updated daily. As the intervention is put into effect, a poster is placed in each adoption location. The poster should:

- ❖ identify the classroom adopting it

- ❖ indicate the number of prize points the classroom will receive for each day that the location is kept clean and in good repair
- ❖ remind visitors to treat the setting with respect
- ❖ show the number of uninterrupted days that the location has met minimum quality criteria. (*NOTE:* Because the uninterrupted days figure is changed daily, teachers may want to laminate the poster and use a dry-erase marker to update this information more easily.)

During the intervention, each adopted location should be examined at about the same time each day. If the location meets its own minimum quality criteria (Step 3), the classroom teacher assigns the agreed-upon number of prize points to the classroom total. When the classroom has collected sufficient points to redeem for the agreed-upon group reward, the teacher makes sure that the reward is delivered within a reasonable amount of time. Then the points accumulate again toward another possible group prize.

Hints for Using Preventing Graffiti and Vandalism: Enlisting the Power of Classrooms:

Build student excitement with an assembly. If multiple classrooms will be participating in the Adopt-a-School-Location program, schools can introduce the program in an assembly to generate greater visibility and enthusiasm for the initiative.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Response Effort

The amount of effort that a person must put forth to successfully complete a specific behavior has a direct impact on the frequency that the person will engage in that behavior. As the response effort required to carry out a behavior increases, a person is generally less likely to show that behavior; conversely, as the response effort decreases, a person will be more likely to engage in that behavior. To use one example, a student will probably read more frequently if a book is stored in his or her school desk than if the child must walk to a different floor of the school building and get access to a locked cabinet whenever the student wants to read a book.

Teachers are the managers of their students' learning. By assessing their children's academic capabilities and work-styles, instructors can often make modest adjustments in the student's academic program (e.g., reading group level, amount of homework assigned, etc.) that can positively affect the student's school performance.

As a behavior-management tool, response effort seems like simple common sense: We engage less in behaviors that we find hard to accomplish. Teachers often forget, however, that response effort can be a useful part of a larger intervention plan. To put it simply, teachers can boost the

chances that a student will take part in desired behaviors (e.g., completing homework or interacting appropriately with peers) by making these behaviors easy and convenient to take part in. However, if teachers want to reduce the frequency of a behavior (e.g., a child's running from the classroom), they can accomplish this by making the behavior more difficult to achieve (e.g., seating the child at the rear of the room, far from the classroom door).

Steps in Implementing This Intervention

The teacher selects either an undesirable behavior to decrease or a desirable behavior to increase. By varying response effort required to complete a behavior, the teacher can influence the frequency of a child's targeted behavior, making it likely to appear more often or less often. First, however, the teacher must select a behavioral target to increase or decrease.

(Optional) If necessary, the teacher breaks the behavioral target into more manageable sub-steps. Some school behavioral goals are global and consist of many sub-steps. For instance, a goal that "the student will complete all school assignments during seatwork time" could be further sub-divided into: (1) The student will organized her work materials prior to starting seatwork, (2) If she encounters a work item that she does not understand, the student will use independent problem-solving skills prior to approaching the teacher for help; and several other key sub-steps. Breaking larger behavior goals into smaller steps will make it easier for the teacher to decide how to manipulate the response effort required to carry out each sub-step.

The teacher chooses ways to alter the response effort required to complete each selected behavior or behavior sub-step. This final step is best demonstrated through examples:

❖ Increasing response effort to reduce the rate of an undesirable behavior. Putting a physical barrier between a student and an activity, imposing a wait-time before a student can take part in an activity are examples of an increase in response effort.

> _Example:_ A teacher finds that one of her students sits down at a computer in her room whenever he can find an opportunity to use a spelling-word program that presents lessons in a game-like format. While the teacher is happy to see that the student enjoys using the academic software, she finds that his frequent use of the computer interferes with his completion of other important schoolwork. She has already broken down the student's behavior, "using the computer," into two sub-steps, "sitting down at the computer" and "starting the spelling software program." While observing the student, though, the teacher notes that the computer is left on in the classroom during the entire school day, making it very convenient for the student to use it at inappropriate times. The teacher decides to increase the response effort needed to use the computer by leaving it turned off when not in use. The student must now switch on the computer and wait for it to boot up before he can use it, a procedure that takes about 2 minutes. Several days later, the teacher notes that the student's rate of unauthorized computer use has dropped significantly because the effort (increased wait-time) to use the computer has increased.

- ❖ Reducing response effort to increase the rate of a desirable behavior. Putting instructional supplies within convenient reach and having an older peer help a child to organize study materials are examples of a decrease in response effort.

> *Example:* The instructor wants to encourage children in his classroom to read more. After analyzing the current opportunities that children have for getting and reading books in school, the instructor realizes both that students do not have comfortable places to read in the classroom and that, with the current schedule they can get the school library only once per week. The teacher creates a reading corner in his room, with an old but serviceable couch, reading lamps, and a shelf with paperback titles popular with his class. The teacher also arranges with the school's library media specialist to allow his students to drop by daily to check out books. By creating both a more comfortable reading location and easier access to books, the teacher is able to lower the threshold of effort needed to read. As a result, his students read more in the classroom.

Hints for Using Response Effort
In order for students to be successful in academics, it is crucial that they be placed in instructional material that challenges them to achieve but does not leave them floundering with work too difficult to complete. Instructional match can be thought of as an example of response effort.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Strategies for Working With Emotionally Unpredictable Students

Stage 1: Frustration
Warning Signs: The student may...
- ❖ bite nails or lips.
- ❖ grimace.
- ❖ mutter or grumble.
- ❖ appear flushed or tense.
- ❖ seem 'stuck' on a topic or issue.

Strategies to prevent or reduce the intensity of student frustration:
- ❖ Antiseptic bounce: Send the student from the room on an errand or task.
- ❖ Permit student to go to quiet spot within or outside of classroom on a respite break (brief cool-down period).

- ❖ Teach the student appropriate ways to seek help when stuck on academic assignment.
- ❖ Spend 5 minutes talking through issue with student (or send student to another caring adult).
- ❖ Give student an IOU to meet with adult to talk over issue at more convenient time.
- ❖ Teach student to recognize signs of emotional upset and to use self-calming strategies.
- ❖ Teach the student how to negotiate with instructors about assignments or work expectations.
- ❖ Use motivation strategies to make learning more inviting.

Stage 2: Defensiveness

Warning Signs: The student may...
- ❖ lash out verbally at others.
- ❖ withdraw (emotionally or physically).
- ❖ challenge the authority of the instructor or other adult.
- ❖ refuse to comply with adult requests or to follow classroom routines.
- ❖ project blame onto others.

Strategies to prevent or reduce the intensity of student defensiveness:
- ❖ Avoid discussions of "who is right" or "who is in control."
- ❖ Approach the student privately, make eye contact, address the student in a quiet voice about his or her behavior.
- ❖ Use humor to defuse conflict situation.
- ❖ Consider an apology if you have inadvertently wronged or offended the student.
- ❖ Impose appropriate consequences on peers if they are provoking the student through teasing, taunts, verbal challenges, or physical horseplay.
- ❖ Help the student to identify appropriate range of responses for the situation and to select one.
- ❖ Permit student some leeway on assignment or classroom expectations (as an acknowledgement of the life or situational stress that they might be experiencing).
- ❖ Teach the student non-stigmatizing ways to get academic help and support in the classroom.
- ❖ Direct the student to write down the main points of his or her concerns. Promise that you will read through the student's account and meet individually to discuss the problem.
- ❖ Use effective teacher commands to direct the student: (1) keep each command brief, (2) state command directly rather than in "Could you please..." format, (3) use businesslike tone, avoiding anger and sarcasm, (4) avoid lengthy explanations for why you are making the request, (4) repeat command once if student fails to comply, then follow up with pre-determined consequences.
- ❖ Use planned ignoring (*NOTE:* This strategy works best when the student lacks an audience).

Stage 3: Aggression

Warning Signs: The student may...

- ❖ make verbal threats.
- ❖ use abusive language.
- ❖ assume threatening posture (e.g., with fists raised).
- ❖ physically strike out at peers or adults.

Strategies to react to, prepare for or respond to student verbal or physical aggression:

- ❖ Remove other students or adults from the immediate vicinity of student (to protect their safety and eliminate an audience)
- ❖ Adopt a supportive stance: step slightly to the side of the student and orient your body so that you face the student obliquely at a 45- to 90-degree angle.
- ❖ Respect the student's personal space. Most people interpret the distance extending outward from their body to a distance of 2-1/2 to 3 feet as a bubble of personal space. To both ensure your physical safety and reduce the student's sense of threat, always stand at least a leg's length away from the student.
- ❖ Use supportive paraverbal and non-verbal communication. Children are adept at reading our moods and feelings through non-verbal signals such as facial expressions, and body language. Maintain a calm tone of voice and body posture to project acceptance and support for the student.
- ❖ Do not block the door. Unless you have a compelling reason to do so (e.g., with very young children), try not to block the upset child's access to the door as you approach the student. The student may interpret a blocked exit as a threat and attempt to go around or even through you to escape.
- ❖ Deliver a clear statement of choices. Here is a 3-step approach for making requests to upset students:
    1. Give the student two clear choices with clear consequences. Order the choices so that the student hears the teacher-preferred choice last e.g., "John, you can refuse to participate in the math assignment and be written up for detention or you can start the math assignment now and not be written up." Make sure above all that you can enforce any consequences that you present to the student.
    2. If the student fails to comply in a reasonable amount of time to Step 1, state clearly and firmly what you want the student to do. Include a time limit for student compliance and specify a location if necessary. For example, a teacher may tell the student, "John, I want you to return to your desk [location] now [time-frame] and begin your math assignment [requested behavior]."
    3. If the student still fails to comply with your request, enforce alternative consequences that you have selected in advance.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Teacher Behavioral Strategies: A Menu

Here is a sampling of strategies that teachers can use either to head off or to provide consequences for low- to medium-level student misbehaviors. This menu contains strategies that teachers can use proactively to head off behaviors before they occur. It also provides a range of consequences that teachers can select from after a student misbehaves.

Prior to Occurrence of Behavior(s):

Break Student Tasks Into Manageable Chunks:
Students may misbehave to escape activities that they find too hard or tedious. Consider breaking a larger task into smaller or easier chunks that the student will more willingly undertake. If the student must complete a large number of subtasks, include an occasional fun break.

Increase Adult Supervision/Surveillance:
When the student's misbehavior is covert (hidden), increase the adult supervision in the area. Be sure that all adults supervising a particular school setting agree on what behaviors to single out for positive or negative consequences and know how to get additional assistance if student behaviors get out of hand.

Increase Reinforcement Quality of Classroom:
If a student is acting out to be ejected from a classroom, it may be that student does not find the classroom setting and/or routine to be very rewarding. The teacher can make the classroom environment more attractive in a number of ways, including by posting interesting instructional materials (e.g., bulletin board displays), boosting the pace of (and degree of student interaction in) class lecture or discussion, and including additional instructional activities of high interest to students.

Offer Choices:
When students are offered opportunities to make simple but meaningful choices in their classroom routine, their behaviors can improve. Examples of choices include permitting students to select who they work with on a project, negotiate when an assignment will be due, and choose what book to read for an assignment.

Offer Help Strategies:
Misbehavior may occur when students are stuck on a work assignment and do not know how to quickly and appropriately request help without drawing undue attention to themselves. Teachers can address this problem by teaching the entire class how to request assistance in a non-disruptive way. A teacher may, for example, instruct students with questions during seatwork to post a help-signal and continue working on other assignments or approach a peer-helper for assistance.

Preview Rules/Behavioral Expectations:

Some students misbehave because they are impulsive and do not always think through the consequences of their misbehavior before they act. These students can benefit from having the teacher briefly review rules and/or behavioral expectations just before the students go into a potentially challenging situation or setting (e.g., passing through the halls; going to an assembly). If the instructor has a classroom reward system in place, he or she can strengthen the rules preview by reminding students that the class can win points for good behavior.

Preview Schedule:

Having the teacher preview a student's schedule daily (or even more frequently) can help those children who seem to misbehave because they do not respond well to unexpected changes in schedule or cannot remember what their schedule is.

Provide Skills Instruction:

If the teacher determines that a child engages in inappropriate behaviors because the student lacks alternative replacement skills, the instructor should set up a plan to provide the child with the necessary skills. Any skills instruction should include plenty of examples to illustrate the skill-set being taught, demonstration (e.g., modeling, role-play) and a checkup (e.g., student demonstration and verbal walk-through of steps to skill) to confirm to the teacher's satisfaction that the student has acquired the skill.

Rearrange Student Seating or Classroom Setup:

If elements of the classroom setting appear to contribute to the student's behavior problems, consider changing the student's seating or the classroom setup to reduce these problems. For example a student who is distracted by peers may benefit from having his or her seat moved to a more private corner of the room.

Teach Student to Take Calm-Down Break:

Students who frequently become angry at peers or who may be set off by the excitement of large groups may be taught to (1) identify when they are getting too tense, excited, or angry, and (2) take a short break away from the setting or situation until they have calmed down sufficiently.

During and After Occurrence of Behavior(s):

Apology:

Apologies are one way that humans repair the social fabric after a conflict. The student may be asked to apologize to the offended party (e.g., teacher, student, principal) in writing or in person. It is important, though, that the offending student accept blame for the incident and demonstrate authentic regret in offering the apology, or neither party will be satisfied with the outcome.

Behavioral Contract:

The student and teacher hammer out a written agreement that outlines: specific positive behaviors that the student is to engage in (or specific negative behaviors that he or she is to

avoid), the privileges or rewards that the student will earn for complying with the behavioral contract, and the terms by which the student is to earn the rewards (e.g., staying in his or her seat during independent reading period for three consecutive days).

Ignoring:
When the student displays a problem behavior, the teacher ignores the behavior (that is, the teacher does not give the student attention for the behavior).

Loss of Privileges:
The child is informed in advance that he or she can access a series of privileges (e.g., access to games to play, the opportunity to have 5 minutes of free time) if his or her behavior remains appropriate. The instructor instructs the student about what kind and intensity of problem behavior may result in the loss of privileges, and for how long. After this introductory phase, the instructor withdraws privileges as agreed upon whenever the student misbehaves.

Modeling (Vicarious Learning):
While the target child is observing, the teacher gives specific public praise to children other than the target student when they show appropriate behaviors. When praising these behaviors, the teacher clearly describes the praiseworthy behaviors. When the target child imitates the same or similar appropriate behaviors, the teacher immediately praises him or her.

Office Referral:
The instructor writes up a referral documenting the student's misbehavior and sends both the referral and student to the principal's office for intervention.

Over-Correction:
The student is required repetitively to practice a skill that will replace or improve upon an inappropriate or problem behavior. For example, a student who wanders the halls without permission when taking an unsupervised bathroom break may have to stay after school one afternoon and take multiple practice trips to the school bathroom. In this example, the instructor might accompany the student to monitor how promptly the student walked to, and returned from, the bathroom and to give the student feedback about how much this target behavior has improved.

Parent Contact:
The teacher calls, sends a note home to, or e-mails the student's parent(s) regarding the behavioral problems. The parent may be asked for advice on how the teacher can better reach and teach the child at school. The teacher may offer suggestions for appropriate parent involvement. (e.g., "You may want to talk with your child about this incident, which we view as serious.")

Peer Consequences:

If the teacher finds that classmates play (or could play) an important role in influencing a target child's behavior(s), the teacher may try to influence the target child's behaviors indirectly by providing consequences for selected peer behaviors. For example, if classmates encourage the target student to make inappropriate comments by giving positive social attention (e.g., laughing), the teacher may start a group response-cost program and deduct points from the class total whenever a peer laughs at inappropriate comments. Or a teacher who wants to increase the social interactions that a socially isolated child has with her peers may reward selected peers with praise each time that they approach the isolated child in a positive manner.

Praise:

When the student engages in a positive behavior that the teacher has selected to increase, the teacher praises the student for that behavior. Along with positive comments (e.g., "Great job!"), the praise statement should give specifics about the behavior the child demonstrated that is being singled out for praise. (e.g., "You really kept your attention focused on me during that last question, even when kids around you were talking!")

Private Approach to Student:

The instructor quietly approaches the student, points out the problem behavior and how it is interfering with classwork or interrupting instruction. The instructor reminds the student of the academic task in which he or she should be engaged. The student is given an opportunity to explain his or her actions. The student is politely offered the choice to improve behavior or accept a negative consequence. Privately approaching a student can help him or her to save face and reduce the likelihood that the student will become defensive or defiant.

Promise:

The instructor approaches the misbehaving student and informs him or her that the student has behaved inappropriately. The teacher asks the student to state an appropriate alternative behavior that he or she should have followed. The teacher then requests that the student promise the instructor (verbally or in writing) that he or she will not engage in this misbehavior again.

Redirection:

The teacher interrupts problem behavior by calling on the student to answer a question, assigning him or her a task to carry out, or otherwise refocusing the child's attention.

Reflective Essay:

The student is required to write and submit to the teacher a brief composition after displaying behaviors. At minimum, the composition would state: (1) what problem behavior the student displayed, (2) how the student could have acted in an alternative, more acceptable manner, and (3) a promise from the student to show appropriate behaviors in similar

situations in the future. *NOTE:* Some teachers use a pre-printed structured questionnaire containing these 3 items for the student to complete.

Reprimand:

In the typical reprimand, the instructor approaches the student, states that the student is misbehaving, and instructs the student to stop the misbehavior immediately. Reprimands should be used sparingly, as students may become defiant if confronted by an angry teacher in a public manner. When used, reprimands should be kept short, to avoid arguments with the student.

Response Cost:

Usually, response cost programs first award a student a certain number of tokens with no conditions attached. Throughout the monitoring period, the student has a token withdrawn whenever he or she displays a behavior that is inappropriate. (These behaviors would usually have been agreed upon in advance.) The student is permitted to cash in any points that he or she still retains at the end of the monitoring period or may be allowed to bank the points toward a future reward or privilege.

Restitution:

The student engages in an activity that actually or symbolically restores the environment, setting, or social situation that his or her misbehavior had damaged. For example, a student who marks up a wall with graffiti may be required to work after school under supervision of custodial staff to wash the wall and removing the offending markings.

Rewarding Alternative (Positive) Behaviors:

The instructor calls on the student or provides other positive attention or incentives only during those times that the student is showing appropriate social and academic behaviors. The same positive attention or consequences are withheld during times when the student misbehaves or does not engage in academics.

Rules Review:

The teacher approaches the misbehaving student and (a) has him or her read off the posted class rules, (b) asks the student which of those rules his or her current behavior is violating, and (c) has the student state what positive behavior he or she will engage in instead.

Timeout/Detention/Inschool Suspension:

The student is removed from the classroom because of a behavioral infraction. In timeout, the student's exclusion from the classroom may be very short (3-5 minutes). With in-school suspension, the student may be removed from instruction for longer periods (e.g., half a day). Detention may require that the student spend time in a non-rewarding setting but that consequence may be deferred until after school to prevent loss of learning.

<u>Hints for Using Teacher Behavioral Strategies: A Menu</u>
>   Teachers are always looking for additional ideas for managing challenging student behaviors. This listing of classroom behavioral strategies was developed based on feedback received from teachers in workshops who shared what behavioral approaches they typically use.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

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Time Out From Reinforcement

Time-out from reinforcement ("time-out") is a procedure in which a child is placed in a different, less-rewarding situation or setting whenever he or she engages in undesirable or inappropriate behaviors.

Pair Off With Colleagues as Time-Out Buddies.
Instructors may want to enlist other teachers as time-out partners, so that either teacher can use the other's classroom as a safe, supervised time-out location for their students when needed. Teachers who collaborate in this way might even agree to create a single, uniform time-out program, teaching the procedures and expectations to all students in both classrooms.

Typically, time-out is used in tandem with positive discipline techniques. For example, time-out might be employed to reduce the frequency of a student's negative behaviors (e.g., loud confrontations with teaching staff) while an individualized reward system might be put in place to increase the frequency of appropriate student behaviors (e.g., quickly and courteously complying with teacher requests).

Teachers should keep in mind important ethical considerations when using time-out. Because one consequence of time-out is that children may be excluded, even if briefly, from their instructional settings, the approach should be used only when less intrusive behavioral interventions have been tried and found to be unsuccessful. Also, students obviously cannot be deprived of lunch, bathroom breaks, or extended periods of classroom instruction just because they are placed in time-out.

Because time-out is intended to reduce the frequency of a target behavior, it is classified (in the technical sense) as a punishment procedure. As with other types of punishment, the use of time-out can result in unintended negative effects on the student. Therefore, students should be carefully monitored when time-out is being used. All incidents in which the student is timed out should be recorded in writing. Consider discontinuing any behavior management strategy if the student shows a strong, sustained negative reaction to it. (Refer to What Every Teacher Should Know About...Punishment Techniques and Student Behavior Plans for a review of aversive approaches to discipline and their possible unintended effects.)

<u>Preparation:</u>
Because use of time-out in the classroom can impact a student's inclusion with peers and access to instruction, Yell (1994) advises that teachers take the following precautionary steps in preparing for and using time-out:

❖ Verify that the state and school district permit the use of student time-out as a behavior management strategy.

❖ Get signed parent permission to use time-out with students (particularly if using either the exclusion or isolation/seclusion forms of time-out).

❖ Log all incidents in which time-out are used as a behavioral consequence. Note key information about time-outs, including the date and time of each time-out incident, the student who was timed out, and the location and the duration of the time-out.

<u>Steps in Implementing This Intervention:</u>
Step 1: Decide whether a particular student would benefit from time-out.
While time-out generally is effective in reducing problem behaviors, some children will not respond well to a time-out procedure. If your assessment of a student's behavioral difficulties suggests that the child is using negative behaviors to escape an unpleasant situation, the use of time-out may actually increase that child's problem behaviors (because by giving the student time-out as a behavioral consequence, you are unintentionally helping him or her to achieve the goal of escape). Keep in mind, too, that some students have skill deficits that contribute to their disruptive behavior and interfere with their learning more positive behavioral strategies. (For example, a student who does not know how to ask politely to join a game may get into trouble because he simply pushes his way into the group.) If you suspect a skill deficit, you should first be sure that the student has learned the appropriate skill(s) before you select time-out as a behavioral consequence.

Step 2: Select the type of time-out to be used.
Teachers can choose from several time-out options that differ in the degree to which they exclude children from the instructional and/or social setting. When choosing a form of time-out, you should try to pick the option that is least restrictive (i.e., keeps the child within the classroom and engaged in learning) whenever possible (Yell, 1994).

1. *Non-Exclusionary Time Out.* The child remains in the instructional setting but is temporarily prevented from engaging in reinforcing activities. Examples include planned ignoring, and removal of reinforcing objects or activities.

2. *Exclusionary Time Out: Contingent Observation.* The student is removed from the instructional setting to another part of the classroom. The student is instructed to continue to watch the instructional activities but cannot otherwise participate in them.

3. *Exclusionary Time Out: Exclusion.* The student is removed from the instructional setting to another part of the classroom. The student is prevented from watching or otherwise participating in group activities. (*NOTE:* An adult must supervise the student at all times during exclusion time out.)

4. *Exclusionary Time Out: Isolation/Seclusion.* The student is removed from the instructional setting to a separate time-out room. (*NOTE:* An adult must supervise the student at all times during isolation/seclusion time out.)

Step 3: Decide on other elements of the time-out program.

When putting together a time-out plan, you must decide:

❖ how long each time-out period will last. Generally, a short (3-5 minute) time-out period is a good interval to start with, as there is no research to suggest that longer time-outs are any more effective than shorter ones.

❖ if the student is to receive a single warning before being sent to time-out. A teacher-delivered warning allows the child an opportunity to improve his or her behaviors and thus avoid being timed out. Warnings can take the form of verbal statements or non-verbal signals (e.g., eye contact with the student, a checkmark on the blackboard, etc.).

❖ what activities the student will engage in while in time-out. While you have considerable latitude in selecting what the student will do in time-out, keep in mind that time-out activities should never be more rewarding than what is going on in the classroom. Appropriate time-out activities might include completing class assignments, copying classroom rules, or writing a brief account of both the problem behavior that resulted in the time-out and more appropriate behaviors that would have helped the student to avoid time-out.

❖ how to judge that the student is ready to rejoin the class after time-out. In most cases, the child will behave appropriately in time-out and simply return to the classroom activity when the time-out period is over. However, if the student continues to be disruptive during time-out, you can simply reset the timer to zero and tell the student that he or she must act appropriately for a set interval of time (e.g., 5 minutes) before the student can return to the class activity. The timer is reset at each additional outburst until the child complies.

Step 4: Train the student in the time-out procedures.

Prior to putting the time-out program into effect, sit down with the student and review the time-out procedures. The student should:

❖ know what type(s) of inappropriate behaviors will earn him or her a time-out.

❖ have a clear understanding of the steps in the time-out process, including the use of a teacher warning (if selected), the agreed-upon signal that the student must go to time-out, the location of the time-out site, appropriate student behavior expected during time-out, and the length of time that time-out will last.

❖ understand how to reenter the classroom appropriately after time-out.

You will probably also want to walk the student through a typical time-out sequence to ensure that the child clearly understands the process.

<u>Hints for Using Time Out</u>

Use time-out as a classwide strategy. A well-crafted time-out program can be taught to an entire class, not just to one or several students. A classwide use of time-out avoids singling out (and possibly stigmatizing) specific children as time-out targets.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

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What Every Teacher Should Know About
Punishment Techniques and Student Behavior Plans

In everyday terms, people use the word punishment to describe negative consequences imposed on people when they misbehave. Often, the term has moral overtones, suggesting that those being punished deserve that punishment because their actions violate a rule, law, or social expectation. In the field of behavior management, though, punishment has a more narrow (and morally neutral) definition: the presentation or removal of events that leads to a reduction in a target behavior (Kazdin, 1989). According to this definition, events that serve to decrease an individual's behaviors are considered to be punishers. Teachers should understand the pros and cons about using punishment in the classroom, as schools frequently build punishing, or aversive, consequences into plans designed to help manage student behaviors.

An important point about possible punishers is that they affect different people in different ways. Imagine a scenario, for example, in which a teacher uses time-out as a behavioral intervention for two students who frequently call out in the classroom. One student stops calling out almost immediately. For this student, time-out is clearly a punisher. The second student persists in calling out, despite being placed repeatedly in time-out. For that student, time-out has no effect and is not a punisher at all.

Punishment can take various forms in classroom discipline programs. Sometimes an event is presented whenever the student shows an undesired behavior. A teacher may reprimand a student, for example, each time that the student leaves her seat without permission. In another form of punishment, the student may temporarily be removed to a less-reinforcing setting (e.g., by being sent to a time-out room for a 10 minute period of seclusion) whenever she displays a negative behavior. In a type of punishment known as response-cost, a student has rewards, tokens, privileges, or other positive reinforcers taken away whenever he or she engages in a problem behavior. An example of response cost is a student who earns stickers for good classroom conduct having one sticker removed from her sticker chart for each episode of misbehavior.

Teachers sometimes find punishment to be effective as a classroom behavior management tool, especially in the short term. Because punishment tends to rapidly stop problem behaviors, the

teacher in turn is positively reinforced for using it (Martens & Meller, 1990). On the surface, then, punishment may appear to be a powerful and attractive behavior management strategy. But this power can come at a significant cost.

Research indicates that punishment is sometimes accompanied by significant negative side effects. Students who are regularly the object of punishment may over time show a drop in positive attitudes toward school (resulting in poor attendance and work performance), have a more negative perception of teachers, and adopt a more punitive manner in interacting with peers and adults (Martens & Meller, 1990).

What to Consider Before Using Punishment Techniques.

Simply put, punishment techniques of any kind are strong behavioral medicine and should be used with care and compassion. Before using any punishment techniques, the teacher should consider whether:

❖ **the student's behavioral problems are caused by a skill-deficit**. From an ethical standpoint, students should never be punished for behaviors that they cannot help. For example, a student who is chronically disorganized and always arrives late to class with no writing materials may well need to be taught organization skills rather than be punished for his lack of preparedness.

❖ **positive techniques alone will adequately improve problem behaviors**. Instructors have a range of positive behavior intervention strategies to draw on when shaping student behaviors. These positive approaches might include the structuring of the student's classroom experience to avoid behavioral triggers that lead to problems or the use of praise and other reinforcers to reward the student for engaging in appropriate, learner-friendly behaviors. Punishment techniques, particularly strong forms of punishments such as isolation/seclusion time-our from reinforcement, generally should be considered only when the range of positive strategies have not been successful in improving the student's conduct.

What to Think About When Setting Up a Behavior Program That Includes Punishment Techniques.

Teachers who include punishment as one element of a behavior plan are most likely to experience success if their plan follows these guidelines:

Punishment is paired with positive reinforcement.
The power of punishment techniques is that they can rapidly decrease a student's rate of problem behaviors. But merely suppressing unacceptable behaviors is not enough. The student should also be encouraged to adopt positive classroom behaviors to replace them. When planning a behavioral program then, it is always a good idea to complement negative consequences for inappropriate behaviors with a positive-reinforcement system that rewards a child's positive behaviors. In fact, for some children (e.g., those with Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder), the positive reinforcement program (e.g., sticker chart) should be put into place first. Only when that positive program begins to show results should a mild punishment component (e.g., response-cost) be added.

The plan uses the mildest punishment technique that is likely to be effective.

When selecting a punishment technique, start off with less intensive interventions. Consider moving to a more intensive or restrictive form of punishment only if the milder alternative proves ineffective. A teacher may first decide, for example, to try in-class time-out (with the student remaining in the classroom during time-out and watching but not otherwise participating in academic activities) before moving to a more intensive form of isolation time-out in which the student is sent to a special time-out room for misbehavior.

The student is not deprived of key opportunities to build social and academic skills.

When selecting negative consequences to impose for student misbehavior, the teacher should carefully consider possible harmful effects of that consequence before implementing it. For instance, reducing recess time as a consequence for misbehavior may not be the best approach if the student already has few friends and limited social skills. Missing unstructured free time with her peers may in fact only worsen the student's social isolation. Similarly, teachers may want to rethink placing students with academic deficits into seclusion time-out or in-school detention, as such a consequence would deprive those children of opportunities for academic instruction that they badly need.

The student provides input as the behavior plan is being developed.

One potential unintended effect of punishment techniques is that the target child may feel powerless – a situation that could erode the child's investment in learning. Whenever possible, the teacher should give the student a voice in the design of the behavior management plan. For example, a teacher designing a response-cost program might ask the student to come up with a secret sign that the instructor might use to signal a warning to the student that he is on the verge of having a point deducted from his Great Study Behaviors chart.

The behavior plan is congruent with state regulations and school district policies and has parent support.

The use of punishment procedures to manage student behaviors is an issue of growing debate in school discipline. Instructors should take care that all elements of a behavior plan, including punishment procedures, fall within disciplinary guidelines both of the state education department and their school district. Parents, too, should be informed of any behavior plan being put into place for their child and asked to sign off on it prior to that plan being implemented. (It is particularly important that parents approve behavior plans if those plans contain punishment procedures such as use of time-out.)

The teacher monitors the effects of the behavior plan.

Because punishment procedures can in some cases lead to unintended negative effects on student performance and attitudes toward school, behavior plans that include a punishment component should be closely monitored. Monitoring should include collection of information both about whether the student's problem behaviors are

improving under the plan and whether the child is showing any negative reaction to the behavior plan itself.

Troubleshooting Behavior Programs That Include Punishment Techniques:

Here are some ideas to think about if problems arise when using punishment techniques as part of a larger behavior plan:

The student reacts negatively to the behavior program.

Whenever a new behavior plan is put into place for a student, teachers can expect that the student may initially test the limits of the program. Such testing behavior may include loud complaining, or the student's refusing to follow teacher requests. Often, such behaviors subside when the program has been in place and consistently enforced for a short time. If the student reacts to the program, though, with more serious behavioral outbursts that suggest a safety risk to self or others, the teacher should consider substantially revising or discontinuing the plan immediately. Also, if the student begins to show other negative reactions sometimes associated with use of punishment (e.g., reduced investment in learning, increased hostility toward teaching staff, etc.), the teacher should heed these potential warning signs and revise the behavior plan as necessary.

The student accepts the program but shows little behavioral improvement.

If a student fails to show significant behavioral improvements within a reasonable amount of time, a plan that contains a punishment component should be revised or discontinued. (Teachers should be particularly careful not to regard a behavior plan as effective merely because it makes the student easier to manage. While an instructor, for example, may like a time-out intervention because it offers her an occasional break from a problem student, that intervention should be regarded as useless or even harmful to the student if it fails to bring about a speedy improvement in that child's behaviors in the classroom.)

Punishment techniques gradually lose their effectiveness.

It is not uncommon for punishment to lose its effectiveness over time as the recipient of that punishment becomes acclimated to it. In such cases, the problem is usually that the teacher has become overdependent on using punishment techniques alone to manage the student's behaviors. An instructor may find after her intervention has been in place for a month, for instance, that she has to reprimand a student more often and more insistently to get that student to comply with a request. (Remember that reprimands serve as a kind of punishment.) Upon reflection, the teacher realizes that she has been overusing reprimands. Furthermore, she finds that her loud reprimands distract other students from their classwork.

So the instructor revises the behavior plan.

She starts the student on a sticker chart for positive behaviors, giving the child a sticker each half-hour if the student completes and turns in all class assignments (positive reinforcement). The teacher also tells the student that she can have five extra minutes of free time at the end of each day to spend in the book corner, a place that the student likes to visit. However, whenever the student fails to comply with a teacher request within 5

seconds during the day, the teacher deducts a single minute from the student's extra free time (response-cost). The final behavior plan, then, combines both positive reinforcement for appropriate behaviors (sticker chart) and punishment for inappropriate behaviors (loss of free time for failure to comply with teacher requests). The teacher finds that this revised plan is actually easier to administer, since she no longer feels that she has to nag the student. Furthermore, the teacher discovers that the new plan retains its effectiveness over time.

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Encouraging Student Academic Motivation

One of the greatest frustrations mentioned by many teachers is that their students are often not motivated to learn. Teachers quickly come to recognize the warning signs of poor motivation in their classroom: students put little effort into homework and classwork assignments, slump in their seats and fail to participate in class discussion, or even become confrontational toward the teacher when asked about an overdue assignment. One common method for building motivation is to tie student academic performance and classroom participation to specific rewards or privileges. Critics of reward systems note, however, that they can be expensive and cumbersome to administer and may lead the student to engage in academics only when there is an outside payoff. While there is no magic formula for motivating students, the creative teacher can sometimes encourage student investment in learning in ways that do not require use of formal reward systems.

When planning any academic activity, teachers can follow the useful exercise of (1) imagining that they themselves are going to be the students and (2) brainstorming about ways that an instructor might motivate them to learn. The lesson here is simple: Students are not so different from us. If we become inattentive when listening to an instructor speak from a lectern for 90 minutes straight, our students probably will too!

Here are some alternative ideas for promoting student motivation:
I. **Build in rewarding opportunities for social interaction.** A student may find an otherwise tedious or frustrating task to be more motivating if it provides an opportunity for social interaction. An adult tutor, for instance, can provide support and encouragement that can kindle motivation for a student. Cross-age peer tutoring, cooperative learning groups and informal study groups are other examples of social situations that students may find to be both motivating and good settings for reviewing academic skills. One caution, though: social interactions can be so entertaining in their own right that they interfere with learning! Instructors can minimize social distractions in academic situations by making their expectations for student work very clear from the outset and by monitoring social groupings to ensure that academics always remain the main focus.

2. **Provide audiences for student work.** One social context that can be extremely motivating is to have an audience that will eventually evaluate one's creative work. Instructors can encourage students to submit their work to publications, for example, to post it on web sites, or to present it to live audiences (e.g., a poetry reading).

3. **Reduce the effort needed to complete an academic assignment.** Research indicates that the amount of effort needed to undertake an activity (effort threshold) will play an important role in how motivated a person is to attempt the activity in the first place. If a task is made more difficult, it is likely that people will be more likely to put off trying the task. If a task is made easier, people will more willingly attempt it. Teachers and parents can use this well-documented (and common-sense) fact to increase a student's willingness to engage in academics. Here are some examples that show how reducing the effort connected with a learning activity can lead to greater student participation:
   ❖ A difficult and complex task (e.g., researching and writing a term paper) can broken down into easier-to-accomplish sub-steps for the student to complete as separate assignments.
   ❖ A peer helper may assist a student who is chronically disorganized to set up and clean up their work area each day, making the task less time-consuming.
   ❖ If a child typically does not read for entertainment and will not go to the library for a book, a parent can leave interesting books around in the home for the child to read.

4. **Connect academic requirements to real-world situations.** The media are full of true stories that demonstrate the application of knowledge from various academic areas to real-world problems. When students see that content covered in their coursework can help to explain how actual, high profile problems were created or solved, they can sense the real power of academic knowledge and its potential to affect human lives. Here is one recent real-world example that a teacher might use to illustrate potential dangers in attempting to coordinate translation of measurements across competing systems: The radio signal of a NASA interplanetary probe sent to orbit Mars vanished suddenly on September 23, 1999, just as it was nearing the red planet. An investigation revealed the source of the problem. It appears that engineers planning the mission had failed to translate calculations of rocket thrust from the English measurement system (pounds of thrust) to a metric measurement system (1 Newton = 4.45 English pounds of thrust). During the final leg of the probe's journey through space, mission managers assumed wrongly that rocket thrust calculations were in metric, rather than English, units and maneuvered the rocket accordingly. As a result, the probe went off course, probably entering the Martian atmosphere and being destroyed.

5. **Offer students meaningful choices wherever possible.** One intriguing element that teachers can explore to increase student motivation is that of choice. It appears to be a general principal that, when students are offered some degree of autonomy and choice in selecting or carrying out an activity, they are more motivated to take part in that activity. Of course, the teacher must decide to what degree they can build choice into academic activities. As examples of how choice can be applied in the classroom, teachers may permit students to:

- ❖ select the order in which they will complete several in-class or homework assignments.
- ❖ bring a book of their own choosing to a session with a reading tutor.
- ❖ be given several short, timed breaks during a work period and allowed to choose when to take them.

6. Make learning fun! Teachers have always used game-like formats to liven up academic material and engage student interest. A teacher may decide, for example, to have a class review for an upcoming test by playing a game that follows the format of the TV game show, Jeopardy! -- the teacher presents test review items and requires competing teams to try to phrase questions for which review items are logical answers. Humor and fast-paced instruction are also methods for making learning more lively and interesting.

Hints for Using Encouraging Student Academic Motivation:

The ideas presented here to boost student motivation all stem from a single assumption: that people are most likely to learn when they are fully engaged and interested in the learning task.

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Finding the Spark:
More Tips for Building Student Motivation

Teachers can feel overwhelmed when faced with students who are unmotivated to learn. The task becomes less daunting, though, when teachers realize that they can boost student motivation in five important ways: by (1) making positive changes to the learning environment, (2) fostering a sense of community in the classroom, (3) enhancing the interest of classroom activities, (4) responding to individual learning challenges, and (5) building in additional outcomes/pay-offs for learning. Here are some ideas:

Learning Environment:

The setting in which we work can encourage us to give our best effort or discourage us from even trying to perform. Ideas to motivate by influencing factors in the student's environment:
- ❖ Reduce distractions in the classroom.
- ❖ Create a consistent room arrangement, with predictable materials and routines.
- ❖ Let students choose their seat location and study partners.
- ❖ Enlist students to come up with rules and guidelines for effective classroom learning.
- ❖ Create a memory-friendly classroom. Post assignments and due dates, written steps for multi-step tasks, etc.
- ❖ Use a mix of verbal and environmental cues to keep students focused and on-task.
- ❖ Hold class in different locations occasionally (within-building field trip). For example, think about swapping classrooms with another teacher on a given day.

❖ Ask for student advice on how to make the classroom a more inviting and useful learning environment.

Classroom Community:

We define ourselves in relation to others through social relationships. These connections are a central motivator for most people.

Ideas to motivate by fostering a sense of a learning community:
- ❖ Be as inviting a person as possible by actively listening to students and acknowledging their contributions.
- ❖ Greet students at the classroom door. Check in briefly with students at the start and end of a work period.
- ❖ Ask students to complete a learning-preferences questionnaire.
- ❖ Assign study buddies who help each other to get organized, start work projects, encourage one another, and provide peer feedback.
- ❖ Train students to be peer editors or evaluators of others' assignments.
- ❖ Hold weekly 5-minute micro-meetings with the group or class. Check in with the group about topics or issues important to them. Record important points brought up and get back to students if necessary.
- ❖ Keep dialog journals. Have students write daily or weekly comments in a journal to be kept in class. Respond to student comments with short comments of your own.
- ❖ Circulate through the classroom. Be interactive and visible to kids. Use words of praise and encouragement.

Academic Activities:

Motivated students are engaged in interesting activities that guarantee a high success rate and relate to real-world issues.

Ideas to motivate through selection and development of learning activities:
- ❖ Use humor.
- ❖ Keep miscellaneous work supplies on hand (e.g., paper, pencils, etc.) for students to borrow.
- ❖ Set a timer (e.g., for 60 seconds) and challenge students to finish routine tasks or transition between activities before timer runs out.
- ❖ Set up academic culminating event field trips. On these field trips, have students use skills learned in class (e.g., drafting questions in social studies to be used in an interview with a member of city government).
- ❖ Invite interesting guest speakers into the classroom to speak on academic topics. Prepare index cards with review questions and answers based on material covered in class. Have guest speaker quiz teams; award points to teams based on their mastery of material.
- ❖ Offer students meaningful choice in setting up their assignments (e.g., selection of work materials, type of activity).

- ❖ Select fun, imaginative activities for reviewing academic material. In order to get students to assemble material for a research paper, for example, you might send them to the library on a fact-finding scavenger hunt.
- ❖ Encourage active student participation.
- ❖ Use motivating real-world examples for review, quiz, or test items.
- ❖ Keep instructions and assignments short. Have students repeat instructions back.
- ❖ Celebrate student achievement.
- ❖ Celebrate mistakes as opportunities for learning.
- ❖ Prior to assignments, have students set their own short-term work or learning goals. Periodically, have students rate their own progress toward their self-selected goals.
- ❖ Structure work period so that more difficult activities are in the middle, with easier tasks at the start and end.
- ❖ Liven potentially dull student review activities by conducting them as class-wide or small-group drills. Use a game format to maintain interest.
- ❖ Use novel, interesting materials for instruction.
- ❖ Allow students to set their own pace for completing work.
- ❖ Select activities that make a community contribution. Students may, for instance, work on writing skills by publishing a monthly newsletter for the 7th grade.

Learning Challenges:

Every learner presents a unique profile of strengths and weaknesses. We unlock motivation when we acknowledge and address unique learning profiles.

Ideas to motivate by accommodating challenges to learning:
- ❖ Avoid stigmatizing as low performers those students who require remedial academic support.
- ❖ Lead students through the first part of an assignment as a group before having them complete it independently.
- ❖ If an assignment requires use of new or difficult terms or concepts, first pre-teach or preview this material.
- ❖ Make the classroom a safe setting in which in which students can identify and work on their own skill deficits.
- ❖ Give students credit and recognition for effort on assignments as well as for mastery of content.
- ❖ Be honest in telling students how challenging a topic or activity is likely to be to master. Never downplay the difficulty of an assignment!
- ❖ Use a think-aloud approach when introducing a skill or strategy.
- ❖ Select academic activities that guarantee a high degree of student success.
- ❖ Allow students to take a brief break when tired or frustrated.
- ❖ Help students to get organized and started on an activity.
- ❖ Have students keep a schedule of work assignments and due dates.
- ❖ Encourage students to use memory aids such as notes and lists.
- ❖ Assist students in breaking large, multi-step tasks into smaller subtasks. Have students write those subtasks down as a personal to-do list.

- ❖ Teach students to use a notebook organizer.
- ❖ Give reminders of upcoming transitions between activities.
- ❖ Help students to highlight key information to be remembered.
- ❖ Provide frequent review of key concepts.
- ❖ Periodically remind students of timeline of upcoming assignments.

Outcomes/Pay-Offs for Learning:

Learning is a motivating activity when the learner can count on short- or long-term payoffs for mastering the material being taught.

Ideas to motivate by arranging or emphasizing payoffs to the student for successful learning:
- ❖ Reward student effort along with quality of completed work. (One way to do this is to use frequent encouragement for good effort along with praise for finished work.)
- ❖ Build in short-term rewards (e.g., increased free time, pencils, positive note home) for student effort, work completion.
- ❖ Create high-visibility location for displaying student work (e.g., bulletin board, web site). Encourage students to select their own best work to be posted.
- ❖ Have students monitor their own progress in accuracy/work completion. For example, have students create graphs charting homework assignments turned in. Tie student-monitored performance to reward programs.

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http://www.interventioncentral.org

Bullying: What It Is & What Schools Can Do About It

Q: What is school bullying?
A: *School bullying can be described as a situation in which one or more students (the 'bullies') single out a child (the 'victim') and engage in behaviors intended to harm that child. A bully will frequently target the same victim repeatedly over time. A child who bullies can dominate the victim because the bully possesses more power than the victim. Compared to his or her victim, for example, the bully may be physically stronger or more intelligent, have a larger circle of friends, or possess a higher social standing. Bullying can inflict physical harm, emotional distress, and/or social embarrassment or humiliation.*

Q: What conditions allow bullying to take place?
A: *There are three essential components to any bullying situation. To start with, there must be a bully: an individual who voluntarily seeks out and attempts to victimize others. Another participant necessary for bullying to take place is a potential victim: a student who is substantially weaker than the bully in one or more significant ways. Bullying cannot happen, of course, unless there is also a location in which it can occur. School locations where bullying is common are often those with limited adult supervision, such as hallways, bathrooms, and*

playgrounds. While not essential, student bystanders are a fourth important element that often impacts bullying: if witnesses are present when bullying occurs, these bystanders can play a pivotal role by choosing either to encourage the bully or to protect the victim.

Q: How big of a problem is bullying in schools?
A: *It is difficult to know precisely how widespread bullying is in any given school. Bullying tends to be a hidden activity, and both bullies and victims are usually reluctant to disclose to adults that it is taking place. The incidence of bullying also can vary greatly from school to school. Research suggests, though, that 7 percent or more of students may be bullies and perhaps 10-20 percent may be chronic victims of bullying.*

Q: What are the different types of bullying?
A: *Bullying can be direct or indirect. When bullying takes a direct form, the bully confronts the victim face-to-face. Examples of direct bullying would include situations in which the victim is verbally harassed or threatened, physically attacked (e.g., punched, kicked, pushed down), or socially embarrassed (e.g., taunted, refused a seat on the school bus). In the case of indirect bullying, the bully attacks the victim's social standing or reputation-usually when the victim is not around. A student is engaging in indirect bullying if he or she spreads malicious gossip or writes insulting graffiti about a classmate, or organizes a peer group to ostracize that classmate. Victims are at a particular disadvantage in indirect bullying because they may never discover the identity of the person or group responsible for the bullying.*

Q: Are there differences in bullying between boys and girls or at different age levels?
A: *Some evidence suggests that a general shift from direct to indirect bullying takes place as children advance from elementary to middle and high school. At any grade level, boys are more likely than girls to report that they are victims of physical bullying. Schools may also tend to overlook the possibility that girls take part in bullying, both because of gender stereotypes (i.e., that girls are less aggressive than boys) and because girls may prefer to bully using indirect means such as hurtful gossip that are difficult for adults to observe.*

Q: Why do some children bully? What is the payoff for them?
A: *There are several reasons that a particular student may be motivated to bully. For instance, the bully may enjoy watching a weaker child suffer, like the increased social status that comes from bullying, or covet the money or personal property that he or she can steal or extort from a victim. Children who bully are likely to feel little empathy for their victims and may even feel justified in inflicting hurt because they believe that their victims deserve it. A common myth about bullies is that they bully others to cover up their own sense of inadequacy or poor self-esteem. It appears that bullies actually possess levels of self-esteem that are about as positive as those of their non-bully peers.*

Q: What are the characteristics of a child who is victimized by bullies?
A: *There is no single descriptive profile to help schools to identify those students who are at risk for being targeted by bullies. One important indicator, though, is the presence or absence of*

friends in a child's life. Children who are socially isolated are easier targets for bullies because they lack a friendship network to back them up and support them against a bully's attacks. A second factor that can predispose a child to be victimized is age. Older children often bully younger children. There are also two subgroups of bully victims that seem to present a clearer profile: passive victims and provocative victims. Passive victims may be physically weaker than most classmates, avoid violence and physical horseplay, and be somewhat more anxious than their peers. Lacking friends, these children are an easy target for bullying. Provocative victims may be both anxious and aggressive. They may also have poor social skills and thus tend to irritate or alienate their classmates. Bullies often take pleasure in provoking these provocative victims into an outburst through taunts or teasing, then sit back and watch as the teacher reprimands or punishes the victim for disrupting the class.

Q: What impact does bullying have on its victims?
A: *Victims of bullying may experience problems with academics, because they are too preoccupied with the task of avoiding the bully to concentrate the teacher's lecture or school assignment. They may engage in specific strategies to dodge the bully (e.g., feigning illness and being sent to the nurse to avoid gym class) and may even develop an apparent phobia about attending school. Bullying can also leave a lasting imprint on its victims. Victims of bullying are often socially marginalized to start with, having few if any friends. Unfortunately, as these children are bullied over time, they may experience increased rejection by their peers who blame the victims for the suffering that they endure at the hands of the bully. In time, these victims too may come to believe that they themselves are responsible for the bullying. Individuals who were chronically bullied as children may show symptoms of depression and poor self-esteem as adults.*

Q: What role do bystanders play in helping or preventing bullying?
A: *The term bystander suggests that those children who stand on the sidelines and witness incidents of bullying are neutral observers. In most instances, though, bystanders are much more likely to provide encouragement and support to the bully than they are to actively intercede to help the victim (Snell, et al., 2002). Furthermore, in situations in which a group of students is bullying a child, bystanders may actively join in by taunting, teasing, or ostracizing the victim. Teachers are often surprised when they see a group of otherwise-friendly children egging on a bully or engaging in bullying behaviors themselves. One explanation for why bystanders may cross the line to help bullies is that, as part of a group, bystanders may feel less accountable for their individual actions (Olweus, 1993). Another possibility is that bystanders feel justified in bullying the victim because they have come to believe that he or she deserves such treatment.*

Q: Schools are supposed to be well-supervised settings. How could widespread bullying happen there?
A: *Because bullying is a covert activity, adults seldom see it occurring. There are other reasons why bullying can go unchallenged in school as well:*

❖ *School staff may misinterpret aggressive bullying as harmless physical horseplay and therefore fail to intervene.*

❖ *When questioned by adults, victims often deny that bullying is taking place. (Victims may lie about the bullying because the bully is present during the questioning or because they do not believe that the adults in the school will be able to intercede effectively to make the bullying stop.)*

❖ *There may be too few supervising adults in those unstructured settings where bullying is most likely to occur (e.g., gym class, lunch room, playground). Or those supervising adults may not be trained to intervene early and assertively whenever they see questionable behavior between children.*

Q: What can schools do to stop bullying?

A: *All segments of the school community must work together to address the problem of bullying. This means that teachers, administrators, parents, and students need to cooperate as they assess the scope of the bullying problem in their school and come up with ways to respond to it effectively. While every school will adopt an approach to bully prevention that meets its unique needs, all schools would benefit from the following guidelines (Batsche & Knoff, 1994):*

❖ *Conduct a thorough building-wide assessment to uncover the extent that bullying is a problem in your school. Use multiple methods to collect information. Consider administering staff surveys and anonymous student surveys, facilitating student and parent focus groups on the topic of bullying, analyzing the pattern of student disciplinary referrals to see if bullying patterns emerge, have adults observe and record bullying behaviors in less-supervised settings such as the cafeteria and on the playground, etc. Pool this information to identify significant patterns of bullying (for example, where and when bullying happens to occur most frequently; which students appear to engage in bullying behavior and which are victimized by bullies, etc.)*

❖ *Reach consensus as a staff about how your school defines bullying and when educators should intervene to prevent bullying from occurring. Rates of school bullying drop significantly when all staff members are able to identify the signs of bullying and agree to intervene consistently whenever they observe unsafe, disrespectful, or hurtful behaviors.*

❖ *Compile a menu of appropriate consequences that educators can impose on students who bully. This menu should include lesser consequences that might be given for minor acts of bullying (e.g., mild teasing) and more stringent consequences for more serious or chronic bullying (e.g., inflicting physical harm, harassing a victim for weeks). Train staff to use the consequences menu to ensure fairness and consistency when they intervene with bullies.*

❖ *Establish a policy for contacting the parent(s) of a student who has engaged in bullying. At the parent conference, school staff should attempt to enlist the parent to work with them to stop the student's bullying. If the parent denies that a problem exists or refuses to cooperate to end the child's bullying behavior, the parent should be told clearly that the school will monitor the child's behavior closely and will take appropriate disciplinary steps if future bullying incidents occur.*

❖ *Monitor the school's bully-prevention efforts on an ongoing basis to see if they have in fact reduced the amount of bullying among students and improved the emotional climate of the building. The school can use the same monitoring methods to track progress in bully-prevention as were first used to assess the initial seriousness of the bullying problem (e.g., focus groups, surveys, direct observation, tracking of disciplinary referrals). Share these results periodically in the form of a progress report with school staff, parents, and students to build motivation throughout the school community for your building's bully-prevention initiative.*

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http://www.interventioncentral.org

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Bullies: Turning Around Negative Behaviors

Bullying in school is usually a hidden problem. The teaching staff typically is unaware of how widespread bullying is in their building and may not even recognize the seriousness of bullying incidents that do come to their attention. Teachers who are serious about reducing bullying behaviors must (1) assess the extent of the bullying problem in their classrooms, (2) ensure that the class understands what bullying is and why it is wrong, (3) confront any student engaged in bullying in a firm but fair manner, and (4) provide appropriate and consistent consequences for bullying.

Assess the Extent of the Bullying Problem.
By pooling information collected through direct observation, conversations with other staff, and student surveys, teachers can get a good idea of the amount and severity of bullying in their classroom. To more accurately assess bullying among students, a teacher can do the following:
❖ Drop by unexpectedly to observe your class in a less-structured situation (e.g., at lunch, on the playground). Watch for patterns of bullying by individuals or groups of students. Signs of direct bullying could include pushing, hitting, or kicking. Also be on the lookout for prolonged teasing, name-calling, and other forms of verbal harassment. If you should overhear students gossiping about a classmate or see evidence that an individual has been excluded from a group, these may well be signs of indirect bullying. Note the names of children who appear to be instigators of bullying, as well as those who seem to be victims.
❖ A single teacher alone is not likely to see enough student behavior to be able to accurately pick out bullies and victims in his or her own classroom. Ask other school staff that interact with your students (e.g., gym teacher) whom they have may have observed bullying or being victimized within your class or other classes in the same grade. Note the students whose names keep coming up as suspected bullies or victims. Monitor children thought to be bullies especially closely to ensure that they do not have opportunities to victimize other children.

❖ Create a simple survey on the topic of school bullying. Have your students complete this survey anonymously. Questions to ask on the questionnaire might include "Where does bullying happen in this school?" and "How many times have you been bullied this year?" If your school administrator approves, you may also ask students to give the names of specific children whom they believe are bullies.

❖ *NOTE:* When administering this survey to students, you should also share with them the names of trusted adults in the building with whom they can talk in confidence if they are currently victims of bullying.

Ensure That the Class Understands the Definition of Bullying.

Children may not always know when their behavior crosses the line and becomes bullying. Two important goals in asserting control over bullying are to create shared expectations for appropriate conduct and to build a common understanding of what behaviors should be defined as bullying. To accomplish these objectives, a teacher can:

❖ Hold a class meeting in which students come up with rules for appropriate behaviors. Rules should be limited in number (no more than 3-4) and be framed in positive terms (that is, stating what students should do instead of what they should avoid doing). Here are several sample rules:
  ▪ Treat others with courtesy and respect.
  ▪ Make everyone feel welcome and included.
  ▪ Help others who are being bullied or picked on.

❖ Create a shared definition for bullying with the class by having them identify behaviors that are bullying behaviors. List these behaviors on the board. If students focus only on examples of direct bullying, remind them not to overlook indirect bullying (e.g., gossip, excluding others from a group). Tell the class that when you see examples of bullying occurring, you plan to intervene to keep the classroom a safe and friendly place to learn.

Confront Students Engaged in Bullying in a Firm But Fair Manner.

When a teacher communicates to the class that bullying will not be tolerated and then intervenes quickly and consistently whenever he or she observes bullying taking place, that instructor sends a clear message to students that bullying will not be tolerated.

Bullies are often quite skilled at explaining away situations in which adults have caught them bullying. When confronted, they may say, for example, "I was just kidding around" or "Nothing happened," even when the evidence clearly suggests otherwise. You can avoid disputes with students by adopting the 'I-centered' rule for evaluating misbehavior.

1. Tell your class that it offends or bothers you when you witness certain kinds of hurtful student behaviors (e.g., teasing, name-calling). Emphasize that when you see such behavior occurring, you will intervene, regardless of whether the offending student meant to be hurtful.

2. If you witness suspected bullying, immediately approach the child responsible, describe the negative behavior that you witnessed, explain why that behavior is a violation of classroom expectations, and impose a consequence (e.g., warning,

apology to victim, brief timeout, loss of privilege). Keep the conversation focused on facts of the bully's observed behavior and do not let the bully pull the victim into the discussion.

3. If the bully's behaviors continue despite your surveillance and intervention, impose more severe consequences (e.g. temporary loss of playground privileges).

Additional Tips to Keep in Mind When Confronting Students Who Bully:

❖ When you confront a student for bullying, do so in private whenever possible. A private discussion will remove the likelihood that the confronted student will play to the audience of classmates and become defiant or non-compliant. If you must call a student on his or her bullying behavior in public, do so briefly and in a business-like manner. Then arrange to have a private discussion with the student at a later time to discuss the bullying incident in greater detail.

❖ Find an adult in the school with whom the student who bullies has a close relationship. Enlist that adult to sit down with the bully to have a heart-to-heart talk. The adult should be willing to discuss with the student the problems created by his or her bullying behavior, to express disappointment with the student's conduct and to encourage the student to stop his or her bullying. This conference is not intended to be punitive. However, the student should feel at the end of the talk that, while he or she is valued, the student's bullying behavior hurts and disappoints those who care about the student.

❖ Provide appropriate and consistent consequences for bullying. Schools should remember that the relationship between a bully and his or her victim is coercive in nature, and that the bully always wields power unfairly over that victim. Strategies for addressing student conflict such as peer mediation, therefore, tend to be ineffective in bullying situations, as the bully can always use his or her power advantage to intimidate the victim. The most sensible disciplinary approach that teachers can use with bullies is to make sure that they are watched carefully and that adults follow up with firm consequences for each bullying incident. When providing consequences for bullying, the teacher should consider these strategies:

1. Assemble a list of appropriate behavioral consequences for bullying. Include lesser consequences for isolated instances of bullying and greater consequences for chronic or more serious bullying. Share those consequences with your class. (In fact, you may want to enlist students to help generate items on the list!) Whenever a student is observed bullying a classmate, intervene and apply a consequence from the list. For example, a student who bullies during lunch might be required to spend several days seated away from his or her friends at a supervised lunch table. If a group or class participates in a bullying incident (e.g., children at a lunch table socially ostracizing a new student), hold the entire group accountable and impose a disciplinary consequence on each group member.

2. If one of your students takes advantage of unsupervised trips from the room (e.g., bathroom break) to seek out and bully other children, restrict that student's movements by requiring that they be supervised by an adult at all times when out of the classroom. When you are satisfied that the student's behaviors have improved enough to trust him or her once again to travel out of the room without

adult supervision, let the student know that he or she is on probation and that you will reinstate these school travel restrictions if you hear future reports of bullying.

3. When you observe a student engaging in a clear pattern of bullying, arrange a conference with that child's parents and share with them the information that suggests that the child is bullying other students. Enlist their help to stop the child's bullying. (You will probably want the child to attend that conference so that he or she will understand clearly that the school is monitoring his or her bullying behavior and will impose negative consequences if it continues.)

4. Develop a reward chart for the student who bullies. Tell the student that you will put a sticker on the student's chart for each day that you do not receive reports from other teachers or from students and do not directly observed bullying or unkind behavior. Let the student know that if he or she manages to collect a certain number of stickers within a certain number of days (e.g., 4 stickers across a 5-day period) for good behaviors, they can redeem them for a prize or privilege.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Victims: Preventing Students From Becoming Bully-Targets

Children who are chronically bullied are often deeply unhappy in school, suffer from low self-esteem, and often find themselves socially rejected by their classmates as a result of the bullying. Teachers are likely to see another hidden cost of bullying: as students are victimized, their grades frequently suffer.

The best way for any school to assist children victimized by bullies is to adopt a whole-school approach to bully prevention. Even if working alone, however, teachers can take immediate action to make life easier for children in their classroom who are being bullied.

Take Steps to Ensure the Victim's Safety.

Victims are often physically weaker or otherwise less powerful than the bully. They may blame themselves for the bullying and believe that adults cannot help them to deal with the bully. When adults intervene to help a victim, they should above all make arrangements to keep the victim safe from future bullying attacks. Consider these ideas as a means for better understanding how seriously victims are affected by bullying in your school or classroom and for helping these victims to stay safe in school.

❖ Some victims may be reluctant to come forward. Have children complete an anonymous questionnaire that asks them if they are bullied, whether they have witnessed bullying, and where and when bullying that they have experienced or observed took place. Act on students' feedback by taking steps such as increasing

adult supervision in locations where bullying takes place to make them safe for all students.

❖ Select or create a safe-room that is always staffed with adults (e.g., a well-supervised study-hall, drop-in counseling center, Resource Room). During times of the day when the student is most likely to be targeted for bullying (e.g., lunch period), assign the student to the safe-room.

❖ Examine the victim's daily schedule. For any activities where there is likely to be little adult supervision, either make arrangements to increase that supervision or adjust the child's schedule to eliminate these undersupervised blind spots.

Help the Victim to Develop Positive Connections With Others.

When choosing a victim, bullies typically target children who have few or no friends. If a child has at least one significant friend in school, he or she is less likely to be bullied and is usually better able to cope with the effects of bullying when it occurs. The teacher's goal, then, is to strengthen the social standing of the victim with classmates and other students and adults in the school. As people in the school community develop more positive connections with the victimized student, they may be willing to intervene to prevent the victim from being bullied. Here are ideas that may promote positive connections between the victim and other students or adults:

❖ Train socially inept children in basic social skills, such as how to invite a classmate to play a game or to seek permission from a group of children to join in a play activity.

❖ Pair students off randomly for fun, interactive learning or leisure activities. These accidental pairings give children a chance to get to know each other and can trigger friendships. Consider changing the seating chart periodically to foster new relationships.

❖ If a child receives pull-out special education services, try to avoid scheduling these services during class free time. Otherwise, the child loses valuable opportunities to interact with peers and establish or strengthen social relationships.

❖ Enlist one or more adults in the school to spend time with the child as mentors. (Once these adults begin to spend time with the child, they will then be likely to actively intervene if they see the student being bullied!) Give these adults ideas for how they can structure sessions with the student (i.e., playing board games, having lunch together, etc.) Suggest to the student that he or she occasionally invite a friend to these activities.

❖ Train staff, older student volunteers, or adult volunteers to be play-helpers. Train them to organize and supervise high-interest children's game and activities for indoors and outdoors. (When possible, select games and activities that are easy to learn, can accommodate varying numbers of players, and allow children to join in mid-activity.) Place these play-helpers on the playground, in classrooms, in a corner of the lunchroom, or other areas where students have unstructured free time. The play-helpers may also be encouraged to pay special attention to those children with few friends are likely to be socially excluded, making sure that these children are recruited to participate in organized play with adult support as needed.

Teach Assertiveness Skills.

After a victim has been repeatedly bullied, he or she may find it very difficult to stand up to the bully. One explanation for the bully's power over the victim is that the bully has learned the victimized student's vulnerabilities. If the victim then starts to resist being bullied, the bully is emboldened to persistently attack the victim (e.g., through teasing, social ostracism, or physical harm) until the victim is again overwhelmed and defeated. At the point where it has become chronic, bullying can be so ingrained that only decisive adult intervention can free the victim from this abusive relationship.

When a bully first approaches and attempts to dominate a potential victim, however, the targeted student still has maneuvering room and may successfully fend off the bully by using basic assertiveness skills. The bully's goal when targeting a student is to exploit the victim's perceived weakness(es) in order to gain dominance over him or her. If the potential victim maintains his or her composure, stands firm, and continues to behave appropriately even when provoked, the bully will find that the supposed victim is not so weak as he or she first thought.

A few simple assertiveness rules that you can teach to students are to:
- ❖ Respond to taunts, insults, or teasing with a bland response ("Oh." "That's your opinion." "Maybe.") Don't let bullies see that they have upset you.
- ❖ Get away from the situation if you start to get very angry.
- ❖ Say "No" firmly and loudly if you don't want to do something that someone tells you to do. Stand straight up and look that person in the eye when you say it.
- ❖ Refuse to let others talk you into doing something that you will be sorry for – even if they dare you!
- ❖ Report incidents of bullying to adults.

Be sure that you students do not confuse assertiveness with physical or verbal aggression.

While the weaker victim will likely regret aggressively attacking the bully, he or she may well be successful by simply standing firm against the bully. And even if the potential victim is not entirely successful when using assertiveness skills during a particular episode, that student might still manage to stop the bullying from becoming chronic by showing the bully that he or she is not an easy mark.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Locations: Transforming Schools from Bully-Havens to Safe Havens

Bullies are opportunistic, preying upon students whom they perceive as weak. Bullying cannot take place, though, unless the bully has a setting or location in which he or she is able to exploit and hurt the victim. The far corner of a classroom, a deserted hallway, the bathroom: these are all locations in which bullying may happen. Places where bullying is common are frequently deserted or poorly supervised.

The good news, though, is that when adults are present to supervise a particular setting, intervene quickly when they witness bullying behavior, and provide fair and appropriate consequences to the bully for his or her misbehavior, the rate of bullying in that setting will plummet. A teacher can work with other school staff to put locations off-limits to bullies by first identifying where bullying most often occurs in the school and then providing increased levels of trained adult supervision in those settings.

Uncover Bullying Hot Spots in the School and Community.

Crime analysts note that a small handful of locations in the community often serve as magnets for crime, with multiple criminal incidents reported to police (Schmerler et al., 1998). In schools, too, just a few locations tend to be the site of many incidents of bullying. Often, these locations are poorly supervised. When schools identify locations where bullying typically happens, they can take steps to make these places less attractive to bullies. Ideas that teachers can use to discover bullying locations in and around a school are to:

- ❖ Go on a school walking tour with your class. Ask students to identify safe and unsafe areas of the school, the times of day these areas are most safe or least safe, and the reasons that they are safe or unsafe. Record student comments. Or hand out maps of the school's interior and ask students to color in red those places that are least safe and in blue those places that are the most safe. (Also, consider asking other teachers to perform similar activities with their classes and compare your results with theirs to see if shared or dissimilar patterns are found.) Share these results with other members of your teaching team and your principal.
- ❖ Give students street maps of the neighborhood surrounding your school. (To make them easier for students to interpret, clearly mark well-known landmarks such as stores or fast-food restaurants on the maps.) Ask the class to identify any locations in the neighborhood where bullying or other unsafe behavior tends to happen and to mark these locations on the map. Also, ask class members to identify places in the neighborhood that tend to be safer and to mark those on the map as well. When the students share the results of the activity with you, record their comments regarding both the unsafe and safe locations. Share these results with other members of your teaching team and your principal.
- ❖ *NOTE:* You may also want to share the information that you collect on unsafe neighborhood locations with your School Resource Officer or a representative from your local police department. Invite him or her to visit your classroom to give your students tips on how to stay safe when transiting to or from school.

Put Strategies in Place to Make Locations Less Attractive to Bullies.

After you have identified locations in and around your school where bullying tends to occur, you can take simple but effective steps to make these locations less friendly to bullies. Among strategies to consider are to:

❖ Perhaps the most effective way to decrease bullying is to increase the level of adult surveillance in hallways, stairwells, and other settings where bullying is frequently reported and during the time(s) when it is most likely to happen. You may also choose to enlist older, trusted students to monitor identified locations. Adult and student monitors should receive training about what bullying behaviors to look for and how to intervene effectively with bullies.

❖ Help hallway, lunchroom, and playground monitors to learn the names of students (e.g., by inviting them into classrooms at the start of the school year to be introduced to students). Adults can intervene much more effectively in bullying situations when they know the names of the children involved and their assigned classrooms.

❖ Separate older and younger students when they are in less-supervised settings (e.g., playground) to prevent older children from victimizing younger ones.

❖ Train non-instructional staff (e.g., lunchroom aides) to intervene promptly when they see bullying, or suspected bullying, occurring in their areas. Work with these staff to design a list of specific intervention strategies that are likely to be effective (e.g., set up a time-out table in the cafeteria; after one warning, a student who bullies is sent to that table for a 5-minute timeout).

❖ Increase the natural surveillance of areas of the school (e.g., hallways) that are unsupervised for long periods of time by moving some whole-class or small-group activities to these locations. For example, students can complete a learning activity on the metric system by measuring the length of a hallway in meters. As public traffic moves more frequently (and unpredictably) through a previously deserted area, bullies will find fewer opportunities to pick on potential victims.

❖ Change your classroom layout or rearrange seating to eliminate any blind spots where bullies can victimize students outside of your view. Circulate frequently throughout the classroom so that you can monitor student conversations and behavior.

❖ Have classrooms adopt stretches of public space in your school (e.g., hallways) by agreeing to help keep that space clean and to put up posters that provide positive anti-bully messages (e.g., welcoming visitors, reminding students of appropriate behaviors, giving pointers on how to respond assertively to a bully). When a classroom asserts ownership over a public space, this action conveys the impression that the space is cared for and watched over, serving as a kind of extension to the classroom itself. As the public space ceases to be anonymous and impersonal, bullies no longer have the assurance that they can operate in that location unseen and unnoticed.

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

Jackpot! Ideas for Classroom Rewards

Read through this list for reward ideas that will motivate your students.

Academic Activities
- ❖ Go to the library to select a book
- ❖ Help a classmate with an academic assignment
- ❖ Help the teacher to present a lesson (e.g., by completing sample math problem on blackboard, reading a section of text aloud, assisting cooperative learning groups on an activity)
- ❖ Invite an adult "reading buddy" of student's choice to classroom to read with student
- ❖ Listen to books-on-tape
- ❖ Play academic computer games
- ❖ Read a book of his/her choice
- ❖ Read a story aloud to younger children
- ❖ Read aloud to the class
- ❖ Select a class learning activity from a list of choices
- ❖ Select a friend as a "study buddy" on an in-class work assignment
- ❖ Select friends to sit with to complete a cooperative learning activity
- ❖ Spend time (with appropriate supervision) on the Internet at academic sites

Helping Roles
- ❖ Adopt a younger student and earn (through good behavior) daily visits to check in with that student as an older mentor
- ❖ Be appointed timekeeper for an activity: announce a 5-minute warning near end of activity and announce when activity is over
- ❖ Be given responsibility for assigning other students in the class to helping roles, chores, or tasks
- ❖ Complete chores or helpful activities around the classroom
- ❖ Deliver school-wide announcements
- ❖ Help the custodian
- ❖ Help the library media specialist
- ❖ Help a specials teacher (e.g., art, music, gym)
- ❖ Take a note to the main office
- ❖ Work at the school store

Praise/Recognition
- ❖ Be awarded a trophy, medal, or other honor for good behavior/caring attitude
- ❖ Be praised on school-wide announcements for good behavior or caring attitude
- ❖ Be praised privately by the teacher or other adult
- ❖ Design--or post work on–a class or hall bulletin board
- ❖ Get a silent "thumbs up" or other sign from teacher indicating praise and approval
- ❖ Have the teacher call the student's parent/guardian to give positive feedback about the student
- ❖ Have the teacher write a positive note to the student's parent/guardian
- ❖ Post drawings or other artwork in a public place

- ❖ Post writings in a public place
- ❖ Receive a "good job" note from the teacher

Prizes/Privileges/Rewards

- ❖ Allow student to call parent(s)
- ❖ Be allowed to sit, stand, or lie down anywhere in the classroom (short of distracting other children) during story time or independent seat work
- ❖ Be dismissed from school 2 minutes early
- ❖ Be given a raffle ticket that the student writes name on and throws into a fishbowl for prize drawings
- ❖ Be permitted to sit in a reserved section of the lunchroom
- ❖ Be sent to recess 2 minutes earlier than the rest of the class
- ❖ Draw a prize from the class prize box
- ❖ Earn behavior points or tokens to be redeemed for prizes or privileges
- ❖ Have first choice in selecting work materials (e.g., scissors, crayons, paper) and/or seating assignments
- ❖ Have lunch in the classroom with the teacher
- ❖ IOU redeemable for credit on one wrong item on a future in-class quiz or homework assignment
- ❖ Receive a coupon to be redeemed at a later time for a preferred activity
- ❖ Receive a sticker
- ❖ Receive candy, gum, or other edible treats
- ❖ Receive pass to "Get out of one homework assignment of your choice"
- ❖ Select a class fun activity from a list of choices
- ❖ Select the pizza toppings for a class pizza party
- ❖ Sit near the teacher
- ❖ Take the lead position in line
- ❖ Tell a joke or riddle to the class

Recreation

- ❖ Be selected by the teacher to accompany another student to a fun activity
- ❖ Get extra gym time with another class
- ❖ Get extra recess time with another class
- ❖ Listen to music
- ❖ Play a game with a friend
- ❖ Play non-academic computer games
- ❖ Select fun activity from "Activity Shelf" (stocked with play materials, games)
- ❖ Spend time (with appropriate supervision) on the Internet at recreational sites
- ❖ Watch part or all of a video (preselected by the teacher and cleared with the student's parent)
- ❖ Work on a jigsaw or other puzzle
- ❖ Write or draw on blackboard/whiteboard/easel paper

Courtesy of:
http://www.interventioncentral.org

The Aggressive Child: Attention or Detention?

Behavior Description:
This child will often antagonize others, involves him/herself in fighting or instigating fights or arguments. This type can often be seen as a bully and tends to have just a few friends. He/she likes to solve problems by winning fights and arguments. Aggressive children often threaten others. Other students often fear the aggressor as he/she will be both verbally and physically aggressive.

Why?
The aggressor will rarely have self-confidence and gains it through aggressive behavior. Aggressors are attention seekers and they enjoy the attention they gain from being aggressive. Power brings attention and the aggressor has learned this. Due to the child's weaker self-image and the fact that he or she doesn't fit in, they try aggressive behavior and soon become leaders, even though they usually know that they are behaving inappropriately.

Interventions:
* ❖ Never ignore inappropriate aggressions and do not get drawn into a power struggle with the aggressor.
* ❖ Be firm but gentle in your approach. Remember, the aggressor can handle the tough side of you but he/she will succumb to gentleness and it's really what he wants - the right kind of attention.
* ❖ Deal one to one with the aggressor and devise a plan for him/her to take control of their own behavior. See behavior contracts.
* ❖ Successful teachers know that when they establish a one to one relationship with he aggressor, success soon follows. Remember, the aggressor can usually tell if you genuinely like him/her. Be genuine, this child merely needs attention.
* ❖ Provide opportunities for this child to act appropriately and get some badly needed attention, give him/her responsibilities and provide praise.
* ❖ Catch the aggressor behaving well and provide immediate, positive feedback. In time, you will see that the aggressive behaviors will start to diminish.
* ❖ Provide him/her with activities that bring forth leadership in a positive way, always let him/her know that you care, trust and respect him. Remind him/her that it's the inappropriate behaviors that you don't like.
* ❖ Provide as many methods as you can for this child to take ownership for his/her inappropriate behavior. Probe him/her with how should that situation have been handled and how will it be handled next time.

Never forget that ALL children need to know you care about them and that they can contribute in a positive way. It took the child a long time to become a master of aggressive behavior, be consistent, patient and understand that change will take time.

Courtesy of:
http://specialed.about.com

Behavior Management: Intervention Strategies
By: Jane Bluestein, Ph.D.

Different types of student behavior require different interventions. We can compound problems by applying the incorrect strategies to any student behavior—positive or negative. The information below can help reinforce positive behavior (without using conditional approval, or reinforcing dependence or people-pleasing behaviors), can help motivate desirable behaviors (without nagging or threatening), and can help intervene negative behavior effectively and non-punitively.

Productive Student Behavior

Description: Cooperative, positive or desirable student behavior that a student is currently exhibiting or has already demonstrated.

Intervention Strategy: Positive Reinforcement, Recognition

Goal: Maintaining existing behavior, improving likelihood of behavior recurring independently.

Process: Connect the student's positive choice to positive outcomes.
- ❖ <u>Step 1:</u> Describe the positive behavior: "You put the science materials away."
- ❖ <u>Step 2:</u> Connect the behavior to the positive outcome to the student: "Now you can go on to the next activity."
- ❖ <u>*Note:*</u> Outcome (step 2) must be need-fulfilling for the student.

Connection to Boundary: Relates to boundary expressed before behavior occurred. For example, if you promised dismissal after students line up quietly, once they do as you've asked, you allow the positive consequence promised in the boundary to occur. Experiencing the privilege or positive outcome as a result of their cooperation strengthens (reinforces) the students' cooperative behavior. (If no boundary was used – or necessary – to elicit the cooperation, you can still reinforce the behavior by connecting it to a positive outcome. This action communicates conditions in implicit or unexpressed boundaries and helps your kids make the connection between the choices they've made and the positive outcomes of those choices.)

Caution: Avoid praise that connects the student's worth to his or her choice or those that reinforce people-pleasing: "I like the way . . .," "I really like you when . . .," "You're so good when . . ." or "You make me happy when . . ." Focus on the student's behavior and how the cooperative choice benefits the student, not you!

Non-Productive Student Behavior

Description: Neutral or non-disruptive student behavior that is nevertheless off task (that is, student is not doing what you've asked or assigned, but is not preventing teaching or learning from occurring elsewhere).

Intervention Strategy: Motivating with meaningful positive outcomes; offering choices to accommodate students' needs for power and autonomy (within limits that protect their need for safety and security).

Goal: Eliciting cooperative, constructive behavior from student.

Process: Connecting low-probability behavior (what you want) to high-probability behavior (what the student wants).

Examples: "If your work is done by noon, you can help out in the kindergarten." "As soon as you clear your desks and we can watch the video." "You may work together as long as you don't disturb anyone."

Note: To be effective, motivator (outcome) must be meaningful and need fulfilling to the child.

Connection to Boundary: The motivating statement is the boundary, connecting what the students want to what you want and expressing the conditions, terms or limits under which they can have or do what they want.

Counter-Productive Student Behavior

Description: Negative or disruptive student behavior that is interfering, in some way, with the teaching or learning process.

Intervention Strategy: Removing or withholding privileges or positive consequences; holding students accountable for their behavior.

Goal: Stopping the negative behavior and encouraging more cooperative choices; building responsibility, accountability and self-management.

Process (dealing with misbehavior due to uncooperative choices, lack of self-control): Interrupting disruptive or destructive behavior. Withdrawing positive consequences until students change their behavior (or until another time when the students

have another chance to behave more cooperatively), or until students correct, repair, restore or replace materials or areas damaged or disarranged. Insisting or requiring that the students change their behavior in order to gain (or regain) access to meaningful outcomes or privileges. Accepting the students even though you do not accept their behavior. Leaving the door open for the student to stop and replace negative behaviors: "You can have the book back as soon as you both agree on how you'll share it."

Note: Many misbehaviors can be avoided by getting students attention before giving clear directions or instructions ahead of time, by making sure adequate materials and resources are available, practicing transitions and building independent work habits, making sure that assignments challenge students and yet allow for achievement and success for everyone, and by physical proximity and eye contact. Further, minimizing reactions whenever possible, validating students' feelings or reality, and maintaining a sense of humor can avert many problems.

Note: If a misbehavior or potential misbehavior is due to lack or misunderstanding of directions, interrupt the behavior: "Stop" or "Freeze." Give additional information or directions, or suggest more acceptable options, especially if the desired behavior hasn't been requested, clarified or practiced beforehand: "Stop. We don't pour paint in the trash can. Pour the paint in the sink and run the water until you can't see the paint anymore."

Connection to Boundary: Boundaries offer conditional access to positive outcomes (privileges, meaningful activities, for example). As long as students behave in ways that respect the conditions of the boundary, they retain the privilege the boundary promises. As soon as those conditions are violated, the privilege is removed. Keep in mind that removal of positive consequence depends on availability of positive consequence, which is why a reward-oriented, win-win environment makes this process possible and effective.

Caution: Follow-through requires constructive action. Once previously-announced limits have been violated, withdraw privileges immediately. Avoid warnings and reminders after the fact. Do not ask for excuses ("why"); instead, simply restate the boundary (or ask what the student plans to do to correct the situation). Avoid punishing or taking responsibility for the student's problem.

Excerpted and adapted from 21st Century Discipline, revised edition, by Jane Bluestein, Ph.D. © 1999, McGraw-Hill Children's Publishing, Grand Rapids, MI.

Courtesy of:
http://www.janebluestein.com/handouts/strategies.html

Rationale For Developing Positive Behavioral Interventions

Traditionally, teachers have dealt with student behavior that interferes with classroom instruction by using various kinds of negative consequences (e.g., verbal reprimands, time-out, and suspension). The goal, of course, has been to reduce, if not eliminate the immediate problem. However, experience has shown that these usually are not the most effective or efficient means to eliminate problem behavior. "Reactive" approaches that follow inappropriate behavior, such as punishment, are not only time consuming, but they fail to teach the student acceptable replacement behaviors and also may serve to reinforce the inappropriate behavior. Many teachers have thus begun to introduce various programs to teach students more acceptable, alternative responses. For example, social skills programs have been an especially popular way to teach appropriate behavior; however, decisions regarding which behavior to teach a student usually are based on the program's curriculum, rather than on what skill a student demonstrates he or she lacks. As a result, understanding why the student misbehaved in the first place is seldom addressed.

Today, there is growing recognition that the success of an intervention hinges on: 1) understanding why the student behaves in a certain way; and 2) replacing the inappropriate behavior with a more suitable behavior that serves the same function (or results in the same outcome) as the problem behavior. Intervention into problem behavior begins with looking beyond the misbehavior and uncovering the underlying causes of the misbehavior. Examples of statements that consider "why" a student misbehaves are:
   - ❖ Charles swears at the teacher to get out of completing a difficult assignment.
   - ❖ Juan makes jokes when given a geography assignment to avoid what he perceives as a boring assignment and to gain peer attention.

Knowing what compels a student to engage in a particular behavior is integral to the development of effective, individualized positive behavioral intervention plans and supports.

Generally, the logic behind functional assessment is driven by two principles. First, practically all behavior serves a purpose: it allows students to get something desirable, escape or avoid something undesirable, or communicate some other message or need. Second, behavior occurs within a particular context. It may occur in certain settings (e.g., in the cafeteria), under certain conditions (e.g., only when there is a substitute teacher), or during different types of activities (e.g., during recess). Because of these two things, students will change the inappropriate behavior only when it is clear to them that a different response will more effectively and efficiently accomplish the same thing. For this reason, identifying the causes of a behavior-what the student gets, escapes, or avoids, or is attempting to communicate through the behavior-can provide the information necessary to develop effective strategies to address those behaviors that interfere with learning or threaten safety. This can be accomplished by means of a functional behavioral assessment.

Courtesy of:
http://cecp.air.org/fba/problembehavior3/rationale3.htm

Functional Behavior Assessment and Behavior Intervention Plans
Author: Mary K. Fitzsimmons
November 1998

For some time, researchers and school personnel have been studying the effects of a wide range of problem behaviors on classroom learning. Research funded by the Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) and other government agencies corroborates educators' concerns that behavior difficulties interfere with the learning of both the student exhibiting the behavior problem and his or her peers.

In light of this research, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) Amendments of 1997 require that understanding the relationship between learning and behavior must be a key ingredient in planning the individualized education program (IEP) for a student with disabilities. Consequently, teams charged with developing IEPs are required to address the children's behavioral as well as learning problems. IEP teams must conduct a functional behavioral assessment (FBA) and implement behavior intervention plans that include positive behavioral interventions and supports.

States are responding to these new requirements speedily. As of June 1998, 35 states and territories have current plans to develop or revise written policies and procedures or guidelines related to FBAs to be consistent with the requirements of IDEA. Some of the IDEA requirements relate to FBAs and the influence of behavior on learning. They include the following:
   ❖ IEP teams must explore the need for strategies and supports to address any behavior that may impede the learning of the child with disabilities or the learning of his or her peers.
   ❖ IEP teams must meet within 10 days of any disciplinary actions resulting in suspension or expulsion of a student with disabilities. The meeting's purpose is to plan a functional behavior assessment so data will be available for a behavior plan. If such a plan already exists, the IEP team reviews and revises it, as necessary, to ensure that it addresses the student's behavior that precipitated the disciplinary action.
   ❖ States must address the in-service needs of education personnel in the area of development and implementation of positive intervention strategies.

Why Conduct a Functional Assessment?
The purpose of a functional assessment is to gather information in order to understand a student's problem behavior. However, an FBA goes beyond the "symptom" (the problem behavior) to the student's underlying motivation to "escape," "avoid," or get something. OSEP and other government-sponsored research and educators' and psychologists' experience have demonstrated that behavior intervention plans stemming from the knowledge of why a student misbehaves (i.e., based on a functional behavioral assessment) are extremely useful in addressing a wide range of problems.

Often, the functions of a behavior are not inappropriate- rather, it is the behavior itself that is judged appropriate or inappropriate. If the IEP team determines through an FBA that a student is seeking attention by acting out, they can develop a plan to teach the student more appropriate ways to gain attention, thereby filling the student's need for attention with an alternative or replacement behavior that serves the same function as the inappropriate behavior. At the same time, strategies may be developed to decrease or even eliminate opportunities for the student to engage in inappropriate behavior.

Conducting a Functional Assessment

Identifying the reasons for behavior will take many forms, and while the IDEA advises an FBA approach to determine specific contributors to behavior, it does not require or suggest specific techniques or strategies to use when assessing that behavior. However, several key steps are common to most FBAs:

1. **Verify the seriousness of the problem.** Many classroom problems can be eliminated by the consistent application of standard and universal discipline strategies of proven effectiveness. Only when these strategies have not resulted in significant improvement on the part of the student should school personnel go forward with an FBA.
2. **Define the problem behavior in concrete terms.** School personnel need to pinpoint the behavior causing learning or discipline problems and to define that behavior in terms that are simple to measure and record. For example, a problem behavior might be "Trish is aggressive." A concrete description is "Trish hits other students during recess when she does not get her way."
3. **Collect data on possible causes of problem behavior.** The use of a variety of techniques will lead the IEP team to a better understanding of the student behavior. Key questions include the following: Is the problem behavior linked to a skill deficit? Is there evidence to suggest that the student does not know how to perform the skill? Does the student have the skill but for some reason not perform it consistently? Also, a probing discussion with the student may yield an enhanced understanding of what, in each context, causes problem behavior.
4. **Analyze the data.** A data triangulation chart is useful in identifying possible stimulus-response patterns, predictors, maintaining consequences, and likely function(s) of the problem behavior. A problem behavior pathway chart can be used to sequentially arrange information on setting antecedents, the behavior itself, and consequences of the behavior that might lead to its maintenance.
5. **Formulate and test a hypothesis.** After analyzing the data, school personnel can establish a plausible explanation (hypothesis) regarding the function of the behaviors in question. This hypothesis predicts the general conditions under which the behavior is most and least likely to occur as well as the consequences that maintain it. The team can then experimentally manipulate some of the relevant conditions affecting the behavior. If the behavior remains unchanged following this environmental manipulation, the team can reexamine the hypothesis with a view to altering it.

Behavior Intervention Plans

The student's behavior intervention plan should include positive strategies, programs or curricular modifications, and supplementary aids and supports required to address the behaviors

of concern. It is helpful to use the data collected during the FBA to develop the plan and to determine the discrepancy between the child's actual and expected behavior.

Intervention plans that emphasize skills needed by the student to behave in a more appropriate manner and that provide proper motivation will be more effective than plans that simply control behavior. Interventions based on control often only suppress the behavior, resulting in a child manifesting unaddressed needs in alternative, inappropriate ways. Positive plans for behavioral intervention, on the other hand, will address both the source of the problem and the problem itself and foster the expression of needs in appropriate ways.

Evaluating the Plan

It is good practice for IEP teams to include two evaluation procedures in an intervention plan: one procedure designed to monitor the consistency with which the management plan is implemented, the other designed to measure changes in behavior.

In addition, IEP teams must determine a timeline for implementation and reassessment and specify how much behavior change is required to meet the goal of the intervention. Assessment completion should be within the timelines prescribed by the IDEA.

If a student already has a behavior intervention plan, the IEP team may elect to review and modify it or they may determine that more information is necessary and conduct an FBA. The IDEA states that a behavior intervention plan based on an FBA should be considered when developing the IEP if a student's behavior interferes with his or her learning or the learning of classmates. To be meaningful, plans need to be reviewed at least annually and revised as often as needed. However, the plan may be reviewed and reevaluated whenever any member of the child's IEP team feels it is necessary.

Sources:

Addressing Student Problem Behavior: AN IEP Team's Introduction to Functional Behavioral Assessment and Behavior Intervention Plans by Mary Magee Quinn, Robert A. Gable, Robert B. Rutherford, Jr., C. Michael Nelson, and Kenneth W. Howell (January 1998). Available from the Center for Effective Collaboration and Practice, 888.457.1551. Email: center@air-dc.org. Web Site: http://www.air-dc.org/cecp/ceep.html.

"Addressing Problem Behaviors in Schools: Use of Functional Assessments and Behavior Intervention Plans" by Robert A. Gable, Mary Magee Quinn, Robert B. Rutherford, Jr., and Kenneth W. Howell in Preventing School Failure, Spring 1998 (42:3), 106-119.

Functional Behavioral Assessment: State Policies and Procedures from Project Forum at NASDSE, June 1998. Available from 703.519.3800 (voice) or 7008 (TDD).

Courtesy of:
http://www.cec.sped.org

Al's Pals

Al's Pals is an early childhood intervention program based on a resiliency framework designed to develop personal, emotional and social skills. Al's Pals is authored by Susan Geller.

Courtesy of:
http://www.wingspanworks.com

Bully Prevention Program (Olweus)

The Bully Prevention Program is a comprehensive, school-wide program designed for elementary and junior high students. The primary goals of the program are to reduce and prevent bullying problems among school children and to improve peer relations at school. The Bully Prevention Program is authored by Dan Olweus.

Courtesy of:
http://www.clemson.edu/olweus/

Child Development Project
(Caring School Community Program)

The Child Development Project (Caring School Community Program) is a multi-faceted school change program focused on creating caring, supportive learning environments that foster students' sense of belonging and connection to school. The Child Development Project is authored by Eric Schaps.

Courtesy of:
http://www.devstu.org/cdp/index.html

Good Behavior Game

The Good Behavior Game is a classroom management strategy designed to improve aggressive/disruptive classroom behavior and prevent later criminality. The Good Behavior Game is authored by Sheppard Kellam.

Courtesy of:
http://www.hazelden.org

High/Scope Curriculum

High/Scope Curriculum is a curriculum framework that seeks to contribute to children's intellectual, social and physical development so they can achieve success and social responsibility in school and life. High/Scope Curriculum is authored by a variety of different authors.

Courtesy of:
http://www.highscope.org

I Can Problem Solve

The I Can Problem Solve program is a violence prevention program that helps children think of nonviolent ways to solve everyday problems. The I Can Problem Solve program is authored by Myrna Shure.

Courtesy of:
http://www.researchpress.com

Linking the Interests of Families and Teachers (LIFT)

Linking the Interests of Families and Teachers (LIFT) is an intervention program that prevents the development of aggression and antisocial behavior. The LIFT program is authored by John Reid.

Courtesy of:
http://www.oslc.org

Lion's Quest

Lion's Quest works with educators, parents and community members to help adolescents develop social and emotional skills, good citizenship skills, positive character, skills to remain drug free and the ethic of service to others. Lion's Quest is authored by Susan Keister.

Courtesy of:
http://www.lions-quest.org

PeaceBuilders

PeaceBuilders is a school-wide violence prevention program in which staff and students change the school climate to promote prosocial behavior. PeaceBuilders is authored by Peace Partners, Inc.

Courtesy of:
http://www.peacebuilders.com

Peace Makers

Peace Makers is a violence reduction intervention program that reduces physical violence and verbal aggression and increases positive interpersonal behavior. Peace Makers is authored by Jeremy Shapiro.

Courtesy of:
http://www.applewoodcenters.org

Project ACHIEVE

Project ACHIEVE is a program that works to improve school and staff effectiveness and places a particular emphasis on increasing student performance in the areas of social skills/social emotional development, conflict resolution, academic progress and positive school climate. Project ACHIEVE is authored by Howard Knoff.

Courtesy of:
http://www.sopriswesst.com

Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS)

Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS) is a curriculum that teaches the five areas of social and emotional development: self-control, emotional understanding, self-esteem, peer relations and interpersonal problem-solving. PATHS is authored by Carol Kushé and Mark Greenberg.

Courtesy of:
http://www.devstu.org/cdp/index.html

Responding in Peaceful and Positive Ways (RIPP)

Responding in Peaceful and Positive Ways (RIPP) is a violence prevention program designed to teach middle school and junior high students conflict resolution strategies. RIPP is authored by Wendy Northup and Aleta Meyer.

Courtesy of:
http://www.preventionopportunities.com

Second Step

Second Step is a violence prevention program that develops social and emotional skills in students ages 4-14. Second Step is authored by the Committee for Children.

Courtesy of:
http://www.cfchildren.org

SOAR
(The Seattle Social Development Project)

SOAR, The Seattle Social Development Project, is a comprehensive program that provides social skills training and promotes positive youth development and academic success in grades one through six. SOAR is authored by J. David Hawkins.

Courtesy of:
http://www.channing-bete.com

Social Decision Making/Problem Solving Program

The Social Decision Making/Problem Solving Program is a social-emotional program that trains children grades K-8 in social and decision making skills to handle social and emotional stress in healthy ways. The Social Decision Making/Problem Solving Program is authored by Maurice Elias and Linda Bruene Butler.

Courtesy of:
http://www.umdnj.edu/spsweb

WEBLINKS

Reading Intervention Weblinks
Reading Comprehension: ❖ http://www.veld.org/pages/newsletters/00_01_fall/mnemonic.htm   ❖ http://itc.gsu.cdu/academymodules/a304/support/xpages/a304b0_20600.html
Phonemic Awareness: ❖ http://www.kidsource.com/kidsource/content2/phoemic.p.k12.4.html   ❖ http://www.braintrain.com/main/soundsmart_mkts.htm   ❖ http://teacher.scholastic.com/products/read180/overview/nclb.asp   ❖ http://www.educationallearninggames.com/word-games-4.asp   ❖ http://www.songsforteaching.com/phonemicawareness.htm   ❖ http://educator.readingsuccesslab.com/Glossary/Blending.html
Phonological Awareness: ❖ http://ca.geocities.com/phonological/index.htm   ❖ Phonological Awareness Resources and Links: http://cageocities.com/phonological/usefullinks.htm

Writing Intervention Weblinks
  ❖ http://www.concordspedpac.org/writing.html   ❖ http://www.interventioncentral.org/htmdocs/interventions/writing

Math Intervention Weblinks

- ❖ NCTM Illuminations: http://illuminations.nctm.org/
- ❖ www.k8accesscenter.org/training_resources/documents/Math%20Interventions.ppt

- ❖ http://teacherweb.com/PA/BethlehemFarmersville/MrOrtwein/links4.stm

- ❖ http://www.eduplace.com/math/brain/index.html

- ❖ www.figurethis.org

- ❖ http://www.specialconnections.ku.edu/cgi-bin/cgiwrap/specconn/main.php?cat=instruction&subsection=math/teachertools

Behavior Intervention Weblinks

- ❖ Center for Effective Collaboration and Practice http://cecp.air.org/fba/default.asp

- ❖ http://www.Good-Child-Guide.com

- ❖ http://www.OurDefiantKids.com

- ❖ Positive Behavior Intervention Supports: www.pbis.org

- ❖ School wide Information System: www.swiss.org

- ❖ Special connections: http://www.specialconnections.ku.edu

- ❖ http://www.TheTotalTransformation.com

Additional Resources

- ❖ http://www.teachingld.org
- ❖ http://www.interventioncentral.org
- ❖ http://www.cast.org

GLOSSARY

Analogy-Based Phonics

Analogy-Based Phonics allows children learn to use parts of word families they know to identify words they don't know that have similar parts.

Analytic Phonics

Analytic Phonics helps children learn to analyze letter-sound relationships in previously learned words. They do not pronounce sounds in isolation.

Automaticity

Automaticity is the fast, effortless word recognition that comes with a great deal of reading practice. In the early stages of learning to read, readers may be accurate but slow and inefficient at recognizing words. Continued reading practice helps word recognition become more automatic rapid, and effortless. Automaticity refers only to accurate, speedy word recognition, not to reading with expression. Therefore, automaticity (or automatic word recognition) is necessary, but not sufficient, for fluency.

Baseline

A *Baseline* is an observation that occurs before the intervention is in place to determine frequency and duration of the student's current behaviors.

Behavior Intervention Plan (BIP)

A *Baseline Intervention Plan (BIP)* is conducted after a functional behavioral assessment occurs, and is a plan developed based on the function of the behavior. The plan is a working document that changes frequently. It spells out what behaviors are being targeted for change and how change will be handled.
http://www.specialconnections.ku.edu/cgi-bin/cgiwrap/specconn/main.php?cat=auxil&section=glossary

Blending	*Blending* is combining sounds that letters make to form words. Children who are taught phonics learn to attach speech sounds to letters and then use the speech sounds plus a blending strategy to sound out words. So, for example, a child identifying the word "cat" using phonics would say. "cuh" "aa" "tt" and then try and push the sounds together rapidly enough to identify the word. There are several variations of phonics-based strategies. Many children who are at risk for developing reading difficulties can learn the sounds that letters make and they can learn to blend the sounds with sufficient speed so they can "hear" the word they are trying to identify.
Direct Instruction (DI)	*Direct Instruction (DI)* is a model for teaching that emphasizes well-developed and carefully planned lessons designed around small learning increments and clearly defined and prescribed teaching tasks. It is based on the theory that clear instruction eliminating misinterpretations, can greatly improve and accelerate learning.
Drill and Games	*Drill and Games* should not be viewed as competitors for class time, nor should games be thought of as time-killers or rewards. In fact, games satisfy many, if not most, standard drill objectives – and with many built-in options. Drills tend to become tedious and, therefore, gradually lose its effectiveness. Games relieve the tedium because children enjoy them. Indeed, children often wish to continue to play games during their free time, lunch and even recess.
Drill Exercises	*Drill Exercises* aim primarily at building fact and operations skills. Practice through games also shares these objectives, but, at the same time, games often reinforce other skills including calculator skills, money exchange and shopping skills, logic, geometric intuition and intuition about probability and chance (because many games involve numbers that are generated randomly.)
Duration	*Duration* is how long a behavior occurs in a given setting.

Dyad Reading	*Dyad Reading* is a type of cooperative learning method that can be used to help children with reading. Evidence seems to be mounting that proposes poor readers can be helped to read better if they are assisted to read material that is too difficult for them to read fluently by themselves, especially when those reading experiences focus on the content of the text rather than on the words (Eldredge, 1988). "Group assisted reading is a strategy intended to adapt dyad reading to groups of children who could not individually read grade level material" (Eldredge, 1990, p. 126).
Embedded Phonics	*Embedded Phonics* teaches children letter-sound relationships during the reading of connected text. (Since children encounter different letter-sound relationships as they read, this approach is not systematic or explicit.)
Frequency	*Frequency* is a system that yields the number of behaviors noted in an observation.
Functional Behavioral Assessment (FBA)	*Functional Behavioral Assessment* is generally considered to be a problem-solving process for addressing student problem behavior. It relies on a variety of techniques and strategies to identify the purposes of specific behavior and to help IEP teams select interventions to directly address the problem behavior. Functional behavioral assessment should be integrated, as appropriate, throughout the process of developing, reviewing, and, if necessary, revising a student's IEP. A functional behavioral assessment looks beyond the behavior itself. The focus when conducting a functional behavioral assessment is on identifying significant, pupil-specific social, affective, cognitive, and/or environmental factors associated with the occurrence (and non-occurrence) of specific behaviors. This broader perspective offers a better understanding of the function or purpose behind student behavior. Behavioral intervention plans based on an understanding of "why" a student misbehaves are extremely useful in addressing a wide range of problem behaviors. http://cecp.air.org/fba/default.asp

Intensity	*Intensity* is the severity of the behavior being observed whether it is minor or extreme. Severity of Disruptive Behavior Rating Rubric: 1. Behavior is confined only to the observed student. May include such behaviors as: refusal to follow directions, scowling, crossing arms, pouting, or muttering under his/her breath. Behavior disrupts others in the student's immediate area. May include: slamming textbook closed, dropping book on the floor, name calling, or using inappropriate language. 2. Behavior disrupts everyone in the class. May include: throwing objects, yelling, open defiance of teacher directions, or leaving the classroom. 3. Behavior disrupts other classrooms or common areas of the school. May include: throwing objects, yelling, open defiance of school personnel's directions, or leaving the school campus. 4. Behavior causes or threatens to cause physical injury to student or others. May include: display of weapons, assault on others. http://cecp.air.org/fba/problembehavior2/text2.htm
Onset-rime Phonics Instruction	*Onset-Rime Phonics Instruction* allows children to learn to identify the sound of the letter or letters before the first vowel (the onset) in a one-syllable word and the sound of the remaining part of the word (the rime).
Metacognition	*Metacognition* can be defined as "thinking about thinking." Good readers use metacognitive strategies to think about and have control over their reading. Before reading, they might clarify their purpose for reading and preview the text. During reading, they might monitor their understanding, adjusting their reading speed to fit the difficulty of the text and "fixing up" any comprehension problems they have. After reading, they check their understanding of what they read.
Peer-Mediated Instruction	*Peer-Mediated Instruction* can encourage the development of classrooms as mathematical communities by allowing students to work together to communicate about and experiment with their own solutions to mathematical situations (Buchanan & Helman, 1993; NCTM, 1989, 1991; Scheid, 1994). Rather than being teacher-directed, peer-mediated learning arrangements provide students with the opportunities to work in groups to formulate and pose questions; share ideas; clarify thoughts; and experiment, brainstorm, and present solutions with peers (Lo, Wheatley, & Smith, 1994).

Phonemic Awareness	*Phonemic Awareness* is the ability to hear and manipulate sounds in words. It is the awareness of the sounds in language and how the sounds make up words in sentences. This is auditory and does not involve words in print. Phonemic awareness is not the same thing as phonics. Phonemic awareness deals with sounds in spoken words, whereas phonics involves the relationship between sounds and written symbols. Phonics deals with learning sound-spelling relationships and is associated with print. Most phonemic awareness tasks are purely oral.
Phonological Awareness	*Phonological Awareness* is the knowledge that words are made up of individual sounds. Phonological awareness is the precursor to phonics which is frequently the method used to teach children to read. If a child can not "sound out a word" or does not have good "word attack skills," it is possible that he may not have the underlying phonological awareness skills necessary to understand and use phonics skills. The development of phonological awareness begins during the preschool years. It is not unusual for a child of four years to be able to tell a syllable of a word when ask to "tell me a little bit of telephone." Even though she does not know the word syllable, she will say "tel" or "a" or "phone" in response to this request. By five years, it is not unusual for a child who has been exposed to rhyme to detect a rhyme, that is she will fill in the missing rhyming word in a familiar rhyme. Also by five years, most children have memorized poems or finger plays which is also a part of phonological awareness development.
Phonics Through Spelling	*Phonics Through Spelling* allows children to learn to segment words into phonemes and to make words by writing letters for phonemes.
Positive Behavior Supports (PBS)	*Positive Behavior Supports (PBS)* are school-wide behavioral systems that individualized strategies and interventions for achieving social and learning success in the school setting, while preventing problem behavior. http://sde.state.nm.us/seo/discipline/index.htm
Synthetic Phonics	*Synthetic Phonics* allows children to learn how to convert letters or letter combinations into sounds, and then how to blend the sounds together to form recognizable words.
Time Sample	A *Time Sample* is an observation of a behavior based on a pre-determined amount of time. For example, every 15 seconds the observer marks whether the behavior occurs.