



*RTI Toolkit: A Practical Guide for Schools*

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# RTI: The Middle- and High School Teacher as Classroom Intervention 'First Responder'

Jim Wright, Presenter

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Hyde Park Central School District  
Hyde Park, NY

Jim Wright  
364 Long Road  
Tully, NY 13159  
Email: [jim@jimwrightonline.com](mailto:jim@jimwrightonline.com)  
Website: [www.interventioncentral.org](http://www.interventioncentral.org)  
Workshop Materials Available at: <http://www.interventioncentral.org/hydepark>



## How To: Deliver Direct Instruction in General-Education Classrooms

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

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

1. Increase Access to Instruction	
Instructional Element	Notes
<input type="checkbox"/> <b>Instructional Match.</b> Lesson content is appropriately matched to students' abilities (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> <b>Content Review at Lesson Start.</b> The lesson opens with a brief review of concepts or material that have previously been presented. (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice, 2008, Rosenshine, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> <b>Preview of Lesson Goal(s).</b> At the start of instruction, the goals of the current day's lesson are shared (Rosenshine, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> <b>Chunking of New Material.</b> The teacher breaks new material into small, manageable increments, 'chunks', or steps (Rosenshine, 2008).	
2. Provide 'Scaffolding' Support	
Instructional Element	Notes
<input type="checkbox"/> <b>Detailed Explanations &amp; Instructions.</b> Throughout the lesson, the teacher provides adequate explanations and detailed instructions for all concepts and materials being taught (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> <b>Think-Alouds/Talk-Alouds.</b> When presenting cognitive strategies that cannot be observed directly, the teacher describes those strategies for students. Verbal explanations include 'talk-alouds' (e.g., the teacher describes and explains each step of a cognitive strategy) and 'think-alouds' (e.g., the teacher applies a cognitive strategy to a particular problem or task and verbalizes the steps in applying the strategy) (Burns, VanDerHeyden, & Boice, 2008, Rosenshine, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> <b>Work Models.</b> The teacher makes exemplars of academic work (e.g., essays, completed math word problems) available to students for use as models (Rosenshine, 2008).	
<input type="checkbox"/> <b>Active Engagement.</b> The teacher ensures that the lesson engages the student in 'active accurate responding' (Skinner, Pappas & Davis, 2005) often enough to capture student attention and to optimize learning.	
<input type="checkbox"/> <b>Collaborative Assignments.</b> Students have frequent opportunities to work collaboratively--in pairs or groups. (Baker, Gersten, & Lee, 2002; Gettinger & Seibert, 2002).	
<input type="checkbox"/> <b>Checks for Understanding.</b> The instructor regularly checks for student	



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

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

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



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# How To: Match the Student to the Right Academic Intervention with the Instructional Hierarchy

Teachers recognize that learning is a continual process of growth and improvement. The student who grapples with the rudiments of a skill such as reading appears very different from the more advanced student who is a proficient and self-motivated reader. Intuitively, then, educators understand that students advance through predictable stages of learning as they move from novice to expert in a particular skill.

The Common Core Standards, too, acknowledge advancing levels of learning, as can be seen in their wording. For example, a 6th-grade Common Core Standard for Mathematics on the Number System (CCSM.6.NS.2) states that the student will "fluently divide multi-digit numbers using the standard algorithm." (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices et al., 2010; p. 42). This standard assumes that the successful student is both (1) accurate and (2) proficient (i.e., fluent) in multi-digit division--and implies as well that the student (3) will retain the skill over time, (4) will have the endurance to complete grade-appropriate tasks that include the skill, and (5) can flexibly apply or generalize the skill to those situations and settings in which multi-digit division will be useful.

The Instructional Hierarchy-IH (Haring et al., 1978) is a helpful framework to analyze stages of student learning. The Instructional Hierarchy breaks the learning process into several levels, shifting from skill acquisition through skill mastery toward full integration of the skill into the student's academic repertoire. As presented here, the Instructional Hierarchy consists of 5 levels (Haring et al., 1978; Martens & Witt, 2004): Acquisition, fluency, retention, endurance, and generalization. Although initially formulated several decades ago, the Instructional Hierarchy is widely used as a model of learning in contemporary research into effective instruction and academic intervention (e.g., Ardoin & Daly, 2007).

By linking a particular student's target skill to the corresponding IH learning stage, the teacher can gain insight into what instructional supports and strategies will help that student to attain academic success. This linkage of learner to learning stage increases both teacher confidence and the probability for a positive student outcome. The table below (adapted from Haring et al., 1978 and Martens & Witt, 2004) gives instructors a brief description of each learning stage in the Instructional Hierarchy, along with suggested instructional strategies and a sample intervention idea:

<b>1. Acquisition</b>
<p><b>Goal.</b> At the beginning of the acquisition stage, the student has just begun to acquire the target skill. The objective is for the student to learn how to complete the skill accurately and repeatedly--without requiring the help of another.</p> <p><b>Instructional Strategies.</b> When just beginning a new skill, the student learns effectively through learning trials, in which the teacher: (1) <i>models</i> how to perform the skill, (2) <i>prompts</i> the student to perform the skill; and (3) <i>provides immediate performance feedback</i> to shape the student's learning in the desired direction. The teacher can maintain student motivation by providing frequent 'labeled praise' (that is, praise that specifically describes the student's positive academic behaviors and effort) and encouragement. As the student becomes accurate and more independent in the skill, the teacher can gradually fade prompting support.</p> <p><b>Sample Intervention Idea.</b> <i>Cover-copy-compare</i> is a student-delivered intervention that promotes acquisition of math-facts or spelling words (Skinner, McLaughlin, &amp; Logan, 1997). The student is given a blank index card and a worksheet with spelling words or math-facts (with answers) appearing in the left column. One at a time, the student studies each original model (spelling word or math fact), covers the model with index card, from memory copies the model (spelling word or math-fact equation and answer)</p>



into the right column of the worksheet, then uncovers the model to confirm that the student work is correct. NOTE: This intervention is most appropriate for use as the student has acquired some accuracy and independence in the target skill.

## 2. Fluency

**Goal.** The student who advances into the fluency stage can complete the target skill with accuracy but works relatively slowly. The objective is for the student to maintain accuracy while increasing speed of responding (fluency).

**Instructional Strategies.** The student who has acquired the skill but must become more proficient benefits from (1) brief, frequent opportunities to practice the skill coupled with (2) instructional feedback about increasing speed of performance (Martens & Witt, 2004). To facilitate fluency-building, the teacher structures group learning activities to give the student plenty of opportunities for active (observable) responding. The student is also given multiple opportunities for drill (direct repetition of the target skill) and practice (combining the target skill with other skills to solve problems or accomplish tasks). The student receives feedback on the fluency and accuracy of the academic performance, as well as praise and encouragement tied to increased fluency.

**Sample Intervention Idea.** An example of a group strategy to promote fluency in math-facts is *explicit time drill* (Rhymer et al., 2002). The teacher hands out a math-fact worksheet. Students are told that they will have 3 minutes to work on problems on the sheet. The teacher starts the stop watch and tells the students to start work. At the end of the first minute in the 3-minute span, the teacher 'calls time', stops the stopwatch, and tells the students to underline the last number written and to put their pencils in the air. Then students are told to resume work and the teacher restarts the stopwatch. This process is repeated at the end of minutes 2 and 3. At the conclusion of the 3 minutes, the teacher collects the student worksheets.

## 3. Retention

**Goal.** At the start of the retention stage, the student is reasonably fluent but is at risk of losing proficiency in the target skill through lapses in use. At this point, the objective is to 'overlearn' the skill to insure its retention even after long periods of disuse.

**Instructional Strategies.** Frequent opportunities for practice can be an effective method to entrench a skill and help the student to retain it over time (Martens & Witt, 2004). The teacher can schedule numerous practice episodes within a short time ('massed review') to promote initial fluency and then reinforce longer-term retention of the skill by scheduling additional periodic review ('distributed review') across longer spans of several weeks or even months (Pashler et al., 2007).

**Sample Intervention Idea.** An illustration of an intervention to promote retention is *repeated reading* (Lo, Cooke, & Starling, 2011). This intervention targets reading fluency: The student is given a passage and first 'rehearses' that passage by following along silently as the tutor reads it aloud. Then the student reads the same passage aloud several times in a row, with the tutor giving performance feedback after each re-reading. If a teacher uses a fluency-building strategy such as repeated reading but sets an ambitious outcome goal that is *above* the minimum benchmark for success, the resulting 'overlearning' can support long-term retention of the skill. For example, a 4th-grade teacher uses repeated reading with a student during a mid-year intervention and tracks the student's reading fluency using timed 1-minute curriculum-based measurement oral reading fluency passages. Benchmark norms (Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2005) suggest that the student will cross over into the 'low-risk' range for reading fluency if he can read at least 87 words



per minute according to the mid-year benchmark norms for grade 4. The teacher decides instead to overshoot, setting the outcome goal to a higher 95 words per minute ('overlearning') to give the student an additional margin of reading fluency to promote long-term skill retention.

## 4. Endurance

**Goal.** At the onset of the endurance stage, the student has become fluent in the target skill but will engage in it only reluctantly or for brief periods. The goal is to have the student persist in the skill for the longer intervals of time required in the classroom setting or expected for the student's age group. (Martens & Witt, 2004)

**Instructional Strategies.** Several instructional ideas can promote increased student endurance. In structuring lessons or independent work, for example, the teacher can gradually lengthen the period of time that the student spends in skills practice or use. The student can also be enlisted to self-monitor active engagement in skill-building activities--setting daily, increasingly ambitious work goals and then tracking whether he or she successfully reaches those goals. NOTE: If a student appears to lack 'endurance', the teacher should also verify that the fundamentals of good instruction are in place: for example, that the student can do the assigned work (instructional match), adequately understands directions, is receiving timely performance feedback, etc.

**Sample Intervention Idea.** An idea to increase student endurance provides breaks between gradually lengthening work intervals (*'fixed-time escape'*: adapted from Waller & Higbee, 2010). This strategy can be used with groups or individual students. The teacher first selects a target activity for endurance-building (e.g., independent reading). The teacher then sets the length of work periods by estimating the typical length of time that the student or group will currently engage in the activity (e.g., 5 minutes) before becoming off-task or disruptive. The teacher also decides on a length for brief 'escape' breaks (e.g., 2 minutes)--times when students can stop work and instead take part in preferred activities.

At the start of the intervention, the teacher directs the student or group to begin the target work activity. At the end of the work interval (e.g., 5 minutes), the teacher announces that the student or group can take a short break (e.g., 2 minutes). When that break is over, students are directed to again begin work. This sequence (work interval, escape interval) repeats until the scheduled work period is over. As students are able successfully to remain engaged during work periods, the teacher can gradually extend the length of these work periods by small increments, while reducing and then fading escape breaks, until work periods reach the desired length.

## 5. Generalization

**Goal.** At the beginning of the generalization stage, the student is accurate and fluent in using the target skill but does not always employ the skill where or when needed. The goal of this phase is to motivate the student to apply the skill in the widest possible range of appropriate settings and situations.

**Instructional Strategies.** The teacher can promote generalization of skills by first identifying the types of situations in which the student should apply the target skill and then programming instructional tasks that replicate or mimic these situations. So the teacher may create lessons in which students can generalize the target skills by interacting with a range of people, working with varied materials, and/or visiting different settings. The teacher can also use explicit prompts to remind students to apply skills in specific situations.

**Sample Intervention Idea.** For a student who does not always generalize the skill of carefully checking math assignments before turning them in, the teacher can work with that student to create a math *self-*



*correction checklist* (Uberti, Mastropieri, & Scruggs, 2004). Teacher and student meet to create a checklist of that student's most common sources of errors on math assignments. The student is then expected to use the checklist to review math work before submitting to the teacher. This intervention strategy can be adopted to other disciplines (e.g., writing assignments) as well. And completed checklists can be collected with assignments to verify student use.

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## How To: Document Academic & Behavioral Interventions

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

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

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

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

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

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## Classroom Intervention Planning Sheet

This worksheet is designed to help teachers to quickly create classroom plans for academic and behavioral interventions. (For a tutorial on how to fill out this sheet, review the accompanying directions.)

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

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

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

Progress-Monitoring	
<b>What to Write:</b> Select a method to monitor student progress on this intervention. For the method selected, record what type of data is to be used, enter student baseline (starting-point) information, calculate an intervention outcome goal, and note how frequently you plan to monitor the intervention. Tip: Several ideas for classroom data collection appear on the right side of this table.	
Type of Data Used to Monitor:	<b>Ideas for Intervention Progress-Monitoring</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Existing data: grades, homework logs, etc.</li> <li>Cumulative mastery log</li> <li>Rubric</li> <li>Curriculum-based measurement</li> <li>Behavior report card</li> <li>Behavior checklist</li> </ul>
Baseline	
Outcome Goal	
How often will data be collected? (e.g., daily, every other day, weekly):	



## Classroom Intervention Planning Sheet: Math Computation Example

This worksheet is designed to help teachers to quickly create classroom plans for academic and behavioral interventions. (For a tutorial on how to fill out this sheet, review the accompanying directions.)

Case Information					
<b>What to Write:</b> Record the important case information, including student, person delivering the intervention, date of plan, start and end dates for the intervention plan, and the total number of instructional weeks that the intervention will run.					
Student:	<i>John Samuelson-Gr 4</i>	Interventionist(s):	<i>Mrs. Kennedy, classroom teacher</i>	Date Intervention Plan Was Written:	<i>10 October 2012</i>
Date Intervention is to Start:	<i>M 8 Oct 2012</i>	Date Intervention is to End:	<i>F 16 Nov 2012</i>	Total Number of Intervention Weeks:	<i>6 weeks</i>
Description of the Student Problem:		<i>Slow math computation speed (computes multiplication facts at 12 correct digits in 2 minutes, when typical gr 4 peers compute at least 24 correct digits).</i>			

Intervention
<b>What to Write:</b> Write a brief description of the intervention(s) to be used with this student. TIP: If you have a script for this intervention, you can just write its name here and attach the script to this sheet.
<i>Math Computation Time Drill. (Rhymer et al., 2002)</i> <i>Explicit time-drills are a method to boost students' rate of responding on arithmetic-fact worksheets: (1) The teacher hands out the worksheet. Students are instructed that they will have 3 minutes to work on problems on the sheet. (2) The teacher starts the stop watch and tells the students to start work. (3) At the end of the first minute in the 3-minute span, the teacher 'calls time', stops the stopwatch, and tells the students to underline the last number written and to put their pencils in the air. Then students are told to resume work and the teacher restarts the stopwatch. (4) This process is repeated at the end of minutes 2 and 3. (5) At the conclusion of the 3 minutes, the teacher collects the student worksheets.</i>

Materials	Training
<b>What to Write:</b> Jot down materials (e.g., flashcards) or resources (e.g., Internet-connected computer) needed to carry out this intervention.	<b>What to Write:</b> Note what training--if any--is needed to prepare adult(s) and/or the student to carry out the intervention.
<i>Use math worksheet generator on <a href="http://www.interventioncentral.org">www.interventioncentral.org</a> to create all time-drill and assessment materials.</i>	<i>Meet with the student at least once before the intervention to familiarize with the time-drill technique and timed math computation assessments.</i>

Progress-Monitoring		
<b>What to Write:</b> Select a method to monitor student progress on this intervention. For the method selected, record what type of data is to be used, enter student baseline (starting-point) information, calculate an intervention outcome goal, and note how frequently you plan to monitor the intervention. Tip: Several ideas for classroom data collection appear on the right side of this table.		
Type of Data Used to Monitor: <i>Curriculum-based measurement: math computation assessments: 2 minute single-skill probes</i>		<u>Ideas for Intervention Progress-Monitoring</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Existing data: grades, homework logs, etc.</li> <li>Cumulative mastery log</li> <li>Rubric</li> <li>Curriculum-based measurement</li> <li>Behavior report card</li> <li>Behavior checklist</li> </ul>
Baseline	Outcome Goal	
<i>12 correct digits per 2 minute probe</i>	<i>24 correct digits per 2 minute probe</i>	
How often will data be collected? (e.g., daily, every other day, weekly): <i>WEEKLY</i>		

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

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

### Intervention-Related Terms & Definitions

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

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

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

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

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## Using Accommodations With General-Education Students: Teacher Guidelines

Classrooms in most schools look pretty much alike, with students sitting at rows of desks attending (more or less) to teacher instruction. But a teacher facing any class knows that behind that group of attentive student faces lies a kaleidoscope of differences in academic, social, self-management, and language skills. For example, recent national test results indicate that well over half of elementary and middle-school students have not yet attained proficiency in mathematics (NAEP, 2001a) or reading (NAEP 2011b). Furthermore, 1 in 10 students now attending American schools is an English Language Learner (Institute of Education Sciences, 2012) who must grapple with the complexities of language acquisition in addition to the demands of academic coursework.

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

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

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



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# How To: Improve Student Self-Management Through Work-Planning Skills: Plan, Work, Evaluate, Adjust

It is no surprise to teachers that, when students have poor work-planning skills, their academic performance often suffers. Work-planning is the student's ability to inventory a collection of related sub-tasks to be done, set specific outcome goals that signify success on each sub-task, allocate time sufficient to carry out each sub-task, evaluate actual work performance, and make necessary adjustments in future work-planning as needed ( Martin, Mithaug, Cox, Peterson, Van Dycke & Cash, 2003).. When students are deficient as work planners, the negative impact can be seen on in-class and homework assignments as well as on longer-term projects such as research papers. Teachers can develop students' work-planning skills by training them in a simple but effective sequence: to plan upcoming work, complete the work, evaluate their work performance, and adjust their future work plans based on experience ( Martin et al., 2003).

The vehicle for teachers to train students to develop strong work-planning skills is through conferencing: the teacher and student meet for a pre-work *planning* conference and then meet again after the work is completed at a *self-evaluation* conference. NOTE: The *Student Independent Work: Planning Tool* that appears later in this document is a graphic organizer that can be used to structure and record these 2-part teacher-student conferences.

## Phase 1: Work-Planning Conference

Before the student begins the assigned academic work, the teacher meets with the student to develop the work plan. (While the teacher often initially assumes a guiding role in the work-planning conference, the instructor gradually transfers responsibility for developing the plan to the student as that student's capacity for planning grows.)

There are 3 sections in the work-planning conference: (1) inventory the sub-tasks to be done, (2) assign an estimated time for completion, and (3) set a performance goal for each item on the task list:

1. *Inventory the sub-tasks to be done.* The student describes each academic task in clear and specific terms (e.g., "Complete first 10 problems on page 48 of math book", "write an outline from notes for history essay"). For this part of the work plan, the teacher may need to model for the student how to divide larger global assignments into component tasks.
2. *Assign an estimated time for completion.* The student decides how much time should be reserved to complete each task (e.g., For a math workbook assignment: "20 minutes" or "11:20 to 11:40"). Because students with limited planning skills can make unrealistic time projections for task completion, the teacher may need to provide additional guidance and modeling in time estimation during the first few planning sessions.
3. *Set a performance goal.* The student sets a performance goal to be achieved for each sub-task. Performance goals are dependent on the student and may reference the amount, accuracy, and/or qualitative ratings of the work: (e.g., for a reading assignment: "To read at least 5 pages from assigned text, and to take notes of the content"; for a math assignment: "At least 80% of problems correct"; for a writing assignment: "Rating of 4 or higher on class writing rubric"). The teacher can assist the student to set specific, achievable goals based on that student's current abilities and classroom curriculum expectations.



## Phase 2: Self-Evaluation Conference

When the work has been completed, the teacher and student meet again to evaluate the student's performance. There are 2 sections to this conference: (1) Compare the student's actual performance to the original student goal; and (2) adjust future expectations and performance in light of the experience gained from the recently completed work.

1. *Compare the student's actual performance to the original student goal.* For each sub-task on the plan, the student compares his or her actual work performance to the original performance goal and notes whether the goal was achieved. In addition to noting whether the performance goal was attained, the student evaluates whether the sub-task was completed within the time allocated.
2. *Adjust future expectations and performance.* For each sub-task that the student failed to reach the performance goal within the time allocated, the student reflects on the experience and decides what adjustments to make on future assignments. For example, a student reviewing a homework work-plan who discovers that she reserved insufficient time to complete math word problems may state that, in future, she should allocate at least 30 minutes for similar sub-tasks. Or a student who exceeds his performance goal of no more than 4 misspellings in a writing assignment may decide in future to keep a dictionary handy to check the spelling of questionable words before turning in writing assignments.

## References

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# Student Independent Work: Planning Tool

Student: \_\_\_\_\_ Teacher/Staff Member: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_/\_\_\_/\_\_\_

		Planning	Planning	Planning	Self-Evaluation	Self-Evaluation
	Date:	Sub-Task: Describe each assignment sub-task to be completed.	Time Allocated: Estimate the time required for this task. E.g., "20 mins"; "11:20-11:40"	Performance Goal: Write your goal for the amount, accuracy, and/or quality of work to be completed.	Actual Performance: After the assignment, record the amount, accuracy, and/or quality of the work <i>actually completed</i> .	Goal Met?: Did you achieve the goal within the time allocated?
1	___/___/___					<input type="checkbox"/> YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO
2	___/___/___					<input type="checkbox"/> YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO
3	___/___/___					<input type="checkbox"/> YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO
4	___/___/___					<input type="checkbox"/> YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO

**Adjustment:** Find any 'NO' responses in the Goal Met? column. In the space below, write the number of that goal and your plan to improve on that goal next time.

Number of Goal Not Met & Action Plan to Fix: \_\_\_\_\_

Number of Goal Not Met & Action Plan to Fix: \_\_\_\_\_

Number of Goal Not Met & Action Plan to Fix: \_\_\_\_\_



## How To: Help Students to Complete Missing Work: The Late-Work Teacher-Student Conference

When students fall behind in classwork and homework, they can quickly enter a downward spiral. They must stay caught up in their current assignments --but must also submit overdue assignments. As the work piles up, some students become overwhelmed and simply give up.

The reasons that students fall behind in assignments are many. Students who are just developing homework skills, for example, often need more time than peers to complete independent assignments, can find it challenging to focus their attention when working on their own, and may not have efficient study skills (Cooper & Valentine, 2001). To be sure, student procrastination and avoidance in work assignments is a widespread problem. And many students who fall behind in their work also develop a maladaptive, self-reinforcing pattern of escape-maintained behavior: as these students owe ever-increasing amounts of late work, they respond to the anxiety generated by that overhang of overdue assignments by actively avoiding that work. And thus the problem only grows worse (Hawkins & Axelrod, 2008).

When a student begins to slip in the completion and submission of assignments, the teacher can take steps proactively to interrupt this work-avoidant pattern of behavior by meeting with the student to create a plan to catch up with late work. (It is also recommended that the parent attend such a conference, although parent participation is not required.) In this 'late-work' conference, the teacher and student inventory what work is missing, negotiate a plan to complete that overdue work, and perhaps agree on a reasonable penalty for any late work turned in. Teacher, student (and parent, if attending) then sign off on the work plan. The teacher also ensures that the atmosphere at the meeting is supportive, rather than blaming, toward the student. And of course, any work plan hammered out at this meeting should seem attainable to the student.

Below in greater detail are the steps that the teacher and student would follow at a meeting to renegotiate missing work. (NOTE: Teachers can use the *Student Late-Work Planning Form: Middle & High School* that appears later in this document to organize and document these late-work conferences.):

1. *Inventory All Missing Work.* The teacher reviews with the student all late or missing work. The student is given the opportunity to explain why the work has not yet been submitted.
2. *Negotiate a Plan to Complete Missing Work.* The teacher and student create a log with entries for all of the missing assignments. Each entry includes a description of the missing assignment and a due date by which the student pledges to submit that work. This log becomes the student's work plan. It is important that the submission dates for late assignments be realistic--particularly for students who owe a considerable amount of late work and are also trying to keep caught up with current assignments. A teacher and student may agree, for example, that the student will have two weeks to complete and submit four late writing assignments. NOTE: Review the *Student Late-Work Planning Form* that appears later in this handout as a tool to organize and document the student's work plan.
3. *[Optional] Impose a Penalty for Missing Work.* The teacher may decide to impose a penalty for the work being submitted late. Examples of possible penalties are a reduction of points (e.g., loss of 10 points per assignment) or the requirement that the student do additional work on the assignment than was required of his or her peers who turned it in on time. If imposed, such penalties would be spelled out at this teacher-student conference. If penalties are given, they should be balanced and fair, permitting the teacher to impose appropriate



consequences while allowing the student to still see a path to completing the missing work and passing the course.

4. *Periodically Check on the Status of the Missing-Work Plan.* If the schedule agreed upon by teacher and student to complete and submit all late work exceeds two weeks, the teacher (or other designated school contact, such as a counselor) should meet with the student weekly while the plan is in effect. At these meetings, the teacher checks in with the student to verify that he or she is attaining the plan milestones on time and still expects to meet the submission deadlines agreed upon. If obstacles to emerge, the teacher and student engage in problem-solving to resolve them.

## References

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# Student Late-Work Planning Form: Middle & High School

Teacher: \_\_\_\_\_ Course: \_\_\_\_\_

Student: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_

Directions: At a teacher-student conference, use this form to create a plan for the student to complete and submit missing or late work.

Assignment	Target Date for Completion	NOTES

What penalty--if any--will be imposed for these late assignments? \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
Student Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Teacher Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Parent Signature



## How To: Build Vocabulary Knowledge through Classwide Tutoring

In academic content areas such as mathematics or the sciences, students must rapidly become familiar with specialized vocabulary terms that either are not encountered often in everyday situations or are used in unfamiliar ways (Adams, 2003). Further complicating this situation is the fact that there are different levels of 'knowing' a word. A student who masters a science term, for example, may pass successively through these following stages: (1) the term is completely unknown; (2) the student vaguely recognizes the term; (3) the student can provide a formal definition of the term; (4) the student can independently use the term flexibly and correctly in various applied oral and written contexts (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002). According to one estimate, a student typically needs at least 12--and perhaps as many as 17--exposures to a vocabulary term before he or she is able to fully assimilate and use it (Kamil, Borman, Dole, Kral, Salinger, & Torgesen, 2008).

Classwide vocabulary tutoring with constant time delay (Hughes & Fredrick, 2006) is an economical approach that teachers can employ to give a small or large student group repeated exposure to low-incidence, specialized academic vocabulary. In this intervention, students use flash-cards to tutor each other in vocabulary of the teacher's choosing. This explicit drill of terms and matching definitions accelerates students' movement through the stages of vocabulary acquisition and primes them to understand targeted vocabulary in large- and small-group discussions as well as on assignments. The directions outlined here for implementing a classwide vocabulary tutoring program are adapted from Hughes & Fredrick, 2006.

### Preparation.

Prior to each tutoring session, the teacher ensures that the following materials are prepared or available for each tutor-pair:

- Folder with pockets to hold tutoring materials
- 5 vocabulary flash-cards, with terms written on one side and definitions written on the other. New vocabulary cards are prepared for each tutoring session. TIP: To save time, the teacher may display terms and definitions on an overhead and have students copy them on flash-cards.
- *Vocabulary Tutoring Student Checklist*: 1 copy to be used for the duration of the tutoring program: This checklist is a review tool for the tutor. It briefly outlines the non-negotiable steps for tutoring a peer.
- *Vocabulary Tutoring: Session Form*: 2 copies that are replaced after each session. The tutee and tutor use this form to record their responses during tutoring.
- *Vocabulary Tutoring: Tracking Form*: 1 copy to be used for the duration of the tutoring program: This form is used to record each tutee's percentage of correctly defined vocabulary terms across tutoring sessions.

Prior to starting the tutoring program the teacher matches students in tutoring pairs:

- The teacher first reviews the class or group list and rank-orders students in descending order by their perceived vocabulary knowledge or reading skills.
- The teacher then puts the names of students from the top half of the class/group into one container and the names of the students from the bottom half into another container.
- Finally, the teacher creates each tutoring pair by drawing one name each from the top-half and bottom-half containers, continuing the process until all names are drawn. These student pairings are recorded on the *Vocabulary Tutoring: Student-Pair Assignments* form. NOTE: If there is an odd number of students in the class/group, one tutoring 'trio' can be made up of 3 students. A student from this trio can be temporarily assigned to work with another student in the class as needed to cover absences.

**Training.** During several short sessions, the teacher trains students to work together as vocabulary tutors. The teacher has students sit with their assigned tutoring partners. Each tutoring pair has a work folder with all tutoring materials.



To introduce the sequence of tutoring procedures, the teacher sits with another adult or cooperative student and conducts a mock tutoring session. (The steps that tutors follow are outlined in the *Vocabulary Tutoring Student Checklist* that appears elsewhere in this document). The person role-playing the tutee deliberately makes several mistakes to allow the person role-playing the tutor to demonstrate how to handle and record student errors. The teacher then has the student pairs conduct several short tutoring sessions, circulating and providing feedback to each pair. During these practice sessions, students in each pair alternate between tutor and tutee roles. When in the teacher's judgment, the student pairs understand all tutoring procedures (usually after 2 practice sessions), the tutoring program can begin.

**Procedures.** Whenever the teacher uses the classwide vocabulary tutoring program, these steps are followed:

1. *Introduce the Day's Vocabulary Terms.* In large-group, the teacher displays on an overhead the terms and corresponding definitions for each of the 5 vocabulary items to be the focus of the day's tutoring session. The teacher reads aloud each term and definition twice. The teacher then has the class chorally respond by reading each term and definition aloud twice.
2. *Review Essential Tutoring Steps.* The teacher reminds students of the essential steps of the tutoring program--using the format outlined on the *Vocabulary Tutoring Student Checklist* form. NOTE: This review step can be shortened when--in the teacher's judgment--the students clearly know and can reliably follow the correct procedures in their tutoring pairs.
3. *Begin the Tutoring Session.* The teacher directs students to get their tutoring folders and join their tutoring partners. The teacher sets an audio or visual timer for 4 minutes and directs the students to decide which roles (tutor, tutee) each will take at the outset and to begin tutoring. NOTE: The steps that the students follow during the tutoring session are outlined on the attached *Vocabulary Tutoring Student Checklist*.
4. *Conduct Integrity Checks.* While students are engaged in tutoring, the teacher circulates throughout the room using the *Vocabulary Tutoring Student Checklist* to conduct integrity checks of the tutoring and to intervene if needed with tutoring pairs.
5. *Prompt Tutors to Record Data.* When the session-timer has expired, the teacher prompts tutors to tally their tutee's performance on the daily *Vocabulary Tutoring: Session Form* and copy the 'Percent Vocabulary Words Correct' on the *Vocabulary Tutoring: Tracking Form*.
6. *Have Students Switch Roles and Repeat.* The teacher tells students to switch tutor and tutee roles. The teacher then starts the timer and repeats steps 3-5.

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<b>Vocabulary Tutoring Student Checklist</b> (Adapted from Hughes & Fredrick, 2006).	
Students Directions: Use this checklist to remember these important steps as you tutor your student partner.	
<i>Carried Out?</i>	<i>Intervention Step</i>
_Y _N	1. <b>Quickly Start the Session.</b> When the teacher starts the timer, I begin the tutoring session right away.
_Y _N	2. <b>Present Cards: 0-Second Time Delay.</b> The first time that I review the stack of 5 vocabulary cards, I read each definition aloud and then immediately say the vocabulary word on the back of the card that goes with the definition ('0-second time delay').
_Y _N	3. <b>Present Cards: 5-Second Time Delay.</b> For the rest of the session, when I present the stack of vocabulary cards, I read each definition aloud and then count silently to 5 ("1-banana...2 banana...") before giving the matching vocabulary word ('5-second time delay').
_Y _N	4. <b>Tutee Responds.</b> Whenever I read a vocabulary definition from a card (0-second delay or 5-second delay), I make sure that my student partner writes their vocabulary-word answers in the correct space in the LEFT ('Tutee') column on the <i>Vocabulary Tutoring: Session Form</i> .
_Y _N	5. <b>Give Performance Feedback.</b> Whenever the student I am tutoring writes the <i>correct</i> answer, I say, "Yes, the word [word] means [definition]." Then I go to the next flash-card.  Whenever the student I am tutoring either writes an <i>incorrect</i> answer or takes 5 seconds or longer to write an answer: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I say "No/sorry/nice try, the word [word] means [definition]."</li> <li>• I draw a line through the space in the LEFT ('Tutee') column on the <i>Vocabulary Tutoring: Session Form</i> where my partner is supposed to write a vocabulary word.</li> <li>• I write the right vocabulary word in the correct space in the RIGHT ('Tutor') column on the <i>Vocabulary Tutoring: Session Form</i>.</li> <li>• Then I go to the next flash-card.</li> </ul>
_Y _N	6. <b>Shuffle Cards.</b> Each time I finish reviewing the stack of vocabulary cards, I shuffle the cards before I show them again to my partner.
_Y _N	7. <b>Work Until End of Session.</b> I go on presenting vocabulary cards to my partner until I have gone through the stack 4 times or we run out of time.
_Y _N	8. <b>Record Tutee Responses.</b> At the end of the session:



- |  |  |
|--|--|
|  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• I count up all of my partner's correct answers in the left ('Tutee') column on the <i>Vocabulary Tutoring: Session Form</i> and write the amount in the blank at the bottom of the page.</li><li>• Then I count up all of my partner's incorrect (crossed-out) answers in the left ('Tutee') column on the <i>Vocabulary Tutoring: Session Form</i> and write the amount in the blank at the bottom of the page.</li><li>• Finally, I calculate the percentage of correct responses and write that figure and the current date on the <i>Vocabulary Tutoring: Tracking Form</i>.</li></ul> |
|--|--|

Hughes, T. A., & Fredrick, L. D. (2006). Teaching vocabulary with students with learning disabilities using classwide peer tutoring and constant time delay. *Journal of Behavioral Education, 15*(1), 1-23.



Vocabulary Tutoring: Student-Pair Assignments					
Class/Grade: _____		Date: _____		Teacher(s): _____	
<b>1</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____	<b>11</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____		
<b>2</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____	<b>12</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____		
<b>3</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____	<b>13</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____		
<b>4</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____	<b>14</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____		
<b>5</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____	<b>15</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____		
<b>6</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____	<b>16</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____		
<b>7</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____	<b>17</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____		
<b>8</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____	<b>18</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____		
<b>9</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____	<b>19</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____		
<b>10</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____	<b>20</b>	Student 1: _____ Student 2: _____		



Vocabulary Tutoring: Session Form		Date: _____
Tutee: _____	Tutor: _____	
1. _____	1. _____	
2. _____	2. _____	
3. _____	3. _____	
4. _____	4. _____	
5. _____	5. _____	
1. _____	1. _____	
2. _____	2. _____	
3. _____	3. _____	
4. _____	4. _____	
5. _____	5. _____	
1. _____	1. _____	
2. _____	2. _____	
3. _____	3. _____	
4. _____	4. _____	
5. _____	5. _____	
1. _____	1. _____	
2. _____	2. _____	
3. _____	3. _____	
4. _____	4. _____	
5. _____	5. _____	
<b>Total Vocabulary Words Correct:</b> _____	<b>Total Vocabulary Words Incorrect (Words Crossed Out in Left Column):</b> _____	
<b>Percent Vocabulary Words Correct:</b> _____% Percent Correct is calculated as follows: (1) Total Correct ÷ (Total Correct + Total Incorrect); (2) Quotient is multiplied by 100.		





## 'Catalytic Comments': 10 Teacher Communication Strategies to Nudge Student Behaviors in the Right Direction

Teacher verbal communication has the potential to be a powerful positive shaper of student behaviors. Here are 10 communication strategies that can nudge students to make better behavioral choices.

<b>1</b>	<p><b>Praise: Acknowledging and shaping desired behaviors.</b> (Kern &amp; Clemens, 2007)</p> <p>To increase desired behavior, the teacher praises the student in clear, specific terms--and at a rate sufficient to motivate and guide the student toward the behavioral goal: (1) The teacher selects the specific desired behavior(s) to encourage through praise; (2) The teacher sets a goal for how frequently to deliver praise (e.g., to praise a student at least 3 times per class period for working on in-class assignments). (3) The teacher makes sure that any praise statements given are behavior-specific.</p>
<b>2</b>	<p><b>Using teacher greetings to increase academic engagement.</b> (Allday &amp; Pakurar, 2007)</p> <p>A personalized greeting at the start of a class period can boost class levels of academic engagement. The teacher spends a few seconds greeting each student by name at the classroom door at the beginning of class.</p>
<b>3</b>	<p><b>Emphasizing the positive in teacher requests.</b> ( Braithwaite, 2001)</p> <p>When an instructor's request has a positive 'spin', that teacher is less likely to trigger a power struggle and more likely to gain student compliance. Whenever possible, the teacher avoids using negative phrasing (e.g., "If you don't return to your seat, I can't help you with your assignment"). Instead, the teacher restates requests in positive terms (e.g., "I will be over to help you on the assignment just as soon as you return to your seat").</p>
<b>4</b>	<p><b>Using teacher commands that promote classroom control.</b> (Kern &amp; Clemens, 2007; Walker &amp; Walker, 1991)</p> <p>Teacher commands play an important role in classroom behavior management. Teacher commands are most likely to elicit student compliance when they (1) are delivered calmly, (2) are brief, (3) are stated when possible as DO statements rather than as DON'T statements, (4) use clear, simple language, and (5) are delivered one command at a time and appropriately paced to avoid confusing or overloading students. Effective teacher commands avoid both sarcasm or hostility and over-lengthy explanations that</p>



	can distract or confuse students.
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<b>5</b>	<b>Pre-correction: Giving a timely reminder.</b> ( De Pry & Sugai, 2002)
	Pre-corrections are a simple means of keeping students mindful of behavioral expectations just before they encounter situations in which they are most likely to show problem behaviors. Here is a 4-step process for using pre-corrections: (1) The teacher defines the student problem behavior(s) and identifies situations where the problem behavior(s) occur; (2) The teacher meets with the student to share information about that student's problem behaviors and the related situations or settings where they occur; (3) Teacher and student next come up with expected or acceptable replacement behaviors for the student to display in those situations; (4) Whenever the student is about to enter a problematic setting or situation, the teacher delivers a brief pre-correction--a timely behavioral reminder to follow the behavioral rule or expectation.

<b>6</b>	<b>Maintain a high rate of positive interactions: 3 positives for every negative.</b> (Sprick, Borgmeier, & Nolet, 2002)
	Teachers can increase the odds of building a positive relationship with any student by maintaining a ratio of at least three positive teacher-student interactions (e.g., greeting, positive conversation, high-five) for every negative (disciplinary) interaction (e.g., reprimand).

<b>7</b>	<b>Pairing criticism with affirming statements.</b> (Thompson & Jenkins, 1993)
	In a private conference: (1) The teacher describes the problem behavior that the student should target for change; (2) The teacher describes (or encourages the student to brainstorm) appropriate behavioral alternatives; (3) The teacher praises some noteworthy aspect of the student's past classroom behavior or accomplishments, and finally (4) The teacher affirms that he or she values having the student as a part of the classroom community.

<b>8</b>	<b>Saying 'no' with preferred alternative.</b> ( Mace, Pratt, Prager, & Pritchard, 2011)
	This strategy can reduce the non-compliance and acting-out of students who react negatively to being told that they cannot engage in a preferred activity or access a desired item. First, the teacher creates a list of those activities or items preferred by the student that can actually be provided. Then, whenever the student requests an unavailable activity or item, the teacher structures the 'no' statement as follows: (1) The teacher states that the student cannot engage in the requested activity or have the desired item; (2) The teacher provides the student with an explanation for why the preferred activity or item is not



	available; (3) The teacher offers the student an alternative preferred activity or item in place of that originally requested.
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<b>9</b>	<b>Using 2-part choice statements: Clear consequences for misbehavior.</b> ( Walker, 1997)
	The teacher frames requests to uncooperative students as a two-part 'choice' statement: (1) The teacher presents the negative, or non-compliant, choice and its consequences (e.g., if a seatwork assignment is not completed in class, the student must stay after school); (2) The teacher next states the positive behavioral choice that the student is encouraged to select (e.g., the student can complete the seatwork assignment within the allotted work time and not stay after school).

<b>10</b>	<b>'Two by ten': Establishing positive teacher-student interactions.</b> ( Mendler, 2000)
	This strategy ('non-contingent teacher attention') can be helpful with students who lack a positive connection with the teacher. The instructor makes a commitment to spend 2 minutes per day for ten consecutive days ('two-by-ten') engaging the student in a positive conversation about topics of interest to that student. NOTE: During those two-minute daily conversations, the teacher maintains a positive tone and avoids talking about the student's problem behaviors or poor academic performance.

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## Sentence Combining: Teaching Rules of Sentence Structure by Doing

Students with poor writing skills often write sentences that lack 'syntactic maturity' (Robinson & Howell, 2008). That is, these writers' sentences often follow a simple, stereotyped format. In public schools, grammar skills have traditionally been taught in isolation to give students the advanced writing knowledge required to master a diverse range of sentence structures. However, isolated grammar instruction appears to have little or no positive impact in helping poor writers become better writers (Graham & Perin, 2007). A promising alternative is to use sentence combining (Graham & Perin, 2007; Strong, 1986). In this approach, students are presented with kernel sentences and given explicit instruction in how to weld these kernel sentences into more diverse sentence types either by using connecting words to combine multiple sentences into one or by isolating key information from an otherwise superfluous sentence and embedding that important information into the base sentence.

In a simple demonstration of sentence combining, a student may generate these two sentences in her composition on the American Revolution: *The American army had few supplies in the winter of 1776. The American army had few trained military leaders.*

The instructor might meet with the student and have the student recopy the two sentences in this format:

The American army had few supplies in the winter of 1776.  
The American army had few trained military leaders. (and)

The student would be encouraged to combine the two shorter sentences into a more comprehensive sentence by using the connecting word (coordinating conjunction) 'and' to combine objects: *The American army had few supplies and few trained military leaders in the winter of 1776.*

### Formatting Sentence Combining Examples

These simple formatting conventions are used in sentence-combining exercises (Saddler, 2005; Strong, 1986):

- In each example, the base clause (sentence) appears first. Any sentence(s) to be combined or embedded with the base clause appear below that base clause.

Example: **Base clause:** The dog ran after the bus.  
**Sentence to be embedded:** The dog is yellow.  
**Student-generated solution:** *The yellow dog ran after the bus.*

- 'Connecting words' to be used as a sentence-combining tool appear in parentheses at the end of a sentence that is to be combined with the base clause.

Example: **Base clause:** The car stalled.  
**Sentence to be combined:** The car ran out of gas. (because)  
**Student-generated solution:** *The car stalled because it ran out of gas.*

- The element(s) of any sentence to be embedded in the base clause are underlined.

Example: **Base clause:** The economic forecast resulted in strong stock market gains.

**Sentence to be embedded:** The economic forecast was upbeat.

**Student-generated solution:** *The upbeat economic forecast resulted in strong stock market gains.*

### Using Sentence Combining in Instruction

Teachers who use sentence combining in their writing instruction should follow a direct-instruction approach (Saddler, 2005). The instructor fosters a learning atmosphere that encourages students to take risks when participating in sentence-combining activities. When first introducing sentence-combining to the class, the instructor explains that using varied sentence structures helps writers to better convey meaning. The instructor tells students that there are often multiple correct ways to combine sentences. The instructor completes several sentence-combining examples in front of the group, using a think-aloud approach to show his or her thinking process in successfully combining sentences. Students should then complete sentence-combining examples in pairs or groups, with the instructor circulating through the class to check for student understanding. Eventually, students work independently on sentence combining tasks to demonstrate mastery. They may then be asked to look in their own writing for examples in which they could combine sentences to improve

A listing of types and examples of sentence-combining appears below in Table 1. When creating lessons on sentence combining, instructors should review the potential types of sentence-combining in Table 1 and decide the order in which those types might be presented to their class.

Type of Sentence	Sentence Combining Example
<p><b>Multiple (Compound) Sentence Subjects or Objects:</b></p> <p>Two or more subjects can be combined with a conjunction (e.g., <i>or</i>, <i>and</i>).</p> <p>Two or more direct or indirect objects can be combined with a conjunction (e.g., <i>or</i>, <i>and</i>).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Skyscrapers in the city were damaged in the hurricane. <u>Bridges</u> in the city were damaged in the hurricane. <i>Skyscrapers and bridges in the city were damaged in the hurricane.</i></li> <li>• When they travel, migratory birds need safe habitat. When they travel, migratory birds need <u>regular supplies of food</u>. <i>When they travel, migratory birds need safe habitat and regular supplies of food.</i></li> </ul>
<p><b>Adjectives &amp; Adverbs:</b> When a sentence simply contains an adjective or adverb that modifies the noun or verb of another sentence, the adjective or adverb from the first sentence can be embedded in the related sentence.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dry regions are at risk for chronic water shortages. <u>Overpopulated</u> regions are at risk for chronic water shortages. <i>Dry and overpopulated regions are at risk for chronic water shortages.</i></li> <li>• Health care costs have risen nationwide. Those health care costs have risen <u>quickly</u>. <i>Health care costs have risen quickly nationwide.</i></li> </ul>

<p><b>Connecting Words:</b> One or more sentences are combined with connecting words.</p> <p>Coordinating conjunctions (e.g., <i>and, but</i>) link sentences on an equal basis.</p> <p>Subordinating conjunctions (e.g., <i>after, until, unless, before, while, because</i>) link sentences with one of the sentences subordinate or dependent on the other.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The house was falling apart. No one seemed to care. (but) <i>The house was falling apart, but no one seemed to care.</i></li> <li>• The glaciers began to melt. The earth's average temperature increased. (because) <i>The glaciers began to melt because the earth's average temperature increased.</i></li> </ul>
<p><b>Relative Clauses:</b> Sentence contains an embedded, subordinate clause that modifies a noun.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The artist was the most popular in the city. The artist painted watercolors of sunsets. (who) <i>The artist who painted watercolors of sunsets was the most popular in the city.</i></li> </ul>
<p><b>Appositives:</b> Sentence contains two noun phrases that refer to the same object. When two sentences refer to the same noun, one sentence be reduced to an appositive and embedded in the other sentence.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The explorer paddled the kayak across the raging river. The explorer was <u>an expert in handling boats</u>.  <i>The explorer, an expert in handling boats, paddled the kayak across the raging river.</i></li> </ul>
<p><b>Possessive Nouns:</b> A sentence that describes possession or ownership can be reduced to a possessive noun and embedded in another sentence.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Some historians view the Louisiana Purchase as the most important expansion of United States territory. The Louisiana Purchase was <u>President Jefferson's</u> achievement.  <i>Some historians view President Jefferson's Louisiana Purchase as the most important expansion of United States territory.</i></li> </ul>

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## Helping Teachers to Plan, Implement, and Measure Tier 1 (Classroom) Interventions

**Planning Sheet:** Use this sheet to plan your next steps to build support for Tier 1 interventions in your school.

Participants: \_\_\_\_\_

School: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

<b>GOAL 1: Provide Teachers With Intervention 'Big Ideas'.</b> Teachers will be stronger interventionists if they can define intervention-related terms, know elements of explicit instruction, and understand a student's stage of learning.	
List the 'next steps' that you plan to follow to accomplish this goal:	Who in your school or district will you need to enlist to help you with this goal?:
1. _____	1. _____
2. _____	2. _____
3. _____	What resources will you need beyond those supplied in this training to accomplish the goal?
4. _____	
5. _____	
Additional Notes: _____	
_____	
_____	

<b>GOAL 2: Make Available Intervention Menus and Related Resources.</b> Teachers' success with Tier 1 interventions will increase if they have intervention and accommodation ideas readily at their fingertips when needed.	
List the 'next steps' that you plan to follow to accomplish this goal:	Who in your school or district will you need to enlist to help you with this goal?:
1. _____	1. _____
2. _____	2. _____
3. _____	What resources will you need beyond those supplied in this training to accomplish the goal?
4. _____	
5. _____	
Additional Notes: _____	
_____	
_____	

<p><b>GOAL 3: Provide Tools and Examples of Tier 1 Progress-Monitoring.</b> Classroom interventions must be monitored to judge whether they are successful. Schools can provide such progress-monitoring tools to teachers.</p>	
<p>List the 'next steps' that you plan to follow to accomplish this goal:</p> <p>1. _____</p> <p>2. _____</p> <p>3. _____</p> <p>4. _____</p> <p>5. _____</p>	<p>Who in your school or district will you need to enlist to help you with this goal?:</p> <p>1. _____</p> <p>2. _____</p> <p>What resources will you need beyond those supplied in this training to accomplish the goal?</p> <p>1. _____</p> <p>2. _____</p>
<p>Additional Notes: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	

<p><b>GOAL 4: Organize School-Wide Resources and Create Minimum Guidelines to Support Tier 1 Interventions.</b> Tier 1 interventions benefit from resources from beyond the classroom, such as consultants and materials.</p>	
<p>List the 'next steps' that you plan to follow to accomplish this goal:</p> <p>1. _____</p> <p>2. _____</p> <p>3. _____</p> <p>4. _____</p> <p>5. _____</p>	<p>Who in your school or district will you need to enlist to help you with this goal?:</p> <p>1. _____</p> <p>2. _____</p> <p>What resources will you need beyond those supplied in this training to accomplish the goal?</p> <p>1. _____</p> <p>2. _____</p>
<p>Additional Notes: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	